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MASTER OF COMMERCE

MCM-202: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

w.e.f Academic Session: 2023-24



CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY MEGHALAYA

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Techno City, 9th Mile, Baridua, Ri-Bhoi, Meghalaya, 793101

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Master of Commerce **MCM-202** **HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT** **Academic Session : 2023-24**



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Self Learning Material
Center for Distance and Online Education
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MCM-202: ORGANISATIONAL THEORY AND BEHAVIOUR
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UNIT-I : INTRODUCTION

- Organisational Behaviour – concept, Focus areas;
- OB & Management - Skills of a manager, Role of a manager; Contributing Disciplines; Challenges and Opportunities;
- Ethics and Organisational Behaviour;
- Models of Organizational Behaviour

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisational Behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organisations. It is a human tool for human benefits. It applies to the behaviour of people at work in all types of organizations: public, private, cooperative sector, commercial or service organisations. Whatever organisations are, there is a need to understand organisational behaviour. Organisational Behaviour is the study of human behaviour in organisations to make more active human performance to achieve organisational objectives as well as human objectives. Organisational Behaviour aims at finding out those ways in which people will contribute in best possible manner. The study of Organisational Behaviour involves understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour and the factors which influence the performance of people in an organisation. It is concerned with the behaviour of individuals and groups not the behaviour of all members collectively.

1.1.2 DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organisational behaviour has been defined by various management thinkers. A few of them are presented below:

- Stephen P. Robbins : “Organisation Behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within organisations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organisation’s effectiveness.
- Moorhead/Griffin : “Organisation behaviour is the study of human behaviour in organisational settings that interface between human behaviour and the organisation and the organisation itself.”

- Ramon J Aldag and Arthur P Brief : “Organisation behaviour is a branch of the social science that seek to build theories that ca be applied to predicting, understanding and controlling behaviour in work organisations.”

1.1.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational behavior (OB) is a field of study that explores how individuals, groups, and structures within an organization interact and influence one another. Understanding organizational behavior is crucial for effective management and leadership. The characteristics of organizational behavior encompass a wide range of factors that contribute to the overall dynamics within an organization. Here are some key characteristics:

- **Interdisciplinary Nature:** Organizational behavior draws from various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and management. It integrates insights from these fields to understand and explain behavior in organizations.
- **Systematic Study:** OB involves a systematic approach to the study of organizational phenomena. Researchers and practitioners use scientific methods to collect and analyze data, enabling a more rigorous and objective understanding of organizational behavior.
- **Focus on Individuals and Groups:** The study of OB examines the behavior of individuals within an organization, as well as the behavior of groups and teams. It explores how individual personalities, attitudes, and motivations impact group dynamics and overall organizational performance.
- **Emphasis on Learning:** Learning is a central concept in organizational behavior. It involves the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes through experience, training, and education. Understanding how individuals and organizations learn helps in improving performance and adapting to change.
- **Goal-Oriented:** Organizational behavior is often concerned with understanding how individual and group behavior contributes to the achievement of organizational goals. This includes the alignment of individual goals with organizational objectives.

- **Open System:** Organizations are considered open systems that interact with their external environment. Organizational behavior looks at how organizations adapt to, and influence, their external environment. This includes understanding the impact of factors such as technology, culture, and the economy on organizational behavior.
- **Contingency Approach:** Organizational behavior recognizes that there is no one-size-fits-all solution to management challenges. The contingency approach suggests that the effectiveness of organizational practices depends on the specific situation and context.
- **Humanistic Orientation:** OB emphasizes a humanistic approach to management, recognizing the importance of treating employees as individuals with unique needs, motivations, and aspirations. It encourages managers to consider the human side of work, fostering a positive and supportive organizational culture.
- **Multilevel Analysis:** Organizational behavior involves examining behavior at multiple levels, including individual, group, and organizational levels. This allows for a comprehensive understanding of the complexities and interdependencies within an organization.
- **Change Focus:** Organizational behavior is concerned with managing and facilitating change within organizations. It explores how individuals and groups adapt to change, as well as how leaders can effectively implement and communicate change initiatives.

Understanding and applying these characteristics can contribute to creating a positive and productive organizational culture, improving employee satisfaction and performance, and ultimately enhancing organizational effectiveness.

1.1.4 ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR: FOCUS AREA

Organizational Behavior (OB) encompasses various focus areas that collectively contribute to understanding and managing the dynamics within an organization. These focus areas shed light on different aspects of human behavior, group dynamics, and organizational structure. Here are some key focus areas within the field of Organizational Behavior:

- i. **Individual Behavior:** Examining individual behavior is a fundamental focus area in OB. This involves understanding factors such as personality, perception, motivation, learning, and attitudes that influence how individuals behave within an

organizational context. Individual behavior studies contribute to effective personnel management, employee engagement, and job satisfaction.

