

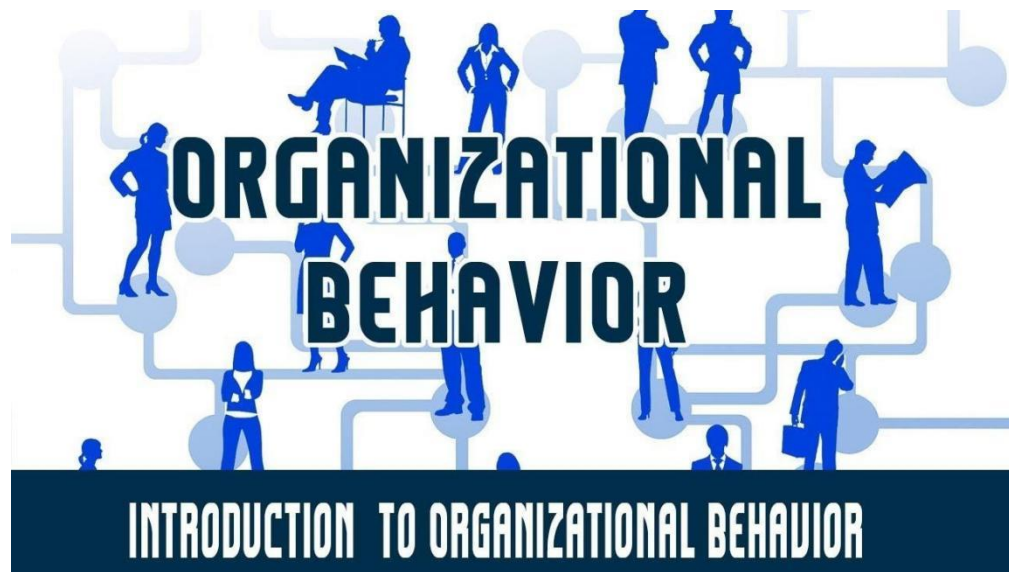


Syllabus
Class-BBA 1st Year
Subject – Organizational Behavior

Unit	Contents
UNIT – I	INTRODUCTION : Concept of Organizational Behavior (OB): Management roles, skills and activities: Disciplines that contribute to OB; Opportunities for OB (Globalization, Indian workforce diversity, customer service, innovation and change, networked organizations, work-life balance, people skills, positive work environment, ethics)
UNIT – II	INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR: 1. Learning, attitude and Job satisfaction: Concept of learning, conditioning, shaping and reinforcement. Concept of attitude, components, behavior and attitude. Job satisfaction: causation; impact of satisfied employees on workplace. 2. Motivation : Concept; Theories (Hierarchy of needs, X and Y, Two factor, McClelland, Goal setting, Self-efficacy, Equity theory); Job characteristics model; Redesigning job and work arrangements; Employee involvement; Flexible benefits, Personality and Values : Concept of personality; Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI); Big Five model. Relevance of values; Indian values; Linking personality and values to the workplace (person-job fit, person-organization fit) 4. Perception, Decision Making and Emotions : Perception and Judgements; Factors; Linking perception to individual decision making; Decision making in organizations, Ethics in decision making. Emotional labour; Emotional Intelligence.
UNIT – III	GROUP BEHAVIOUR : 1. Groups and Work Teams : Concept : Five Stage model of group development; Group think and shift ; Indian perspective on group norms. Group and teams; Types of teams; Creating team players from individuals building and team based work(TBW) 2. Leadership : Concept; Trait theories; Behavioral theories (Ohio and Michigan studies); Contingency theories (Fiedler, Hersey and Blanchard, Path-Goal); Authentic leadership; Mentoring, self-leadership, online leadership: Inspirational Approaches (transformational, charismatic): Comparison of Indian leadership styles with other countries. Exercises, games and role plays may be conducted to develop team and leadership skills.
UNIT – IV	ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND STRUCTURE : Concept of culture; Impact (functions and liability); Creating and sustaining culture: Employees and culture: Creating positive and ethical cultures, Concept of structure, Prevalent organizational designs: New design options.
UNIT – V	ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE, CONFLICT AND POWER: Forces of change; Planned change; Resistance; Approaches (Lewin's model, Organisational development); Learning organization; Organisational change in Indian businesses. Concept of conflict; Traditional view and interactionists view of conflict; Conflict process; Functional/ Dysfunctional. Introduction to power and politics.



UNIT - I



Meaning of Organization

Organization may be defined as the group/ collection or a gathering of people for achieving a common purpose, goal or objective in a proper cohesive and well defined manner.

Meaning of Behavior

It is the way in which one acts or conducts oneself, especially toward others.

Meaning & definition of Organizational Behavior

Organizational behavior is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction and control of human behavior in organizations. It is an area of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behavior within organizations.

“Organizational behavior is a subset of management activities concerned with understanding, predicting and influencing individual behavior in organizational setting.” –

Challahan, Fleenor and Kudson

“Organizational behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within an organization. It is a human tool for human benefit. It applies broadly to the behavior of people in all types of organization.” –

Newstrom and Davis

“Organizational behavior is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behavior within the organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization’s effectiveness.” –

Stephens P. Robbins



Characteristics of OB

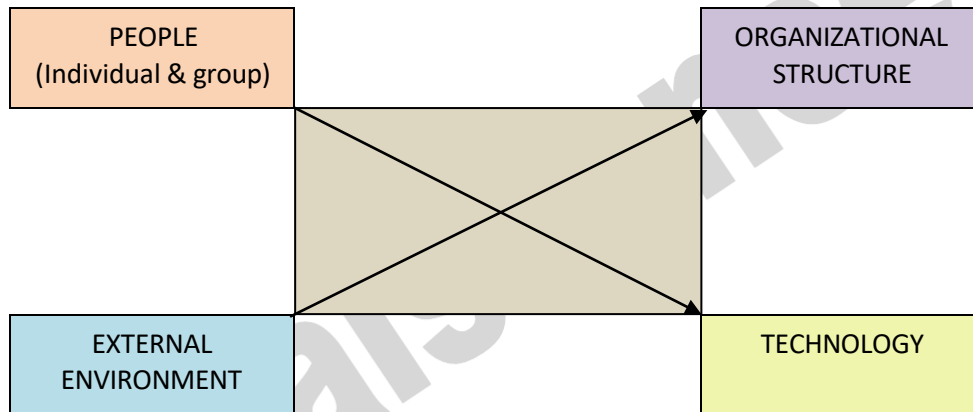


1. **Behavioral Approach to Management** – OB is a behavioral approach to management. It is a part of management related with analyzing behavior of human beings in group & organization. It is a distinct field of study.
2. **Science as well as Art** – OB is both science and art. It is a systematic body of knowledge about human behavior so it is considered as science. As an art, the knowledge of OB is applied to improve organizational effectiveness.
3. **Human tool** – Organizational behavior is a tool for human benefit which helps the manager in various areas. It also provides the education needed for creative thinking to avoid and solve human problems in organizations.
4. **Action & goal oriented** – OB is a goal directed discipline that studies human behavior and explain it in organizational context as well as helps in taking proper action to mould that individual behavior towards the goal achievement of organization.
5. **Commonality of Interest** – OB helps in providing commonality of interest between individual goals and organizational goals& objectives. It provides common goals that unite the variety of individual interests with the interest of organization.
6. **Holistic Concept** – OB is a holistic concept which relates people, groups, and whole organization as a system. It gives a broad view of people in organization and studies many factors that influence their behavior. It includes various dimensions, thus gives a broad view of human related issues & problems.
7. **Integrating Approach** – OB is an integrating approach of human, technical and ethical values at work which draws knowledge from various disciplines such as anthropology, Psychology, Law, Sociology, Economics, IT Political Science, engineering etc.
8. **Cause and Effect Relationship** – Human behavior is generally taken in terms of cause and effect relationship and not in philosophical terms. It helps in predicting the behavior of individuals. It provides generalizations that managers can use to anticipate the effect of certain activities on human behavior.



9. **Organizational Behavior is a Branch of Social Sciences** –Organizational behavior is heavily influenced by several other social sciences viz. psychology, sociology and anthropology. It draws a rich array of research from these disciplines.

Elements of OB



People as an Individual: The most important element of OB. OB studies the behaviour of individual in a group as well as in the organization. It briefs about various factors influencing the behavior and their effects on organization.

People as in Group: Group can be formal, informal, small, large, official, and unofficial in nature. Group is dynamic ever changing in nature.

Organization structure: OB establishes various post & positions for people in organization & thus creates a professional relationship in between them.

Technology: Use of technology also influences human behavior.

External environment: Organization is a part of broader external environment. Environment affects the organization through technological or scientific developed, social, cultural and Govt. actions.

Areas of Organizational Behavior–

1. **Behavior of People in organization** – OB includes study of behavior of individuals in organizational settings. It includes-
 - Attitudes and values
 - Perception, cognition & learning
 - Personality & motivation
 - Leadership & Power
2. **Organizational Structure** – OB studies the organizational structure as to how people are organized or arranged to achieve organizational goals. It includes –
 - Task identification
 - Departmentation
 - Co-ordination & control mechanism
 - Process & Procedures of promoting, hiring, compensation
 - Organization Size
 - Authority for decision making
3. **Behavior of Organization** – OB not only studies the interaction of individuals within the organization but it also study the interaction of organization into its environment i.e., organizations behavior with external actors by following methods –
 - a. Adoption of new Practices such as –
 - Down sizing
 - Team based structure
 - Re-engineering



- b. Adoption to changing conditions –
- Global competition
 - Increasing technological use
 - Changing social structure (status of women, disabled, ethnic group)



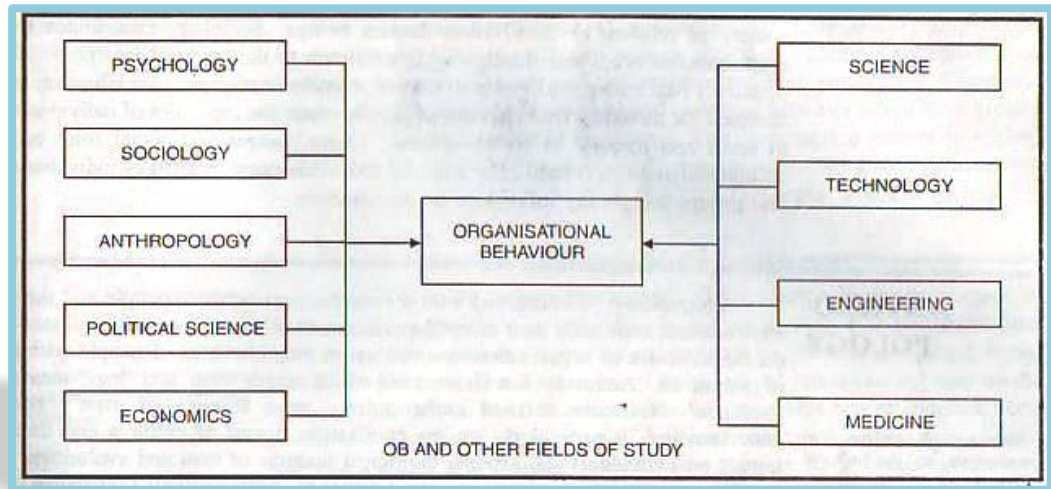
Importance of OB

1. OB provides a road map to individuals in organization. It helps people to understand their behavior and its impact while working in organization.
2. OB helps a manager to motivate his subordinates regularly as it helps the manager understand the basis of motivation and what he should do to motivate others.
3. Understanding of OB is useful to maintain cordial industrial relations.
4. OB helps an individual in maintaining good intrapersonal & interpersonal relations.
5. OB helps in influencing organizational events by understanding the organizational culture & behavior appropriately and effectively to influence the environment they live in. For ex: how to communicate effectively, managing conflicts, better decision making, more effective team work and team dynamics.

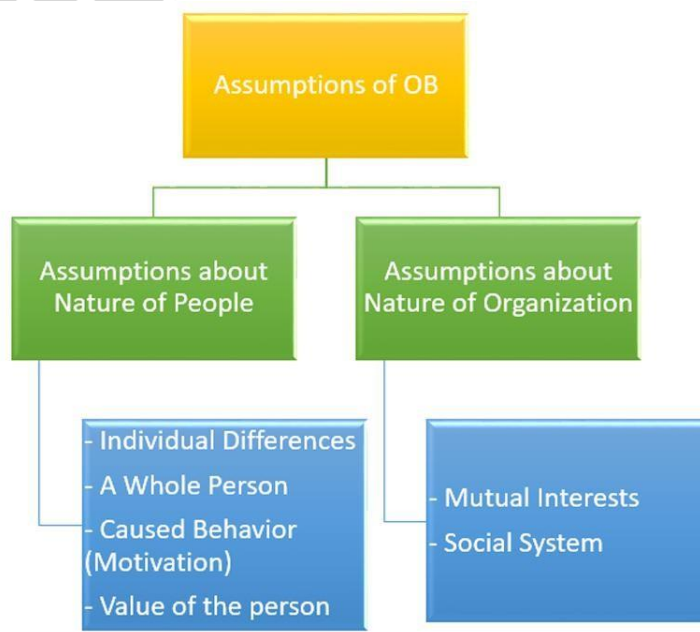
Disciplines of OB

Organizational behavior is an applied behavioural science which is drawn from no. of behavioural disciplines like

1. **Psychology:** Psychology is the study including understanding of human mind and thinking and the behavioural aspects based on such thinking. Psychology tries to measure, explain, at times even modify, the behaviour of human beings. It includes personality, perception, learning, motivation, attitude etc.
 2. **Sociology:** Sociology addresses the study of group behaviours. It studies the behaviour of the people among the fellow human beings in a group. It studies how much people are socially active. It includes group dynamics, communication, leadership, conflict management, formal and informal organizations etc.
 3. **Anthropology:** It is the study of human culture, its history and evaluation. It deals with the development of human values, systems, norms, sentiments etc. It also studies the impact of organizational culture on the behaviour of employees.
- Besides these three, there are some other disciplines such as social psychology, law, economics, practical science, engineering etc which also contribute to OB.



Foundation/Assumptions of OB



1. **Individual differences:** Each individual differs from the other in different ways like intelligence, physique, personality, thinking, behaviour etc and organization has to follow different styles to deal with them and get the work done. OB begins with individual and studying their distinct behaviour.
2. **A Whole Person:** OB is based on the concept that when a person is appointed, not only his/her skills are not hired but their social background, likes, dislikes, pride etc, are also hired. Thus, OB takes into account the individual as a whole.
3. **Caused Behaviour:** OB lays on the concept that behaviour of individuals towards any other person, thing or a situation which is caused due to some reason. Behaviour of the employee depends on his/ her thinking towards the situation as right or wrong.
4. **Human dignity:** This concept is based on ethical philosophy- at treating human beings differently from other factors of production with complete respect in humanity & dignity and not as the economic tool.



5. **Organizations are social systems:** OB treats organizations as the social system having both psychological & social needs. Two types of social system exist in organizations- formal and informal social system. Organization environment is dynamic in nature with all the parts of system being interdependent & influenced with each other.

Approaches to study OB

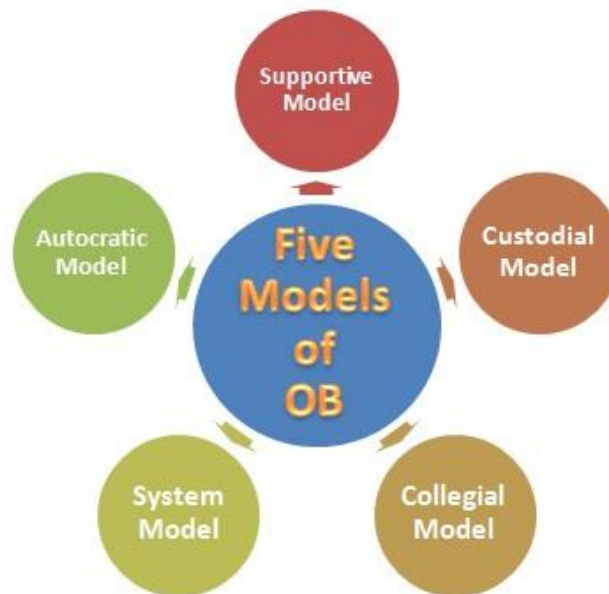
Approaches to Organizational Behavior Studies



1. **Human Resources Approach:** This approach recognizes the fact that human resource is the central and most important resources of any organization and should be developed towards high competency, creativity so that they can contribute to the success of the organization. This approach is also called supportive approach.
2. **Contingency Approach:** This approach assumes that there is no best way available in any organizational situation and each situation is contingent or influenced by many other variables. Appropriate managerial action on any situation depends on various elements related to that situation.
3. **Systems Approach:** Systems approach views OB as a system of which all its parts or activities as interrelated.
4. **Productivity approach:** Productivity is the ratio of output & input. It shows the efficiency and effectiveness of organization. It is expressed in terms of economic inputs and outputs but human and social inputs and outputs are also important OB decision involve human, social and economic issues and so productivity is the significant part of literature of OB.



Models of OB



1. **Autocratic Model-** This model is more of authority oriented in approach. It is based on the phenomenon that person who is in command have the power to demand. Organizations having autocratic environment have the superiors who feel that employees are lazy & try to avoid work so they need to be directed, command pushed & persuaded to the work. They feel that employees should be given orders & should be closely supervised & controlled for their work. Boss has the power to command & control. Employees in these organizations work under fear, frustration, harassment, unsecure & performance level is relatively low. They work only in the fear of losing their job.
2. **Custodial Model-** This method is reward oriented (Extrinsic or economic reward) focusing on satisfying the monetary, physiological, security & welfare needs of employees to motivate them to work efficiently for achieving goals & objectives of organization. This model focus that money is best way to motivate employees to increase their productivity & to reduce their level of frustration & insecurity rather than by forcing & ordering them.
3. **Supportive model-** This is a leadership oriented model and focus on supportive leadership style to motivate and improve the performance of employees at work rather than by using powers or giving monetary rewards. It focuses on providing cordial & supportive organizational climate & assumes that workers are not lazy & work shirkers. They are intrinsically motivated. If they are awarded i.e. if their psychological needs are satisfied, they can be efficient at their work. This model is more successful in other nations in comparison to India.
4. **Collegial Model-** Collegial means a group of persons having a common purpose. This model is based on the concept of treating employees as the partners & important members of organization so that they can relate themselves more dedicatedly towards organizations & can work with loyalty, dedication, faithfulness & hard work for achieving its goals. This model focuses on team spirit, brand building & self-discipline. Workers have more job-satisfaction, job-involvement & degree of fulfillment.



UNIT II

LEARNING



What is learning?

Meaning of learning:

Learning is the process by which individuals acquire knowledge & experience to be applied in future reaction to situation. Learning refers to this modification of behavior practice, training and experience.

Learning may be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of Prior Experience.

According to the Dictionary of Psychology - "Learning means the process of acquiring the ability to respond adequately to a situation which may or may not have been previously encountered, the factorable modification of response tendencies consequent upon previous experience, particularly the items in new series of complexity coordinated motor response, the fixation of items in memory so that they can be recalled or organized in the process of acquiring insight into a situation."

Learning has taken place if an individual behaves, reacts, responds as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formally Behaved.

W. Mchehee

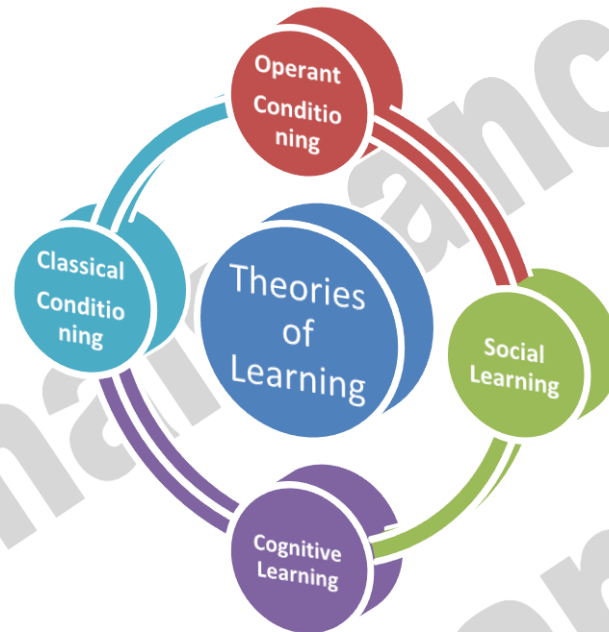
Nature of Learning

1. **Change:** Learning invariably involves a change though not necessary improvement in Behaviour. The learning may be good or bad from an organizations point of view for ex., bad habits, prejudice, work restrictions may be learned by an individual.
2. **Permanent:** Change in behaviour must be relatively permanent temporary changes may be only reflexive and fail to represent any learning. Changes called by fatigue or temporary adaptations are not covered in learning.
3. Change in behaviour should occur as a result of **Experience, practice or training**. The change may not be evident until a situation arises in which new behaviour can occur.
4. **Learning is reflected in Behavior** - A change in an individual's thought process or attitudes not accompanied by behavior is not learning. Further learning needs to result in behaviour potentiality and not necessary in the behavior itself. For example, if a person is thinking of using drugs, but has not actually used them and he finds out that a friend of his has died because of drugs, he will never get involved with drugs. This experience has changed his behavior potential.



5. **Reinforcement** – The practice or experience must be reinforcement in order for learning to occur. If reinforcement does not accompany the practice or experience the behavior will eventually disappear.

Theories of Learning



1. Classical Conditioning

Learning through classical conditioning (C.C) was first studied by Ivan Pavlov, a famous Nobel Price winning physiologist, at the turns of 20th century. The C.C. theory deals with the association of one event with another desired event resulting in a desired behaviour of learning.

Pavlov conducted an experiment on a dog to study the relation between the dog's salivation and ringing of a bell. A simple surgical procedure helped him to measure accurately the amount of saliva secreted by dog. When Pavlov presented a piece of meat to the dog, he noticed a great deal of salivation. He termed the food unconditional stimulus (food automatically caused salivation)

And salivation – an unconditioned Response when the dog saw the meat it salivated during the second stage

Pavlov merely rang a bell (neutral stimulus) the dog did not salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of bell each time the meat was given to dog. Thus meat & ringing of bell were linked together. The dog eventually learnt to salivate in response to ringing bell even when there was no meat.

Classical conditioning presented in figure

A) Before Conditioning

Meat (US) → Salivation (UR)

Bell (Neutral stimulus) → No response

B) During Conditioning

Meat (US) + Bell (CS) → Salivation (UR)

C) After Conditioning

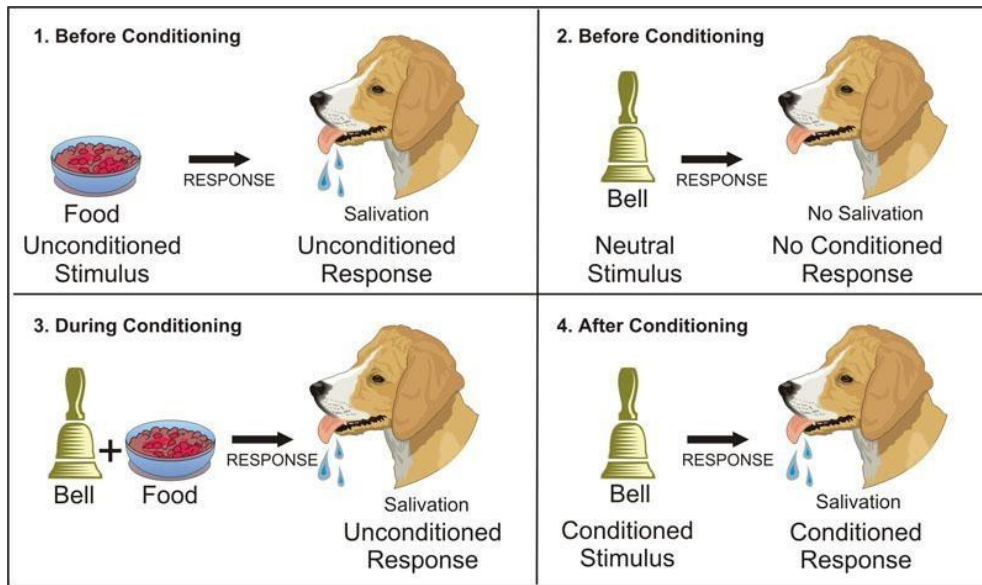
Bell (CS) → Salivation (CR)

US = Unconditioned Stimulus

UR = Unconditioned Response

CS = Conditioned Stimulus

CR - Conditioned Response



Classical Conditioning

2. Operant Conditioning (OC)

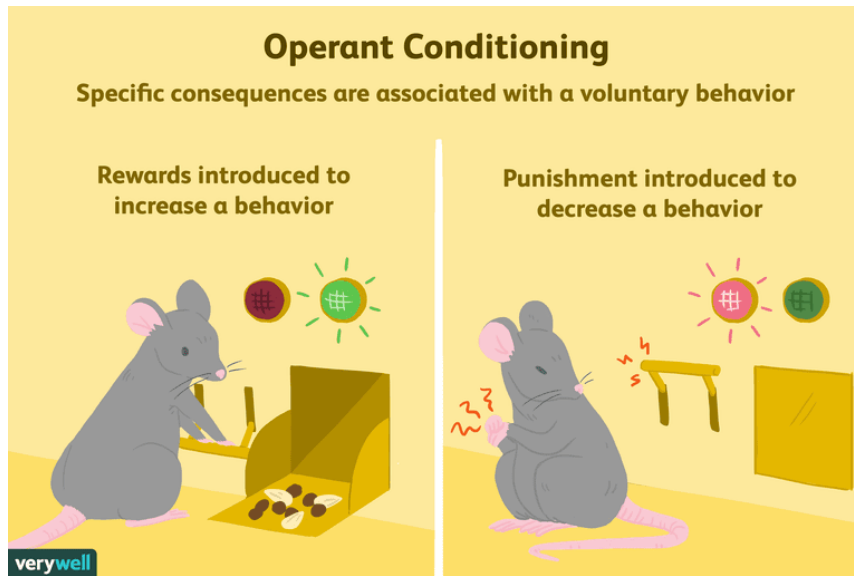
O.C is defined as "Behaviour that produces effect." OC is based on work of B.F. Skinner who advocated that individual's exhibit responses that are rewarded and will not exhibit response that are either not rewarded or are punished.

O.C also called instrument conditioning refers to the process that our behaviour produces certain consequences & how we behave in future will depend on what those consequences. If our action have pleasant effect then we will be more likely to repeat them in future. If however our actions have unpleasant effect we are less likely to repeat them in future.

Thus according to this theory, behaviour is the function of its consequences.

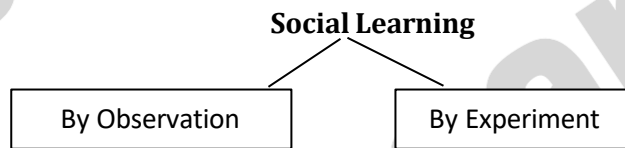
Operant Behaviour & their Consequences

	Behaviour	Consequence
The Individual	Work Talk to others Enter Restaurant Enter Library	is paid meets more people obtains food find a book



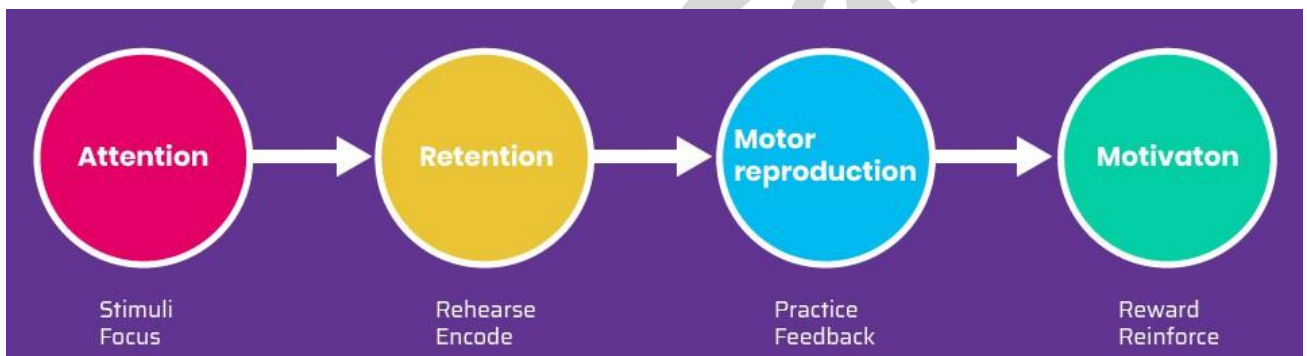
3. Social Learning

Also called observational learning, social learning theory emphasizes the ability of individual to learn by observing others. The important may include parents, teachers, Peers, Motion Pictures TV artists, bosses & others.



Social learning can takes place through:

1. **Modeling:** People acquire behaviour by directly observing and imitating other. Many pattern of behaviour are learned by watching the behaviour of model such as parent, teacher, film star etc. The following process determines the influence:
 - i. **Attention process:** People only learn from a model when they recognized and pay attention to its critical feature.
 - ii. **Retention process:** A model's influence will depend on how well the individual remember the model action, when after the model is no longer readily available.
 - iii. **Motor Reproduction Process:** After a person has been a new behaviour by observing the no del the watching must be converted into doing.
 - iv. **Reinforcement /process:** Individual will be motivated to exhibit the modeled behaviour if positive incentives or reward are provided.



2. **Symbolism:** It refers to learning through social action reaction, symbolization and interaction.



3. **Self Control:** Learning is self development process; people are introduced in self analysis, appraisal and improvement.
4. **Self Efficiency:** It refers to the individual's perception as he or her ability to perform a specific task in a particular situation

4. Cognitive Learning

Cognitive learning theory establishes the relationship between cognitive environmental cues and expectations. The cognitive approach emphasizes the positive and free will aspect of human behaviour. Cognition refers to an individual's ideas, thoughts, knowledge, interpretations understanding about himself and his environment. According to this theory learner forms a cognitive structure in memory, preserves and organics information about the various events that occur in a learning situation. To prove cognitive approach, Tolman trained a rat to turn right in a T maze in order to obtain food. Then he started the rat from the opposite part of the maze in order to obtain food. Then he started the rat from the opposite part of the maze, according to operant conditioning theory the rat should having turned right because of past conditioning. But the rat instead turned towards where the food had been placed. This experiment concluded that the rat formed a cognitive map to figure out how to get the food and reinforcement was not a precondition for learning to take place.

ATTITUDES

Introduction

Attitudes are evaluative statements. These are frequently used in describing people, objects and events and explaining the people's behavior. These reflect how one feels about something or somebody. When I say, "I like Ram". I am expressing my attitude about Ram. Thus, we can say that attitude is a bent of mind, predisposition of certain actions.

Attitudes constitute an important psychological attribute of individuals which shape their behaviour. **Schermerhorn**, et al., have defined attitude as a predisposition "**to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something in one's environment**". Attitude can be defined as a persistent tendency to feel & behave in a particular way towards some object.