- ii. **Group Behavior:** Group behavior explores how individuals come together to form groups and teams within an organization. Topics within this focus area include group dynamics, communication patterns, leadership within groups, and the impact of team structures on overall organizational performance.
- iii. **Leadership and Power:** Understanding leadership and power dynamics is crucial for effective organizational management. This focus area delves into leadership styles, the influence of leaders on organizational culture, sources and uses of power, and the impact of leadership on employee motivation and performance.
- iv. **Organizational Structure and Design:** This focus area involves the study of the formal and informal structures that shape organizational behavior. It includes topics such as organizational hierarchy, communication channels, job design, and the impact of organizational structure on decision-making and employee behavior.
- v. **Organizational Culture:** Organizational culture is a key focus area that examines the shared values, beliefs, and norms within an organization. Understanding and managing organizational culture is crucial for creating a positive work environment, fostering employee engagement, and aligning individual and organizational goals.
- vi. **Motivation and Job Satisfaction:** Motivation and job satisfaction focus on the factors that drive individuals to perform well in the workplace. This area explores various motivation theories, the role of rewards and recognition, and the relationship between job satisfaction and overall organizational effectiveness.
- vii. **Communication:** Effective communication is a critical focus area within OB. It involves studying communication processes, barriers to communication, and the impact of communication on interpersonal relationships and organizational performance.
- viii. **Change Management:** Change management is a dynamic focus area that explores how organizations can effectively plan for and implement change. This includes understanding employee reactions to change, communication strategies, and the role of leadership in guiding organizations through transitions.

- ix. **Conflict Resolution and Negotiation:** Conflict resolution and negotiation focus on understanding and managing conflicts within the organization. This area explores different conflict resolution strategies, negotiation techniques, and the impact of conflict on team dynamics and organizational culture.
- x. **Organizational Development:** Organizational development focuses on planned efforts to improve organizational effectiveness and employee well-being. This includes interventions such as training programs, team-building initiatives, and strategic planning aimed at enhancing overall organizational performance.

Each of these focus areas contributes to a holistic understanding of organizational behavior, providing insights that enable effective management and leadership within diverse organizational settings. Organizations that prioritize the study and application of organizational behavior principles are better equipped to create positive work environments, foster employee satisfaction, and achieve long-term success.

1.1.5 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The importance of organizational behavior (OB) lies in its ability to provide valuable insights into the dynamics of human behavior within an organizational context. Understanding and applying organizational behavior principles can have a profound impact on individual and organizational effectiveness. Here are several reasons why organizational behavior is crucial:

- i. **Improved Employee Performance:** By understanding individual motivations, attitudes, and behaviors, organizations can tailor their management practices to enhance employee performance. Motivated and satisfied employees are more likely to be productive and contribute positively to the organization's goals.
- ii. **Enhanced Employee Satisfaction and Retention:** OB helps identify factors that contribute to job satisfaction and engagement. A positive organizational culture, effective leadership, and fair policies can lead to higher levels of employee satisfaction and reduce turnover rates.
- iii. **Effective Team Dynamics:** Team behavior is a significant aspect of OB. Understanding group dynamics, communication patterns, and leadership within teams can contribute to the formation of high-performing and cohesive teams. Effective teamwork is essential for achieving organizational objectives.

- iv. **Adaptation to Change:** Change is inevitable in the business environment. OB provides insights into how individuals and organizations respond to change. This understanding is crucial for managing change effectively, minimizing resistance, and facilitating a smoother transition.
- v. **Enhanced Communication:** Communication is a cornerstone of organizational behavior. Effective communication fosters collaboration, reduces misunderstandings, and enhances relationships within the workplace. Clear and transparent communication is vital for organizational success.
- vi. **Conflict Resolution:** OB helps in understanding the sources of conflict within an organization and provides tools for resolving conflicts constructively. Resolving conflicts positively contributes to a healthy work environment and maintains positive interpersonal relationships.
- vii. **Strategic Decision-Making:** Conceptual skills within OB enable managers to think strategically and make decisions that align with the organization's long-term goals. This helps in formulating and implementing effective organizational strategies.
- viii. **Enhanced Leadership Effectiveness:** OB provides valuable insights into leadership styles, power dynamics, and the impact of leadership on organizational culture. Managers who understand these aspects can adapt their leadership approach to better guide and inspire their teams.
- ix. **Creation of Positive Organizational Culture:** Organizational behavior contributes to the development of a positive and inclusive organizational culture. A healthy culture promotes shared values, ethical behavior, and a sense of belonging among employees.
- x. **Increased Organizational Effectiveness:** Ultimately, the application of OB principles leads to increased organizational effectiveness. A well-understood and managed workforce, coupled with positive organizational culture, can contribute to achieving strategic objectives and sustaining long-term success.

Organizational behavior is important because it provides a framework for understanding, predicting, and influencing human behavior within the organizational context. By applying OB principles, organizations can create environments that foster employee well-being, collaboration, and innovation, leading to increased overall effectiveness and success.

1.2 SKILLS OF MANAGERS

Effective managers possess a diverse set of skills that enable them to navigate the complexities of organizational life. These skills can be broadly categorized into three main areas:

- **Technical Skills:** Technical skills refer to the proficiency and knowledge of specific tools, techniques, and procedures necessary for a particular field or industry. It involves a manager's capability to understand and apply specialized knowledge and expertise. In different industries, technical skills may include financial analysis, data interpretation, project management, IT proficiency, engineering knowledge, or marketing expertise. Technical skills are essential for day-to-day operations, problem-solving, and decision-making within a specific functional area. Managers need to stay abreast of industry trends and advancements to ensure their technical skills remain relevant.
- **Human Skills:** Human skills, also known as interpersonal or people skills, pertain to a manager's ability to work effectively with others. It involves communication, empathy, conflict resolution, teamwork, and leadership. Communicating clearly, actively listening, motivating team members, and resolving conflicts are all examples of human skills. Building positive relationships and creating a positive work environment are crucial components. In managerial roles, human skills are vital for fostering collaboration, leading teams, and creating a positive organizational culture. Managers with strong human skills can motivate employees, build trust, and navigate complex interpersonal dynamics.
- **Conceptual Skills:** Conceptual skills involve the ability to think strategically, understand the organization as a whole, and recognize the interrelationships among various parts. It includes critical thinking, problem-solving, and the capacity to see the big picture. Strategic planning, decision-making based on long-term organizational goals, and understanding how different departments contribute to the overall mission are examples of conceptual skills. Conceptual skills are crucial for top-level managers who need to formulate strategies, make decisions that align with the organization's vision, and understand how changes in one area may impact

the entire organization. These skills are valuable for navigating uncertainty and complexity.

- **Additional Managerial Skills:** In addition to the core technical, human, and conceptual skills, effective managers often demonstrate the following skills:
 - **Communication Skills:** Clear and effective communication is fundamental for conveying ideas, providing feedback, and ensuring understanding among team members.
 - **Leadership Skills:** The ability to inspire, motivate, and guide a team toward achieving common goals is a key aspect of leadership. This involves setting a vision, making decisions, and leading by example.
 - **Adaptability:** Given the dynamic nature of business environments, managers need to be adaptable and open to change. This includes being responsive to market trends, technological advancements, and shifts in organizational strategy.
 - **Problem-Solving and Decision-Making:** Managers regularly encounter challenges and uncertainties. Problem-solving skills involve identifying and resolving issues, while effective decision-making involves making sound choices based on available information and analysis.
 - **Emotional Intelligence:** Understanding and managing one's emotions and being attuned to the emotions of others is crucial for effective leadership and interpersonal relationships.
 - **Negotiation Skills:** Managers often engage in negotiations, whether with team members, other departments, or external stakeholders. Negotiation skills help in achieving mutually beneficial outcomes.

Collectively, these skills contribute to a manager's ability to lead, communicate, and navigate the complexities of organizational life. While the relative importance of each skill may vary depending on the managerial level and the specific organizational context, a well-rounded manager typically possesses a blend of technical, human, and conceptual skills.

1.3 ROLE OF MANAGERS

The roles described by Mintzberg (1975) and later grouped by Stoner and Wankel (1997)

provide a comprehensive framework for understanding the diverse responsibilities and activities that managers at all levels of hierarchy engage in. These roles are elaborated below:

i. Interpersonal Roles: Interpersonal roles are concerned with creating and maintaining interpersonal relationships in work. These are:

- a) **Figurehead Role:** In the figurehead role, a manager symbolizes the organization, representing it in formal and social settings. This involves participating in ceremonial activities, signing legal documents, and acting as a visible symbol of authority and identity.
- b) **Leader Role:** As a leader, the manager is responsible for setting goals, developing plans to achieve those goals, motivating employees, addressing their needs, and guiding the team toward successful goal attainment. Leadership involves both strategic planning and interpersonal skills to inspire and coordinate efforts.
- c) **Liaison Role:** In the liaison role, the manager interacts with individuals both inside and outside the organization. This interaction aims to gather valuable information, reach agreements, and secure orders for the organization. Networking and relationship-building are essential components of this role.

ii. Informational roles: These are concerned with informational aspect of managerial work like receiving, collecting, and disseminating information. These are:

- a) **Monitor Role:** The monitor role requires the manager to actively seek information about the organization's internal and external environment. This includes identifying problem areas within the organization and staying informed about external factors such as competition, technological advancements, and market trends.
- b) **Disseminator Role:** In the disseminator role, the manager shares important information gathered from both internal and external sources with relevant organizational members. This involves transmitting information through meetings, reports, emails, phone calls, or other communication channels to ensure that all relevant parties are informed.
- c) **Spokesperson:** As a spokesperson, the manager communicates the organization's information to external stakeholders such as government agencies, the public,

media, etc. This involves presenting the organization's achievements, plans, policies, and other relevant information. Communication methods may include board meetings, advertisements, and other forms of public relations.

iii. Decisional roles: These are related to making decisions. These are:

- a) **Entrepreneur:** The entrepreneur role involves analyzing opportunities for the organization's growth and initiating changes to enhance profitability. Managers in this role encourage employees to contribute ideas and suggestions for organizational development, fostering innovation and strategic thinking.
- b) **Disturbance Handler:** As a disturbance handler, the manager takes corrective actions during crises or disturbances, both internal and external. This may involve resolving disputes among employees, addressing conflicts with business partners, and effectively managing crises to ensure the organization's stability.
- c) **Resources Allocator:** In the resources allocator role, the manager makes decisions regarding the allocation of organizational resources, including people, money, infrastructure, etc. This involves approving plans, budgets, and programs, as well as setting priorities to optimize resource utilization and enhance productivity.
- d) **Negotiator:** The negotiator role requires the manager to engage in negotiations with teams, departments, and external organizations to defend the organization's interests and gain advantages. Negotiations may involve reaching agreements, resolving conflicts, and securing beneficial outcomes for the team, department, and organization.

In summary, these roles collectively represent the diverse and dynamic responsibilities that managers undertake in their daily activities, highlighting the multifaceted nature of managerial work across all levels of organizational hierarchy.