Some of the important definitions of attitudes are as follows:

"An attitude is a mental and neutral state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situation with which is it related.

G.W. Allport

"An attitude is a tendency or predisposition to evaluate an object or symbol of that object in a certain.

—Katz and Scotland

COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDES

There are three basic components of an attitude and these are described below:

- (i) **Cognitive or Informational Component.** It consists of beliefs and values, idea and other information a person has about the attitude object. For instance, a person seeking a job may learn from newspapers and other people that a particular company is a good pay-master.
- (ii) **Affective or Emotional Component.** It involves the person's feelings of likes and dislikes towards the attitude object.
- (iii) **Behaviour Component.** The tendency of a person to behave in a particular manner towards an object is the behavioural component of an attitude.



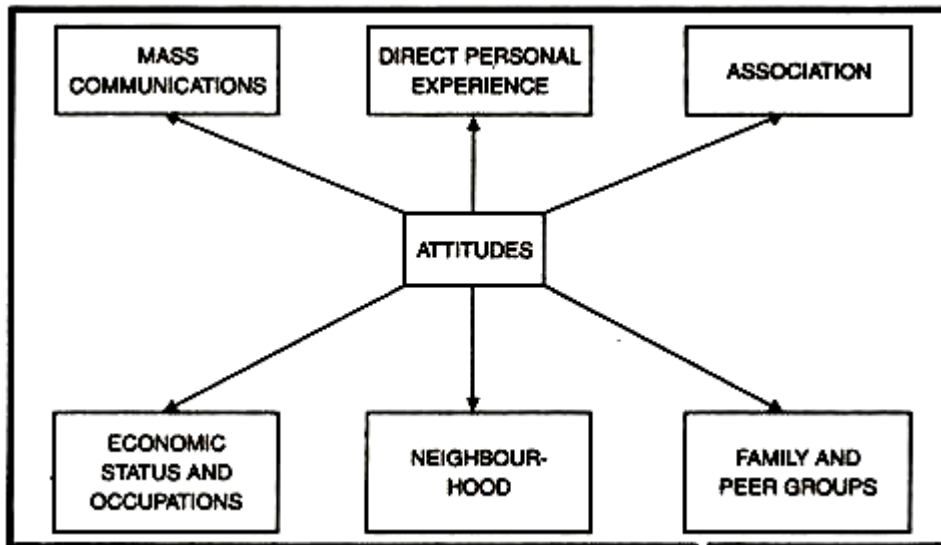
Features or Characteristics of Attitudes

The important characteristics of attitudes are as follows:

- (a) **Attitudes affect Behaviour.** People have the natural tendency to maintain consistency between two attitudes or attitude and behaviour. Attitudes can lead to intended behaviour if there is no external intervention.
- (b) **Attitudes are Invisible.** Attitudes constitute a psychological phenomenon which cannot be observed directly. However, we may observe an attitude indirectly through observing its consequences.
- (c) **Attitudes are Acquired.** Attitudes are gradually learnt over a period time. The process of learning attitudes starts right from childhood and continues throughout the life of a person.
- (d) **Attitudes are Pervasive.** Attitudes are formed in the process of socialization and may relate to anything in the world. For example, a person may have positive or negative attitude towards religion, politics, politicians, countries, and so on.
- (e) **Attitude is evaluative.** Attitudes are evaluative statements, either favourable or unfavourable. When a person says he likes or dislikes something, somebody, an attitude is being expressed.
- (f) **Attitude is unconsciously held.** An attitude may be unconsciously held. Most of our attitudes may be about those objects which we are not clearly aware of.

SOURCES OF ATTITUDES

- (a) **Direct Personal Experience.** The quality of a person's direct experience with the attitude object determines his attitude toward it. For example, if a worker finds his work repetitive, inadequately paid, supervisor too tough, and co-workers not so cooperative, he would develop negative attitude towards his job because the quality of his direct experience with the job is negative.
- (b) **Association.** A new attitude object may be associated with an old attitude object and the attitude towards the latter may be transferred towards the former.
- (c) **Social Learning.** Attitudes are also learnt from others as for example, from parents, teachers, superiors, models etc. An individual learns by having contact with others or even watching models over the T.V. In fact, social learning makes it possible for a person to develop attitude towards something even when he has no direct experience the attitude object.
- (d) **Institutional Factors.** Religious institutions, social organizations, educational institutions, etc. also help in shaping the attitudes of people.
- (e) **Mass Media.** Attitudes are generally less stable as compared to values. Advertising message, for example, attempts to alter the attitude of the people toward a certain product over. Similarly social messages on TV and in newspapers can have mass appeal among the people.
- (f) **Economic Status and Occupations.** Our economic and occupational positions also contribute to attitude formation. They determine, in part, our attitudes towards unions and management and our belief that certain laws are "good" or "bad".



Formation of Attitudes

The above mentioned sources are the important ways in which attitudes are learnt. But what type of attitudes will ultimately develop is dependent on the following factors:

- (a) **Psychological Factors.** The psychological make-up of a person is made up of his perceptions, idea, beliefs, value, information, etc., It has a crucial role in determining a person's attitudes.
- (b) **Family Factors.** During childhood, a person spends a major part of his time in the family. Thus, he learns from the family members who provide him with ready-made attitudes on a variety of issues such as education, work, healthy, religion, politics, economics, etc.
- (c) **Social Factors.** Societies differ in terms of language, culture, normal, value, beliefs, etc., all of which influence a person attitudes. For example, people in India in general hold different attitude towards communism than people of China.
- (d) **Organizational Factors.** It should be remembered that a worker spends a major part of his life in the institution in which he works. Thus, organisational factors such as nature of job, factory or office layout, fellow workers, quality of supervision, monetary rewards associated with the job, trade unionism, informal groups, organisation's policies and practices, play an important role in shaping the job attitudes of a person.
- (e) **Economic Factors.** A person's attitude towards a host of issues such as pleasure, work, marriage, working women, etc., is influenced by economic factors such as his economic status in the economic conditions.
- (f) **Political Factors.** Politics plays a crucial role in the administration of a country. Therefore, political factors such as ideologies of the political stability and the behaviour of the political leaders greatly influence the attitude of the people.

TYPES OF WORK RELATED ATTITUDES -

- 1) Job Satisfaction
- 2) Job Involvement
- 3) Organizational Commitment

1) Job Satisfaction -

The term job satisfaction refers to the general attitude or feelings of an individual towards his job. A person who is highly satisfied with his job, will have a positive attitude towards the job. On the other hand, a person who is dissatisfied with his job, will have a negative attitudes about the job.



2) Job Involvement –

A general definition of job involvement states that job involvement measures the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his or her job and considers his or her perceived performance level important to self worth.

3) Organizational Commitment –

Organizational is a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organization.

FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDE

Katz has suggested that attitudes and motives are inter-linked and, depending on an individual's motives, attitudes can serve four main functions. These are as under;

- i. **Knowledge Function:** One of the major functions of attitude is to provide a frame of reference which forms the basis for interpretation and classification of new information. Attitudes provide a knowledge base and framework within which new information can be placed.
- ii. **Value Expressive Function:** Attitudes are means of expression of values. They enable individuals to indicate to others the value that they hold and thus to express their self-concept.
- iii. **Adjustment Function:** Attitudes often help people adjust to their work environment. When employees are well treated they are likely to develop a positive attitude towards the management and the organization, otherwise they are likely to develop a negative attitude towards management and the organization. These attitudes help employees adjust to their environment and are a basis for future behavior.
- iv. **Ego-Defensive Function:** Attitudes may be held in order to protect the ego from an undesirable truth or reality. People often form and maintain certain attitudes to protect their own self images. For example, workers may feel threatened by the employment or advancement of minority or female workers in the organisation.

MOTIVATION

Motivation in simple terms can be understood as the set of forces which causes people to behave in certain desired way. Motivation is an “urge” that drives us towards the road leading to our goal.

Every organization needs competent people for accomplishing its goals and objectives. But only competence or skill of the people alone is not enough for fulfilling this purpose. There has to be a willingness or desire or internal drive in the people to achieve the objectives and motivation means process of creating zeal, confidence and to stimulate people to work in the desired direction which leads to the achievements of organization as well as individuals goals and objectives.

DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION

The term motivation has been derived from Latin word “MOVERE” which means to move. Thus the word motivation stands for movement.

“Motivation is the process that accounts for an individual's intensity, direction and persistence of efforts towards attaining a goal.” [ROBBINS]



“Motivation is the willingness to exert high level of effort towards organizational goal, conditional by the effort and ability to satisfy some individual needs.”

NATURE OF MOTIVATION

1. Motivation is an inner feeling which energizes a person to work more.
2. The emotions or desires of a person prompt him for doing a particular work.
3. There are unsatisfied needs of a person which disturb his equilibrium.
4. A person moves to fulfill his unsatisfied needs by conditioning his energies.
5. There are dormant energies in a person which are activated by channelizing them into actions.

TYPES OF MOTIVATION

1. **Positive Motivation:** Positive motivation or incentive motivation is based on reward. The workers are offered incentives for achieving the desired goals. The incentives may be in the shape of more pay, promotion, recognition of work etc.
2. **Negative Motivation:** Negative or fear motivation is based on force or fear. Fear causes employees to act in a certain way. In case, they do not act accordingly then they may be punished with demotions or layoffs. The fear acts as a push mechanism.



TECHNIQUES TO INCREASE MOTIVATION

1. Financial Motivator
2. Non-financial Motivator
 - a. Recognition
 - b. Participation
 - c. Status
 - d. Competition
 - e. Job Enrichment



IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

1. Increase employee productivity.
2. Greater satisfaction
3. Enhances job involvement
4. Reduce stress
5. Good human Relations
6. Reduces turnover and absenteeism
7. Reduces employee's grievances.
8. Efficient utilization of physical and human resources.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY MODEL THEORY

This theory has been developed by Prof. A.H. Maslow. According to which human beings have wants and desires which influence their behaviour. Only unsatisfied needs influence behaviour, satisfied needs cannot. The needs are arranged in order of importance from basic to the complex. Person advances, to the next level of needs only after the lower level need is satisfied.

Basic five needs which are describes in this theory are:

1. **Physiological needs:** these are the basic needs related to the survival and maintenance of human life. These are food, clothing, air, water, shelter and other biological needs which are Primary in nature.
2. **Safety needs:** These needs include safety and protection from physical and emotional harm. It includes job security, personal bodily security, security of source of income, provision of old age, insurance against risk etc.
3. **Social needs:** It includes affection belongingness, acceptance and friendship. It focuses on conversation, sociability, exchange of feelings and grievances, recognition, belongingness etc.
4. **Esteem needs:** These needs are also known egoistic needs. Needs includes self confidences independence, achievement. Knowledge and success, attention, self respect, status etc.
5. **Self-Actualization needs:** The drive to become what one is capable of becoming or want to achieve in their life. It is consider as primary mission of one's life.

Maslow separated the five needs into a higher and lower order. Physiological and safety needs are described as lower order needs. Social esteem and self –actualization are classified as higher order needs. Higher order needs are satisfied internal and lower order needs are satisfied externally.



THEORY X & THEORY Y

This is the participation model theory of motivation given by Douglas Mc Gregor. He argued that a manager's view about the nature of human beings (subordinates) is based on certain assumptions which are grouped as theory X and theory Y. A manager is required to mould their behaviour towards employees according to these assumptions to motivate them to work.

THEORY X- In this theory autocratic managers assume that employees are-

- Inherently lazy and avoid work.
- Avoids taking responsibility and power.
- Indifferent to organizations goals.
- Little ambitious, Prefer to security above all other factors.

So managers according to this theory need to follow the traditional method of closely supervising and establishing a comprehensive system of command and control along with a hierarchical structure to supervise workers and to motivate them to work.

THEORY Y- Managers with theory Y orientation make following assumptions about their subordinates-

- Employees are ambitious, self-motivated anxious to accept greater responsibility.
- Exercise self control, self-direction autonomy and employment.
- Enjoy their mental and physical work duties.
- Desire to be creative and forward thinking at work place.
- Can be more efficient and productive if given freedom and participation to show their abilities and to give their views.

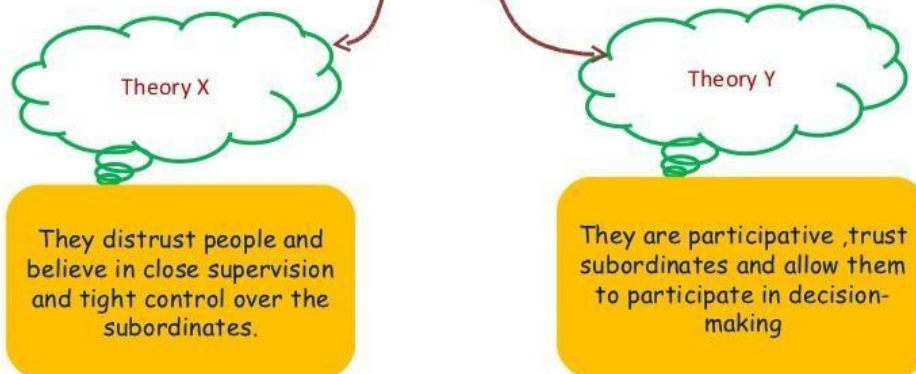
So managers follow a supportive and participative method of motivating these employees by providing them chance to explore themselves and their ability.

Theory X assumes that lower order needs are the basic needs for which individuals are motivated to satisfy and theory Y assumes that individuals are also motivated to satisfy higher order needs of self-esteem and self actualization along with lower order needs.

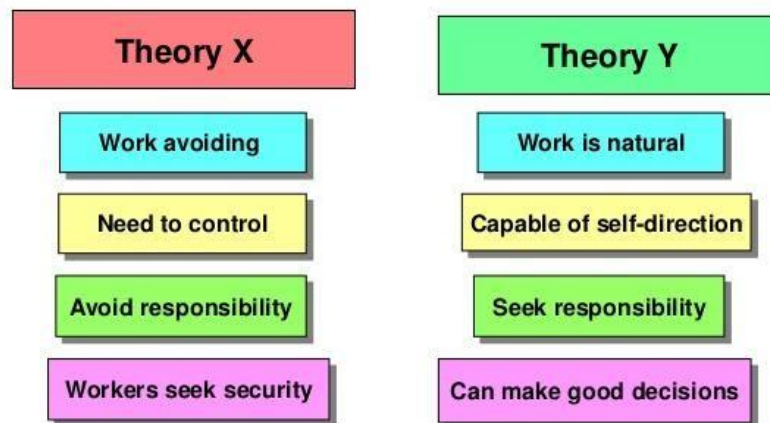


Based on assumptions about people

Mc Gregor's theory



MCGREGOR'S THEORY X & Y



HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR THEORY

This theory was given by Herzberg (1959). This theory is also called as Motivation Hygiene model theory. This theory constructed a two-dimensional paradigm of factors which affects people attitude towards work. These two factors are Motivators and hygiene factors.



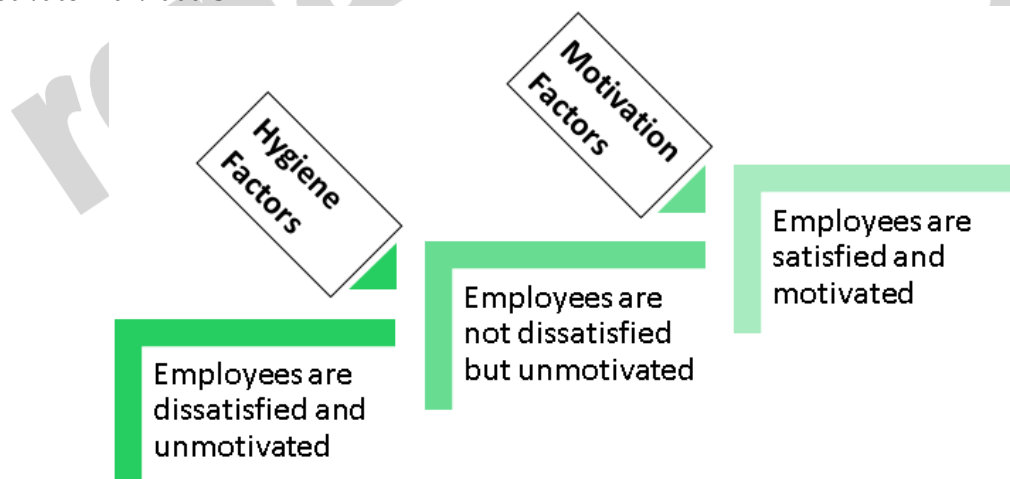
Motivators are intrinsic factors related with work (job) such as advancement recognition, responsibility and achievement. Presence of these factors ensures job satisfaction internally.

Hygiene factors are the extrinsic factors related to work (job) such as company policy, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, salary etc.

Absence of hygiene factors can create job dissatisfaction, but their presence does not motivate or create satisfaction.

So it is stated that motivators describe the person's relationship with what she or he does related with job performed where as hygiene factors describe a person's relation in context to environment in which she or he perform the job. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessary make job satisfying. Job satisfaction factors are separate and distinct from job dissatisfaction factors.

Presence of hygiene factors will not dissatisfied people but also cannot satisfy them. It is only the motivators i.e. intrinsic factors which are associated with work derived from individuals itself can satisfy and motivate individuals.



ERG - THEORY

This theory of motivation was given by Alderfer (1972). This theory classifies needs into three categories in hierarchical order.

1. **The Existence Needs-** These needs include all our basic material existence requirements. It includes all the basic biological needs and shelter needs. They include Maslow's Physiological and safety needs.
2. **The Relatedness Needs-** These needs include the desire for having good and important interpersonal relationships, social interrelation and good image in between others in external environment. It includes Maslow's social needs.
3. **The Growth Needs-** These needs include an intrinsic desire for personal growth development, status, recognitions advancement, achievement etc. It includes Maslow's esteem and self actualization needs.



This theory differs from Maslow's theory in following arguments:

1. Maslow's said that needs are divided in 5 categories hierarchal from basic to complex and only one need is been work on one time whereas Alderfer said that more than one need may be operative at the same time.
2. ERG Theory does not assume the rigid hierarchy for the satisfaction of needs i.e. it is not necessary that when one need is satisfied them only another need can be satisfied. Person can be working on growth, existence or relatedness needs at same time or on existence and relatedness needs even if growth need is unsatisfied.

MC CLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS

This theory was given David Mc Clelland (1961) which mainly focuses on three kinds of needs namely-

McClelland's
Motivational Needs





- a. **Need for achievement (NACH)** - This need includes a drive to excel, advance and grow. It includes desire of individual to achieve something different from others in a different manner in relation to a set of standards.
- b. **Need for power (NPOW)** - This need to have command and control to make other behaviour in a way that they have never behaved otherwise to change the situation accordingly.
- c. **Need for affiliation (NAFF)** - This included desire for being friendly and to have a close interpersonal relations with others. People with this need want to have a good image & relationship with others.

People with high need for achievement have a compelling drive to succeed. They strive to do something better and more efficiently that it has been done before by others. This is called achievement need. High achievers differentiate themselves from others by their desire of doing things better and differently. They seek situations in which they can attain personal responsibilities for finding solutions to problems. People with high need for power enjoy being “in-charge” of any situation. They strive to have influence over others and prefer to be placed into a competitive and status-oriented situation. They believe to change the situations and thoughts of the people accordingly by influencing them.

People with high need for affiliation strive for maintaining friendship. Prefer co-operative situations and desire for a relationships that involve a high degree of mutual understanding.

Based on this theory following assumptions can be made-

- a. Individuals with a high need to achieve prefer job situations with personal responsibility, feedback and an intermediate degree of risk. In these situations high achievers will be strongly motivated.
- b. A high need to achieve does not necessarily lead to being a good manner, especially in large organizations. These people are interested in their personal development rather than influencing others to do well.
- c. The needs for affiliation and power are closely related to managerial success. A good manager needs to be high in need of power, moderate in need of affiliation and low in need of achievement.

VICTOR VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY

It is given by victor vroom (1964) and is one of the most widely accepted explanations of motivation. According to this theory motivation is based on people belief, goals and linkage between effort, performance and reward and reward and individual goal satisfaction.

Determinants of motivation according to this theory are as follows-

Expectancy (Performance)- It is also called effort and performance determinant which shows the extent to which a person believes that particular level of efforts will lead to expected level of performance.

Instrumentality- It is called as performance determinant which shows that particular level of performance will lead to a desired reward. Ex: - superior performance leads to promotion in job. Superior performance is first level of outcome promotion is the second level out come.

Valence Reward value or Preferences- It refers to the value a person places on the rewards that he or She expects to receive from an organization. The value attached to reward is subjective and varies from person to person. Ex: - A young and dynamic employee wants a promotion and value it. Similarly a retiring employee may have high valence for re-employment.

These determinants are expressed through following formula-

Motivation = Expectancy (Performance) x Instrumentality x Valence.

Effort – Performance linkage (How hard will have to work?)

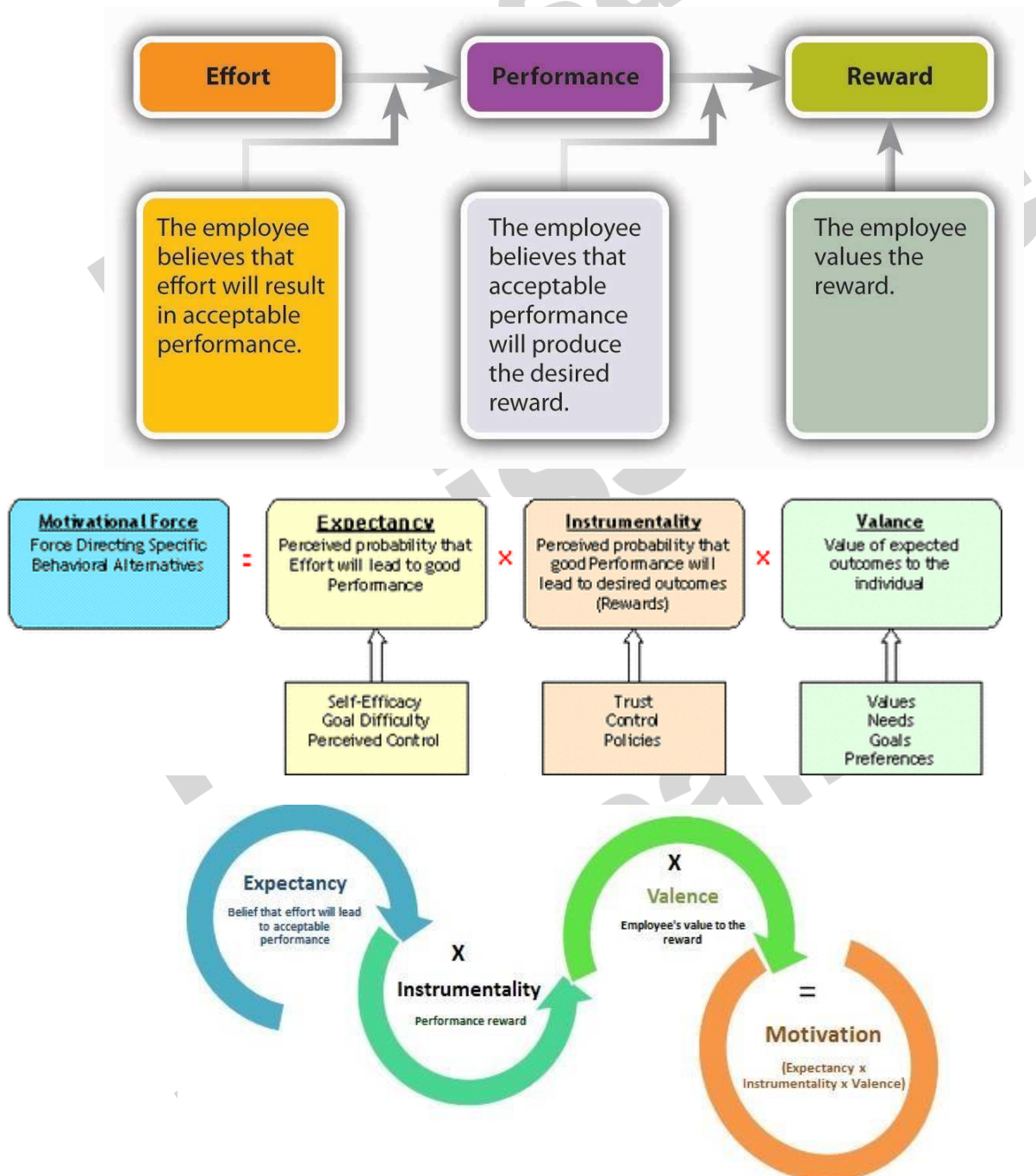


Performance – Reward linkage
(What is the reward?)

Attractiveness
(How attractiveness is the reward?)

Values may range from

- Expectancy → 0 to 01
- Instrumentality → 0 to 01
- Valence → -01 to 01





GOAL – SETTING THEORY

Goals are targets which are to be achieved in future. Goals play an important role in influencing the behaviour and motivational level of employee. This theory was given by Edwin Locke. He stated that when employees participate in goal setting they are more motivated that leads to efficient performance, rewards and also personal satisfaction.

The four essential elements of goal setting model explained below:-

1. **Goal Acceptance:** It states that employees should accept the goals assigned to them. If difficult goals are assigned to employees they may not feel attached to goals and this leads to non-acceptance low motivation and performance on the part of employees. Managers should follow participative approach in setting goals for subordinates.
2. **Goal Specificity:** goals should be specific, measurable, fixed and clear to the subordinates. It is be understandable by them. This enables the worker to evaluate his/her performance and to judge themselves.
3. **Goal Challenge:** goals must be feasible but challenging in nature. It should be competitive but achievable. All the directions, efforts and resources required to achieve a goal must be communicated and made available to subordinates.
4. **Performance Feedback:** Employees should be informed about how well they are doing and how successful they are. Proper feedback can motivate them further. It encourages better job performance and self generated feedback is a very powerful motivational tool.



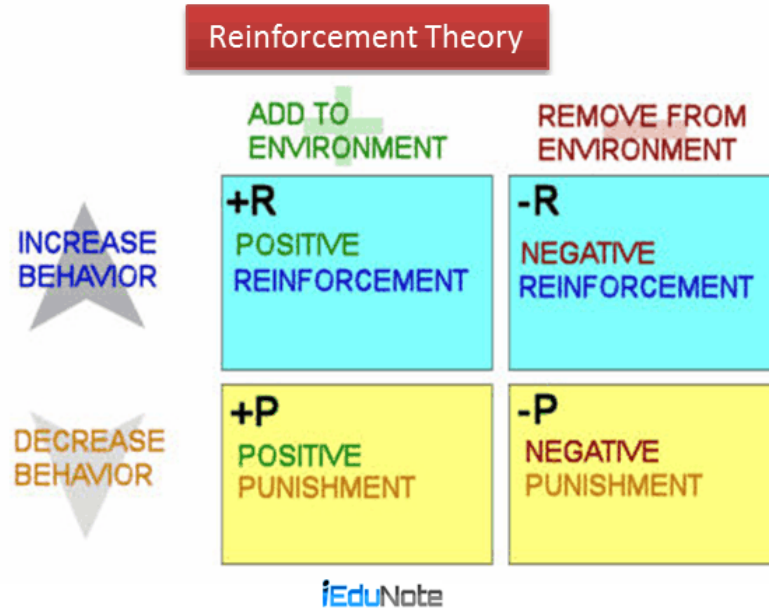
REINFORCEMENT THEORY

Reinforcement theory is developed initially by the well-known psychologist B.F. Skinner. It is based on behaviour and learning of an individual. This theory basically states that behaviour is determined by its consequences i.e. positive or pleasant consequences leads to repetition of action and negative or unpleasant consequences are not likely to be repeated again. Reinforcement also influences our motivational level to do or not to do certain things. Reinforcement is of four types:

- a. **Positive Reinforcement:** It is the used of Rewards that stimulates the desired behaviour and strengthen the probability of repetition of such behaviour in future. It includes reinforces such as money, praise, promotion, recognitions etc.
- b. **Negative Reinforcement:** This strategy is also called “avoidance learning”. It implies use of unpleasant rewards to avoid the undesirable behaviour of an individual. It includes warnings, penalty alert counselling etc.
- c. **Extinction:** To avoid the undesirable behaviour to extinguish it completely. It is to withdraw all far of reinforcement to completely dissolve undesirable behavior.

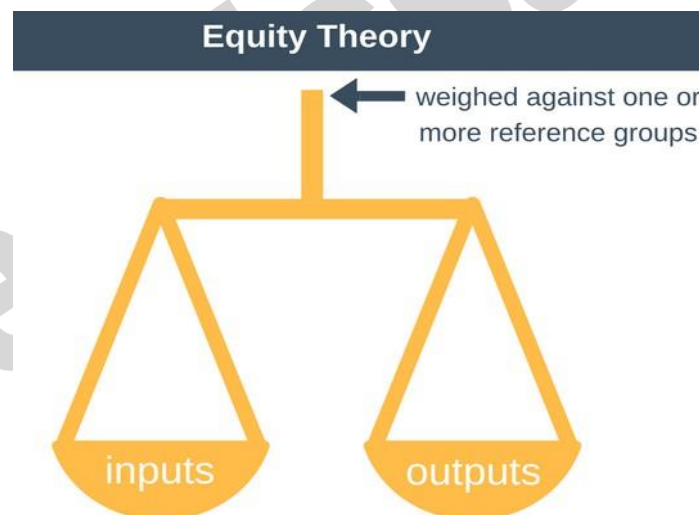


- d. **Punishment:** This tool is used when an unpleasant or undesirable behaviour needs to be reduced or eliminated. For ex: worker's wages may be deducted if performance is not done.



Equity theory of motivation:

According to this theory, employees make comparisons of their job inputs and outcomes relative to those of others. If an individual perceives the input-outcome ratio to be equal to that of the input-outcome ratios of others a state of equity exists.

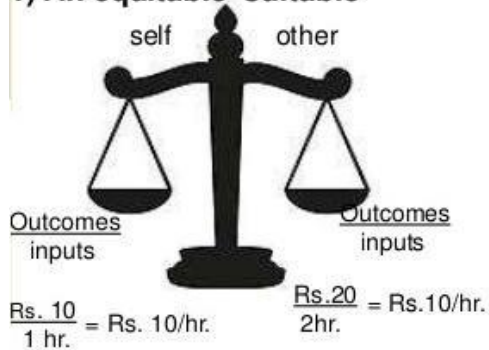


Person perceives the situation to be fair. If the ratio appears to be unequal, the individual experiences inequity. There are four referent comparisons that an employee can make to find out the ratio of equity or inequity:

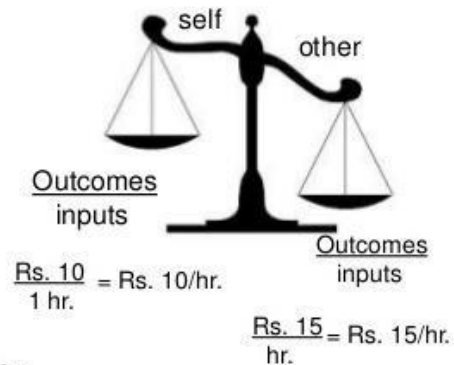
- 1) **Self- Inside:** An employee's experiences in a different position inside his or her current organization.
- 2) **Self- outside:** An employee's experience in a situation or position outside his or her current organization.
- 3) **Other - inside:** position of another individual or group of individuals inside the organization.
- 4) **Other- outside:** position of another individual or group of individuals outside the organization.