1.4 CONTRIBUTING DISCIPLINES TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR (OB)

Organization behavior is an applied science that is built up on contribution from a number of behavioral science such as:

- i. **Psychology:** The term psychology comes from the Greek word 'Psyche' meaning soul or spirit. Psychology is the science that seeks to measure, explain and sometimes change the behavior of human beings. Modern psychology is almost universally defined as the science of behavior which is nearly identical with

behavioral science, in general. Psychology has a great deal of influence on the field of organizational behavior. Psychology is concerned with individual behavior. Psychology studies behavior of different people in various conditions such as normal, abnormal, social, industrial legal, childhood, adolescence, old age, etc. It also studies processes of human behavior, such as learning, motivation, perception, individual and group decision-making, pattern of influences change in organization, group process, satisfaction, communication, selection and training. It is a science, which describes the change of behavior of human and other animals. It is concerned with the more study of human behavior. The major contribution of psychology in the field of OB (Organizational Behavior) have been concerned are following:

- a. Learning
 - b. Personality
 - c. Perception
 - d. Individual decision-making
 - e. Performance appraised
 - f. Attitude measurement
 - g. Employee selected
 - h. Work design
 - i. Motivation
 - j. Emotions
 - k. Work strain
 - l. Job satisfaction
- ii. **Social Psychology:** Social psychology is that part of psychology that integrates concepts from psychology and sociology. In other words, social psychology studies all aspects of social behavior and social thought – how people think about and interact with others. One of the areas receiving considerable attention from social psychology is change law to reduce its resistance and implement it successfully. Additionally, social psychology is useful in the areas of measuring and understanding changing attitudes; communication patterns; the ways in which group activities can satisfy individual needs and group decision making processes. It focuses on the influences of people on one another.

It is an area within psychology that blends concepts from psychology and sociology and that focuses on the influence of people on one another. The major contributions of social psychology to OB are as follows:

- a. Behavior change
 - b. Attitude change
 - c. Communication
 - d. Group process
 - e. Group decision-making
- iii. **Sociology:** Sociology is the study of group behavior. It can be described as an academic discipline that utilizes the scientific method in accumulating knowledge about a person's social behavior. In other words, it studies the behavior of the people in relation to their fellow human beings. Some of the areas within OB that have received valuable input from sociologists include group dynamics, organizational culture, formal organization theory and structure, organizational technology, bureaucracy, communication power, conflict and inter-group behavior. To the managerial practice, its contribution is mainly in the field of bureaucracy, role structures, social system theory, group dynamics, effect of industrialization on the social behavior etc.

It is the study of society, social institution and social relationship. The main contributions of sociology to the field of OB are as follows:

- a. Group dynamics
 - b. Communication
 - c. Power
 - d. Conflict
 - e. Inter group behavior
 - f. Formal organizational theory
 - g. Organizational technology
 - h. Organizational change
 - i. Organizational culture
- iv. **Anthropology:** The term anthropology combines the Greek term 'anthropo' meaning man and the noun ending 'logy' meaning science. Thus, anthropology can be defined as the science of man. It is also known as 'science of humanity' which

encompasses a broad range of studies including the evolutionary history of human beings and features of different societies, cultures and human groups. In other words, the field of anthropology studies the relationship between individuals and their environment. Groups of individual living together create a body of shared ideas that are called culture. Culture is embodied in the system of symbols shared by a group of people and is reflected in their language and beliefs. The culture of a civilization or the sub-culture of a defined group is transmitted by the stories and myths told by members of the group. These stories and myths help the groups to understand who they are and what things are important.

It is the study of society to learn human beings and their activities. The major contributions of Anthropology in the field of OB are as follows:

- a. Comparative values
 - b. Comparative attitudes
 - c. Cross-culture analysis
 - d. Organization environment
 - e. Organization culture
- v. **Political Science:** Political science is the branch of social science which deals with politics in its theory and practice, and the analysis of various political system and political behaviors. Political scientists study the behavior of individuals and groups within a political environment. Specific topics of concern to political scientists include conflict resolution, group coalition, allocation of power and how people manipulate power for individual self-interest. In other words, political science helps us to understand the dynamics of power and politics within organizations, since there is usually a hierarchical structure of differing levels of managers and subordinates.

It is the study of the behavior of individuals and group within or political environment. The main contribution of political science in the field of OB have been concerned with:

- Conflict
- Intra-organizational policies
- Power

1.5 CHALLENGES & OPPORTUNITIES OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The challenges and opportunities of organisational behaviour is as follows:

- i. **Enhancing Quality And Productivity:** Maintaining the quality of its products is a challenging task for every organisation. It is the driving force through which companies are able to attract more & more customers & hold them for the long term. Quality is simply the degree to which products are able to satisfy the customer's needs & wants. It is the main factor which affects the customer satisfaction level. Better quality products more easily satisfy customer needs & wants.

Every organisation should focus on quality factor to increase its customer base. The main dimensions covered under the quality factors are Features, Reliability, Durability, Performance, Conformance with standards, Responses & Reputation. Managers are focusing more & more to meet the quality expectations of customers. In order to improve quality & productivity, they are even engaging programs like Total Quality Management (TQM) & Reengineering. These two techniques mainly focus on customer needs & continuously make efforts to increase the customer satisfaction level. These techniques too involve extensive employee involvement in order to increase productivity.

- ii. **Working With People In Different Cultures:** Every organisation has employees who differ from each other in terms of race, culture, religion, gender, and ethnicity. Employing person with distinct cultures help organisations in getting fresh & new talents and potentialities. Maintaining peace & cooperation among its different employees is a challenging task for every organisation. Every employee working in an organisation wants to retain their own values & cultures although they are working in the same company where they need to follow some rules & regulations. Same decision of organisation may be welcomed & accepted by people of one culture & opposed by people from another culture. Therefore managers need to treat every employee differently as per their individual differences in order to ensure cooperation & increase productivity.
- iii. **Improving The Skills Of People:** Skills of people need to improved & upgraded as per the requirements from time to time. In the business area, there are always lots of changes which occur at a faster rate in terms of technology, environment &

structure. These changes need to be addressed in order to achieve efficiency & increase productivity. Employees & other executives of the organisation should possess the required skills in order to easily adapt to these changes. Failure to adopt these changes will make it difficult to achieve targeted goals timely. There are basically 2 sets of employee skills that are technical & managerial skills. Managers should, therefore, focus on designing a proper performance appraisal program consisting of various training & development programmes for their employees. This will help them in improving their skills.

- iv. **Empowering People:** Empowerment of employees is another challenging task for every organisation. Productivity of employees generally gets reduced when kept under stringent rules & regulations as compared when they are allotted some freedom. Delegating appropriate responsibility & power to employees at different level is important & challenging task for managers. Employees should be allowed & encouraged to participate in various work-related decisions. This will improve employer-employee relations in the organisation & also the commitment of employees to work.
- v. **Stimulating Innovation And Change:** Today every business needs to focus on innovative ideas in order to bring changes to beat the tough competition in the market. Business should always focus to differentiate their product from their competitor's product. It will help them in getting more & more customers. Business will fail & eventually forced to shut down if unable to keep flexibility as per market demand. It should always bring innovative products & services to market with minimum cost. For example, MI is presently beating the tough competition in the market by presenting a wide range of innovative products at a minimised cost,
- vi. **Dealing With Globalisation:** Today globalisation of business is something that is increasing worldwide at a great pace. Now the operations of the business are not limited to one particular location or nation, but they are performed internationally. Business nowadays are conducted beyond the national boundary of one country & have their presence in different countries of the world.
- vii. **Improving Ethical Behaviour:** Better ethical behaviour in working culture is a must for an organisation to increase its productivity. It should always be ensured

that employees behave positively & abide by all rules & regulations of the organisation. Healthy working environment for employees with minimal ambiguity should be created. This will help in increasing their productivity & reducing conflicts. Clear cut instruction should be given regarding what is right behaviour & what is wrong. All unethical practices like the use of insider information for personal gains should be avoided. Managers should organise various workshops, seminars & training programmes in order to improve ethical behaviour of employees.

- viii. **Improving Customer Service:** Business is unsuccessful if it fails to treat its customer well & provide them with better service. If businesses have a large number of satisfied customers it will help it in enjoying large profits in the long run. They need to develop a better understanding with their customers to easily recognise their needs & wants. Employees should meet with customers in the most friendly manner & try to address their problem properly. It will help the management in creating the customer-responsive environment in business. Organisational behaviour has a key role in establishing a better understanding of employees & ultimately with customers.

1.6 ETHICS AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

An ethical organization can achieve better business results. This maxim is now making more and more corporate leaders accept their social responsibilities and organizational ethics. Ethics in organizational behavior is a crucial aspect that shapes the culture, decision-making processes, and overall conduct within an organization. Ethical behavior is concerned with principles of right and wrong, and it goes beyond mere compliance with laws and regulations. The relationship between ethics and organizational behavior are discussed below:

- **Organizational Culture and Values:** Ethical behavior is often rooted in the organizational culture and values. The culture of an organization sets the tone for acceptable behavior, and when ethical principles are integrated into the core values, employees are more likely to adhere to ethical standards in their actions and decisions.

- **Leadership and Ethical Influence:** Leadership plays a crucial role in shaping ethical behavior within an organization. Leaders serve as role models, and their actions and decisions significantly influence the ethical climate. When leaders demonstrate and prioritize ethical conduct, it sends a strong message throughout the organization.
- **Employee Behavior and Decision-Making:** Ethical considerations impact how employees make decisions and behave in the workplace. When organizations promote ethical behavior, employees are more likely to engage in honest, transparent, and responsible conduct. This includes interactions with colleagues, handling conflicts, and making decisions that consider the broader ethical implications.
- **Trust and Reputation:** Ethical behavior is closely tied to trust and reputation. Organizations that consistently act ethically build trust with employees, customers, and other stakeholders. A strong ethical reputation can contribute to long-term success and positive relationships with customers, suppliers, and the community.
- **Compliance and Legal Standards:** Ethical behavior extends beyond compliance with laws and regulations. While compliance is essential, ethical organizations go beyond the minimum legal requirements. They aim to uphold high moral standards, ensuring that their actions align with societal expectations and ethical norms.
- **Decision-Making Processes:** Ethical considerations should be an integral part of the decision-making process within an organization. Managers and employees need to weigh the ethical implications of their choices, considering the potential impact on stakeholders, the community, and the organization's reputation.
- **Social Responsibility:** Ethical behavior involves a commitment to social responsibility. Organizations are increasingly expected to consider the broader social and environmental impacts of their operations. Engaging in socially responsible practices reflects an ethical commitment to contribute positively to society.
- **Whistleblowing and Reporting:** Organizations should foster a culture that encourages employees to report unethical behavior without fear of retaliation. Whistleblowing mechanisms and reporting channels provide employees with avenues to bring attention to unethical practices within the organization.