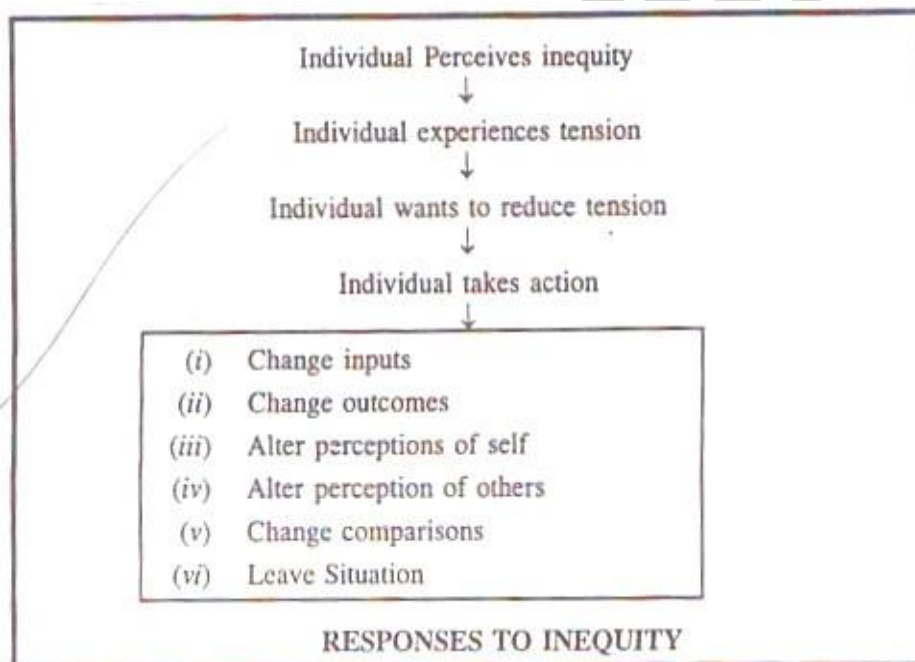
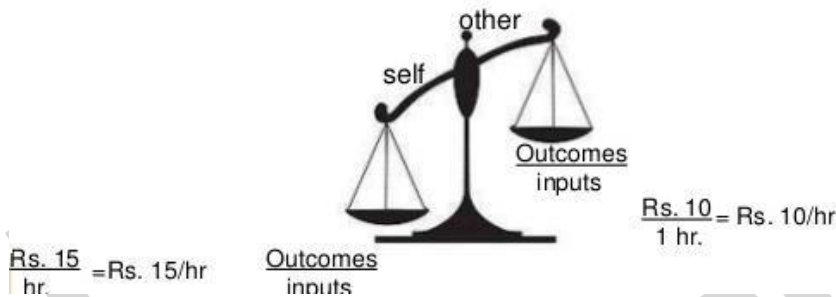
1) An equitable suitable



2) Negative inequity



3) Positive equity



When employee perceives inequity, they can make one of the following six choices of behavior:

- a) **Change their inputs:** Increase or decrease their inputs. Ex- can work hard or work less hard.
- b) **Changing outcomes:** Person can request to ask his or her outcome. Ex- ask for salary, office, recognition etc.
- c) **Changing perception of self:** Can leave that situation and to focus on other. Ex- if a person feels that he was not given proper rewards for the work he done and state of inequity is existing in a person's mind then person can focus on the other task where he got the equality in terms of rewards or can get equal rewards.



- d) **Change the comparison person:** To compare with a person who is equal to or less than the person who is making comparison.
- e) **Changing the inputs outcomes of others:** Ask other person to reduce his or her inputs to the task or to reduce their outcomes. Distort the perception of others.
- f) **Leave the situation:** Can transfer, change location, leave the job to avoid uncomfortable feelings and inequity.

Motivating employees in an organization:

- 1) Recognizing individual differences: managers need to understand the different and important needs of the individual employee and should try to connect it with the organizational goals. This results into high level of involvement and motivation of employees.
- 2) Use goals and feedbacks: employees should have the specific and achievable goals. Feedbacks should be provided regularly to inform the employees about their performance in pursuit of those goals.
- 3) Include employees in decision making: participation of employees in the decision making to choose their benefits, solving productivity and quality problems.
- 4) Link rewards to performance: rewards should be contingent on performance and employee must perceive a clear linkage.
- 5) Maintain equity: rewards should be perceived as equal by the employees according to their inputs to the job. This motivates the employees.
- 6) Motivating professionals: professionals likely to seek more intrinsic satisfaction than extrinsic rewards. Proper intrinsic rewards like challenging jobs, problem solving situations, growth and development should be provided to them.
- 7) Motivating low skilled and temporary workers: temporary workers can be motivated if proper training and permanent job opportunity is provided to them and low skilled workers will be motivated if proper work schedules, environment and higher pay package will be provided.

Practical Application of Motivational Techniques

Management by Objectives (MBO)

Management by objectives emphasizes participative set goals that are tangible, verifiable and measurable. Four ingredients common to MBO programs are: Goal specificity, participative decision-making, an explicit time period and performance feedback.

- a) **Goal Specificity:** The objectives in MBO should be concise statements of expected accomplishments.
- b) **Participative decision making:** The manager and employee jointly choose the goals and agree on how they will be measured.
- c) **An explicit time period:** Each objective has a specific time period in which it is to be completed.
- d) **Performance feedback:** Continuous feedback on progress towards goals is provided so that workers can monitor and correct their own actions.

Employee Recognition Programs

Employee recognition programs consist of personal attention, expressing interest, approval and appreciation for a job well done. They can take numerous forms. Employee Recognition Programs has close link with Reinforcement Theory.

Employment Involvement



Employee involvement includes participative management, workplace democracy, and empowerment and employee ownership. Employees' involvement in the decision making would positively affect them and by increasing their autonomy and control over their work lives, employees will become more motivated, more committed to the organization, more productive and more satisfied with their jobs.

Participative management

The logic behind participative management is:

- Managers often do not know everything their employees do.
- Better decisions
- Increased commitment to decisions
- Intrinsically rewarding employees make their jobs more interesting and meaningful.

The two common forms of participative management are:

- Work councils**- They are groups of nominated or elected employees who must be consulted when management makes decisions.
- Board representatives**- They are employees who sit on a company's board of directors and represent the interests of the firm's employees.

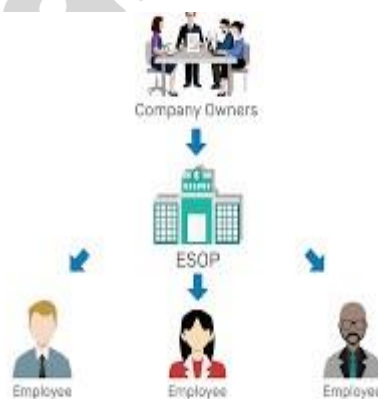
Quality circles (QC)

QC consists of a work group of eight to ten employees and supervisors who have a shared area of responsibility. Key components of QC are (Robbins, 2003):

- They meet regularly on company time to discuss their quality problems, investigate causes of the problems, recommend solutions, and take corrective actions.
- They take over the responsibility for solving quality problems and they generate and evaluate their own feedback.
- Management typically retains control over the final implementation decision.

Employee stock ownership plans (ESOPs):

In the typical ESOP, an employee stock ownership trust is created. Companies contribute either stock or cash to buy stock for the trust and allocate the stock to employees. Employees usually cannot take physical possession of their shares or sell them as long as they are still employed at the company.





Meaning of Personality

The term 'Personality' has been derived from the Latin term per sona which means to 'speak through' the Latin term denotes the masks worn by actors in ancient Greece and Rome. Common usage of the word 'Personality' signifies the role which the person (actor) displays to public. Personality is one of the major psychological factors affecting the human behavior.

Personality refers to the sum total of internal & external traits of the individual which are relatively stable & which make the individual different from others

The personality refers to the quality of a person in the role played, appearance and behaviour, inner awareness & force. The personality may vary from situation to situation. It is the interaction between person & situation.

Personality represents the sum total of several attributes which manifest themselves in an individual to organize and integrate all the qualities so as to give meaning to life and the uniqueness of the situation which influences behavior of an individual.

Definition: Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

Gordon Allport

Personality means how a person affects others & how he understands & views himself as well as the pattern of inner & outer measurable traits & the Person situation interaction.

Fred Luthans

Characteristics -

The following elements should form the meaning of personality.

1. Personality has both internal and external elements. The external traits are the observable behaviours that we notice in an individual. Personality internal states represent the thoughts values & genetic characteristic that we infer from the observable behaviours.
2. An individual's personality is relatively stable. If it changes at all, it is only after a very long time or as the result of dramatic events.
3. An individual's personality is both inherited as well as shaped by the environment our personality is partly inherited generically from our parents. However these genetic personality characteristics are altered somewhat by life experiences.
4. Each individual is unique in Behaviour. There are striking differences among individual. Thus personality refers to the sum total of internal & external traits of the individual which are relatively stable & which make the individual different from others.

Personality factors/ determinants of Personality

1. Biological factors
 - Heredity
 - Brain
 - Physical features
2. Family & social factors
3. Situational factors
 - Culture
 - Religion
4. Other factors
 - Temperament
 - Interest
 - Character
 - Schema
 - Motives

1. Biological Factors



a. Heredity: It has a great influence on biological and mental features. It means the transmission of the qualities from ancestor to descendant through a mechanism lying primarily in the chromosomes of germ cells. Physical stature facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition, reflexes are inherited from one's parent.

b. Brain: There is a general feeling that brain plays an important role in development of one's personality persons with a broader forehead, big right hemisphere i.e. left handed have a learning towards truth, welfare beauty, justice, kindness artistic, emotional musician poet etc, similarly persons having broader left hemisphere i.e. right handed with sharp nose, big ears are logical, analytical, strong & have criminal

c. Physical features: An individual's external appearance may have a tremendous effect on his personality. Some people give relatively higher weightage to the physical features of an individual while defining his personality. Such factors include height, weight, colour, facial features. Eg: - Good physical appearance is an asset for the job of a sales person & public relations.

2. Family & Social factors:

The family has considerable influence on personality development, particularly in early stages children learn from their parents, siblings etc.

- The mother is the first teacher in initiating personality development. Father motivates & modifies behaviour. Eg:- Mother - dressing, cooking, sense, father - driving
- Family and social factors shape a person's personality through the process of socialization and identification. Socialization is a process by which an infant acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioral potentialities that are open him at birth, those behaviour patterns that are customary & acceptable to family & social group.
- The identification process occurs when a person tries to identify himself with some person whom he feels ideal in family, generally a child in the family tries to behave like his father or mother.

Eg:- of impact of socio economic factors on personality child nurtured under a warm, loving stimulating environment are positive & active as compared to children neglected by their parents are.

3. Situational factors:

An individual's Personality may change in different situations. The demand of different situation may call for different aspects of one's personality therefore we should not look at the personality factor in isolation.

a. Culture: The accepted norms of social behaviour are referred as cultural. The way in which people behave with others & the driving force of such functions are considered important components of culture children brought up in traditional norms, attitudes & values on the other hand. Modern cultural outlook of family & society has inspired children to become independent, free thinking of self developing. (ex of joint & nuclear family)

b. Religion: Religion plays a significant role in shaping one's personality from those of Muslims & Christians. The children in Hindu Societies learn from the very childhood learn about the value of Karma (hard work) and God-feasting attitudes.

The Protestants are taught about work ethics, family system, friendship & cooperation

The Sikh are hard working, dogmatic aggressive.

The Muslims are ready to undertake any job & vocation & acquire personalities.

4. Other factors

a. Temperament: Temperament and other non-intellectual personality traits are distributive according to normal distribution. Temperament is the degree to which one responds emotionally.

b. Interest: The individual normally has many interests in various areas. The top executives in any organization do not have interest in common task and people. The organization should provide



opportunities like job rotation & job enrichment & special training programmer to satisfy the Interest of executives.

c. Character: Character primarily means honesty & integrity. It is resistance to stealing and cheating others. Character integrity & morals of high standards is a very important requirement for responsible jobs. It is likely that an individual may not steal under normal circumstances for ex: If the family of an individual is starving, there is a great probability that one will steal.

d. Schema: It is an individual's belief, frame of reference, perception and attitude which the individual possesses towards the management, the job, working conditions pay, fringe benefits, incentive system etc. The perception of an individual depends upon his socio-economic conditions & particular culture he lives to follow. The behavior of an individual depends to a great extent upon his form of reference which he develops from childhood experience.

e. Motives: Motive is inner drives of individual. They represent goal directed behaviour of individual. A motive is a cognitive factor which operates in determining one's behaviour towards a goal.



THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

i) Psycho Analytic Theory

This theory was developed by Sigmund Freud

This theory is based on unconscious nature of personality, i.e. man is influenced by unseen forces.

Freud saw that personality is composed of three elements:-

1) The ID:- Word 'ID' is the Latin word for 'IT' and refers to innate component of personality.

The 'ID' is the mental agency contains everything inherited and fixed & present in individual which is raw, animalistic, unorganised, knows no laws, rules and free from all inhibitors & remains basic to individual throughout life.

ID helps to rid the personality out of tension through reflex actions & primary process refers to attempt of an individual to form a mental image of the object that will remove tension.

Ex: - Hungry man experiences partial relief of his hunger by imagining a delicious meal.

In reflex actions, the ID responds automatically to sources of irritation by promptly removing the tension which irritant elicits.

Ex: - Coughing, Sneezing, Blinking etc.

2) The EGO: - Ego means development of the person out of the ID in order to deal with the real world.

Ex: - Man needs food to satisfy the hunger.

3) The Super EGO: - Super Ego third part of personality represents values and morals of society as taught to the child by parents and others super Ego judges whether an action is right or wrong according to the standards of society.

ID seeks pleasure, EGO test reality and super Ego strives for perfection.

ii) Trait Theory

Trait is a relatively enduring cross – situational consistent personality characteristic that is inferred from a person's behavior. It is a predisposition to understand or to respond in an equivalent manner to various kinds of stimuli.

Personality traits are the reactions, of persons in different situational interaction. Under trait theory personality of individuals are determined & classified on the basis of certain set of features such as intelligence, emotional stability, aggressiveness, creativeness or any other dimensions.

Allport classified traits under three categories -

- 1) Cardinal (Pervasive)
- 2) Central (unique and limited in number)
- 3) Secondary (peripheral)

There are two ways of assessing personality traits:-

- (1) The person describes himself by answering questions about his attitude, feelings and behaviours. (Personal Inventory)
- (2) Someone else evaluates the person's traits either from what he knows about the individual or from direct observation of behaviour. (Rating scale Method)

Under personal inventory a questionnaire is answered by an individual containing questions which can be rated to determine single dimension of personality or several personality traits (introvert & extrovert).



iii) Rogers Self Theory

If we stop thinking about other people's behavior, we become conscious of our own person, our feelings, our attitudes and perhaps of feeling or responsibility of our actions in relation to oneself and other. This phenomenon has led to "Self Theory".

The most important contribution in self theory comes from Carl Rogers. He has defined the self or self concept as an organized, consistent, conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of 'I' or 'Me'. The relationship of 'I' or 'Me' with other and to various aspects of life has been analysed by Rogers. There are four factors of self concept.

- i) **Self Image:** Self image is the way one sees oneself. Every person has certain beliefs about who or what he is, taken together, these beliefs are a person's self image or identity.
- ii) **Ideal Self.** The ideal self denotes the way one would like to be. Thus, self image is the reality whereas ideal self is the perception. There may be a gap between these two images because self image indicates the reality of a person as perceived by him and ideal self indicates the ideal position as perceived by him.
- iii) **Looking Glass Self.** Looking glass self is the perception of other's perception. It is the way one thinks people perceive about him and the way people actually see him.
- iv) **Real Self.** The real self is what one really is. The first three aspects of self concept are the perceptions and they may be same or different as the real self.

Rogers approach to personality is described as phenomenological. Phenomenology is the study of the individual subjective experience, feeling and his view of the world & self.

According to Rogers behaviour is dependent upon how one perceives the world i.e. on perception & interpretation of individual. This theory helps in analysing the behaviour and personality of individual reference to individual himself i.e. self-perception.

Big Five Model of Personality

Personality is composed of external traits & no two individual possess identical characteristics. There are thousands of words representing personality characteristics which were reduced to five abstract personality dimensions of personality defined in Big five model which are as follows:

1. Extroversion: Person who score positive on this dimension have a comfort level of relationship & relatedness with others. They are sociable, talkative, assertive, open to establish new relationship with and who scores negative on this dimension are introverts and are less sociable, talkative and lack of establishing good relationship & relatedness with others.

2. Agreeableness: - Agreeableness shows person's ability to get agreed with others. Person who scores positive in this dimension are co-operative, trusting and value harmony and agree on thoughts of others more than on their own saying & thoughts. Person who score low on agreeableness lacks of co- operation trust & harmony with others & only focus on their needs and thoughts.

3. Conscientiousness: - Conscientiousness refers to number of goals that a person focuses on. A highly conscientiousness person focuses on relatively few goals at one time. They are more organized, systematic, careful, thorough, responsible, self-disciplined and achievement oriented. A person scoring negative on this dimension focus on higher no. of goals are disorganized, less systematic, careless, irresponsible less thorough & self-disciplined.

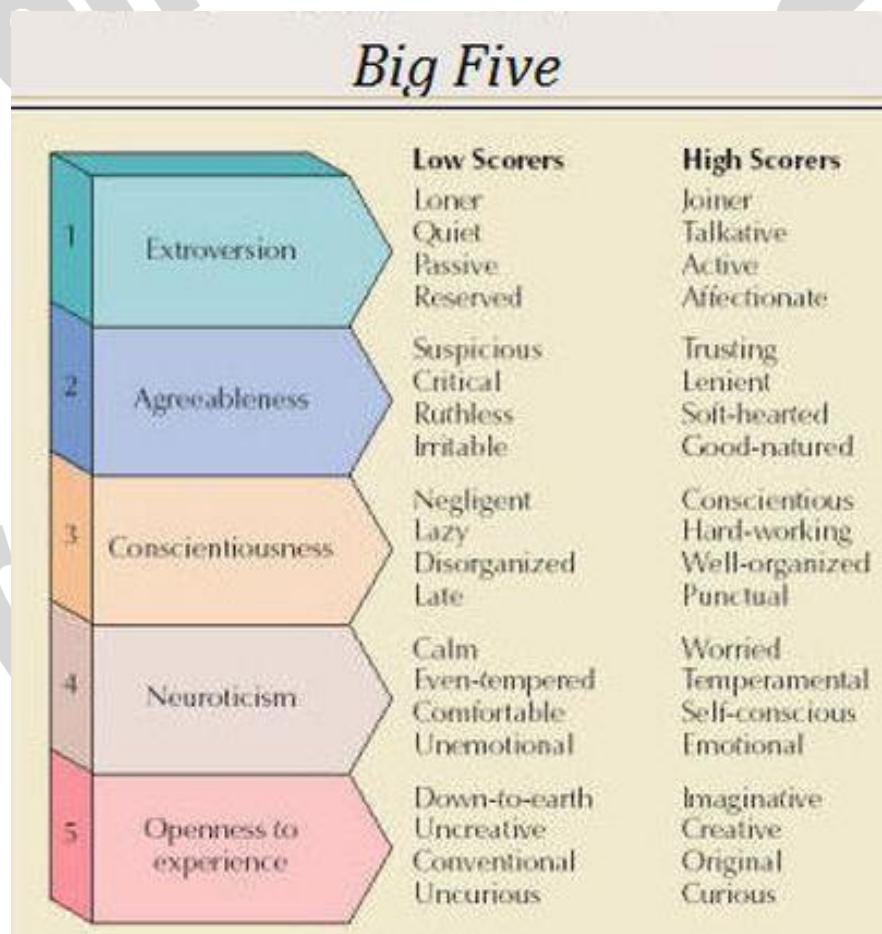
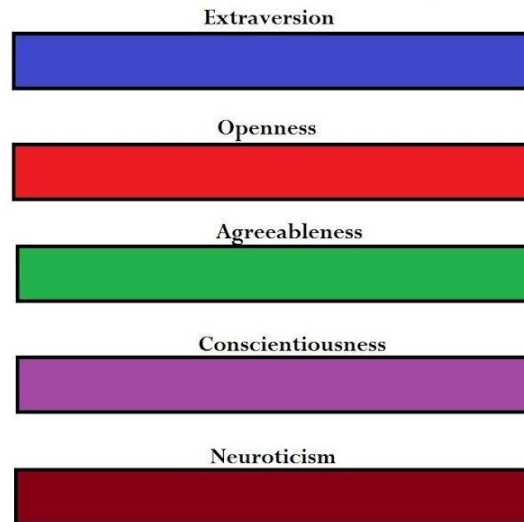
4. Emotional Stability:- This dimension focus on individual's ability to cope with stress. Highly emotional stability makes an individual calm, enthusiastic & secured. Persons with low emotional stability are nervous, depressed & insecure.

5. Openness to experience:- This dimension shows one's range of interest. Positively scoring people are open to new thoughts, ideas, beliefs and are fascinated by novelty, innovation & creativity. They have positive attitude towards new ideas & information.

On the other hand people with low level of openness are less receptive to new ideas and less willing to change their minds towards new thoughts, ideas, beliefs & suggestions.



Big Five



Myers-Briggs Indicator Model

Myers Briggs type indicator (MBTI) model is mainly used in employee hiring process. The personality dimensions under this model are:

(1) Extroversion/Introversion: How people focus their attention on others.



(2) **Sensitivity/Intuition:** Deals in collecting information by people. Sensitive types use an organized structure to factual and preferably, quantitative details. They are able to synthesizing large volume of data and can draw quick conclusion.

Intuitive people collect information nonsystematic ally and hat able to draw conclusion on large no. of data.

(3) **Thinking/Feeling:** - Thinking type rely on rational, logical & scientific of making decision & analysing a situation.

Feeling types analyze the situation on their personal value rather thinking logically i.e. more emotional approach towards a situation.

(4) **Judging/Perceiving:** - Judging types personality enjoys the control of decision making and want to resolve problems quickly. Perceiving types personality are more flexible and adopt spontaneously according to situations before giving decisions.

The Four Myers-Briggs Preference Pairs

Extraversion **e** or **i** Introversion

Opposite ways to direct and receive energy

Sensing **s** or **n** Intuition

Opposite ways to take in information

Thinking **t** or **f** Feeling

Opposite ways to decide and come to conclusions

Judging **j** or **p** Perceiving

Opposite ways to approach the outside world

ISTJ
Introverted sensor thinker judger

ISTP
Introverted sensor thinker perceiver

INTP
Introverted intuitor thinker perceiver

ESTP
Extraverted sensor thinker perceiver

ISFP
Introverted sensor feeler perceiver

ISFJ
Introverted sensor feeler judger

INTJ
Introverted intuitor thinker judger

ESTJ
Extraverted sensor thinker judger

INFP
Introverted intuitor feeler perceiver

INFJ
Introverted intuitor feeler judger

ESFP
Extraverted sensor feeler perceiver

ENFP
Extraverted intuitor feeler perceiver

ESFJ
Extraverted sensor feeler judger

ENTP
Extraverted intuitor thinker perceiver

ENTJ
Extraverted intuitor thinker judger

ENFJ
Extraverted intuitor feeler judger

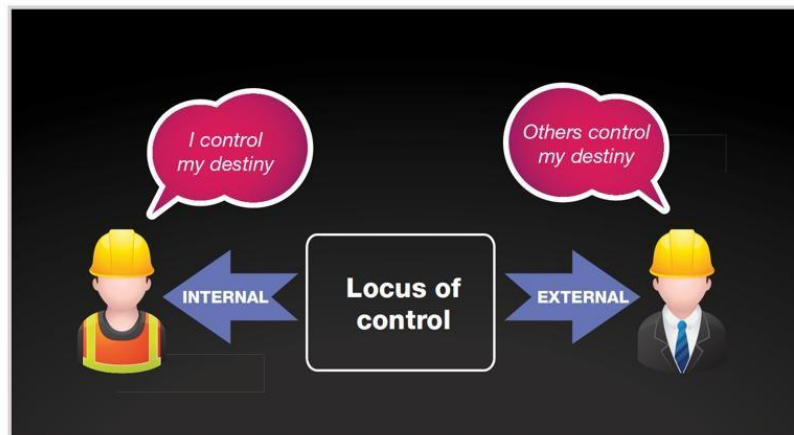


Other Personality Traits

(1) Authoritarianism:- Authoritarian personality individuals has a strong belief on established mechanism of formal authority, obedience to authority, follow traditional value systems, intellectually rigid, rigid in their positions, place high moral value on their beliefs, prefer stable & structural work environment governed by clean rules & regulations. They prefer autocratic & directive leadership.

(2) Locus of Control:- Locus of control refers to belief of individual regarding occurrence of events or situations either with one's own control (internal locus of control) or by external forces beyond one's control (external locus of control).

Externals are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rate and are more alienated from work settings. Internals have more control on their behaviour & are good decision maker.



(3) Machiavellianism:- Machiavellianism is individuals habit to manipulate people. They highly participate in organizational politics, can handle matters related to negotiation & bargaining effectively.



(4) Achievement Orientation:- It is the trait in individuals to achieve anything in their life.

People with high need to achieve continuously focus on doing things in better way than others. They prefer doing something different or moderately difficulty tasks in comparison to others. They like challenges. They believe that success or failure is the result of their own actions.

(5) Self-Esteem:- Self-Esteem is the feeling of like or dislike of oneself. People with high self -Esteem belief have abilities to do challenging jobs and choose unconventional jobs. They are more confident on themselves for getting success.

People with low self-esteem are dependent on others for receiving positive evaluations & approval from others. They follow the beliefs & behaviours of those they respect.

(6) Risk-Taking:- This defines the manager's ability to take risk high risk taking managers take rapid decisions and used less information in making their choice. These people are more suitable in stock market or trading firm, vice-versa the people who are less risk taking.



(7) Self-Monitoring:- It refers to the individual's ability to adjust their behaviour according to external factors. It shows the adoptability of the individuals in external situations. These individuals have the capability of behaving contradictory in their public, personal life. Low self-monitors face difficulty in deviating their behaviour in different situations.

Type A & B Personality

Type A personality persons are competitive hostile, always prefer doing some work, cannot cope with leisure, think or do two or more things at one time. They are always in hurry to do things.

Type B personality people are relaxed, easy This people going, feel no need to display or discuss their achievements until or unless demanded by situation can relax without guilt.

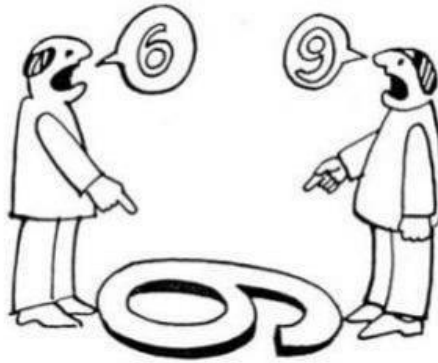


MEANING OF PERCEPTION

“Perception is the process through which the information from outside environment is selected, received, organized and interpreted to make it meaningful to you. This input of meaningful information results in decisions and actions.”

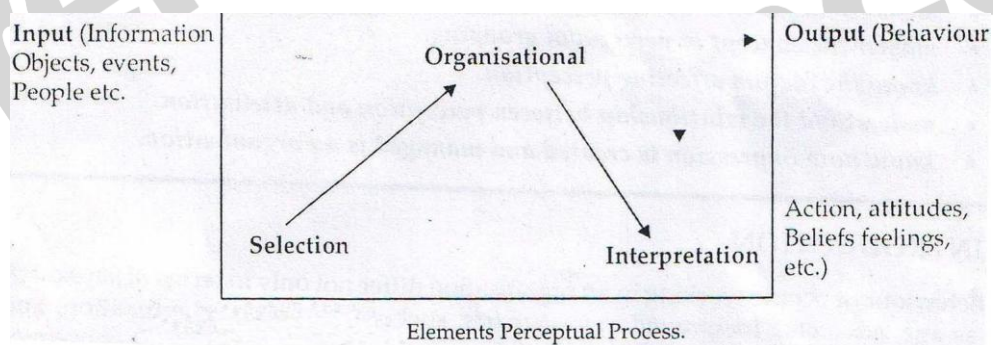
Perception is the selection and organisation of environmental stimuli to provide meaningful experience for the perceiver. Perception refers to factors that shape and produce what we actually experience. It is described as a person's views of reality and is affected by, among other things, the individual's values. For example, if a person is member of a union, he/she may discard most of what management says about declining sales, decreased profit margin, etc. Most of such talk is regarded by unions as attempts by management to exploit the workers for its own gain. Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. Thus, perception refers to giving colour to sensory inputs.

According to Joseph Reitz, “Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment – seeing, hearing, feelings, tasting and smelling.



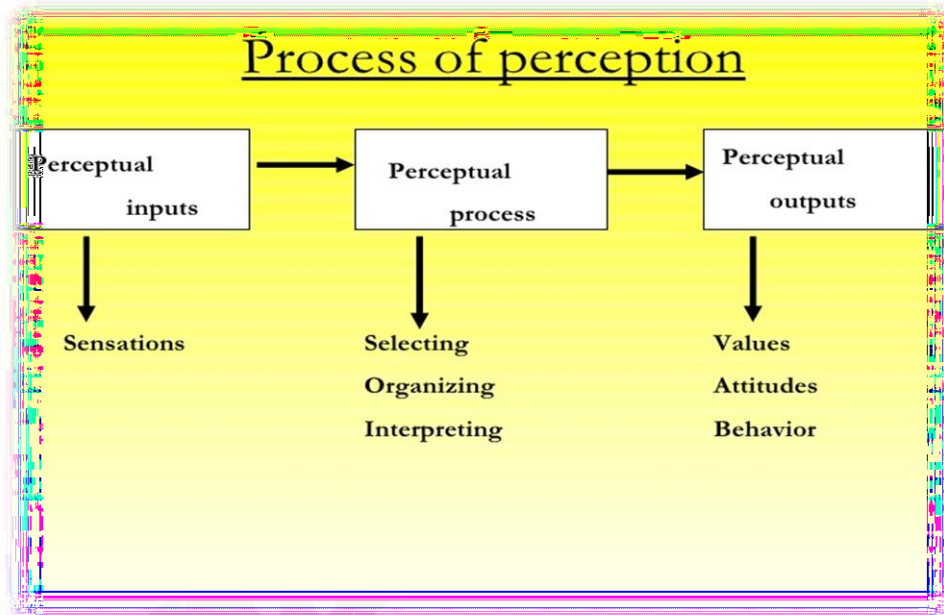
PROCESS OF PERCEPTION

Perception is the process through which people select, receive, organise, and interpret information from their environment. Through perception, people process information, inputs into decisions and actions. It is a way of forming impressions about yourself, other, people, and daily life experience. It is also a screen through which information passes before having an affect on people. As shown in below Fig., perceptual inputs are first received, then processed by the perceiver and the resultant output becomes the basis of the behaviour.



The perceptual process is a complex process. The four variables of perceptual process are discussed as under:

- (i) **Inputs.** Perceived inputs are the objects, events people, etc. that are received by the reveiver.
- (ii) **Process.** The received inputs are processed through the selection, organisation and interpretation.
- (iii) **Outputs.** Through the processing mechanism, the outputs are derived. These outputs may be feelings, actions, attitudes, etc.
- (iv) **Behaviour.** Behaviour is dependent on the perceived outputs. The perceiver's behaviour, in turn, generates responses from the perceived and these responses give rise to a new set of inputs.



STAGES OF PERCEPTION

1. **Receiving Stimuli:** Through sensory organs.
2. **Selection:** Individuals generally do not assimilate each and everything they observe, as they observe so they engage in process of selectivity. Selection is the fundamental step in perceptual process. Individual collects bits and pieces of information, not randomly, but selectivity depending on the interests, background, experience, attitudes, etc.
Selective perception process involves two psychological principles:
 - (a) **Figure Ground Principle.** In the field of perception, certain factors are considered significant which give a meaning to the person, and certain other which are either unimportant for a person or cannot be studied are left as insignificant. The meaningful and significant portion is called the "figure" and the insignificant or meaningless portion is labeled as the "ground".
 - (b) **Relevancy.** Relevancy is an important criterion for selective perception. People selectively perceive things that are relevant to their needs wants, and desires.
3. **Organisation:** The perceived inputs (incoming stimuli) are organised into meaningful pictures to the perceiver. Organising the information that is incoming into a meaningful whole is called "organisation". This process is also labeled as "gestalt process". Gestalt is a German word meaning, "to organise". There are different ways by which people organise the perceived inputs, object events, e.g., grouping, closure and simplification.
 - (a) **Grouping.** Grouping is possible depending on the similarity or proximity. The tendency to group people or things that appear to be similar in certain ways, but not in all, is a common mean of organising the perception.
 - (b) **Closure.** People when faced with incomplete information have a tendency to fill in the gaps themselves. When presented with a set of stimuli that are incomplete, people fill in the missing parts and make it more meaningful. The tendency to organise perceptual stimuli so that they form a complete message is known as 'closure'.
 - (c) **Simplification.** Whenever people are overloaded with information they try to simplify it to make more meaningful and understandable. Simplification occurs when the perceive subtracts less salient information and concentrates on important one.
4. **Interpretation.** Interpretation is an important mechanism of perception. It is a subjective and judgmental process and is influenced by many factors such as halo effect, stereotyping, attribution, impression and inference, projection etc. These may also lead to perceptual distortion.



- (a) **Halo effect.** It is the process of using a single trait of individual and drawing a general impression about him. It has an important implication for evaluation employees in an organisation. These employees with certain features are rated highly on other characteristics also. But halo effect leads to negative effects also.

The halo effect is more marked:

- (i) When the traits to be perceived are unclear in behavioural expressions.
- (ii) When the perceived does not frequently use the traits.
- (iii) When the traits have moral implications.

For instance, a stunning blonde female candidate for personal secretarial position may be viewed by a male interviewer as an intelligent and highly skilled in typing. The fact may be that she is dull and poorly skilled in typing and stenography. What really happened here is that a single trait i.e., beauty has outclassed other traits and the interviewer generalized the other traits and perceived her to be beautiful in typing also? Halo effect is also labeled as halo error, because it causes the full appraisal to be biased one. To take some more examples, the worker who is always fifteen minutes early is perceived by the boss to be competent; the attentive student is perceived by the professor to be learning a lot significant.

- (b) **Stereotyping:** It means judging people on the basis of the characteristics of the group. According to Lippmann "stereotyping" is not simply the assignment of favourable or unfavourable traits perception.

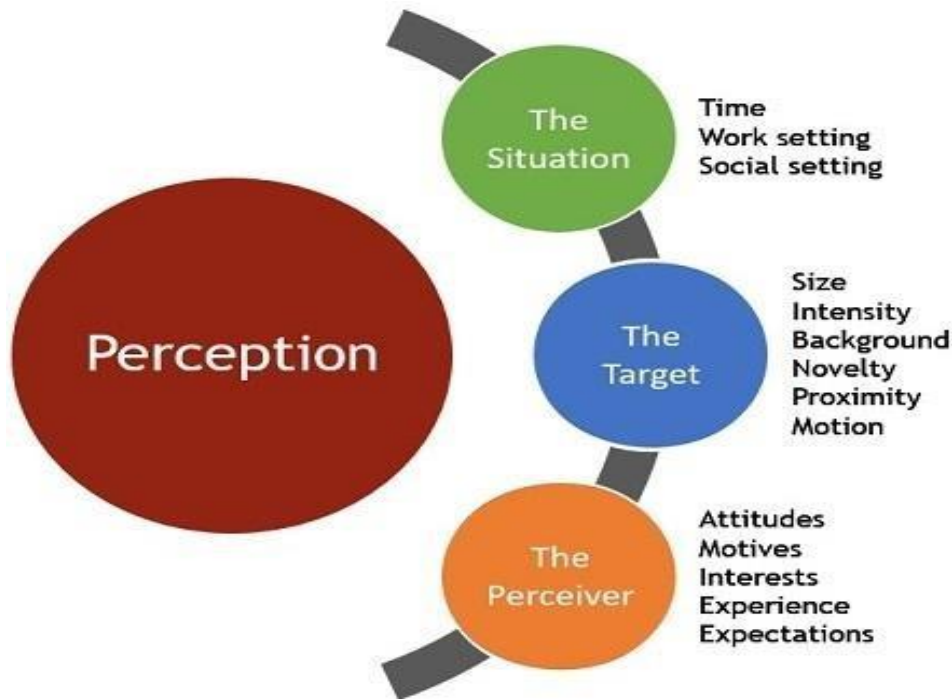
The basic advantage of stereotyping is that it helps the perceiver to simplify the complexity of the perceived world. The trouble with stereotyping is that when we perceive people as members of a particular group or category, we do not recognize them as individual, we do not see their unique characteristics and problems.

Stereotyping is particularly critical when meeting new people, since we know so little about them and we tend to characterize them according to certain categories on the basis of age, sex, occupation, caste, religion and ethnic background.

- (c) **Attribution.** When people give cause and effect explanation to their behaviour, it is known as attribution.
- (d) **Impression.** People often form impression of others on the first sight. Even before knowing any of their personality traits they start having impression and assessing. This sometimes leads to perceptual distortion. We shall discuss this aspect later in detail.
- (e) **Inference.** There is a general tendency on the part of people of judges other on limited information. For example, an employee might be sitting at his desk throughout the working hours without doing anything an employee might be sitting at his desk throughout the working hours without doing anything but it may be inferred that he is hardworking.
- (f) **Projection.** It is very easy to judge others if we assume that they are similar to us. For example, if we want freedom, challenge and responsibility in our job, we assume that other people want the same. This tendency to attributes one's own characteristics and attributes to other people is called as projection. It is to be noted that when manager engage themselves in projection, they compromise their ability to respond to individual differences. They tend to see people as more homogenous than they really are.

VARIOUS FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION

Stimuli play a significant role in the perceptual procession as various factors relating to the perceptual process have been studied by various experts. The factors influencing perceptions are perceiver characteristics, objects and situation. However, they can be categorized under specific heads such as perceiver characteristic, internal and external factors, stimuli factors etc.



(A) Internal Factors

The internal factors like needs and desires of individuals, individual personality and experience of people influence perception.

- (a) **Needs and desires.** Depending on the needs and desires of an individual, the perception varies.
- (b) **Personality.** Individual personality has a profound influence on perceived behaviour as for example.
 1. Secure individuals tend to perceive others as warm, not cold.
 2. Individuals do not expose by expressing extreme judgments of others.
 3. Persons who accept themselves and have faith in their individuality perceive things favourably.
 4. Self-accepting individuals perceive themselves as liked, wanted and accepted by others.
- (c) **Experience.** Experience and knowledge has great influence on perception. Successful experience enhances and boosts the perceptive ability and lead to accuracy in perception of a person whereas failure erodes self-confidence. A young employee takes time to understand the object and situation. Experienced employees generally understand objects quickly and correctly. But, in contradictory situations, it is difficult to correct aged employees, whereas the young employees are easily molded towards achieving the objectives of the organisation.

(B) External Factors.

The external factors, which influence the perception are ; size, intensity, frequency, status, etc.

- (a) **Size.** The bigger the size of the perceived stimulus, the higher is the probability that it is perceived. Size attracts the attention of an individual. It establishes dominance and enhances perceptual selection. The maintenance staff may pay more attention to a big machine than to a small one, even though smaller one costs as much and in as important to be operation. In advertising, full page spread attracts more attention than a few lines in the classified sections.
- (b) **Intensity.** Researches on human behaviour have revealed that the more intense the stimuli the higher attention and recognition in the perceptual process. A strong voiced Manager has more impact on supervisors and employees. It observed that managers use voice modulation to get attention of employees. Intensity attracts to increase the selective perception. Advertisers users intensity to gain customer's attraction. The intensity varies as



per need of the organisation. The same type of intensity may not be useful for all the situations and objects.

- (c) **Frequency.** Repeated external stimulus is more attention attracting than a single time. Managers send reminders regularly to reprimand the behaviour of erring employees. As advertises also repeat the advertisement to bring it to notice of customers.
- (d) **Status.** Perception is also influenced by the status the perceiver. High status people can exert greater influence on perception of an employee than low status people.
- (e) **Contrast.** Stimuli that contrast with the surrounding environment are more likely to be attention catching than the stimuli that blend in.



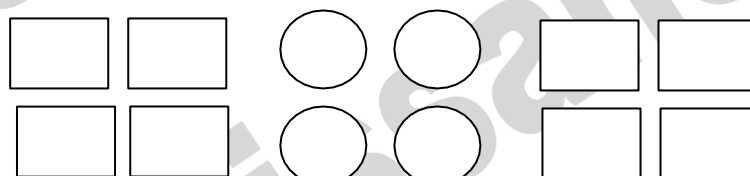
Fig. illustrates the note of perceptual principle. The black circle on the right appears larger than the one on the left because of the background circles. In fact both black circles are of the same size. In a similar manner, plant safety signs which have black lettering on a yellow background or white lettering on a red background are attention drawing. Training managers utilize this factor in organizing training programmes in places far away from work places to create contrast atmosphere.

(f) **Nature.** By nature we mean, whether the object is visual, auditory etc. It is commonly known that pictures attract attention more readily than words. Further a picture with human beings attracts more attention than a picture of inanimate objects. A rhyming auditory passage attracts attention more readily than the same passage presented as a narrative.

(C) Stimulus Factors :

It is important to discuss the various factors associated with stimulus which influence the perception by individuals and these are discussed below.

(i) **Similarity.** Other things being equal, similar things tend to be perceived as belonging together. For instance, all students with long hair and bearded may be perceived as revolutionaries.

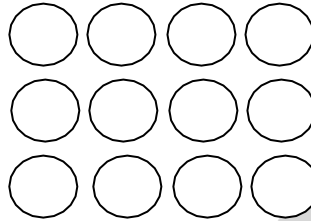


Principle of Similarity

Everybody perceives two sets of four squares and one set of four circles in mentioned above. Seldom people will say two horizontal lines, each consisting of squares and circles.



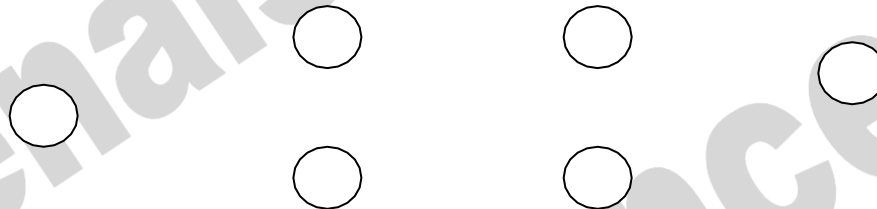
- (ii) **Proximity:** - Other thing being equal, thing near each other tends to be perceived as belonging together.



Principle of Proximity

The usual perception is three rows of four circles rather than four columns of three circles in mentioned above

- (iii) **Continuity.** Stimuli that form a complete or symmetrical figure or good form tend to be grouped as parts of a whole.



Principle of Continuity

The above arrangement of circles is usually perceived a hexagonal object rather than three rows of two each in mentioned above.

- (iv) **Context.** The environment or the setting of an object often determines how a thing will be perceived. A classic example found in most psychology books is the reversible figure is a vase or goblet. In the background is seen as white, the figure is two black profiles. This is also known as Figure Ground Principle. The figure ground principle states that the relationship of a target to its background influences perception. In other words, perceived objects stand out as separable from their general background.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY

When people attach cause-and-effect explanation to their behaviour, it is known as attribution. The more directly the particular action is attributable to the behaviour the more is the intensity of perceptual judgment by a manager. Attribution is an important factor in perception because it creates a tendency to visualize identical behaviours differently. For instance, if two employees arrive in the office one hour late, one explains late due to scooter repair on route, other attributes the hospitalization of his wife. Manager evaluates these two situations differently and is generally convinced by the case than the repair of the scooter. Attribution Theory has been proposed to develop explanation of the ways in which we judge people differently, depending upon on what incoming we attribute to a given behaviour. According to this theory the judgment depends largely on three factors (i) distinctiveness (ii) consensus, and (iii) consistency.



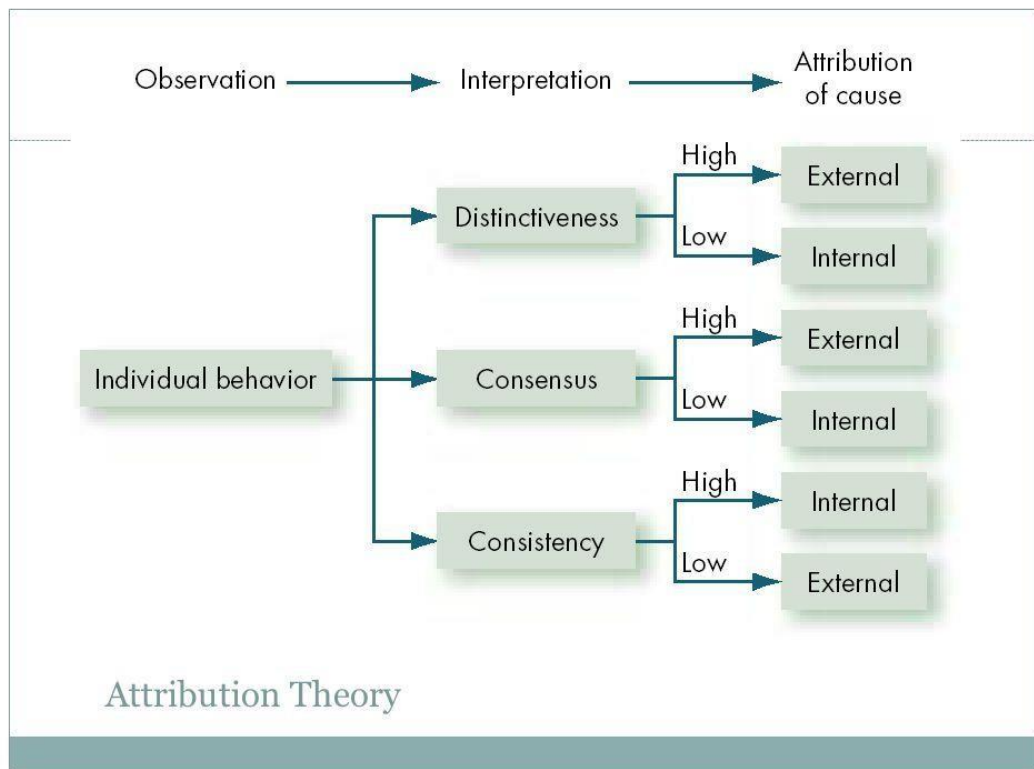
GLIMPSE OF ATTRIBUTION THEORY

When individuals observe the behavior of others, they attempt to explain this behavior by determining its cause (s). We can make either internal attribution (personality, skills, motivation) or external attributions (luck, politics, situational constraints). Attribution Theory explains when we are likely to make internal versus external attribution. Internal attributions are likely when:

1. The behavior is **Distinctiveness**, that is, do we observe the same behavioural pattern in a variety of situations or contexts (e.g., at work, at parties, etc.)?
2. There is **Consensus**, when the behaviour is different from that of others in the same situation.
3. We observe **Consistency** in the behavioural pattern across time.
4. We do not see any viable external (situational) causes of the behaviour (**Externality**).

Attribution Theory also suggests that we tend to make three typical attribution errors. These are:

1. **Fundamental Attribution Error**- We tend to attribute behaviour to internal rather than external causes, even when the cause is situational in nature.
2. **Actor-Observer Error**- We tend to attribute the behaviour of other to internal causes and the attribute our own behaviour to external causes.
3. **Self-serving Error**- We tend to take credit for successes (self internal attribution), and blame failures on others, fate, bad luck, or factors beyond our control (self external attribution).



Some Organisational Implications of Attribution Biases

Biased assessments of others and of ourselves can occur in many ways in organisation situations. A work group is likely to blame other groups or departments when failure occurs on the job. Here, the self-serving bias is not very conducive to cooperation between groups to behaviours that try to find the true cause of failure. Performance appraisal is another situation where attribution biases operate. The attribution errors can create serious disagreement amongst the various raters about what they perform well or poorly.



EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

‘Emotional intelligence is aggregate of individuals’ cognition of own and other’s emotions, feeling, interpretation and action as per environmental demand to manipulate the consequence which in turn result in superior performance and better human relationship’ (Bhattacharya, 2003).

Emotional intelligence is a measure of the degree to which a person makes use of his/her reasoning in the process of emotional responses (both positive and negative) in a given situation. So having high emotional intelligence doesn’t mean that the person never panics or loses his/her temper. It does mean that he/she brings own feelings under control and channels them into productive behaviors. The ability to bring out-of-control emotions back into line results in what earlier generations called emotional maturity.

Emotional intelligence :- “Emotional intelligence is the ability to understand your emotions and those of other people and to behave appropriately in different situations.

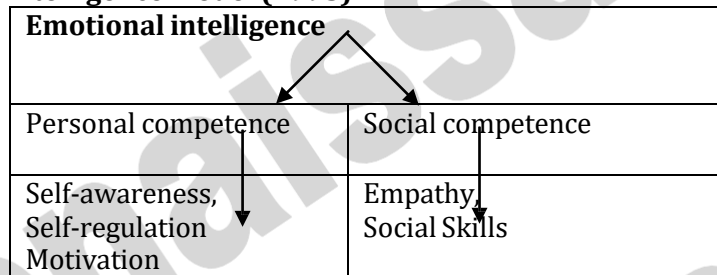
Emotions:- A strong feeling such as love, year or anger.

“Emotions are responses to specific events that have meaning to the individual either positive or negative.

Intelligence:- “A ability to understand anything in a logical way about things.

The most popular and accepted mixed model of emotional intelligence is the one proposed by Goleman (1995). He viewed emotional intelligence as a total of personal and social competences. Personal competence determines how we manage ourselves, whereas social competence determines how we handle our interpersonal relationships.

Goleman’s emotional intelligence model (1995)



PERSONAL COMPETENCIES

How we understand and management are emotions and manager ourselves.

- 1. Self Awareness:-** Self awareness is an ability of an individual to observe – understand their feelings of emotions when they arise
“Recognize the feelings as the occur”
This includes self-confidence, self assessment a openness to positive criticism.
- 2. Self-regulation:-** Self regulation is the ability to control emotions and to redirect those emotions that can have negative impact and change them into positive behavior and attitude. It includes trust worthiness integrity and attitude towards change acceptance.
- 3. Self Motivation:-** Motivation is the ability to channelize and stimulate your emotions of action through self gathering or control towards achievement of certain goals of objectives in spite of inertia (i.e. difficulty lack of desire of energy of ability to move to change or to action.) People who have this ability are optimistic and committed towards organization as well as individual goals.

SOCIAL COMPETENCIES



How we understand the emotions of others and handle and management are interpersonal relationships.

- 4. Empathy:** - Ability to feel as get concerned for others. Ability to understand others their feelings, perceptions, perspectives and to treat them according to their emotional reactions. People having this competency or ability are experts in motivating others.
- 5. Social Interpersonal Skills:** - Ability to built a good rapport of relationship with people in the organization.
Handling interpersonal relationship conflict resolution an negotiations.

SOME MYTHS ABOUT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence must be taken in right perspective. However, because of certain myths about emotional intelligence, it is not taken in right perspective. Some of the most common myths about emotional intelligence are as follows:

1. Emotional intelligence is sometimes treated as being nice to others which is not true. Emotional intelligence generates rational behaviour which must suit to the situation. In many situations, 'being nice to others' is not a rational behaviour because the other person does not expect such as nicety. In these situations, even conforming or avoiding behaviour is the demand of emotional intelligence.
2. Emotional intelligence does not mean giving free rein to feelings. Rather, it involves managing feelings so that these are expressed appropriately and effectively, enabling people to work together towards common goals.
3. There is a myth that men have higher emotional intelligence than women. It is not true. Various researches have shown that emotional intelligence has nothing to do with gender though there are certain gender-specific characteristics of men and women. Men and women have their personal profile of strengths and weaknesses which may vary among different groups of men and women.
4. There is myth that emotional intelligence is fixed genetically and develops only in, early childhood. This is not true. While IQ does not change much after adolescence, emotional intelligence changes over the period of time. This happens because IQ is a biological phenomenon. Therefore, emotional intelligence changes over the period of time through learning which is life-long process. In fact, through training and development programs, it has been possible to increase the emotional intelligence of people.

DEVELOPING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is a learned phenomenon and, therefore, it can be developed in people. Even scientists believe that emotional intelligence has nothing to do with biological factors of a person and it can be developed in people. However, this development process begins at the early stage of childhood and this process continues throughout the life, through in the later part of the life, this development process becomes much slower. Therefore, in an organizational context, concerted efforts are required to develop emotional intelligence.

1. Preparation for Change
2. Training
3. Transfer and maintenance
4. Evaluation of change



1. **Preparation for Change:** Preparation for change is the first phase for developing emotional intelligence. This phase occurs even before an individual begins training for developing emotional intelligence. Preparation for change occurs at both organizational and individual levels. This phase is basically related to assessing organizational and individual needs for developing emotional intelligence. Usually, this phase consists of the following steps:
 - (i) **Assessing the Organisation's Needs:** The organisation must assess whether its personnel need training for developing emotional intelligence and, if yes, what type of training is required. In assessing the organizational needs, two points are important which must be taken into account. First, many employees in the Organisation and work performance. Second, there is a need for identifying various emotional competencies required for success in the organization.
 - (ii) **Assessing Personal Strengths and Weaknesses:** There is a need for assessing personal strengths and weaknesses. While assessing such strengths and weaknesses, care should be taken to assess the employees approach towards the need for emotional intelligence and their learn ability so that emotional competencies can be infused in them. Often, there are two challenges that lie in assessing personal strengths and weaknesses. First, people are less aware of skill weaknesses in the social-emotional domains. Second, emotional competencies are primarily manifested in social interactions. Therefore, the best approach is one which involves ratings by experts who interact with employees.
 - (iii) **Providing Feedback.** People are eager to get feedback about any assessment of them. Therefore, immediate feedback must be made available to them. However, there are many pitfalls in providing feedback on emotional competencies as these are closely linked to employee's identity and self-esteem. Therefore, in the feedback is not provided carefully and with sensitivity and skill, employees often become defensive. Generally, employees respond.
 - (iv) **Encouraging Participation.** Emotional intelligence is perceived to be soft and, thus, somewhat suspect. Therefore, employees may decide not to participate in its development unless they are convinced that management of the organisation strongly endorses it. Since development of emotional intelligence requires active participation of employees, it is necessary to encourage this participation.
 - (v) **Linking learning Goals to Personal Values.** There is a direct linkage between the benefits of learning and the learner's motivation to learn. Thus, if employees feel that developing emotional intelligence is directly beneficial to them, they will be motivated to develop emotional intelligence. Therefore, it is necessary that management links learning with the personal goals of the employees that they value.
 - (vi) **Recognising Readiness to Change.** After completing the above steps of preparation for change, it is desirable to measure readiness of employees to change, that is, to determine whether employees are ready to participate meaningfully in training programme for developing emotional intelligence. Research on behaviour change programmes reveals that employees pass through several stages of readiness for change before they are actually ready to make commitment for change.
2. **Training:** At the second phase of development of emotional intelligence, training is provided to the participants in development programme. There may be training on different aspects of



emotional intelligence like overcoming negative emotions, developing interpersonal skills, developing empathic listening, and time management, and so on depending on the participants' individual needs. However, while providing such training, following points should be observed:

- i. **Forging Relationship with Participants:** for a trainer, it is essential that he forges a positive relationship between him and participants because the relationship between trainer and learner is critically important. The positively motivated, he will not take concrete steps for change. Therefore, it is desirable for the trainer to create a motivating environment for learning by showing empathic, warm, and genuine interest in learners. All these are important ingredients of emotional learning.
- ii. **Setting Clear Goals:** Emotional learning can be made more effective by setting clear goals. Generally, all persons do not require similar types of emotional training because of individual differences. They have separate sets of strengths and weaknesses. Not control fear or other emotional variables. Therefore, depending on the weaknesses of participants, specific and clear goals should be set so that training efforts are well directed. The trainer can help the participants to set their own specific learning goals.
- iii. **Breaking Goals into Manageable Steps:** Since larger goals are generally unmanageable especially in the context of emotional change, it is better that these goals are broken into manageable units so that these are achieved step-by-step. When a particular goal, even a small one, is achieved, this increases people's efficacy which, in turn, leads to setting more challenging goals and efforts for achieving them. In this way, achieving of higher goals, that is, development of emotional intelligence, is possible.
- iv. **Maximising Self-directed Change:** Employees are more likely to develop emotional intelligence when they decide their own goals for developing particular emotional competencies with the help of the trainer. In the same way, training programmes on emotional intelligence are more effective when the trainer adopts, the training to match employees' needs, goals, and learning style preferences. Since individuals differ, a common approach of training for all employees may not be suitable. Rather, individual differences and motivates them for self-directed change.
- v. **Maximising Opportunities for Practice:** As far as possible, employees should be provided maximum possible opportunities to develop emotional intelligence through practice during the training period. Since development of emotional intelligence is an art, rather than a science, it can be developed through practice and not merely through lectures and other one-sided methods of training. Emotional learning because old, ineffective neural connections need to be weakened and new, more effective ones established. Such a process requires repetition over a prolonged period of time.
- vi. **Relying on Experiential Methods:** For making training programmes on development of emotional intelligence effective, it is better to rely on experiential methods such as role playing, sensitivity training, emotion-related games, group dynamics training, and other simulation methods. These methods rely more on learners' participation, hence suitable for behavioral change & unlike lectures which emphasis on developing knowledge and not the practice. Lectures are suitable only for understanding various facets of emotional intelligence.
- vii. **Using Models:** In training programmes for developing emotional intelligence, models must be as far as possible because modeling of the desired behaviour is particularly valuable in emotional learning. By using models, a great deal can be learned as emotional learning is



practice-oriented. Learning is further enhanced when the trainer encourages and helps learners to study, analyze, and emulate the models.

- viii. **Providing Frequent Feedback:** Feedback to employees is very important during the change process as it works as an indicator whether the employees are on right track. Feedback also acts as reinforce and sustains motivation of employees to learn new behaviour. In emotional training, feedback is especially important because learners often have trouble in recognising how their emotional behaviour manifests itself. In fact, self- awareness is an important element for developing emotional intelligence, and it is not necessary that every learner is competent enough to have self-awareness. Feedback fulfils this gap.
 - ix. **Preventing Relapse:** Preventing relapse is necessary in emotional learning. The essence of preventing relapse is to prepare employees mentally to face slips, to recognise that setbacks are normal part of the change process. Participants in an emotional training programme are likely to encounter many setbacks as they strive to apply new behaviors. Without adequate preparation for such setbacks, they may easily become discouraged and give up their efforts for change before the task of neural learning has reached the point where the newly learned Reponses become automatic ones.
3. **Transfer and Maintenance:** After finishing training, the learners return back to their normal jobs with old prevailing work environment, the learners find many old cues of behaviour and tend to behave in the ways which have been changed during training process. With the result, newly-learned ingredient of behavioral pattern. Thus, transfer and maintenance of new behaviour become really a challenging task for the Organisation. An Organisation can take two steps for transfer and maintenance of learning in its employees: encouraging the use of skills on the job and supportive organizational culture.
- i. **Encouraging Use of Skills:** A new behaviour may become a part of an individual's normal pattern of behaviour if it is supported by the persons with whom he interacts in the Organisation. Such persons may be his superiors, peers, subordinates, and outsiders who interact with him. These persons are required to change their behavioral expectations from the individual. If they have the old expectations, they may not appreciate the new behaviour of the individual. Therefore, such persons may also require some kind of change which may occur on their own practice or through training. That is why emotional training is not very effective if it is imparted on isolated basis. Its effectiveness is ensured only through Organisation-wide training.
In addition to change in behavioral expectations, the newly trained employees should be encouraged to work according to the new skills. such an encouragement may come from all the persons interacting with the individual, however, the role of his immediate superior is more important because he is in a better position to provide reinforcement to the new behaviour displayed by his subordinate. It has been seen that reinforcement is necessary for learning and adoption of new behaviour.
 - ii. **Supportive Organizational Culture:** supportive organizational culture is necessary for transfer and maintenance of emotional learning because organisational culture is the framework within which the behaviors of the members take place. Organisational culture is the set of assumptions, beliefs, values, and norms that are shared by an organisation's members every with some unique modes of behaviour. These unique modes distinguish an Organisation from others. If the organisatoinal culture is supportive, it facilitates transfer



and maintenance of emotional learning by allowing the members to experiment innovation and organisational culture characterized by challenging jobs, linking rewards with performance, emphasis on creativity and innovation, and creating alignment by translating core values into goals, strategies, and practices is more suitable for developing emotional intelligence. Such cultural characteristics motivate organisational members to increase their productivity through more appropriate behaviours. Emotional intelligence contributes significantly to adopt appropriate behaviours.