- **Ethical Dilemmas and Resolution:** In the course of organizational behavior, employees and managers may encounter ethical dilemmas. Addressing these challenges requires a thoughtful and principled approach, often involving open communication, consultation, and adherence to established ethical guidelines.
- **Continuous Ethical Education:** Organizations committed to ethical behavior invest in continuous ethical education and training. This helps employees and leaders stay informed about ethical standards, understand potential challenges, and develop the skills needed to navigate complex ethical issues.

In summary, the integration of ethics into organizational behavior is vital for fostering a positive and sustainable workplace culture. Ethical behavior contributes to the overall success of the organization by building trust, maintaining a positive reputation, and creating an environment where employees are motivated to act with integrity and responsibility. Organizations that prioritize ethical considerations in their daily operations are better positioned for long-term success and positive societal impact.

1.7 MODELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Every organization develops a particular model in which behaviour of the people takes place. This model is developed on the basis of management's assumptions about people and the vision of the management. Since these assumptions vary to a great extent, these result into the development of different organizational behaviour models (OB models). From the very beginning of the civilized human society, two alternative approaches have been adopted for placing trust on people. One says "trust everyone unless there is a contrary evidence": another says "do not trust anyone unless there is a contrary evidence". Naturally, interpersonal interactions take place differently under these two approaches. However, this is only one side of the coin. For example, McGregor has given theories X and Y and each theory makes assumptions which are quite contrary to each other; Argyris has given the concept of immaturity and maturity of people which also provides two opposite views about the people. Thus, OB models developed on the basis of these assumptions would show great variations. However, OB models that are in practice show some kind of continuum between these two opposite poles, though they tend to lean towards a particular pole. Davis has described four OB models - 1. autocratic 2. custodial 3. supportive 4. Collegial. These are briefly explained below:

1.7.1 AUTOCRATIC MODEL

In the autocratic model, managerial orientation is towards power. Managers see authority as the only means to get the things done, and employees are expected to follow orders. The result is high dependence on boss. This dependence is possible because employees live on the subsistence level. The organizational process is mostly formalized; the authority is delegated by right of command over people to whom it applies. The management decides what is the best action for the employees. The model is largely based on the Theory of X assumptions of McGregor where the human beings are taken inherently distasteful to work and try to avoid responsibility. A very strict and close supervision is required to obtain desirable performance from them. Likert's management system can be compared with the model of organizational behaviour. His system (exploitative authoritative) in which motivation depends on physical security and some use of desire for start and better performance is ensured through fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards; communications is mostly one-way, that is downward: there is little interaction between managers and employees.

The autocratic model represents traditional thinking which is based on the economic concept of the man. With the changing values and aspiration levels of people, this model is yielding place to others. However, this does not mean that this model is discarded in toto. In many cases; the autocratic model of organizational behaviour may be a quite useful way to accomplish performance, particularly where the employees can be motivated by physiological needs. This generally happens at lower strata of the organization.

1.7.2 CUSTODIAL MODEL

In the custodial model, the managerial orientation is towards the use of money to play for employee benefits. The model depends on the economic resources of the organization and its ability to pay for the benefits. While the employees hope to obtain security, at the same time they become highly dependent on the organization. An organizational dependence reduces personal dependence on boss. The employees are able to satisfy their security needs or in the context of Herzberg's theory only maintenance factors. These employees working under custodial model feel happy, their level of performance is not very high. This resembles again to Herzberg's satisfier and dissatisfier. Since employee are getting adequate regards and organizational security, they feel happy. However, they are not given

any authority to decide what benefits or rewards they should get. This approach is quite similar to patrimonial approach where the basic assumption is that it is the prerogative of management to decide what benefits are best suited to the employees. Such an approach is still quite common in many business organizations in India. The phenomenon is more predominant in family-managed business organizations where family characteristics have also been applied to the organizational settings. The basic ingredient of the family-managed system is that, parents decide what is good or bad for their children and managers decide what is good for their employees. From this point of view, this model is not suitable for matured employees.

1.7.3 SUPPORTIVE MODEL

The supportive model organizational behaviour depends on managerial leadership rather than on the use of power or money. The aim of managers is to support employees in their achievement of results. The focus is primarily on participation and involvement of employees in managerial decision-making process. The model is based on principles of supportive relationship's of Likert, which is the basic ingredient of his system 4 (participative). Likert states that, the leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organizations each member will, in the light of his background, values and expectation views the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains, his sense of personal worth and importance.²⁸ It is quite similar to the assumptions of McGregor's Theory Y. The supportive model is based on the assumptions that human beings move to the maturity level and they expect the organizational climate which supports this expectations. Various organizational processes-communication, leadership, decision-making, interaction, control, and influence-are such that, these help employees to fulfil their higher order needs such as esteem and self-actualization.