4. **Evaluation of Change:** The last phase in emotional development is evaluation of change. In the process of development of emotional intelligence, it should be ensured that the efforts made are proceeding in right direction and these are achieving the results stipulated. The term evaluation refers to a process that focuses on continuous improvement in behaviour due to development of emotional intelligence. It is an on-going process rather than being one-shot action. Evaluation of training programmes for emotional learning, though necessary for measuring effectiveness of the programmes, is often missed by many organisations. With the result, the efforts of such organisations do not produce the results up to desired level. Keeping this phenomenon in mind, many organisations programmes, whether behavioral or others must be evaluated. In evaluating the effectiveness of change efforts related to the development of emotional intelligence, following steps are followed:

- i. **Defining Change Objectives:** Any evaluation of an action is made in the light of the objectives which it seeks to achieve. Therefore, the change programmes related to the development of emotional intelligence must be evaluated in the light of emotional competencies that are to be developed in the participants. However, since such competencies may be of different types, these must be identified in advance. Similarly, the criteria for the acquisition of each type of emotional competencies must also be specified in advance. However, prescribing such criteria may not be easy task because of the operation of a number of factors affecting one's behaviour at workplace. In order to overcome this phenomenon, the criteria may be determined in two forms: immediate criteria and ultimate criteria. Immediate criteria are related to behavioral pattern shown by learners during the training process. These criteria are easily measurable through psychological tests. Problems emerge in the case of ultimate criteria which are defined in terms of learner's actual behavioural pattern at the workplace. Since behavioural pattern at the workspace is affected by a number of factors external to the learners, these factors must be identified in advance and care should be taken to measure the effects of these factors. After eliminating the effects of these factors, objective evaluation of change efforts can be made.
- ii. **Collection of Information:** For evaluating the effectiveness of change efforts to develop emotional intelligence, information should be collected from various sources. These sources are in the form of learner's immediate superior and other superiors with whom he interacts, his peers and subordinates, outsiders with whom the learner interacts in the course of organisational working, and the learner's own views. In fact, many organisations have adopted this practice for appraising performance of their employees. This system is known as 360 degree appraisal. Besides collecting information from these sources, information should be collected about the actual output of the learner as reflected in the form of productivity, absenteeism, tardiness, etc.
- iii. **Analysis:** Collected information may be analysed to interpret the impact of change efforts for developing emotional intelligence. There may be several aspects is being affected by



several factors, the analysis may be carried out further to identify the contribution of change efforts. Two points are important in information collection and its analysis. First, information to measure the immediate impact of change efforts should be collected immediately after change efforts are over because learners may observe the old behaviour even after change efforts if the new behaviour is not gratifying due to various organisational constraints. Second, there should be immediate feedback to the learners concerned so that they are also able to know the results of change efforts. Immediate feedback also acts as energising factor.

EXAMPLES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

1. You are in a meeting when a colleague takes credit for work that you have done. What do you do?
 - a. Immediately and publicly confront the colleague over the ownership of your work.
 - b. After the meeting, take the colleague aside and tell her that you would appreciate in the future that she credits you when speaking about your work.
 - c. Nothing, it's not a good idea to embarrass colleagues in public.
 - d. After the colleague speaks, publicly thank her for referencing your work and give the group more specific details about what you were trying to accomplish.
2. You are a manager in an organization that is trying to encourage respect for racial and ethnic diversity. You overhear someone telling a racist joke. What do you do?
 - a. Ignore it. The best way to deal with these things is not to react.
 - b. Call the person into your office and explain that their behaviour is inappropriate and is grounds for disciplinary action if repeated.
 - c. Speak up on the spot, saying that such jokes are inappropriate and will not be tolerated in your organization.
 - d. Suggest to the person telling the joke that he go through a diversity training program.
3. A discussion between you and your partner has escalated into a shouting match. You are both upset and in the heat of the argument, start making personal attacks which neither of you really mean. What are the best things to do?
 - a. Agree to take a 20-minute break before continuing the discussion.
 - b. Go silent, regardless of what your partner has to say.
 - c. Say you are sorry, and ask your partner to apologize too.
 - d. Stop for a moment, collect your thoughts, then restate your side of the case as precisely as possible.
4. You have been given the task of managing a team that has been unable to come up with a creative solution to a work problem. What is the first thing that you do?
 - a. Draw up an agenda, call a meeting and allot a specific period of time to discuss each item.
 - b. Organize an off-site meeting aimed specifically at encouraging the team to get to know each other better.
 - c. Begin by asking each person individually for ideas about how to solve the problem.
 - d. Start out with a brainstorming session encouraging each person to say whatever comes to mind, no matter how wild.



5. You have recently been assigned a young manager in your team and have noticed that he appears to be unable to make the simplest of decisions without seeking advice from you. What do you do?
- a. Accept that he “does not have what it takes to succeed here” and find others in your team to take on tasks.
 - b. Get an HR manager to talk to him about where he sees his future in the organization.
 - c. Purposely give him lots of complex decisions to make so that he will become more confident in the role.
 - d. Engineer an ongoing series of challenging but manageable experiences for him, and make yourself available to act as his mentor.



UNIT-III

LEADERSHIP

Leadership is an integral and important part of management and plays a very vital role in managerial process.

Leadership is the ability to build up confidence and zeal among people and to create an urge in them to be led. Leadership is the practice of influence that stimulates subordinates or followers to do their best towards the achievement of desired goals.

Leadership



The ability to lead effectively is a key to better managerial performance. There is not magic formula of becoming a good leader. Effective leaders are not created by simply attending a one-day leadership workshop, yet it is not totally in their genes either. One can become an effective leader if a person has willingness to invest the time and energy to develop all the “right-stuff”.

Leadership is the activity of influencing the behavior of people to work willingly and with determination for the accomplishment of specific goals & objectives. A person who attempts to influence the behavior of others become a potential leader and the people he is attempting to influence are called as potential followers.

“Leadership is a ability to influence a group of people so that they strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of goals.”

Elements of willingness is very important in the definition of leadership this elements differentiates leadership (leaders) from the managers. Motivating and influencing people to move towards a common goal are the elements of management but the “willingness” of the followers to be led, highlights the special quality of leaders that puts them above the managers. Leadership is a function of-

$$L = F (F \times g \times w \times s)$$

L = leadership

F = Functional Relationship

G = Goal

W = Willingness of subordinates

S = Situation



NATURE OR CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP

- 1. Personal Ability:** Leadership is basically a person ability and skill. It is a personal power which arises out of knowledge, expertise and personality. According to Koontz and others, it is the ability induces subordinates to work with confidence and zeal towards the achievements of organizational goals.
- 2. Followership.** Leadership requires followers. It is inseparable from followers. Involves other people, usually in the form of subordinates. It cannot exist without group of followers. Koontz and D'Donnel say, "The essence of leadership is followership. It is the willingness of people to follow that makes a person a leader."
- 3. Influencing Behaviour:** Leadership envisages "the power of influence." It involves an attempt to influence another group member.
- 4. Interpersonal Relationship:** Leadership involves group behaviour. It is interaction between a leader and one or more followers. It is a reciprocal relationship.
- 5. Mutual Goals:** Leadership involves a community of interest between the leader and his followers. It exists from the realization of common goals.
- 6. Its Essence is Performance.** Leadership depends on doing. Most people agree that leadership is not a personality trait, but doing something-guiding, directing, influencing or mobilizing actions. Peter Drunker has rightly remarked, "Leadership has little to do with 'leadership qualities' and even less do with 'charisma'. It is mundane, unromantic and boring. It is work. Its essence is performance."
- 7. Exemplary conduct:** Leaders not only but also influence by their behaviour. They put example in their actions before the subordinates. Urwick has rightly said, "It is not what a leader says, still less what he writes, that influences subordinates. It is what he is. And they judge what he is by what he does and what he behaves."
- 8. Leadership is Situational:** It assumes that leaders are the product of given situations. Leader emerges out of situation. Leadership is dynamic art. The most effective way to lead is a dynamic and flexible process that adapts to the particulars situation.
- 9. Assumption of Responsibility:** The leader assumes full responsibility for all actions of his followers. He remains responsible in all situations.
- 10. Importance of Communication:** Leadership is established through the communication process. Communication affects the behaviour and performance of followers. The inability to communication is a serious deficiency in influencing people.
- 11. All Managers are not Leaders:** Manager are appointed and have legitimate power that allows them to reward and punish. In contrast, leaders may either be appointed or emerge from within a group. Leaders can influence others to perform beyond me actions dictated by formal authority. They have personal capabilities to influence others. However, not all leaders necessarily hold managerial positions.
- 12. Leadership may be Formal or Informal:** Managers who influence the behaviour of their assigned group are the formal leaders of organizations. Their ability to influence is founded upon the formal authority inherent in their positions. Within the organization, informal groups develop, and within those groups informal leaders who influence the behaviour of other group members.
- 13. Four-faceted Concept:** Leadership involves four elements - leader, followers, organization and the environment (social, economic and political conditions.) These affect one another in



determining appropriate leadership behaviour. To Terry, it implies that “almost everyone can at times show leadership behaviour.”

- 14. Process:** Leadership is a process engaged in by certain individual. It is an ongoing activity in an organization. Its outcome is some form of goal accomplishment.

In brief, some important functions of a leader are as follows:

- 1. Formulate Purpose:** A leader defines institutional mission and role. He not only formulates the purpose of the group, he also advances it. His approach is goal-oriented.
- 2. Inspire and Initiate Actions:** A leader inspires individuals to make their optimum contribution to organization goals. According to Urwick, the leader initiates all those measures necessary to keep the undertaking healthy and progressive within a competitive economy.
- 3. Administer the Organization:** To administer and undertaking, a leader performs the functions of forecasting planning, organizing, direction, coordination and control.
- 4. Interpret Reasons:** Leaders make sense of dynamic environment and interpret it to employees. They redirect their efforts to adapt to changing conditions. Urwick says, “Leaders interpret the reasons for everything to everybody.”
- 5. Represent the Institution.** Representing his institution in dealings with outside groups: government officials, suppliers, customers and the public in general is another function of a leader.
- 6. Group Interaction:** The leader facilitates interaction and exchange of idea among organization members. This is done through communication system, which is maintains in the organization.
- 7. Goal Accomplishment:** The leader persuades all subordinates to contribute to organizational goals in accordance with their maximum capability and zeal.
- 8. Develop Teamwork:** A good leader always attempts to gain an understanding of group dynamics and to develop and nurture voluntary co-operation. He develops trust and friendliness by bringing consistency and fairness in his actions.
- 9. Direct and Discipline the Employees:** The leader gives necessary instructions and guidance to the individuals in a formal way. He develops devoted and loyal followers and maintains obedience through discipline.
- 10. Ordering of Internal Conflict:** The leader seeks to maintain harmony among the members of the organization. He tries to prevent his group breaking up into opposing factions.
- 11. Defend the Organization’s Integrity:** The leader integrates the group with the organization. He protects the ethical values, human ideals and working principles.
- 12. Maintain Stability.** The leader also helps maintain the stability of an organization in a turbulent environment. He assists in internal coordination and maintains a stable work force.

Distinction between Leadership and Management

	Management	Leadership
1	Management cannot function without formal organization structure and roles.	Leadership can exist in both organized and unorganized group.
2	A manager directs people though he use of normal authority.	But a leader may or may not have formal authority. He directs people through the use of informal and personal power.
3	Management is a special kind of leadership	Leadership is a broader concept than



BBA 1st Year

Subject- Organizational Behavior

	in which achievement of organizational goals is important.	management. It occurs any time one attempts to influence the behaviour of others regardless of the reasons.
4	Management is related to the attainment of organizational goals.	It may be for one's goal or for those of others. It may or may not be congruent with organizational goals.
5	A manager has to perform five functions of management - planning, organizing, staffing directing, and controlling	Leadership functions come under directing. A leader directs followers by influencing their behaviour. Thus, from a functional angle, leadership is a part of management but not all of it.
6	Management implies the existence superior-subordinate relationships.	Leadership behaviour can occur anywhere. It does not require manager-managed relationship.
7	Its authority arises out of a job position.	Its power arises out of personal ability, knowledge, expertise, performance or situations.
8	Managers are accountable for the job behaviour of their subordinates.	A leader is not accountable for the behaviour of followers.
9	The manager administers.	The leader innovates.
10	The manager is copy. He imitates.	The leader is original. He originates.
11	The manager accepts the status quo.	The leader challenges it.



Styles and Patterns of Leadership



a. **Style based on attitude**

1. **Positive Leadership-** In this style of leadership leader use positive rewards like recognition, pride & Praise as well as extrinsic rewards like salary hike, promotion, increase of perks & allowances to get the work done from people. Positive leader has a mindset that rewards will make employees happy & satisfied and will motivate them to work effectively and efficiently as desired from them. People will always focus on improving their performance for getting more rewards. This style of leadership leads to higher job satisfaction and performance.
2. **Negative Leadership-** In this style of leadership leaders use negative rewards like fear loss of job, reprimand, demotion, fear of suspension, force, threats penalties or a few days off without pay on people to get the work done from them. This style can help in getting good results in many situations but it is not human in nature and creates a negative & non-acceptable image of a leader in the mind of followers. It leads of more of bossism than leadership.

b. **Style based on use of Authority**

c.



Styles of Leadership

Autocratic

“Self-Ruling”

Democratic

“Work Together”

Free-rein

“Hands Off”

1. **Autocratic style-** This style of leadership is also known as authoritarian or directive style. This style involves retention of full authority by the leader. Leader makes all the decisions without even consulting and involving employees. In this style of leadership leader only gives order & instructions to their subordinates for getting the work done and also expects from subordinates to follow the orders and instructions. Leaders assume full responsibility for all the actions. There are basically four types of autocratic leaders.

- i. **Pure Autocrat-** Pure autocrat is a dictator and decides everything without consultation from his subordinates. He uses negative motivation, criticism, penalties coercion etc to get work done. This type of leader is ineffective in democratic organization & people remain insecure and uninformed under him.
- ii. **Benevolent Autocrat-** This type of leaders centralizes decision making power in their hands and used positive rewards and manipulative styles to get the work done from their subordinates.
- iii. **Paternalistic Autocrat-** Such leaders plays the role of father for their subordinates such leaders provide benefits but do not respect their employees. They do not treat their subordinates as mature & responsible. This style of leadership is considered as unsuccessful in many work organizations.
- iv. **Incompetent Autocrat-** Such leaders adopts an autocratic style of leadership just to hide their incompetence before their subordinates. This style cannot be adopted for long time.

Advantages

- i. This style of leadership leads to quick decision making as leaders does not need to consult their group members.
- ii. It allows the use of less competent subordinates.
- iii. It provides security & structure to employees.



- iv. It provides strong motivation to self-centered leaders.
- v. It is useful to those subordinates who are not interested to assume responsibility.

Disadvantages

- i. It creates fear & frustration & provides less freedom of work & self development to employees.
 - ii. It gives adverse effect on productivity.
 - iii. It restricts the development of future leaders.
 - iv. It leads to defensive behavior from subordinates.
2. **Democratic or Participative Style-** A participative or democratic style of leadership is one in which managers involve their subordinates in decision making. There is decentralization of authority by leaders and they consult & encourage subordinates for participation in decision making process. There is high regard for people and sufficient freedom is allowed to people to work. Participative leaders are basically of three related types-
- i. **Consultative leaders-** This type of leader takes the opinion from group before making a decision but they do not have the obligation to accept the group's thinking and these leaders make it clear that they alone have final authority to make final decisions.
 - ii. **Consensual leaders-** this type of leaders encourage a group discussion on an issue and then make a decision that reflects the general opinion (consensus) of all group members. Consensual leaders delegate more authority to the group than consultative leaders.
 - iii. **Democratic leaders-** Democratic leaders delegate full authority to their subordinates for decision making. They function as collectors of opinion and take a vote before making a decision.

Advantages

- i. This leadership leads to qualitative decision making as number of people are encouraged to express their ideas.
- ii. A positive & human relationship is established between the leader and followers.
- iii. It creates job satisfaction motivation and morale & also reduces employees' grievances.
- iv. It creates an environment of trust, confidence, mutual co-ordination & loyalty.
- v. It improves talent, productivity employees and also increases their acceptances to management ideas & actions.

Limitations

- i. It leads to delay in decision making.
 - ii. This style works well if employees are skilled & well informed about organizational problems.
 - iii. This style can result into complete loss of leaders control over the employees.
3. **Free-rein Style-** This style of leadership is also called as laissez- faire. In this style of leadership leaders abdicates from leadership position and depends mostly upon the group to establish its own goals and to solve their own problems. Subordinates are given high degree of freedom in their operations. They are their own trainees and source of motivation. Free rein leader avoids



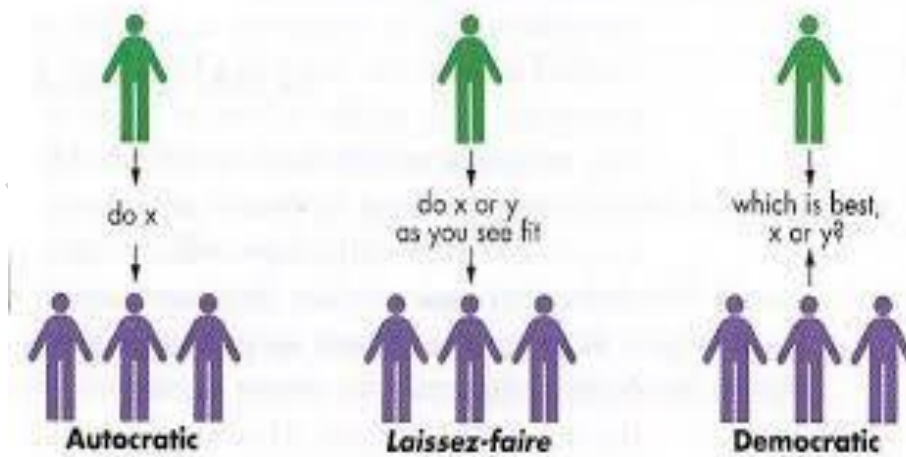
power & responsibility and only provides information & represents the group to outsiders. This type of leadership is effective only when the group members are highly knowledgeable, independent, motivated and fully dedicated to the firm.

Advantages-

- i. It helps in the personality development of subordinates.
- ii. It gives the feeling of responsibility among group members
- iii. It creates climate of work freedom & team spirit.

Disadvantages-

- i. It may result in disorganized activities.
- ii. It leads to absence of centralized authority which results in group conflict & loss of group cohesiveness.
- iii. Some leaders use this style to avoid responsibility.
- iv. It leads to “non-leadership” and lack of control of leaders over employees.



C) Style based on Behaviour of leader- This type of leadership focus on behavior of leader towards the task as well as the people who are performing the task. A four combination style of leadership can be based on behavior of leader.

- i. **High-task and Low-Relationship-** This type of leadership leader has the main emphasis on the accomplishment of tasks and spends very less time to maintain relations & to provide psychological support to employees. This is more of work-oriented approach and is suitable where the employees are in experiences with the work to be performed. This type of leaders is not necessarily rude or discourteous.
- ii. **High-Task and High Relationship-** In this type of leadership style a leader gives high emphasis to both task accomplishment as well as Relationship building with employees. Leader spends considerable time to get work done and provide psychological support to employees. This leadership style is best in situations where people need an active & involved leader as well as in case of lack of self-confidence, or technical in employees.



- iii. **High Relationship and Low Task-** A leader using this type of leadership style gives much encouragement & psychological support to employees but gives a minimum guidance about the task accomplishment.
- iv. **Low Relationship and Low Task-** These leaders have a free-rein leadership style and give very little support, encouragement, praise as well as guidance to do work to employees. This style can be followed where subordinates are highly skilled & mature.

D) Style based on assumptions about people- Here leadership style depends upon the assumption which a leader has about his subordinates. This two way classification of leadership is based on MC Gregor's theory X & theory Y of motivation. This style is basically of two types-

- i. **Job-Centered Leadership-** This is a task oriented style of leadership where by a leader focus on getting work done effectively by employees. It is concerned with work designing, production, planning, development of incentives, resource allocation to increase work productivity. This type of leaders focus on making employee work and plan out for worker's job tasks and job out comes. This style of leadership is suitable for theory X leaders who distrust people and believe in close supervision.
- ii. **Employee- Centered Leadership-** This is people where leaders treat subordinates as person, avoids close supervision, and actively considers needs of employees and encourages them to glow, develop. This leadership style is for theory y leaders who trust their subordinates and encourage their participation and development.

E) Style based on decision making - Renises likert classified four styles of leadership-



System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
Exploitive Authoritative	Benevolent Authoritative	Consultative Authoritative	Participative Authoritative

- i. **Exploitive Authoritative-** He is highly autocratic, little trust on subordinates; limits decision-making at the tap, avoid upward communication & motivate people through fear.



- ii. **Benevolent authoritarian-** This kind of leader has a patronizing attitude towards employees, invites new ideas from subordinates allow some delegation and motivate then by rewards and some use of punishment.
- iii. **Consultative Authoritarian-** Leaders have substantial but not complete trust in employees. They invite ideas from subordinates, allow for decision making by subordinates in some case but act consultatively in various matters.
- iv. **Participative authoritarian-** Leaders have complete trust in decision-making of employees in all matters. He involves high level participation of subordinates, set high performance of goals & act a source of knowledge & guidance for subordinates. According to Likert those who apply 4th style of leadership are more successful as leaders.

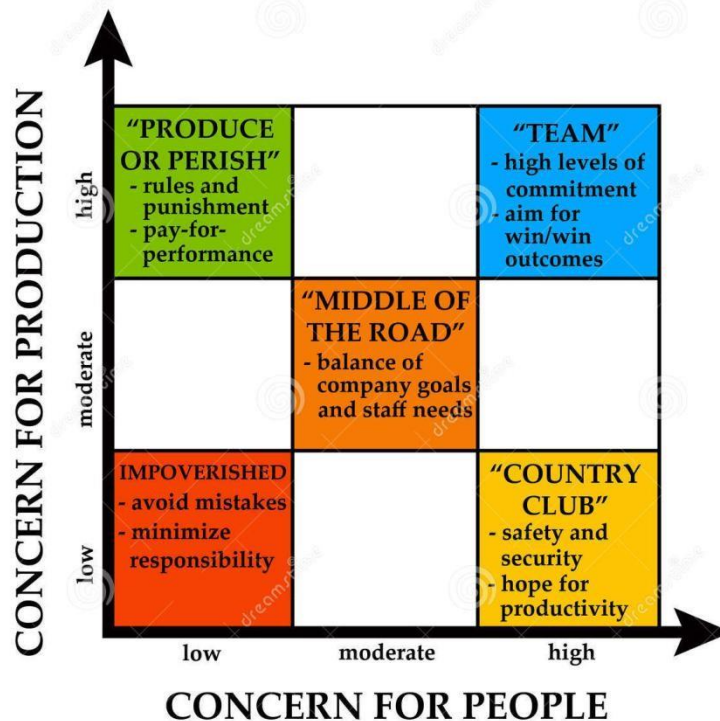
F) Style based on concern for production versus concern for people:

Managerial Grid Style- This leadership style was given by Blake & Mouton. This grid classifies leaders as having five dimensions- concern for people and concern for production. Grid shows five combination of leadership style.

- i. **Impoverished Management-** It has low concern for both people and production. The leader has minimum involvement in his job and only act as a messenger for communicating information from superiors to subordinates.
- ii. **Country club Management-** Under this style a leader has no concern for production but has only concern for people. He concentrates on warm human relations.
- iii. **Task Management-** Under this style leads is highly concern for task management and little or no concern for subordinates needs & motivation
- iv. **Team Management-** Leaders has strong regard for both people and production. Team leader's leads to high morale and high efficiency.
- v. **Middle Road Management-** Leader give medium concern for production and for people and leader attains adequate level of performance by balancing efficiency with reasonable goods human relations. Blake & Mouton suggests that the team leaders' style (9, 9) is most effective because it combines a high degree of concern for people as well as production.



MANAGERIAL STYLES



Theories of Leadership

Trait Theory

Trait theory of leadership focus on the individual characteristics or set of trait or features which all the successful leaders have and which make them distinct from their followers. The criteria for becoming a leader depends on the set of features or personality traits which a person posses. A broad category of traits of successful leaders are as under-

1. Physical characteristics such as age, weight, height.
2. Background characteristics such as education, social status, motivation and experience.
3. Intelligence- ability, judgment, knowledge.
4. Task-oriented characteristics-achievement needs responsibility, initiative and persistence.
5. Social characteristics-popularity, Prestige, tact, diplomacy acceptance of social responsibility.
6. Maturity, human relations attitude, fairness, adaptability and open-mindedness.



Merits of Trait Theory

1. This theory focus on certain traits which a leader should have which make them differentiated from non-leaders.
2. This theory relate to the influence of personality on one's effectiveness.
3. This theory has certain practical implications. If proper leadership traits could be identified be able to get good leaders. This theory differentiates leaders from non-leaders on the basis of personality traits.

Limitations of Trait Theory

1. List of personality traits of successful as not specific.
2. This theory assumes that a leader is born and not trained.
3. Leadership effectiveness does not depend on personality of a leader alone.

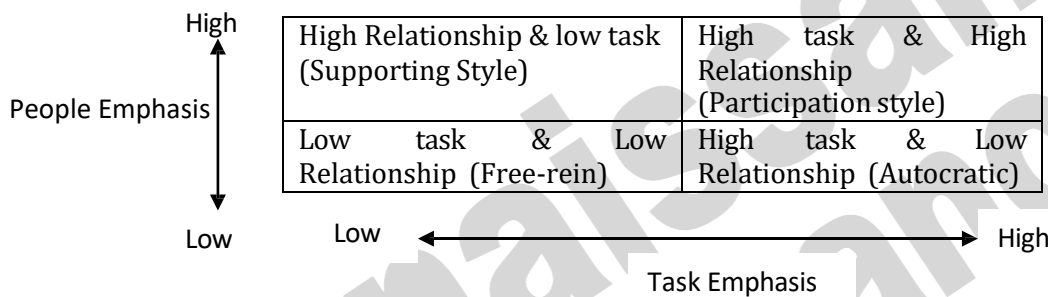
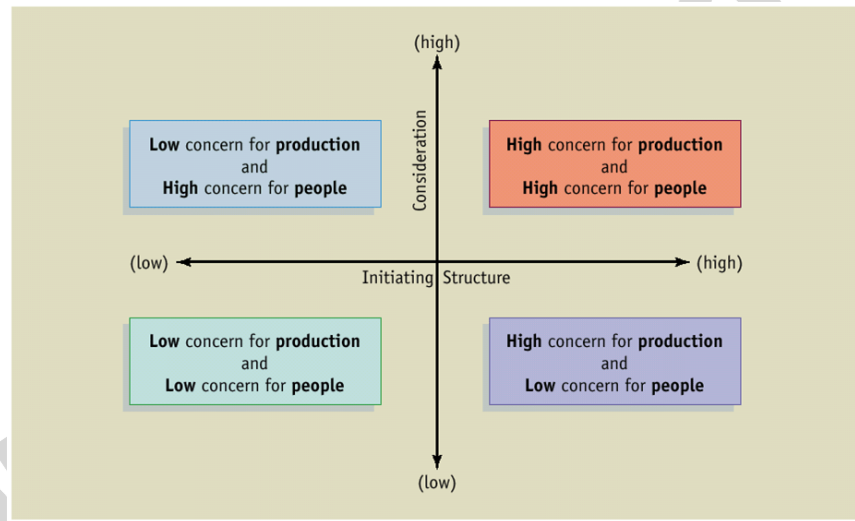
Behavioural Theories

Behavioural theories give an emphasis on the behaviour of leaders rather than on the traits or personality features of a leader. This approach differs from trait approach is two ways-

1. Emphasis is made on leaders' behaviour instead of personal traits.
2. Trait studies separate leaders from non-leaders where as behavioural studies where as behavioural studies emphasize on impact of leaders behavioural on employees' performance & satisfaction. There are two important Behavioural theories-
 - a. **OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY STUDIES-** These studies were stated shortly after World War II. The main objective of this study was to determine the major dimensions of leadership and to investigate on employee performance & satisfaction. Two dimensions of leadership were identified in this study to identify the behaviour of leaders-
 - i. **The initiating Structure-** It refers to leader behaviour that defines & organizes the group tasks, assigns the task to employees and supervises their activities. Leader follows task-oriented behaviour.



- ii. **Consideration-** It refers to leaders' behaviour characterized by friendliness, respect, supportiveness, openness, trust and concern for welfare of people. This study states that both consideration and initiating structure are not been seen as being placed continuously. A leader can be high or low on both the dimensions or could be high on one & low on other dimensions.



Main findings of Ohio state studies are-

1. Consideration was positively related to low absenteeism and grievance, but it was negatively or neutrally related to performance.
2. Initiating structure was positively related to employee performance but was also associated with such negative consequences as absenteeism and grievances as absenteeism and grievances.
3. When both consideration & structure were high, performance and satisfaction was high but in some cases high productivity was accompanied by absenteeism and grievances.

- b. **THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN STUDIES-** These studies were conducted during same period as at Ohio state and resulted in identical conclusions. Researchers at university of Michigan distinguished between two dimensions of leadership.



1. **Production centered**- Where leader set rigid tasks, standards describe work methods & closely supervise subordinates.
2. **Employee centered**- Where leaders encourage employee participation in goal setting & work decisions, have respect and trust and ensure high performance from employee.

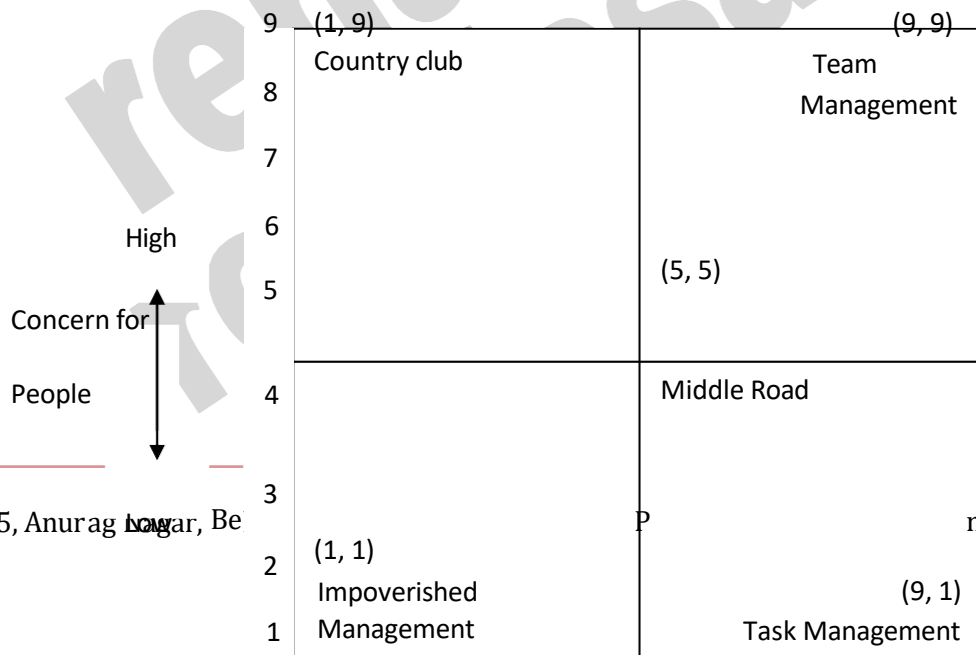
Michigan study's findings were same like Ohio studies analysis that employee and work orientation are two separate dimensions and that a leader can be either high or low one the dimension or both and these dimensions cannot be placed continuously in leader.