Likert has shown that, supportive model is best suited in the conditions when employees are self-motivated. Thus, this emphasizes not on the economic resources of the organization but its human aspect. Manager's role is to help employees to achieve their work rather than supervising them closely. This can be applied more fruitfully for higher level managers whose lower order needs are satisfied reasonably. Organizations with sophisticated technology and employing professional people can also apply this model for

getting best out of their human resources. However, this does not mean that, this model can be applied in all circumstances. For example Davis observes that, 'the supportive model tends to be specially effective in nations with affluence and complex technology, because it appeals to higher order needs and provides intrinsic motivational factors. It may not be the best model to apply in less developed nations. Because their employees need structures who are often at lower levels and their social conditions are different'. Moreover, this model can be applied more fruitfully for managerial levels as compared to operative levels. As such, the tendency of modern management is to move towards supportive model, especially for their management groups.

1.7.4 COLLEGIAL MODEL

Collegial model is an extension of supportive model. The term collegial refers to a body of people having common purpose. Collegial model is based on the team concept in which each employee develops high degree of understanding towards others and shares common goals. The employee response to this situation is responsibility. Employees need little direction and control from management. Control is basically through selfdiscipline by the team members. The organizational climate is quite conducive to selffulfillment and self-actualization. Collegial model tends to be more useful with unprogrammed work requiring behavioural flexibility, an intellectual environment, and considerable job freedom.

The various models of organizational behaviour are based on the assumption of the human characteristics and how they can work best. Since situational variables are strong factors in determining the organizational processes, managers cannot assume that a particular model is best suitable for all purposes and for all situations. Rather all the models will remain in practice and that too with considerable success. These models are basically constructed around need hierarchy. Since need hierarchy is not similar for all the employees, the same model cannot be used for all of them. The need hierarchy changes with the level of a person in the organization, level of his education, level of maturity, personality factors and the type of work environment. Considering these factors, a particular model can be applied. Organization theorists have argued that there is a tendency to move towards the adoption of supportive model because in this case people may give their best because in other models they do not find conditions conducive to give their best performance. This is why managers are taking a number of steps to humanize their organizations, such as

participation, morale building, and so on to make the organizations more effective.

1.8 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Organisational Behaviour (OB) serves as a vital lens through which we understand the intricate dynamics of human behavior within the context of organizations. The concept of OB encompasses a broad spectrum, delving into the study and application of knowledge regarding how individuals, groups, and structures interact within an organizational framework. Its focus areas include interpersonal relationships, decision-making processes, and the ever-evolving landscape of organizational culture.

In the realm of management, OB plays a pivotal role in shaping the skills and roles of managers. A successful manager is equipped with a blend of technical, human, and conceptual skills, navigating the complexities of leadership, communication, and strategic thinking. The manager's role, as illuminated by OB principles, extends beyond mere authority and command, emphasizing the importance of interpersonal relationships and the ability to understand and influence human behavior.

Contributing disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and management converge to form the interdisciplinary nature of OB, enriching its insights and applications. As organizations face diverse challenges and opportunities, the understanding and application of OB principles become paramount. From addressing the complexities of diverse workforces to managing change and fostering a positive organizational culture, OB serves as a guiding compass for effective management.

Ethics intertwine seamlessly with OB, emphasizing the importance of moral principles in organizational behavior. A commitment to ethical conduct ensures trust, integrity, and a positive organizational reputation. This ethical foundation aligns with various models of organizational behavior, ranging from autocratic and custodial models to supportive and collegial models. Each model reflects different managerial orientations and organizational climates, illustrating the adaptability of OB to diverse contexts.

As we navigate the challenges and opportunities presented by the ever-changing landscape of business, OB remains an invaluable tool for leaders and organizations. It not only provides insights into human behavior but also offers a framework for creating harmonious workplaces, fostering innovation, and addressing the ethical dimensions of organizational conduct. In essence, Organisational Behaviour serves as a guiding philosophy that

empowers managers and organizations to navigate the complexities of the human element within the organizational tapestry.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ)

Q1.1 Why is Organisational Behaviour considered a human tool?

- A) It involves studying the financial aspects of organizations
- B) It applies to the behaviour of workers in organizations
- C) It aims at improving human performance for organizational and human objectives
- D) It focuses solely on the behaviour of top-level management

Q1.2 What does the contingency approach in Organizational Behavior suggest?

- A) There is one-size-fits-all solution to management challenges.
- B) The effectiveness of organizational practices depends on the specific situation and context.
- C) Organizational behavior is not influenced by external factors.
- D) Treating employees as individuals is not crucial for positive organizational culture.

Q1.3 Which one is true concerning Organizational Behavior (OB)?

- A) It solely draws from the field of psychology.
- B) It integrates insights from various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and management.
- C) It focuses exclusively on economic principles.
- D) It only considers insights from the field of management.

Q1.4 Which of the following is an example of human skills in managerial roles?

- A) Strategic planning
- B) Critical thinking
- C) Active listening
- D) Problem-solving

Q1.5 What is the primary focus of conceptual skills in management?

- A) Building positive relationships
- B) Problem-solving at an operational level
- C) Strategic thinking and understanding the organization as a whole
- D) Resolving conflicts within teams

Q1.6 What does the disturbance handler role involve?

- A) Analysing opportunities for organizational growth
- B) Taking corrective actions during crises or disturbances
- C) Making decisions regarding resource allocation
- D) Communicating the organization's information to external stakeholders

Q1.7 What is the primary responsibility of a manager in the disseminator role?