Two styles developed by Michigan researchers were similar to Ohio state people. Production centered → initiating structure. Employee centered → consideration.

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- iii. **Task Management**- Under this style leader is highly concern for task management and little or no concern for subordinates needs & motivation
- iv. **Team Management**- Leaders has strong regard for both people and production. Team leader's leads to high morale and high efficiency.
- v. **Middle Road Management**- Leader give medium concern for production and for people and leader attains adequate level of performance by balancing efficiency with reasonable goods human relations. Blake & Mouton suggests that the team leaders' style (9, 9) is most effective because it combines a high degree of concern for people as well as production.



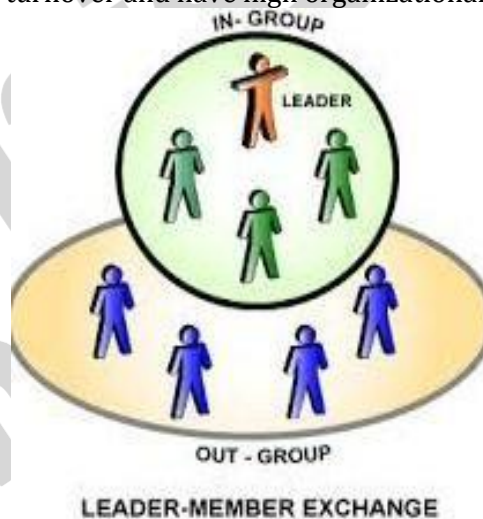


Evaluation of Behavioural Theory

Behaviour theories focus on what leader did, how they delegate task, communicate & motivate subordinates and how they carry on their work. They focus that behaviour can be learnt and individual having appropriate behaviour can become a effective leader.

Leader- member Exchange (LMX) Theory- This theory is also called vertical dyad model. This approach also focuses on leader behaviours. A vertical dyad consists of two persons who are linked hierarchically such as superior & a subordinate and a leader's behaviour depends upon who is a subordinate. According to LMX theory a leader form two groups-

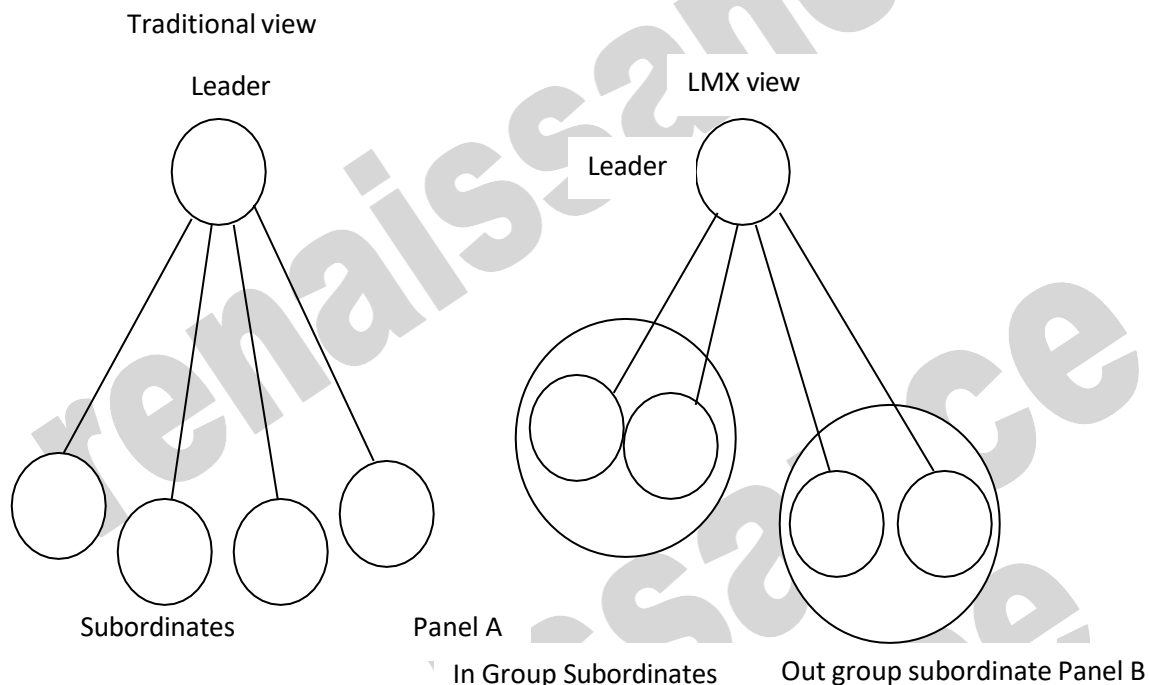
1. **In-GROUP-** Consist of those subordinates or group members who are similar to the leader and get greater responsibilities, more attention and more rewards. They work within the leaders inner circle of communication.
2. **Out-Group-** Consist of those members who are outside the circle and receive less attention and fewer rewards. They are managed by formal rules & policies. In -group members are more satisfied have lower turnover and have high organizational commitment & vice-versa.



Implication of the Theory



1. Leadership can be better understood by forming & examining dyads (Pair of relationship) model by leader & member rather than focusing on average leadership style.
2. Theory focused that average leadership style (same or average behaviour of leader to all the group members) is impractical & traditional in approach.
3. Theory focus that leader behave differently with in-group members & out group members.



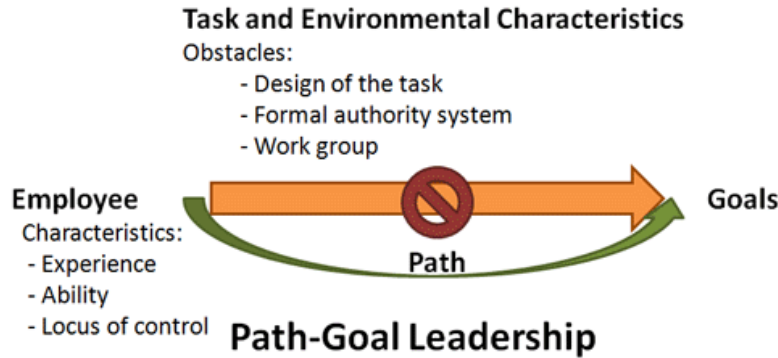
In this figure (Panel a) shows the traditional view of leaders & Subordinates where equality in behaviour of leader to subordinate is shown. (Panel b) reflects the vertical dyad where in-group members enjoy a better relationship with leader than out group members which can be shown by differing distances as well as differences in equality of working relationship, influence, authority and access to information.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership- This approach to leadership was developed by Robert House. The essence of this theory is that leader uses organizational structure, rewards, resources and support to create a favorable work environment where subordinates can work to achieve organizational goals and also clear the path for the goal achievement for subordinates. The theory is called as path goal theory because its major concern is how the leader influence the subordinates perception regarding their work goals, personal goals and path to achieve goals.

Theory suggests that a leader's behaviour is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behaviour increases the goal attainment and clarifies the path to these goals. Path -goal theory is one of the contingency models. The leader's effectiveness, according to the path goal theory in



influencing rewards and expectancies depends on the characteristics of the environment and subordinates.



Consider:

- Employee characteristics
- Task & environment characteristics

Select Leadership Style:

- Directive
- Supportive
- Participative
- Achievement-oriented

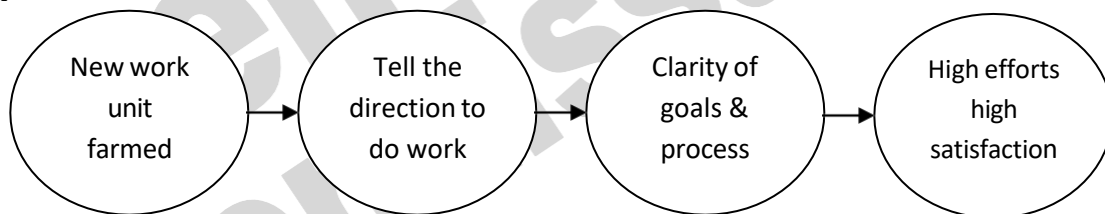
Focus on Motivation:

- Define goals
- Clarify path
- Remove obstacles
- Provide support

In figure the ultimate effect of leadership behaviour on motivation and satisfaction is contingent upon the characteristics of environment and of subordinates and follower perceptions about effort reward linkage.

Evaluation of Theory- The path-goal theory deserves appreciation as the theory suggest that leader should first assess the situation and then select a leadership behaviour appropriate to situation for linking effort to performance expectancies performance to reward expectancies or valance to outcome.

Example-situation leader follower outcomes

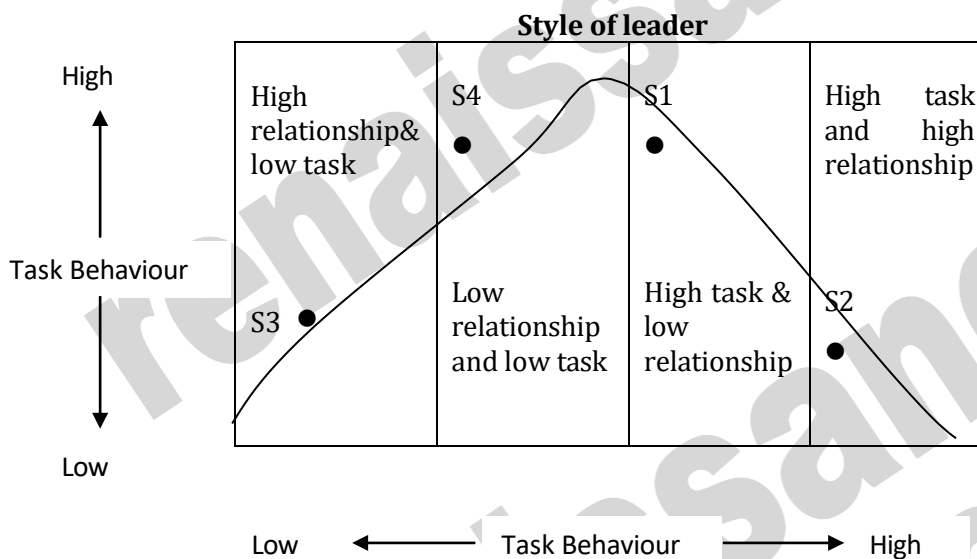




The situational leadership Theory

This theory of leadership was developed by Paul Hersey & Kenneth Blanchard. This theory focusses on 'maturity' of followers for deciding the appropriate leadership style. Theory focus on that situational leadership requires adjusting the leader's emphasis on task behaviour (guiding & direction) and relationship behaviour (offering socio-emotional support) according to the maturity of followers in performing their tasks. Maturity according to this theory means desire for achievement, willingness to accept responsibility etc.

Hersey and Blanchard believe that the relation between leader and subordinates moves through four phases like a life cycle as subordinates develop and mature. Leaders or managers need to change their leadership styles with each phase.



S1 = Telling
S2 = Selling
S3 = Participating
S4 = Delegation

1. In first stage in a figure i.e. at initial phase subordinates enter in a organization so manager should follow the directive or task oriented approach to clear the goals, task, rules & procedures in an organization to subordinates. This style is also called as "Telling' approach of leadership
2. In the second stage subordinates start learning their tasks but task-orientation still remains essential as subordinates are not yet willing or able to accept full responsibility. Managers become familiar with subordinates so that can follow employed oriented behaviour. This is called as 'selling' or coaching approach to leadership.



3. In third phase subordinates involvement, ability and achievement motivation are increases so managers is not required to be directive manager will trust subordinates. This is called as 'participating' style.
4. In fourth phase manager can reduce the amount of support & encouragement as subordinates gradually become more confident, self-directing & experienced. Subordinates are 'on their own' and no longer need to expect a directive relationship with their manager. This is also called as 'delegating style.'

Stages of Team Development

This process of learning to work together effectively is known as team development. Research has shown that teams go through definitive stages during development. Bruce Tuckman, an educational psychologist, identified a five-stage development process that most teams follow to become high performing. He called the stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Team progress through the stages is shown in the following diagram.



Most high-performing teams go through five stages of team development.

Forming stage

The forming stage involves a period of orientation and getting acquainted. Uncertainty is high during this stage, and people are looking for leadership and



authority. A member who asserts authority or is knowledgeable may be looked to take control. Team members are asking such questions as “What does the team offer me?” “What is expected of me?” “Will I fit in?” Most interactions are social as members get to know each other.

Storming stage

The storming stage is the most difficult and critical stage to pass through. It is a period marked by conflict and competition as individual personalities emerge. Team performance may actually decrease in this stage because energy is put into unproductive activities. Members may disagree on team goals, and subgroups and cliques may form around strong personalities or areas of agreement. To get through this stage, members must work to overcome obstacles, to accept individual differences, and to work through conflicting ideas on team tasks and goals. Teams can get bogged down in this stage. Failure to address conflicts may result in long-term problems.

Norming stage

If teams get through the storming stage, conflict is resolved and some degree of unity emerges. In the norming stage, consensus develops around who the leader or leaders are, and individual member’s roles. Interpersonal differences begin to be resolved, and a sense of cohesion and unity emerges. Team performance increases during this stage as members learn to cooperate and begin to focus on team goals. However, the harmony is precarious, and if disagreements re-emerge the team can slide back into storming.

Performing stage

In the performing stage, consensus and cooperation have been well-established and the team is mature, organized, and well-functioning. There is a clear and stable structure, and members are committed to the team’s mission. Problems and conflicts still emerge, but they are dealt with constructively. (We will discuss the role of conflict and conflict resolution in the next section). The team is focused on problem solving and meeting team goals.



Adjourning stage

In the adjourning stage, most of the team's goals have been accomplished. The emphasis is on wrapping up final tasks and documenting the effort and results. As the work load is diminished, individual members may be reassigned to other teams, and the team disbands. There may be regret as the team ends, so a ceremonial acknowledgement of the work and success of the team can be helpful. If the team is a standing committee with ongoing responsibility, members may be replaced by new people and the team can go back to a forming or storming stage and repeat the development process.

Team Norms and Cohesiveness

When you have been on a team, how did you know how to act? How did you know what behaviors were acceptable or what level of performance was required? Teams usually develop **norms** that guide the activities of team members. Team norms set a standard for behavior, attitude, and performance that all team members are expected to follow. Norms are like rules but they are not written down. Instead, all the team members implicitly understand them. Norms are effective because team members want to support the team and preserve relationships in the team, and when norms are violated, there is peer pressure or sanctions to enforce compliance.

Norms result from the interaction of team members during the development process. Initially, during the forming and storming stages, norms focus on expectations for attendance and commitment. Later, during the norming and performing stages, norms focus on relationships and levels of performance. Performance norms are very important because they define the level of work effort and standards that determine the success of the team. As you might expect, leaders play an important part in establishing productive norms by acting as role models and by rewarding desired behaviors.

Norms are only effective in controlling behaviors when they are accepted by team members. The level of **cohesiveness** on the team primarily determines whether team members accept and conform to norms. Team cohesiveness is the extent that members are attracted to the team and are motivated to remain in the team. Members of highly cohesive teams value their membership, are



committed to team activities, and gain satisfaction from team success. They try to conform to norms because they want to maintain their relationships in the team and they want to meet team expectations. Teams with strong performance norms and high cohesiveness are high performing.

For example, the seven-member executive team at Whole Foods spends time together outside of work. Its members frequently socialize and even take group vacations. According to co-CEO John Mackey, they have developed a high degree of trust that results in better communication and a willingness to work out problems and disagreements when they occur

Groupthink: Groupthink

Groupthink: Groupthink refers to a psychological phenomenon in which members of a group make decisions based on the pressure that they get from the group.

Group Shift: Group shift refers to a condition where the position of an individual in the group changes to adopt a more extreme position due to the influence of the group.

Characteristics of Groupthink and Group Shift:

Personal view:

Groupthink: Personal view can be put aside in favor of the popular view.

Group Shift: Personal view becomes much stronger due to group influence.

Pressure:

Groupthink: The group has an immense pressure on the individual.

Group Shift: Similar to Groupthink, the group, has an immense pressure on the individual.

What are Group Norms?





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Subject- Organizational Behavior

Group norms are the informal guidelines of behavior and a code of conduct that provides some order and conformity to group activities and operations. These rules are expected to be followed by all the group members. These norms and rules usually develop gradually and informally as group members learn as to what behaviors are necessary for the group to function effectively. These norms may include a code of dress for meetings or being on time for the meetings and behaving in a predictable manner both within and outside the group meetings.



Unit IV

The concept of **culture** refers to the shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that characterize a group or society. It encompasses both the tangible and intangible aspects of life that define how people interact, communicate, and make sense of their world. Culture shapes identities, influences social structures, and plays a crucial role in the way individuals and groups relate to one another.

Here are some key components of culture:

1. Beliefs and Values

- Culture includes the shared beliefs about what is important, right, or wrong. These beliefs influence moral codes, traditions, and societal expectations. For example, the belief in individual freedom is a central value in many Western societies, while collectivism may dominate in certain Asian cultures.

2. Norms and Customs

- These are the everyday behaviors and practices that are considered acceptable within a group. Customs can include things like how people greet each other, family roles, eating habits, and religious practices. For instance, shaking hands is a common greeting in many Western cultures, while bowing is often seen in Japan.

3. Language and Communication

- Language is a fundamental part of culture. It not only allows for communication but also reflects cultural norms and values. Even within the same language, dialects, slang, and nonverbal cues (like gestures) can vary widely across cultures.

4. Symbols and Artifacts

- Culture is often represented through symbols and physical objects that carry specific meanings. These could include flags, clothing, religious symbols, architecture, or works of art. For example, the Statue of Liberty in the U.S. symbolizes freedom and democracy.

5. Social Institutions

- Institutions such as family, education, government, and religion are key aspects of culture. They shape how individuals are socialized and interact with society. For instance, education systems in different countries reflect varying cultural priorities and approaches to knowledge and learning.



6. Traditions and Rituals

- Many cultures have specific traditions or rituals that are passed down through generations. These may be related to religious observances, holidays, rites of passage (like weddings or funerals), or annual festivals.

7. Identity and Group Membership

- Culture provides individuals with a sense of identity and belonging. It defines group membership, whether it's based on nationality, ethnicity, religion, or other factors. People often identify with their cultural group in ways that influence their behaviors, attitudes, and perspectives.

8. Shared History and Experiences

- The historical experiences of a culture—such as wars, migrations, and economic development—shape collective memory and cultural narratives. These experiences influence how people within a culture view the world and their place in it.

9. Technology and Innovation

- Every culture has its unique way of using and advancing technology. This includes not only technological tools and practices but also attitudes toward innovation, work, and progress. For instance, Silicon Valley's culture emphasizes innovation and entrepreneurialism, which contrasts with cultures that may prioritize tradition or stability.

10. Cultural Change and Adaptation

- Culture is not static; it evolves over time due to internal and external influences, such as globalization, migration, and technological advancements. Cultural change can occur in response to new ideas, political shifts, or economic pressures.

11. Subcultures and Countercultures

- Within larger cultures, subcultures develop, often with their own distinct norms and values. These subcultures may focus on specific interests, such as music, fashion, or ideology. Countercultures actively oppose the mainstream culture and seek to challenge or redefine societal norms (e.g., the counterculture movement of the 1960s).

Types of Culture

- **High Culture:** Refers to the cultural products and practices that are associated with the elite or intellectual class (e.g., classical music, fine art, literature).
- **Popular Culture:** Encompasses the everyday cultural practices and products enjoyed by the masses, such as pop music, television shows, and social media trends.



- **Folk Culture:** Refers to traditional practices, arts, and customs that are passed down through generations within smaller communities, often tied to a specific region or ethnicity.
- **Corporate Culture:** The values, beliefs, and behaviors that shape how employees interact within a company or organization.

Cultural Relativism vs. Ethnocentrism

- **Cultural relativism** is the principle of understanding a culture on its own terms, without making judgments based on one's own cultural standards.
- **Ethnocentrism** is the tendency to view one's own culture as superior and to judge other cultures based on one's own cultural norms.

In essence, culture is a dynamic, multifaceted system that shapes human life and provides the foundation for social interactions, identity formation, and meaning-making within a group. It's a framework through which individuals interpret the world around them, and it evolves as societies and environments change.

Creating and sustaining culture, whether it's within an organization, community, or society, involves shaping shared values, norms, and behaviors that guide how people interact and collaborate. Culture isn't just about symbolic actions; it's rooted in consistent practices that reinforce the beliefs and attitudes of the group. Here's a framework to understand the process:

1. Defining Core Values and Vision

- **Purpose:** Clearly articulate the overarching mission or purpose that binds the culture. What are you aiming to achieve? Why does it matter? The vision is the North Star that guides actions.
- **Core Values:** Identify the principles that will guide behavior and decision-making. These might include values like integrity, collaboration, innovation, or respect.

2. Setting Clear Expectations and Norms

- **Behavioral Standards:** Culture is defined not just by what is said but by what is practiced. Leaders and community members must set clear behavioral norms that reflect the values. This can include expectations around communication, teamwork, conflict resolution, and accountability.
- **Consistency:** Every interaction within the group should be aligned with the values. Inconsistencies will erode the culture over time.

3. Modeling Culture from the Top

- **Leadership by Example:** Leaders play a crucial role in establishing and sustaining culture. They should embody the values and behaviors they want to see in others. This establishes credibility and trust.



- **Visible Commitment:** Leaders must demonstrate commitment to culture through actions, not just words. If leadership is not visibly upholding the culture, others will not feel compelled to either.

4. Encouraging Participation and Inclusivity

- **Collaboration and Engagement:** Culture thrives when individuals feel involved and included. Encourage open dialogue, feedback loops, and collaboration. People should feel like their voices are heard and that they have a role in shaping the culture.
- **Diversity of Thought:** A healthy culture encourages diverse perspectives, which can lead to greater creativity and problem-solving. Respecting differences is essential for long-term sustainability.

5. Recognizing and Reinforcing Desired Behavior

- **Positive Reinforcement:** Recognize individuals who embody the culture, whether through awards, public acknowledgment, or more informal praise. Positive reinforcement strengthens the behaviors you want to see spread.
- **Celebrate Milestones:** Marking successes and progress in the culture helps keep momentum going. It also signals that the culture is a priority and worth investing in.

6. Adapting to Change

- **Cultural Evolution:** A sustainable culture is not static; it should evolve with the changing needs of the group and the external environment. For example, organizations need to adjust their culture in response to market shifts, technological advancements, or societal changes.
- **Feedback Mechanisms:** Regular check-ins, surveys, and informal conversations can provide insights into the health of the culture. Be open to feedback and willing to adjust practices that aren't working.

7. Handling Conflict and Misalignment

- **Conflict Resolution:** Disagreements and misalignments are inevitable in any group. What matters is how these conflicts are resolved. Addressing conflicts in ways that align with the culture (e.g., through open dialogue, mutual respect) reinforces the culture.
- **Course-Correction:** If cultural missteps occur, it's important to take swift and decisive action to course-correct. This may involve additional training, clarifying values, or reevaluating certain behaviors.

8. Sustaining Culture Over Time

- **Onboarding and Orientation:** When new members join, ensure they understand and are integrated into the culture. This often involves formal onboarding processes where cultural values are emphasized, and mentorship can play a role.



- **Institutionalizing Practices:** The best cultures are built into the systems, processes, and rituals of the organization or group. Whether it's regular meetings, annual events, or day-to-day work practices, consistency is key.

9. Celebrating the Culture

- **Cultural Rituals:** Establish traditions, rituals, or annual events that celebrate the culture, reinforce values, and create shared memories. These moments help keep the culture alive and make it feel authentic.
- **Cultural Storytelling:** Sharing stories—both successes and failures—can help solidify the cultural identity. It helps people connect emotionally to the culture.

Practical Example:

In a company, for instance, creating and sustaining a culture of innovation might involve:

- **Setting the Vision:** "We aim to be the leading innovators in our industry."
- **Clear Norms:** Encourage risk-taking, rapid prototyping, and cross-departmental collaboration.
- **Leadership by Example:** Leaders actively participate in brainstorming sessions, celebrate failure as a learning opportunity, and support creative ideas.
- **Recognition:** Reward individuals or teams who come up with breakthrough ideas, and integrate innovation into performance reviews.
- **Adaptation:** As the market changes, the culture might shift from a focus on product innovation to process innovation, and the organization's cultural practices would evolve accordingly.

Creating a positive and ethical culture is essential for fostering trust, collaboration, and long-term success in any organization, community, or society. A positive and ethical culture not only aligns with moral values but also drives motivation, productivity, and well-being. Here's a guide to creating and sustaining such a culture:

1. Establish Clear Ethical Guidelines

- **Define Ethics and Values:** Set out clear ethical principles that guide behavior within the organization or community. These should cover areas like honesty, fairness, transparency, respect, and responsibility. Define what ethical behavior looks like in everyday actions.
- **Code of Conduct:** Develop a written code of ethics or conduct that explicitly outlines acceptable and unacceptable behaviors. This document serves as a reference point and can help individuals understand how to act in challenging situations.

2. Lead by Example

- **Ethical Leadership:** Leaders must model ethical behavior in all their actions. If leaders fail to uphold the values of the culture, it will undermine trust and confidence throughout the organization. Leaders should be transparent, accountable, and make decisions that reflect ethical considerations.



- **Visibility of Ethics:** Ethical behavior should be seen as a priority in the actions of leadership—whether that's in their decisions, interactions with others, or handling tough situations. Leaders should be consistent in upholding the same standards they expect from others.

3. Build a Culture of Respect and Inclusion

- **Respect for All Individuals:** A positive and ethical culture prioritizes respect for individuals regardless of background, position, or differences. Encouraging open-mindedness, empathy, and active listening helps foster an environment where everyone feels valued.
- **Promote Diversity and Inclusion:** Ethical cultures recognize the importance of diverse perspectives and experiences. Emphasize inclusive practices that allow people from all backgrounds to contribute and feel heard. This contributes to a culture of fairness and opportunity.

4. Encourage Transparency and Open Communication

- **Foster Open Dialogue:** Encourage transparent communication where individuals feel safe to speak up about concerns, ideas, and ethical dilemmas. When people can voice their opinions without fear of retribution, it builds trust and reinforces the integrity of the culture.
- **Honest Feedback:** Create structures that allow for honest, constructive feedback—both giving and receiving it. Regularly engage in feedback loops to ensure that the culture remains positive and ethical.

5. Instill a Sense of Accountability

- **Personal Responsibility:** Encourage individuals to take responsibility for their actions and decisions. An ethical culture relies on everyone holding themselves accountable, not just for their own behavior but for how their actions affect others.
- **Address Violations Swiftly:** When ethical breaches occur, address them promptly and fairly. Create clear processes for reporting unethical behavior and ensure that appropriate consequences are in place. Accountability is key to reinforcing that ethical standards are non-negotiable.

Organizational Structure

In the context of organizations (business, nonprofits, etc.), **organizational structure** refers to the system that outlines how certain activities are directed to achieve the goals of the organization. It defines roles, responsibilities, communication channels, and authority.

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Hierarchical Structure: A top-down arrangement where each employee has a clear line of authority. This structure is common in large corporations or traditional organizations.

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- **Example:** CEO → Managers → Employees.

•

Flat Structure: Fewer levels of middle management, allowing for greater employee involvement in decision-making.

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- **Example:** Startups often adopt a flat structure where employees have more autonomy and interaction with senior leadership.

•

Matrix Structure: Combines functional and project-based structures. Employees report to both functional managers and project leaders.

•

- **Example:** In large organizations, engineers might report both to their engineering manager and a project manager.

•

Network Structure: More decentralized, where businesses outsource many functions and collaborate with other organizations.

•

- **Example:** A tech company that outsources its marketing but retains core engineering talent.

Importance of Organizational Structure:

- **Clarity and Efficiency:** A clear structure helps avoid confusion, reduces overlap, and clarifies who is responsible for what.
- **Resource Allocation:** Helps in the effective distribution of resources (time, money, people).
- **Decision-Making:** Structure influences who makes decisions and how decisions are made, impacting speed and quality.

2. Social Structure

In sociology, **social structure** refers to the organized pattern of social relationships and institutions that make up a society. It defines the roles and positions individuals occupy within the broader context of society.



- **Roles:** Social roles define how individuals are expected to behave based on their position in society (e.g., teacher, student, parent).
- **Social Institutions:** These are the larger structures that shape behavior in society, such as the family, education, religion, and government.
- **Social Stratification:** The hierarchical arrangement of individuals into social classes, such as upper, middle, and lower classes.

Key Aspects:

- **Norms:** Social rules that dictate appropriate behavior within the structure.
- **Social Networks:** The web of relationships and connections that link individuals in a society.
- **Power Dynamics:** Social structures influence who has power, who makes decisions, and who has access to resources.

3. Psychological Structure

In psychology, **structure** can refer to the mental frameworks or cognitive structures that shape how individuals perceive and interact with the world. This includes:

-

Cognitive Structures: Mental frameworks or schemas that help individuals interpret and process information.

-

- **Example:** A person may have a schema about how meetings typically unfold and may interpret any deviation from that pattern as unusual.

-

Personality Structure: The underlying framework of an individual's personality, shaped by their traits, behaviors, and emotions.

-

- **Example:** Sigmund Freud's model of personality, which includes the id, ego, and superego, is an example of a psychological structure.

-

Developmental Structure: How an individual's cognitive abilities and social understanding develop over time (e.g., Piaget's stages of cognitive development).

-

4. Physical Structure



In architecture, engineering, and the physical sciences, **structure** refers to the physical components and design that give form, stability, and function to a physical object or system. This concept is often seen in buildings, bridges, machinery, and even the human body.

-

Architectural Structure: The design of buildings and infrastructure—how materials are used and arranged to create safe, functional, and aesthetically pleasing spaces.

-

- **Example:** A skyscraper's steel framework that supports the building's weight and resists external forces like wind.

-

Biological Structure: The arrangement of different parts in living organisms. For instance, in the human body, the skeletal system provides structure and support.

-

- **Example:** The structure of DNA, consisting of two strands that coil into a double helix, determines how genetic information is stored and passed on.

5. Linguistic Structure

In linguistics, **structure** refers to the system of rules and organization that governs language, from phonetics (sound) to syntax (sentence structure). Linguistic structure provides the framework for how words and sentences are organized.

- **Syntax:** The rules and patterns for constructing sentences.
 - **Example:** In English, a typical sentence follows the Subject-Verb-Object structure ("The cat (S) chased (V) the mouse (O)").

Phonological Structure: The arrangement of sounds in a language.

Example: The way different sounds are organized and combined to form words in different languages.

6. Mathematical Structure In mathematics, structure refers to the set of operations and relationships that are defined on a set of elements, allowing for certain properties to be studied.

Algebraic Structure: This includes systems like groups, rings, and fields, which follow specific axioms and operations.



Example: The set of integers with the operation of addition forms an algebraic structure called a group.

Geometrical Structure: Deals with the properties of space and figures, such as points, lines, planes, and their relationships.

7. Systems Structure In systems theory, structure refers to the components of a system and their interrelations. It's the way in which parts are organized and interact to produce the system's overall behavior.

Hierarchical Systems: Systems where components are arranged in a hierarchical manner, with higher levels controlling lower levels (e.g., an ecosystem, corporate structure).

Dynamic Systems: Systems where elements interact in complex, often unpredictable ways (e.g., traffic patterns, weather systems).

Key Characteristics of Structure

Organization: Structure involves the arrangement of parts or elements, whether it's people, ideas, materials, or systems.

Interrelationships: Elements within a structure are interrelated, meaning that a change in one part often affects others. Understanding these relationships is key to managing and navigating the structure effectively

Stability vs. Flexibility: Some structures are rigid and unchanging (e.g., a traditional bureaucracy), while others are flexible and adaptive (e.g., a startup company). The balance between stability and flexibility depends on the goals and environment of the entity.

Functionality: Structure exists to serve a purpose—whether it's to organize resources, guide behavior, create order, or ensure stability. A well-designed structure makes achieving that purpose more efficient.

Prevalent Organizational Design refers to the most common or widely adopted structures and frameworks organizations use to arrange their operations, roles, responsibilities, and reporting relationships. Over time, organizations have developed various design models to optimize efficiency,



adaptability, communication, and decision-making. The right design helps businesses align their strategy, culture, and operations effectively.

Here are some of the most prevalent organizational designs today, each with its distinct features, strengths, and weaknesses:

1. Hierarchical (Functional) Structure

The **Hierarchical Structure** is one of the most traditional and widely used organizational designs, especially in large corporations. It is characterized by a clear chain of command, where authority and responsibilities are organized into levels.

Features:

- **Clear Chain of Command:** Employees report to a single manager or supervisor, who reports to a higher-level manager, and so on.
- **Specialization:** Roles are typically specialized within functional departments (e.g., marketing, finance, operations).
- **Defined Roles and Responsibilities:** Each role is distinct, with a specific set of responsibilities.
- **Top-Down Communication:** Information flows from top management down to lower levels.

Strengths:

- **Clarity and Stability:** Roles and responsibilities are clearly defined, making it easier for employees to know what is expected of them.
- **Efficiency:** With clear functional specialization, departments can become highly efficient in their tasks.
- **Control and Accountability:** Senior managers can easily control and monitor operations.

Weaknesses:

- **Slow Decision-Making:** Due to the many layers, decision-making can be slow as information travels up and down.
- **Lack of Flexibility:** It may hinder creativity and adaptability, especially in fast-changing industries.
- **Silos:** Departments may become isolated from one another, leading to a lack of cross-departmental collaboration.

Example: A large corporation like **General Motors** or **Coca-Cola**, where departments like HR, Finance, and Marketing operate in clearly defined silos.

2. Matrix Structure



The **Matrix Structure** is a hybrid organizational design that combines aspects of both the **functional** and **divisional** structures. Employees have dual reporting relationships—one to their functional manager and another to a project or product manager.

Features:

- **Dual Reporting Relationships:** Employees report to two bosses—one for their department (e.g., Marketing) and one for specific projects or products.
- **Cross-Functional Teams:** Teams are often created for specific projects or initiatives that require expertise from multiple functional areas.
- **Resource Sharing:** Resources are shared across departments and projects, which allows flexibility.

Strengths:

- **Flexibility and Innovation:** Employees have the opportunity to work across different functions, which can foster collaboration and innovation.
- **Efficient Use of Resources:** Resources can be allocated dynamically to the most critical projects.
- **Improved Communication:** The dual reporting encourages better communication between departments and functions.

Weaknesses:

- **Confusion and Conflict:** Employees may become confused or conflicted by having two bosses, each with different priorities.
- **Complexity:** Managing a matrix structure can be complicated, with multiple layers of authority and competing interests.
- **Power Struggles:** Tension may arise between functional and project managers over control and resource allocation.

Example: A company like **IBM** or **Procter & Gamble**, which often uses a matrix structure for managing product lines and geographic regions simultaneously.

3. Flat (Horizontal) Structure

The **Flat Structure** has fewer hierarchical levels than a traditional hierarchical structure. This design is often used in smaller or newer organizations that value employee autonomy and decision-making at all levels.

Features:

- **Minimal Levels of Management:** There are fewer levels of management between staff and executives.
- **Decentralized Decision-Making:** Lower-level employees have more authority to make decisions.



- **Flexible Roles:** Employees may take on broader roles and responsibilities.
- **Increased Employee Autonomy:** Employees are trusted to make decisions and take on more ownership.

Strengths:

- **Faster Decision-Making:** With fewer layers of management, decisions can be made quickly.
- **Increased Collaboration:** Fewer hierarchical barriers make communication and collaboration easier.
- **Employee Empowerment:** Greater autonomy can lead to higher levels of job satisfaction and innovation.

Weaknesses:

- **Role Ambiguity:** With fewer defined roles, employees may be unclear about their responsibilities.
- **Limited Career Advancement:** There may be fewer opportunities for promotion due to the flatter structure.
- **Management Overload:** Leaders may be stretched thin, having to manage a larger number of employees.

Example: Many startups and small businesses like **Basecamp** or **Valve Corporation** use flat structures to promote autonomy and innovation.

4. Divisional Structure

The **Divisional Structure** is used by large organizations with diversified products, services, or geographic areas. The organization is divided into semi-autonomous units or divisions, each focusing on a specific product line, service, or region.

Features:

- **Divisions Based on Product/Service or Geography:** Each division operates as a separate entity, often with its own resources, budget, and management.
- **Decentralized Decision-Making:** Divisions have the autonomy to make decisions specific to their product line or market.
- **Clear Accountability:** Each division is accountable for its own performance.

Strengths:

- **Focus on Specific Markets:** Divisions can tailor their strategies to the unique needs of their market, product, or geographic location.
- **Faster Decision-Making:** Divisions can make decisions independently without waiting for approval from a central body.
- **Flexibility:** Divisions can be reorganized or adjusted based on market needs.



Weaknesses:

- **Duplication of Efforts:** Some functions (e.g., HR, Finance) may be duplicated across divisions, leading to inefficiency.
- **Competition Between Divisions:** Divisions may compete for resources, which can cause conflict or inefficiency.
- **Loss of Synergy:** A divisional structure may lead to a lack of synergy or coordination between divisions.

Example: A large multinational like **General Electric (GE)**, where each division focuses on specific products like aviation, healthcare, and energy.

5. Network Structure

The **Network Structure** is more decentralized and focuses on outsourcing non-core functions, relying on external partners and contractors for key activities. It is typically used by organizations that operate in dynamic environments or have a flexible business model.

Features:

- **Decentralization:** The organization consists of a small core team, with much of the work outsourced or contracted to external partners.
- **Focus on Core Competencies:** The organization focuses on its strengths, while outsourcing tasks like marketing, accounting, or customer service.
- **Fluid and Flexible:** The structure allows the organization to scale quickly or pivot by adjusting external relationships.

Strengths:

- **Flexibility and Scalability:** Easier to scale up or down by adjusting partnerships or outsourcing.
- **Cost-Efficiency:** Outsourcing non-core functions can reduce overhead costs.
- **Innovation and Agility:** The network structure encourages agility and innovation by drawing on external expertise.

Weaknesses:

- **Loss of Control:** Relying on external partners can lead to a lack of control over quality or timelines.
- **Communication Challenges:** Managing multiple external relationships can complicate communication and coordination.
- **Risk Exposure:** Heavy reliance on external partners increases risk if a partner fails or the relationship breaks down.

Example: Companies like **Nike** and **Apple** have a network structure where much of their production is outsourced, but they focus on branding, design, and innovation.



6. Team-Based Structure

The **Team-Based Structure** is increasingly popular in organizations that emphasize collaboration, flexibility, and agility. In this design, employees are grouped into teams that are empowered to make decisions and solve problems together.

Features:

- **Cross-Functional Teams:** Teams are often made up of employees from different departments (e.g., marketing, engineering, customer support).
- **Decentralized Decision-Making:** Teams are given the autonomy to make decisions related to their projects.
- **Focus on Collaboration:** Collaboration is a key aspect, with teams working together to achieve common goals.

Strengths:

- **Collaboration and Innovation:** The focus on teamwork can foster creativity and innovation.
- **Faster Problem Solving:** Teams can respond quickly to challenges without waiting for top-down direction.
- **Flexibility:** Teams can be restructured or realigned as priorities change.

Weaknesses:

- **Coordination Overhead:** Managing multiple teams can be challenging, especially when teams have different goals or priorities.
- **Lack of Clear Authority:** Decision-making can become ambiguous in team-based structures, leading to conflicts.
- **Resource Allocation:** Balancing resources across teams can be difficult.

Example: Tech companies like **Google** and **Spotify** use team-based structures to encourage innovation and adaptability.



UNIT V

The **forces of change** refer to the external and internal factors that drive organizations, societies, and individuals to evolve, adapt, or innovate. These forces can be **planned or unplanned, gradual or rapid**, and they influence everything from corporate strategy to individual behaviors. Understanding these forces is critical for leaders and organizations to navigate change successfully and remain competitive and relevant in an ever-evolving world.

1. Technological Advancements

Technological change is one of the most powerful drivers of change across industries, transforming how organizations operate, interact with customers, and deliver products and services.

Examples:

- **Automation and Artificial Intelligence (AI):** Automation in manufacturing, AI-driven customer service, and machine learning are disrupting traditional workflows and creating new opportunities for efficiency and innovation.
- **Digital Transformation:** The shift from analog systems to digital tools, platforms, and processes forces organizations to rethink their operations, data management, and customer engagement strategies.
- **Blockchain:** Disrupting industries such as finance, supply chain, and healthcare by offering new ways to secure data and transactions.

Impacts:

- **Productivity Gains:** Automation and new technologies often lead to increased productivity, but they also require upskilling employees.
- **Obsolescence:** Failure to adopt new technologies can lead to a loss of competitive advantage or business failure.
- **New Business Models:** Technology enables new business models (e.g., subscription services, platform businesses like Uber or Airbnb).

2. Globalization

Globalization refers to the increasing interconnectedness and interdependence of economies, cultures, and markets across the world. It's driven by trade, communication technologies, and the movement of people, goods, and capital.

Examples:



- **Global Markets:** Companies can now source materials, labor, and customers from virtually anywhere in the world, creating new opportunities but also intensifying competition.
- **Supply Chain Integration:** The expansion of global supply chains has made production processes more complex, with companies facing challenges related to shipping, tariffs, and geopolitical tensions.
- **Cultural Exchange:** Globalization facilitates the exchange of cultural practices, innovations, and knowledge, leading to broader market needs and consumer behaviors.

Impacts:

- **Market Expansion:** Businesses can reach new customers, but they must understand diverse cultures and regulations.
- **Increased Competition:** Organizations face pressure to innovate and maintain competitive prices as they compete with global players.
- **Outsourcing and Offshoring:** Companies may relocate operations to reduce costs, which can affect local job markets.

3. Demographic Changes

Shifts in population dynamics—such as aging populations, migration patterns, and changes in family structures—can drive significant change within organizations and societies.

Examples:

- **Aging Population:** In many developed countries, aging populations lead to changes in labor markets, healthcare demands, and consumer preferences.
- **Millennial and Gen Z Workforce:** Younger generations bring new expectations about work-life balance, technology, and organizational values, influencing workplace culture and expectations.
- **Urbanization:** Increasing urbanization drives changes in housing, transportation, infrastructure, and service needs.

Impacts:

- **Workforce Challenges:** Organizations may face talent shortages or need to adapt to multi-generational workforces with different skill sets, values, and expectations.
- **Consumer Behavior:** Changes in demographic trends lead to shifts in consumer preferences, influencing product design and marketing strategies.
- **Health and Wellness:** An aging population requires a focus on healthcare services, senior products, and policies that address quality of life.

4. Economic Forces



Economic conditions, both macroeconomic and microeconomic, are significant drivers of change. These include fluctuations in the economy, interest rates, inflation, and global trade.

Examples:

- **Economic Recessions:** Economic downturns push organizations to innovate, cut costs, or pivot to new strategies to survive and thrive in tough market conditions.
- **Rising Costs:** Inflation, rising commodity prices, and labor costs can force organizations to reassess their business models, pricing strategies, and operational efficiency.
- **Access to Capital:** Changes in the availability of capital (through loans, investments, etc.) can drive business expansion or contraction.

Impacts:

- **Financial Constraints:** During recessions or economic slowdowns, organizations may need to cut costs, reduce workforce size, or halt expansion plans.
- **Shifts in Consumer Spending:** Economic downturns often lead to shifts in consumer priorities, such as more cautious spending.
- **Innovation for Cost-Efficiency:** Economic pressures often push companies to innovate in ways that lower operational costs or increase productivity.

5. Social and Cultural Forces

Changes in social values, cultural norms, and societal expectations can create significant shifts within organizations and industries. These forces reflect broader societal movements and the changing needs or desires of the public.

Examples:

- **Diversity and Inclusion:** Increasing demands for greater diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) in the workplace and in products/services.
- **Sustainability and Environmentalism:** Rising concerns about climate change and environmental impact are prompting organizations to adopt greener practices and more sustainable business models.
- **Social Media and Communication:** Social media has transformed how companies engage with customers, making transparency, responsiveness, and social responsibility critical.

Impacts:

- **Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR):** Social expectations push organizations to demonstrate their commitment to societal issues such as climate change, ethical labor practices, and community involvement.
- **Employee Engagement and Retention:** A more diverse and inclusive workplace tends to lead to higher employee satisfaction and retention.



- **Reputation Management:** In the age of social media, companies must be more conscious of their public image and take proactive steps to manage crises or controversies.
-

6. Political and Legal Forces

Government policies, laws, regulations, and political climates significantly shape the operating environment of businesses and influence organizational behavior.

Examples:

- **Regulation:** New regulations on data privacy (e.g., GDPR), environmental impact, and labor practices often force organizations to adapt their operations and compliance mechanisms.
- **Tax Policies:** Changes in tax rates or tax incentives for certain industries can influence investment decisions and business strategies.
- **Geopolitical Factors:** Political instability, trade wars, and changing diplomatic relations can alter business strategies, particularly for global organizations.

Impacts:

- **Compliance Costs:** Organizations must invest in legal and regulatory compliance, which may involve hiring legal teams or modifying processes and systems.
 - **Operational Adjustments:** Political changes can force companies to adapt their products or services to meet new legal requirements.
 - **Global Expansion:** Political stability and favorable trade agreements may influence decisions to enter new international markets.
-

7. Environmental Forces

Environmental factors—ranging from climate change to natural disasters—are increasingly driving change in both corporate and societal contexts. This includes pressures on resources, sustainability, and risk management.

Examples:

- **Climate Change:** Increasing pressure on companies to adopt more sustainable practices, reduce carbon footprints, and invest in green technologies.
- **Natural Disasters:** Events like hurricanes, earthquakes, and floods can disrupt supply chains, damage infrastructure, and force companies to rethink risk management strategies.
- **Resource Scarcity:** Growing concerns over the depletion of natural resources, such as water and fossil fuels, force companies to find new ways of doing business more sustainably.

Impacts:



- **Regulation and Compliance:** Governments and regulators are imposing stricter environmental laws, driving organizations to adopt cleaner, more sustainable practices.
- **Sustainability Focus:** Companies are investing more in renewable energy, waste reduction, and sustainable sourcing to meet consumer demands and regulatory requirements.
- **Risk Management:** Organizations must assess and mitigate environmental risks, which could impact everything from supply chains to public relations.

8. Technological and Consumer Trends

Beyond just technology-driven innovation, **consumer trends** and the **democratization of technology** are powerful forces of change that alter business dynamics.

Examples:

- **The Internet of Things (IoT):** Smart devices and interconnected systems are changing how consumers interact with products and services, prompting businesses to adapt their offerings.
- **E-commerce Growth:** The rise of online shopping and digital services is reshaping retail, with organizations having to rethink their physical stores, supply chains, and customer service models.
- **Personalization:** Consumers increasingly demand personalized experiences and products, forcing businesses to leverage data analytics and AI to customize their offerings.

Impacts:

- **Customer Experience:** Businesses must focus on improving the customer experience, leveraging digital tools to offer personalized, omnichannel services.
- **Product Development:** Technological trends like 3D printing, AI, and robotics are leading to new types of products and services, requiring companies to innovate rapidly.
- **Competitive Pressure:** Staying ahead of technological and consumer trends can be difficult, especially as new entrants use disruptive technologies to offer new solutions.

Kurt Lewin's Change Management Model is one of the most well-known frameworks for understanding and managing change in organizations. Developed in the 1940s, Lewin's model provides a simple and effective approach to driving and sustaining change. It outlines a **three-step process** that describes how individuals, teams, or organizations can transition from the current state to a desired future state. The model emphasizes that change is a process, not an event, and that it requires careful management to be successful.

Lewin's 3-Step Model of Change

1. **Unfreezing**
2. **Changing (or Transitioning)**
3. **Refreezing**



1. Unfreezing

The first step in Lewin's model is about preparing for change by **unfreezing** the current state or status quo. This phase involves creating the motivation and readiness for change by challenging existing beliefs, behaviors, or processes. The goal of unfreezing is to create a sense of urgency and help people understand the need for change, so they are open to new ways of doing things.

Key Activities:

- **Creating Awareness:** Communicate why change is necessary. This could involve identifying problems, highlighting opportunities, or sharing new trends or data that suggest the status quo is no longer viable.
- **Building Support for Change:** Engage leaders, stakeholders, and key influencers to help spread the message and gather support for the change.
- **Reducing Resistance:** Address fears, doubts, and anxieties that may arise when people are confronted with the idea of change. This can involve reassuring employees, addressing concerns, and helping them understand the benefits.
- **Disrupting Comfort Zones:** Challenge current behaviors, assumptions, and mindsets that prevent change. People may need to let go of old practices and views to make space for new ones.

Example: A company that has been using a manual system for inventory management may begin the unfreezing process by explaining the inefficiencies and the risks involved, as well as the benefits of switching to an automated system. The company may hold workshops or meetings to help employees understand the reasons for the change.

2. Changing (or Transitioning)

Once the organization is "unfrozen" and individuals are ready for change, the **changing** phase begins. This is the actual transition where the desired new behaviors, processes, or structures are introduced and implemented. It is during this phase that people begin to experiment with new ways of working, thinking, and behaving.

Key Activities:

- **Implementing New Methods or Structures:** This is when the actual change takes place—new tools, processes, technologies, or systems are introduced.
- **Providing Support and Training:** Employees need the necessary skills, knowledge, and resources to adapt to the new change. Training programs, coaching, and other forms of support are vital.
- **Managing the Transition:** This phase can be uncomfortable because people are moving from the old ways of doing things to new ones. Clear communication, support systems, and active leadership are essential to help employees navigate this period.



- **Encouraging Participation:** Involve employees in the change process as much as possible. This can help increase buy-in and reduce resistance. Participation fosters a sense of ownership and agency in the change process.

Example: During the transition phase, the company that is adopting an automated inventory management system would roll out the new software, train employees on how to use it, and monitor how well the new system is being adopted. Regular check-ins and feedback loops may also be established to ensure a smooth transition.

3. Refreezing

Once the change has been implemented and people have adjusted to new ways of working, the final stage is **refreezing**. This phase is about **solidifying the new behaviors** or practices into the organization's culture and making them permanent. Refreezing helps prevent regression to old habits and ensures that the changes are sustainable.

Key Activities:

- **Reinforcing New Behaviors:** Positive reinforcement, recognition, and rewards should be used to encourage the continued use of new behaviors and practices.
- **Embedding Change into Culture:** The new ways of doing things should be incorporated into the organization's structures, systems, policies, and values so that they become the "new normal."
- **Monitoring and Reviewing:** Even after the change is fully implemented, continuous monitoring is needed to ensure that the new system or practice is functioning as expected.
- **Celebrating Successes:** Acknowledge milestones and successes, which can build confidence and commitment to the change.

Example: After successfully implementing the new inventory management system, the company would make sure that the system becomes part of the standard operating procedure. Managers would reinforce its use, and employees would continue to be trained and supported. Performance reviews and rewards could be tied to the successful use of the new system.

Key Concepts in Lewin's Model

- **Psychological Aspect of Change:** Lewin's model is centered around the psychological journey of change, where individuals need to be **emotionally and mentally prepared** for change (unfreezing), actively engage in the change (changing), and then fully adopt the new behavior (refreezing).
- **Resistance to Change:** Lewin recognized that people naturally resist change because it disrupts their comfort zone. The unfreezing phase is especially important for overcoming this resistance by addressing fears and concerns upfront.



- **Role of Leaders:** Leaders play a crucial role throughout the entire process by acting as role models, communicating the vision, providing support, and helping to manage the emotional journey of change.

Criticism and Limitations of Lewin's Model

While Lewin's model remains a classic and widely respected approach, some critics point out certain limitations:

- **Simplicity:** The three-step model is seen by some as overly simplistic for the complexities of modern organizations and change. In today's fast-paced, ever-changing world, change may be more continuous and incremental, rather than following clear-cut phases.
- **Inflexibility:** The model assumes that change is a linear process, but in reality, change is often iterative and cyclical. Organizations may need to revisit certain phases (e.g., unfreezing or refreezing) multiple times.
- **Focus on Individual Change:** While Lewin's model addresses organizational change, some critics argue that it focuses too much on individual behaviors and not enough on systemic factors, such as organizational culture, external pressures, or technology.

Real-World Applications of Lewin's Model

Lewin's model remains relevant and useful in a variety of organizational contexts. Here are some examples where it can be applied effectively:

Implementing New Technology: When a company adopts new technology (e.g., a new customer relationship management system), it can use Lewin's model to help employees transition smoothly through training (changing), address initial reluctance (unfreezing), and integrate the new system into everyday practices (refreezing).

Organizational Restructuring: When an organization undergoes restructuring or mergers, Lewin's model can guide the process of reducing resistance to change, getting employees on board with the new organizational structure, and embedding new ways of working into the culture.

Cultural Change Initiatives: When organizations seek to shift their culture—such as fostering greater diversity and inclusion—Lewin's model can help navigate the emotional and psychological aspects of such deep changes.



Organizational Change in Indian Business has been a profound and dynamic process, influenced by multiple factors such as **economic liberalization, globalization, technological advancements, cultural shifts, and changing government policies**. Over the past few decades, India has undergone significant transformation, and Indian businesses have had to adapt to survive and thrive in a rapidly changing environment. These changes have reshaped organizational structures, management practices, leadership styles, and the way business is conducted.

Here's an in-depth look at **organizational change in Indian business**:

1. Economic Liberalization and Its Impact

In 1991, India embarked on a path of **economic liberalization**, which included major reforms in trade, industry, and finance. The **deregulation of the economy, the removal of import restrictions, and the opening up of markets to foreign investments** brought about significant shifts in how businesses operated. Indian businesses had to adjust to increased competition, technological innovations, and the need for global competitiveness.

Impact on Organizational Change:

- **Adoption of Modern Management Practices:** Indian companies began adopting **Western management practices** such as **strategic planning, quality control, and human resource management (HRM)** systems. Concepts like **Six Sigma, Lean Manufacturing, and Just-In-Time (JIT)** became widely implemented.
- **Structural Changes:** Organizations started moving towards **more decentralized, flexible, and global structures**, with an increasing focus on **innovation, customer orientation, and efficiency**.
- **Increased Focus on Leadership Development:** To manage the complexity of an open economy, organizations emphasized **leadership development** and the creation of strong management teams capable of dealing with the competitive landscape.

Example: Companies like **Infosys, Wipro, and Tata Consultancy Services (TCS)** adopted global best practices in IT management and service delivery after liberalization, enabling them to become global players in the IT services industry.

2. Globalization and Its Influence on Indian Businesses

With the global economy becoming increasingly interconnected, **globalization** has been another driving force behind organizational change in India. Indian businesses are no longer limited to domestic markets; they are now competing and collaborating in the global marketplace.

Impact on Organizational Change:



- **Cross-Cultural Management:** Indian companies expanded their operations internationally, leading to the need for **cross-cultural understanding** and the ability to manage a **diverse workforce** across different countries.
- **Adopting Global Best Practices:** To compete on the global stage, Indian businesses have adopted international **quality standards, technological innovations, and business practices**. This includes adopting **ISO certifications, global supply chain models, and using international marketing strategies**.
- **Increased Focus on Innovation and R&D:** Globalization has forced Indian companies to increase their focus on **innovation**, especially in sectors like pharmaceuticals, information technology, and engineering, where global competition is fierce.

Example: Mahindra & Mahindra and Tata Group have expanded globally, acquiring companies such as **SsangYong Motor Company (South Korea)** and **Jaguar Land Rover (UK)**, respectively. This has required them to change their internal management and leadership strategies to integrate these global acquisitions into their operations.

3. Technological Advancements

Technological change has been a major force driving organizational transformation in India. From **information technology (IT)** and **automation** to **digitalization** and the **Internet of Things (IoT)**, technology is reshaping businesses.

Impact on Organizational Change:

- **Automation and Digitalization:** Indian organizations in sectors like **manufacturing, banking, and retail** are increasingly adopting **automation and digital technologies** to improve efficiency, reduce costs, and improve customer service.
- **Adoption of Cloud Computing and Big Data:** Companies are increasingly leveraging **cloud computing, big data analytics, and artificial intelligence (AI)** to make data-driven decisions, enhance customer experiences, and improve operational efficiency.
- **Digital Transformation:** Traditional businesses in India are undergoing digital transformations to remain relevant in the digital economy. For instance, **E-commerce** platforms like **Flipkart, Amazon India, and Paytm** are leveraging technology for operational efficiencies and customer engagement.

Example: The rise of **digital banking** in India, with platforms like **Paytm** and **Google Pay**, has forced traditional banks like **State Bank of India (SBI)** and **ICICI Bank** to rethink their business models, focusing more on mobile banking, cybersecurity, and personalized digital services.

4. Cultural and Social Shifts



India's culture and society have been undergoing significant changes in recent years, which have had a profound effect on the way businesses operate. These shifts have created opportunities and challenges for organizational change.

Impact on Organizational Change:

- **Shift to a Knowledge Economy:** With the rise of the **knowledge economy**, businesses have increasingly focused on intellectual capital, knowledge sharing, and skill development. The younger generation is looking for **flexible work environments, work-life balance, and purpose-driven work**.
- **Diversity and Inclusion:** Indian organizations have become more **inclusive**, promoting diversity in terms of **gender, ethnicity, and age**. The rise of women in leadership roles and the growing focus on social equity are changing corporate cultures.
- **Talent Management and Leadership Development:** To meet the growing demand for skilled labor, organizations have had to develop sophisticated **talent management systems** to attract, retain, and develop talent.

Example: Wipro and Infosys have made efforts to promote **gender diversity** and have set specific targets for increasing the number of women in leadership positions, reflecting broader societal trends in India.

5. Government Policies and Regulatory Changes

Changes in government policies and regulations have also driven organizational change in India. Over the years, the government has introduced various reforms aimed at improving the ease of doing business, attracting foreign direct investment (FDI), and stimulating growth in key sectors.

Impact on Organizational Change:

- **Ease of Doing Business:** The **Make in India** initiative, **Goods and Services Tax (GST)** implementation, and efforts to improve the **Ease of Doing Business Index** have had a major impact on business operations, prompting organizations to reassess their supply chains, financial operations, and market strategies.
- **Corporate Governance:** The implementation of **corporate governance reforms** such as the **Companies Act of 2013**, and **SEBI regulations** has forced Indian companies to improve their transparency, accountability, and compliance measures.
- **Sustainability and CSR:** The mandatory requirement for large companies to allocate 2% of their profits to **Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)** initiatives has changed the way companies approach community development and environmental sustainability.

Example: The introduction of **GST** required companies across India to rethink their supply chain and distribution networks, with many businesses investing in new technologies and processes to comply with the new tax structure.



6. Emergence of New Business Models

As part of the ongoing transformation of the Indian business landscape, new **business models** are emerging that challenge traditional organizational structures and practices.

Impact on Organizational Change:

- **E-commerce and Startups:** The rise of e-commerce and tech startups has significantly altered the way businesses approach customer engagement, supply chains, and service delivery. Many startups are **disrupting traditional industries** with innovative business models (e.g., online grocery stores, fintech platforms, edtech, healthtech).
- **Gig Economy and Freelancing:** The increasing adoption of the **gig economy** and freelancing has led to new ways of structuring workforces. Indian companies are adopting flexible, project-based staffing models instead of rigid, full-time employment contracts.
- **Platform Business Models:** Companies like **Ola, Zomato, Flipkart, and Swiggy** have adopted **platform-based business models**, transforming traditional service sectors like transportation, food delivery, and e-commerce.

Example: **Ola** and **Uber** have changed the way people view transportation in India by adopting **platform-based** business models, which allow customers to connect with drivers through mobile apps.

Challenges in Organizational Change in Indian Business

1. **Resistance to Change:** Indian businesses, especially in traditional industries, often face resistance to change from employees who are accustomed to established ways of working.
2. **Cultural Resistance:** Indian organizations tend to have hierarchical structures, and changing these to flatter, more flexible models may face challenges due to deeply ingrained cultural norms.
3. **Skill Gaps:** Despite the growth of the knowledge economy, skill gaps remain in areas like technology, leadership, and innovation, making it difficult for organizations to adapt quickly to change.
4. **Political and Regulatory Uncertainty:** Frequent changes in government policies and regulations can create uncertainty, making long-term planning and investment difficult.

Concept of Conflict

Conflict is a natural part of human interaction that arises whenever there are differences in opinions, interests, goals, needs, values, or beliefs among individuals or groups. It can occur in various settings—families, workplaces, organizations, communities, and even between nations. While often viewed negatively, conflict is not inherently destructive. When managed effectively, it can lead to positive outcomes such as innovation, growth, better decision-making, and improved relationships.



In the context of **organizational behavior** and **business settings**, conflict becomes particularly important because it can impact productivity, employee satisfaction, communication, and team dynamics.

Types of Conflict

Intrapersonal Conflict (Conflict within an individual): This occurs when a person experiences internal struggles due to competing desires, needs, values, or goals. For example, a manager may feel torn between prioritizing the needs of the team and meeting organizational objectives.

Interpersonal Conflict (Conflict between individuals): This occurs between two or more individuals due to differing values, personalities, or misunderstandings. It is often personal and can manifest in various forms, such as arguments, disagreements, or frustration.

Intragroup Conflict (Conflict within a group): This type of conflict arises within a team or group of people working together. It can stem from differences in opinions, lack of communication, or role ambiguity. It can either hinder or enhance group performance depending on how it is managed.

Intergroup Conflict (Conflict between groups) Occurs when different groups, departments, teams, or organizations have conflicting goals, interests, or values. In workplaces, intergroup conflict may arise between departments, such as between sales and marketing teams, or between unions and management.

1.

Organizational Conflict (Conflict at the organizational level): This refers to conflict at a higher level in an organization, typically due to differences in strategies, goals, resource allocation, or authority between senior leaders, divisions, or the organization as a whole.

Cultural Conflict: Differences in cultural values and norms can lead to conflict between individuals or groups from different cultural backgrounds. In a globalized world, this type of conflict is increasingly common in multicultural workplaces.

Causes of Conflict

Conflict arises from various factors, some of which are **interpersonal** and **structural**, while others are **external**. Below are some common causes:



Differences in Goals and Priorities: Individuals or groups may have conflicting objectives, making collaboration difficult. For instance, the HR department's focus on employee well-being may conflict with the finance department's emphasis on cost-cutting.

Communication Breakdown: Miscommunication or lack of clear communication often triggers misunderstandings, which can escalate into conflict. This could be in the form of unclear instructions, vague feedback, or not listening attentively.

Resource Scarcity: When resources such as time, money, or personnel are limited, competition arises, which can lead to conflict. For example, two departments vying for a limited budget can create tension.

Different Personalities: People have different personalities, temperaments, and working styles. These differences can lead to interpersonal conflicts, especially if individuals are not able to adapt to or understand each other's working styles.

Power Struggles: Conflicts often emerge from differences in authority, control, or influence within an organization. Managers may struggle with subordinates over decision-making power, or between departments with varying levels of influence.

Role Ambiguity: Unclear roles and responsibilities can lead to conflict, especially when employees don't understand what is expected of them or when there is overlap in duties between team members.

Cultural Differences: Conflicting cultural values, beliefs, and practices—whether related to ethnicity, religion, or nationality—can lead to misunderstandings and friction, especially in diverse teams or international organizations.

Past Experiences or History: Previous unresolved conflicts or negative experiences can create a hostile environment, leading to future conflicts. Unaddressed resentment can build up over time.

Stress and External Pressures: High levels of stress, workload, and external pressures—such as tight deadlines or organizational changes—can create a high-tension environment where conflicts are more likely to arise.

Positive Aspects of Conflict



While conflict is often viewed as a negative force, when properly managed, it can lead to **positive change** and **growth**. Here are some potential benefits:

Encourages Innovation and Creativity Conflict can stimulate new ideas and creative problem-solving. When people challenge each other's views, they are often forced to think more deeply, resulting in innovation. For example, debates about a product design can lead to better and more marketable solutions.

Improves Communication: Openly addressing conflict can improve communication by forcing people to be more clear, honest, and direct in their interactions. This can lead to better understanding and stronger relationships.

Enhances Decision-Making: Conflict brings diverse perspectives to the table. When managed effectively, this can lead to more well-rounded decision-making, as all sides of an issue are considered.

Strengthens Relationships: Addressing and resolving conflict can improve interpersonal relationships and team dynamics. Successfully navigating conflict can build trust and mutual respect among team members.

Promotes Personal and Organizational Growth: Individuals and organizations can grow by learning from conflict, improving their conflict management skills, and adapting to new challenges.

Negative Aspects of Conflict

If not managed effectively, conflict can have detrimental effects on individuals, teams, and organizations:

Decreased Productivity: Prolonged or unresolved conflict can lead to **stress**, **demotivation**, and **disengagement**, ultimately reducing productivity and performance.



Reduced Morale: Conflict can erode employee morale, leading to frustration, burnout, and disengagement. If employees feel that conflict is not being addressed, it can lead to a toxic work environment.

Divided Teams: Unresolved conflict can lead to division within teams, creating silos, rivalry, and a lack of collaboration. It can undermine teamwork and lead to disengagement.

High Turnover: Conflict can contribute to high employee turnover. Employees may leave if they feel that conflicts are unresolved, or if the workplace environment becomes hostile due to ongoing disputes.

Damage to Reputation: If conflicts escalate or become public, they can damage an organization's reputation, both internally and externally. This could result in loss of customer trust, negative media attention, and lower investor confidence.

Conflict Resolution Styles

There are several common styles or approaches to conflict resolution, and people typically use one or more depending on the situation:

Avoidance: Individuals may choose to ignore or withdraw from the conflict to avoid confrontation. This may be effective for minor conflicts but can lead to unresolved issues in the long term.

Accommodating: One party gives in to the other party's demands to maintain harmony or avoid escalation. This approach can preserve relationships but may lead to resentment if one party always gives in.

Competing: One party seeks to win the conflict at the expense of the other. This can lead to a quick resolution but may damage relationships if used too frequently.

Compromising: Both parties make concessions to reach a middle ground. This approach can lead to a win-win situation but may not fully satisfy either party.



Collaborating: Both parties work together to find a solution that satisfies everyone's needs. This is the most constructive approach and typically leads to the best outcomes, but it requires time and effort from both parties.

Conflict Management Techniques

Effective conflict management is essential to ensure that conflicts are resolved productively and do not damage relationships or hinder organizational progress. Here are some key techniques:

Open Communication: Encourage transparent and honest communication. Active listening and acknowledging each other's viewpoints can help in addressing misunderstandings and finding common ground.

Mediation: When conflict becomes difficult to resolve internally, a neutral third party (mediator) can help facilitate the discussion and find a compromise or solution.

Negotiation: Parties involved in conflict can engage in negotiation, where they discuss their differing views and interests and work toward a mutually beneficial agreement.

Conflict Resolution Training: Organizations can offer conflict resolution workshops to employees, teaching them how to identify, address, and resolve conflicts in a productive manner.

Setting Clear Expectations: Prevent conflicts by establishing clear expectations, roles, responsibilities, and communication norms within teams and organizations.

1. Traditional View of Conflict

The **traditional view** of conflict is grounded in the assumption that conflict is inherently **destructive** and should be avoided or eliminated. This view emerged primarily from early organizational theories, especially in the mid-20th century, which focused on maintaining order, stability, and harmony within organizations.

Key Characteristics of the Traditional View:

- **Conflict as Negative:** Conflict is seen as something undesirable, detrimental, and something to be avoided at all costs. According to this view, conflict disrupts the smooth functioning of an organization, creates inefficiencies, and hampers productivity.



- **Focus on Harmony and Stability:** Organizations that embrace the traditional view value harmony and stability. Any disruption in relationships, morale, or team dynamics caused by conflict is viewed as a negative outcome.
- **Management Approach:** The primary objective in this view is to **prevent** or **resolve** conflict before it escalates. Leaders and managers are expected to **control** conflict through top-down approaches, such as imposing authority, clear rules, and rigid structures to keep potential conflicts in check.
- **Assumption of Uniformity:** There is an implicit belief that all employees should work toward a common goal, and if conflict arises, it usually reflects a **lack of cooperation** or a failure to align with the organization's objectives and values.

Examples of the Traditional View in Practice:

- **Autocratic Leadership:** Managers using an authoritarian style to minimize the possibility of conflict by imposing strict rules and controlling behavior.
- **Tightly Defined Roles:** Employees are expected to strictly adhere to predefined roles and duties, with minimal flexibility, to avoid role ambiguity and potential conflict.
- **Punitive Measures:** Conflict is often dealt with by imposing punishment or discipline rather than addressing the underlying causes or fostering dialogue.

Limitations of the Traditional View:

- **Over-Simplification:** The assumption that all conflict is destructive fails to account for situations where conflict can be productive or innovative.
- **Stifling Innovation:** In an attempt to maintain harmony, the traditional view can stifle creativity, diversity of thought, and new ideas, since employees may avoid raising different viewpoints or challenging the status quo.
- **Inflexibility:** A rigid adherence to this view can lead to a lack of flexibility in dealing with conflict, leaving organizations ill-equipped to handle more complex, dynamic challenges.

2. Interactionist View of Conflict

In contrast to the traditional view, the **interactionist view** of conflict **embraces conflict as a natural and potentially positive force** in organizational life. According to this view, conflict is not inherently negative but can be constructive when managed appropriately. This perspective gained prominence during the latter half of the 20th century, particularly with the work of social scientists and organizational behavior scholars who recognized that conflict could lead to innovation, growth, and improvement.

Key Characteristics of the Interactionist View:

- **Conflict as Inevitable and Sometimes Beneficial:** Conflict is seen as an inevitable and natural part of organizational life, arising from differences in goals, values, perspectives, and interests.



Rather than eliminating conflict, the interactionist view encourages **managing** and **channeling** it for productive outcomes.

- **Promotes Constructive Conflict:** Not all conflict is negative. The interactionist view distinguishes between **functional** (constructive) and **dysfunctional** (destructive) conflict. **Functional conflict** can lead to **innovation, improved problem-solving, and better decision-making**.
- **Encourages Open Communication:** The interactionist view encourages open dialogue and communication. It sees conflict as an opportunity for team members to express differing ideas, address misunderstandings, and challenge assumptions in a healthy manner.
- **Increases Creativity and Performance:** Conflict can stimulate creativity by forcing individuals or teams to think outside the box and consider alternative solutions. It fosters an environment where diverse opinions can be voiced, leading to improved decision-making and innovation.
- **Promotes Healthy Debate:** The interactionist view holds that conflict, when managed effectively, can lead to **better performance**, as it encourages people to critically evaluate ideas, challenge each other, and consider a wider range of alternatives.

Examples of the Interactionist View in Practice:

- **Encouraging Debate in Meetings:** Leaders and managers encourage employees to voice differing opinions and challenge ideas, viewing these debates as opportunities for deeper insights and improved solutions.
- **Collaboration and Teamwork:** Teams are encouraged to engage in constructive conflict, where differing perspectives are explored collaboratively to reach better outcomes. For instance, when team members debate strategies or solutions, the goal is to synthesize ideas rather than suppress them.
- **Flexible Leadership Styles:** Managers who embrace the interactionist view may use **participative** or **transformational leadership** styles that promote open communication, flexibility, and adaptability in conflict situations.

Benefits of the Interactionist View:

- **Improved Problem-Solving:** By encouraging healthy debate and diverse perspectives, organizations can develop more creative and effective solutions to complex problems.
- **Innovation and Adaptability:** Conflict often forces individuals or organizations to **adapt, innovate**, and rethink traditional approaches. Conflict can prompt organizations to make necessary changes or adopt new practices that improve overall performance.
- **Better Decision-Making:** When different viewpoints are expressed and discussed openly, decisions are made after careful consideration of multiple perspectives, leading to more informed and balanced choices.
- **Stronger Relationships:** Contrary to the idea that conflict destroys relationships, the interactionist view can lead to stronger relationships if individuals feel safe to express differing opinions and work through disagreements in a constructive manner.

Limitations of the Interactionist View:



- **Escalation:** If not carefully managed, conflict can escalate and become dysfunctional. Overstimulating conflict or allowing it to spiral out of control can lead to **division, resentment, and a toxic work environment.**
- **Not Always Appropriate:** While conflict can be positive in some cases, it may not always be appropriate or productive in certain situations. For example, when there is a clear right or wrong answer, prolonged debate may hinder progress.
- **Time and Effort:** Managing conflict in a constructive way requires time, effort, and good communication skills. Leaders and teams need to actively engage in conflict management practices to ensure that conflict does not become destructive.

Comparison of the Traditional and Interactionist Views

Aspect	Traditional View	Interactionist View
Nature of Conflict	Conflict is inherently negative and should be avoided.	Conflict is inevitable and can be constructive if managed well.
Approach to Conflict	Conflict should be suppressed, avoided, or eliminated.	Conflict should be encouraged in a healthy way to stimulate growth and creativity.
Impact on Innovation	Stifles innovation by avoiding disagreement and risk-taking.	Promotes innovation by encouraging diverse perspectives and debate.
Role of Management	Managers are responsible for controlling and resolving conflict.	Managers facilitate conflict resolution and encourage productive conflict.
Workplace Environment	A focus on stability, control, and harmony.	An emphasis on open communication, debate, and flexibility.
Conflict's Function	Conflict is seen as destructive to relationships and productivity.	Conflict is seen as functional for problem-solving and performance.
Leadership Style	Typically autocratic or directive to control conflict.	Typically participative or transformational to foster collaboration.

Stages of the Conflict Process

The **conflict process** typically unfolds in five stages:

1. Latent Conflict (Pre-Conflict Stage)



This is the **potential stage** of conflict where the conditions for conflict exist, but the conflict has not yet surfaced. At this point, differences in interests, values, and goals are present but are not being openly discussed. It is more about **latent tensions** and **unresolved issues** that could spark a conflict later.

Key Characteristics:

- **Differences exist:** There are underlying differences or incompatibilities (e.g., in goals, values, needs, or resources) but no overt conflict.
- **Possible triggers:** External factors like competition for resources, leadership issues, or organizational changes may set the stage for conflict.
- **Lack of awareness:** Employees or groups may not even be aware that they have conflicting interests or views.

Example: Two departments might be competing for the same budget but haven't yet raised the issue with each other.

2. Perceived Conflict (Emergence of Conflict)

In this stage, one or both parties become **aware** of the conflict. The differences that existed in the latent stage are now recognized as conflicting interests, goals, or values. At this point, the conflict may not yet be overt, but one party has perceived that a problem exists.

Key Characteristics:

- **Awareness:** One or more individuals or groups realize that their interests or goals are in conflict.
- **Perception of threat:** One party perceives the conflict as a threat to its interests, such as losing resources, power, or influence.
- **Initial reactions:** The conflict may lead to tension, anxiety, or frustration, even though it hasn't yet escalated to open confrontation.

Example: A manager perceives that an employee is not contributing equally to a team project and feels resentment building.

3. Felt Conflict (Escalation)

Once the conflict has been perceived, it often becomes **felt** — meaning that individuals begin to experience emotions like frustration, anger, or stress. This is the stage where conflict moves from being a **mental perception** to **emotional involvement**. If the conflict isn't addressed early, it can escalate, with negative emotions, hostility, or defensive behaviors beginning to surface.

Key Characteristics:



- **Emotional responses:** Feelings like anger, resentment, fear, or anxiety are prevalent.
- **Polarization:** Parties begin to view each other in more negative terms, often categorizing the other side as the “enemy.”
- **Focus on positions:** Individuals start to focus on positions (i.e., “what I want”) rather than interests (i.e., “why I want it”), which can make it harder to resolve the conflict.

Example: Two team members who disagree on how to approach a project might start to avoid each other, feel irritated, and attribute negative qualities to each other, making collaboration harder.

4. Manifest Conflict (Confrontation)

At this stage, the conflict becomes **overt**. Parties openly express their disagreements, either verbally or through actions. This is the stage where the conflict is most visible to others, and if not managed well, it can lead to **destructive behavior, damaged relationships, and loss of trust**. The confrontation could take many forms, from open arguments to passive-aggressive behavior.

Key Characteristics:

- **Open disagreement:** The conflict becomes visible, and the parties directly engage with each other.
- **Conflict behaviors:** These may include direct confrontations, blaming, accusations, avoidance, or even passive-aggressive behavior.
- **Stalemate or impasse:** If not resolved, the conflict can reach a point where both parties feel they cannot make progress, leading to a deadlock.

Example: The two team members have a heated discussion during a meeting, accusing each other of not doing their fair share of work, and openly disagreeing about how to proceed.

5. Conflict Aftermath (Resolution or Escalation)

The final stage of the conflict process is the aftermath, where the conflict is either **resolved** or it **escalates** further. In the resolution scenario, the parties find a mutually acceptable solution or compromise, leading to reduced tension and improved understanding. In contrast, if the conflict isn't resolved, it can escalate further, causing long-term damage to relationships, team cohesion, and productivity.

Key Characteristics of Resolution:

- **Resolution:** The conflict is addressed, and a mutually agreeable solution or compromise is reached. The aftermath often involves **improved understanding** and **repaired relationships**.
 - **Constructive outcomes:** Conflict resolution can lead to positive changes, such as better communication, role clarification, or organizational improvements.
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- **Commitment to change:** All parties involved are committed to implementing the solution or compromise.

Key Characteristics of Escalation:

- **Increased animosity:** If unresolved, the conflict can escalate to further hostility, misunderstandings, and potentially violence.
- **Damage to relationships:** The parties may break down communication and cooperation, leading to long-term damage in their professional relationship or even the organization's overall culture.
- **Strained organizational climate:** If conflict is not addressed, the entire organization may suffer from low morale, low productivity, and diminished collaboration.

Example of Resolution: The two team members discuss their issues with a mediator, agree on clear roles and responsibilities, and commit to working together more effectively in the future.

Example of Escalation: The conflict escalates, resulting in ongoing tension, resentment, and further confrontation, potentially leading to one party leaving the team or even resigning from the organization.

Factors That Influence the Conflict Process

Several factors can affect how conflict develops and is managed through its various stages:

Individual Factors:

- **Personality:** People with competitive, dominant personalities may escalate conflict, while more collaborative individuals may work to resolve it.
- **Values and Beliefs:** Differences in values, beliefs, or cultural backgrounds can contribute to the perception and experience of conflict.
- **Emotional Intelligence:** The ability to manage one's emotions and understand others' emotions can impact how well a person handles conflict

Organizational Factors:

- **Leadership style:** How leaders handle conflict can influence how conflict unfolds within teams or departments. Authoritarian leadership might suppress conflict, while participative leadership can foster open discussion.
- **Communication:** Poor communication or lack of clear channels can exacerbate conflict. On the other hand, open, transparent communication can help prevent or resolve conflict.
- **Organizational structure:** Highly hierarchical or siloed structures can promote interdepartmental conflict. More decentralized or flexible structures may reduce conflict by promoting collaboration.



Situational Factors:

- **Resources:** Competition for limited resources (budget, staff, time) is a common source of conflict.
 - **External Stressors:** Market changes, economic stress, or organizational restructuring can heighten tensions and trigger conflict.
 - **Task-related issues:** Disagreements about how to complete tasks or achieve goals can lead to conflict.
-

Managing the Conflict Process

Effective conflict management involves recognizing the signs of conflict early and addressing it before it escalates. Some strategies include:

1. **Early Intervention:** Address issues during the **latent conflict** or **perceived conflict** stages to prevent escalation.
2. **Open Communication:** Encourage transparent, open communication between parties involved in the conflict. Promote active listening to understand differing perspectives.
3. **Mediation:** Bring in a neutral third party to help resolve conflict when it reaches the **manifest conflict** stage.
4. **Conflict Resolution Training:** Equip employees and leaders with conflict management skills to handle disagreements constructively.
5. **Collaboration and Problem-Solving:** Focus on collaborative problem-solving, where both parties can discuss their concerns and find a mutually beneficial solution.

1. Functional Conflict

Functional conflict (also known as **constructive conflict**) is conflict that **supports** or **improves** the goals of the group or organization, fostering **growth, innovation, and problem-solving**. In this context, conflict is viewed as **productive** and can be a force that drives **positive change**. It enhances performance, encourages diversity of thought, and improves decision-making by challenging assumptions and promoting deeper exploration of issues.

Key Characteristics of Functional Conflict:

- **Promotes Innovation and Creativity:** When individuals or groups disagree, it can lead to new ideas, solutions, and ways of thinking. It forces people to rethink their assumptions and look for creative alternatives.
 - **Encourages Open Communication:** Functional conflict encourages open dialogue, where differing views are expressed and listened to. This can lead to clearer communication and better understanding of varying perspectives.
 - **Improves Decision-Making:** By addressing differing viewpoints, functional conflict ensures that decisions are well-considered, balanced, and based on a thorough evaluation of different perspectives.
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- **Strengthens Relationships:** Constructive conflict can build trust and improve relationships when managed respectfully. It provides an opportunity to work through differences and find common ground.
- **Fosters Personal and Organizational Growth:** When conflict is managed properly, it can lead to personal development (e.g., better problem-solving skills) and organizational improvement (e.g., better processes or systems).

Examples of Functional Conflict:

- **Debates in a Team Meeting:** A team is discussing a new project proposal. One member challenges the strategy, offering alternative solutions. This debate forces the team to refine the strategy, consider potential pitfalls, and ultimately arrive at a stronger plan.
- **Feedback and Criticism:** A manager offers constructive criticism to an employee about their performance. This sparks a discussion, leading to improvements in the employee's work and better alignment with organizational goals.
- **Diverse Perspectives:** In a cross-functional team, different departments (e.g., marketing, finance, operations) might have conflicting views on how to allocate resources, leading to a deeper understanding of trade-offs and a more balanced solution.

Benefits of Functional Conflict:

- Encourages **critical thinking** and **problem-solving**.
- Stimulates **innovation** and **creativity** by challenging the status quo.
- **Clarifies misunderstandings** and reduces ambiguity.
- Builds stronger, more cohesive teams through respectful dialogue.
- Leads to **better decision-making** by considering diverse perspectives.

2. Dysfunctional Conflict

Dysfunctional conflict (also known as **destructive conflict**) is conflict that **hinders** or **damages** the performance of individuals or teams, undermining relationships, reducing productivity, and impairing decision-making. Dysfunctional conflict is often driven by **emotions**, **misunderstandings**, and **personal attacks**, rather than by a genuine concern for resolving an issue. It typically leads to **negative outcomes** and **deteriorates organizational culture**.

Key Characteristics of Dysfunctional Conflict:

- **Damages Relationships:** Dysfunctional conflict often leads to **hostility**, **resentment**, and **broken relationships**. Personal attacks and animosity can overshadow the issue at hand, resulting in long-term damage to interpersonal dynamics.
- **Decreases Productivity:** Instead of focusing on work tasks, individuals or teams spend time and energy on the conflict, leading to a **reduction in productivity** and effectiveness.
- **Hinders Collaboration:** As conflict becomes destructive, team members become more focused on their own positions and interests, leading to a breakdown in cooperation and collaboration.



- **Increases Stress and Tension:** Dysfunctional conflict often causes **stress, anxiety, and burnout** among employees, creating a tense and unpleasant work environment.
- **Obscures Focus:** When conflicts become personal or involve emotional reactions, the original issue may become lost, leading to confusion and poor decision-making.

Examples of Dysfunctional Conflict:

- **Personal Attacks:** During a team meeting, a disagreement turns into a personal attack, where one team member belittles the other, causing feelings of humiliation and resentment.
- **Avoidance or Withdrawal:** Team members avoid discussing issues or withdraw from collaboration altogether, leading to a lack of communication, poor decision-making, and decreased team performance.
- **Unresolved Tension:** A team has ongoing unresolved conflicts about roles and responsibilities, but the issues are never addressed. Over time, these tensions escalate, creating a toxic work environment.

Consequences of Dysfunctional Conflict:

- **Decreased morale and job satisfaction.**
- **Increased turnover** and absenteeism as employees become disengaged.
- **Erosion of trust** within the team or organization.
- **Decreased performance and lower quality of work** due to distractions.
- **A toxic work environment** that fosters cynicism, blame, and poor communication.

Differences Between Functional and Dysfunctional Conflict

Aspect	Functional Conflict	Dysfunctional Conflict
Nature	Constructive, positive conflict aimed at improving performance	Destructive, negative conflict that harms relationships and performance
Impact on Decision-Making	Enhances decision-making through diverse viewpoints	Leads to poor decision-making due to emotional involvement and unresolved issues
Communication	Open, respectful, and solution-oriented	Poor, defensive, and often personal or hostile
Collaboration	Promotes collaboration and teamwork	Undermines collaboration and encourages individualism or silos
Outcome	Leads to better ideas, innovation, and improved relationships	Leads to frustration, burnout, and damaged relationships



Aspect	Functional Conflict	Dysfunctional Conflict
Emotional Tone	Positive or neutral emotions (engagement, respect)	Negative emotions (anger, frustration, resentment)
Productivity	Increased productivity and performance	Decreased productivity and disengagement
Example	Constructive debates, feedback sessions, brainstorming sessions	Personal attacks, unresolved tensions, blame games

Managing Functional and Dysfunctional Conflict

How to Promote Functional Conflict:

- **Encourage healthy debate:** Create an environment where differing opinions are welcomed and constructive disagreement is seen as a tool for improvement.
- **Foster open communication:** Promote transparent, respectful communication channels where team members can express their ideas and concerns without fear of reprisal.
- **Focus on the issue, not the person:** Encourage individuals to focus on the topic or problem, rather than making personal attacks or getting emotionally involved.
- **Provide conflict resolution training:** Equip team members and leaders with the skills to handle conflict constructively, including active listening, problem-solving, and negotiation techniques.
- **Encourage diverse perspectives:** Acknowledge and embrace diversity in thought, background, and expertise. Conflict arising from diverse perspectives often leads to better outcomes.

How to Minimize Dysfunctional Conflict:

- **Address issues early:** Prevent conflicts from escalating by addressing issues before they become entrenched or emotional. Early intervention can prevent the buildup of resentment or hostility.
- **Promote emotional intelligence:** Encourage individuals to develop emotional intelligence, which can help them manage their emotions and better understand the feelings of others in conflict situations.
- **Establish clear roles and responsibilities:** Often, dysfunction arises from unclear expectations or role ambiguity. Ensure that roles are clearly defined to minimize misunderstandings and conflicts.
- **Encourage mediation:** When conflicts become personal or entrenched, bring in a neutral third party to facilitate the discussion and help the parties find common ground.

- **Create a supportive environment:** Foster a culture of respect, trust, and empathy where conflict can be resolved without fear of retaliation or damage to personal relationships.



Introduction to Power and Politics in Organizations

In any organizational setting, **power** and **politics** are essential elements that influence behavior, decision-making, and overall organizational dynamics. They are central to how individuals and groups interact, how resources are distributed, and how leaders guide and influence others. Both power and politics are pervasive in organizations, though often invisible or unspoken, and they can shape the culture and functioning of the organization in profound ways.

Understanding the dynamics of power and politics is crucial for both leaders and employees. Effective management of power can help organizations achieve their goals, foster collaboration, and enhance performance. On the other hand, if misused, power can lead to manipulation, unethical behavior, and dysfunction. Similarly, while office politics often carries a negative connotation, political skills, when used appropriately, can enhance influence, build relationships, and improve organizational outcomes.

What is Power?

Power is the ability or capacity of an individual or group to influence others and control resources or outcomes within an organization. It is the fundamental force that drives behavior, shapes relationships, and determines how decisions are made. Power is not inherently good or bad—it depends on how it is used.

Key Sources of Power:

Legitimate Power: Power that comes from a formal position or role within the organization (e.g., managers, leaders). It is based on the authority granted by the organization or system.

Example: A CEO has the authority to make strategic decisions due to their position in the company.

Reward Power: Power derived from the ability to grant rewards such as promotions, raises, recognition, or other benefits.

Example: A manager has the ability to reward employees with bonuses or extra vacation days.

Coercive Power: Power based on the ability to punish or threaten others, such as giving disciplinary actions, reducing pay, or firing employees.

Example: A supervisor may threaten to give an employee a poor performance review to influence their behavior.

Expert Power: Power that comes from specialized knowledge, skills, or expertise in a particular area.



Example: A senior engineer in a company has expert power because of their deep technical knowledge.

Referent Power: Power based on admiration, respect, or identification with a leader or individual. This power comes from personal characteristics, such as likability, charisma, or reputation.

Example: A respected team leader whose opinions and actions are admired by others.

Information Power: Power derived from controlling the flow of important information in the organization.

1. *Example:* A project manager who controls access to key data or information has influence over the decision-making process.

Importance of Power in Organizations:

- **Influencing behavior:** Power enables leaders and individuals to influence the actions and decisions of others.
- **Resource allocation:** Power determines who gets access to critical resources, promotions, or opportunities.
- **Conflict resolution:** Power can be used to resolve disputes, though it can also exacerbate conflicts if abused.
- **Leadership effectiveness:** Effective use of power enables leaders to guide teams, motivate employees, and achieve organizational goals.

What is Politics?

Politics refers to the activities, behaviors, or strategies that individuals or groups use to gain power, influence decisions, and protect or advance their interests within an organization. Unlike power, which is about influence, politics is often seen as a more **tactical** and **strategic** means of using power to navigate complex organizational dynamics.

Organizational politics typically involves the use of both **formal** (legitimate authority) and **informal** (networking, alliances, and influence) tactics to achieve goals, often behind the scenes or without clear visibility.

Types of Organizational Politics:

Ingratiation: Using flattery, praise, or other forms of positive reinforcement to gain favor from superiors or peers.



Example: An employee frequently praises their boss in meetings to gain their approval or influence decisions.

Coalition Building: Forming alliances with others to increase one's power and influence within the organization.

Example: A group of employees forms a coalition to lobby for a higher budget allocation for their department.

Networking: Establishing and maintaining relationships with influential people inside and outside the organization.

Example: An employee attends informal social gatherings to network with senior leaders, hoping to be considered for an upcoming promotion.

Covert Influence: Using subtle, indirect tactics to influence decisions or events, often without the knowledge of others.

Example: An employee subtly undermines a colleague's credibility by spreading rumors, leading to a weakened reputation and fewer opportunities.

Competing for Resources: Struggling for access to limited resources (e.g., budget, staff, time) to achieve personal or departmental goals.

1.

- *Example:* Managers compete for resources like funds, skilled employees, or time on the executive's calendar.

2.

Manipulation: Directly controlling or influencing others in ways that are often deceptive or unethical, such as withholding information or using people to gain an advantage.

3.

- *Example:* A leader withholds important project details from a team member to maintain control over a decision-making process.

Importance of Politics in Organizations:



- **Navigating Power Structures:** Understanding the political landscape helps individuals navigate the power structures of an organization and secure the resources they need to succeed.
- **Achieving Goals:** Politics is often necessary to push through initiatives, particularly in large, complex organizations where multiple stakeholders with competing interests must be managed.
- **Influencing Change:** Politics enables individuals to promote new ideas, strategies, or changes within the organization by aligning themselves with powerful supporters or key decision-makers.
- **Career Advancement:** Successful use of organizational politics can accelerate career advancement, as individuals who can maneuver through complex political dynamics often gain greater visibility and access to opportunities.

Power and Politics in Organizational Behavior

Power and politics are **interconnected** because individuals use their power and influence in political ways to advance their own interests and those of their groups. Organizational behavior is often shaped by these dynamics, influencing communication, decision-making, and leadership styles.

The Role of Power and Politics in Leadership:

- **Leadership Styles:** Leaders may use different forms of power to lead and influence their teams. For example, a **transformational leader** may rely more on **referent** and **expert power**, while a **transactional leader** might use **reward** and **coercive power** more frequently.
- **Decision-Making:** Political maneuvering can shape who gets to make decisions in an organization, as well as which ideas are considered or rejected. Political players often use alliances, networking, and influence to sway decisions in their favor.
- **Ethical Considerations:** The ethical use of power and politics is a key consideration in organizations. While political skill can help achieve important goals, it can also be abused, leading to unethical behavior, favoritism, manipulation, or exploitation.

Power and Politics: Ethical Considerations

Although power and politics can be powerful tools for organizational success, **ethical concerns** arise when these dynamics are abused. For example:

- **Manipulation** or **exploitation** of employees can lead to a toxic work culture and employee dissatisfaction.
- **Favoritism** or **nepotism** can undermine trust and morale in the workplace.
- **Coercion** and **threats** can create an atmosphere of fear, leading to reduced creativity and collaboration.

To ensure that power and politics have a positive impact, organizations must:

- Establish **clear ethical guidelines** for behavior.



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- Foster a **culture of transparency**, where decisions and actions are open and accountable.
- Encourage **ethical leadership** that models integrity and fairness.