- A) Actively seeking information about the organization's internal and external environment
- B) Analysing opportunities for organizational growth and profitability
- C) Sharing important information gathered from internal and external sources with organizational members
- D) Engaging in negotiations with external stakeholders

Q1.8 In the autocratic model of organizational behavior, what is the primary managerial orientation?

- A) Use of money to ply for employee benefits
- B) Managerial leadership
- C) Team collaboration
- D) Power and authority

Q1.9 In the custodial model, what is the primary dependence of employees?

- A) Power and authority
- B) Economic resources of the organization
- C) Managerial leadership
- D) Team collaboration

Q1.10 Which model emphasizes managerial leadership, participation, and involvement of employees in the decision-making process?

- A) Autocratic model
- B) Custodial model
- C) Supportive model
- D) Collegial model

Answer Keys: 1.1-C, 1.2-B, 1.3-B, 1.4-C, 1.5C, 1.6-B, 1.7-C, 1.8-D, 1.9-B, & 1.10-C.

2. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q2.1 Define Organisational Behaviour.

Q2.2 State the importance of understanding organisational behaviour and its application.

Q2.3 Identify the different roles of manager.

Q2.4 Explain the technical skills essential for a manager.

Q2.5 State the challenges and opportunities of organisational behaviour.

3. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q3.1 Describe the characteristics of organisational behaviour.

Q3.2 Evaluate the focus areas of organisational behaviour.

Q3.3 Analyse the contribution of different disciplines in the development of organisational behaviour.

Q3.4 Examine the challenges and opportunities in organisational behaviour.

Q3.5 How ethics and organizational behaviour are related?

UNIT-II: THE INDIVIDUAL

- Foundations of Individual Behaviour – Analysis of biographical characteristics: Age, Gender, Marital Status, Tenure;
- Personality- Determinants of Personality, MBTI Test of Personality, Big Five Model of Personality;
- Perception- Perception Process, Attribution Theory of Perception, Shortcuts of judging people;
- Attitude –Work related attitudes, Components of Attitude, Cognitive Dissonance;
- Job Satisfaction - Measuring Job Satisfaction, Relation of Job Satisfaction with focus areas of OB;
- Learning- Classical conditioning theory, Operant conditioning theory;
- Concept of Motivation - Human needs based theories of motivation – Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland contribution, Human nature based theories of motivation - McGregor, Chris Argyris contribution, Human expectancy theories of motivation - Victor Vroom contribution. Theory of Intrinsic Motivation by Ken Thomas.

2. INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

Individual behavior refers to the actions, reactions, and conduct of an individual within a particular context, such as a workplace or a social setting. Understanding individual behavior is a crucial aspect of organizational behavior, psychology, and sociology. It involves examining how individuals think, feel, and act in various situations, and how these behaviors influence their performance and interactions.

Important components of individual behavior include:

- **Personality:** Personality is a set of enduring traits and characteristics that shape an individual's distinctive patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving. Understanding personality helps predict how individuals are likely to respond to different situations.
- **Attitudes:** Attitudes are individuals' evaluations or feelings toward a particular object, person, or situation. Positive attitudes can contribute to higher job

satisfaction and better performance, while negative attitudes can lead to dissatisfaction and potential conflicts.

- **Perception:** Perception refers to the way individuals interpret and make sense of their environment. It influences how they perceive events, people, and information, shaping their reactions and decisions.
- **Motivation:** Motivation is the internal drive that initiates, guides, and maintains goal-directed behavior. Understanding what motivates individuals helps organizations enhance employee engagement, satisfaction, and performance.
- **Learning:** Learning involves the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and behaviors through experience, training, and education. Understanding how individuals learn can inform organizational training and development programs.
- **Values:** Values are deeply held beliefs and principles that guide individual behavior and decision-making. Organizations that align with employees' values often experience higher levels of commitment and satisfaction.
- **Emotions:** Emotions play a significant role in individual behavior. Emotional intelligence, or the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others, is crucial for effective interpersonal relationships.
- **Cognition:** Cognition refers to mental processes such as perception, memory, reasoning, and problem-solving. Individual differences in cognitive abilities can impact how individuals approach tasks and solve problems.
- **Biological Factors:** Biological factors, such as genetics and neurochemistry, also influence individual behavior. These factors can contribute to variations in personality, temperament, and overall behavioral tendencies.
- **Social and Cultural Influences:** The social and cultural context in which individuals operate can significantly impact their behavior. Cultural norms, societal expectations, and group dynamics shape individual actions and reactions.

Understanding individual behavior is essential for managers, leaders, and organizations to create a work environment that fosters productivity, satisfaction, and collaboration. Employing effective communication, recognizing individual differences, and providing opportunities for growth and development are strategies that contribute to positive individual behavior within an organizational context.

2.1 ANALYSIS OF BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Biographical characteristics refer to personal attributes such as age, gender, ethnicity, education, work experience, and tenure that are often used in organizational research to understand patterns, trends, and potential influences on individual behavior and performance. Analyzing these characteristics can provide valuable insights into workforce composition, diversity, and potential predictors of success within an organization. Let's delve into the analysis of some key biographical characteristics:

- **Age:** Age refers to the chronological lifespan of an individual. Age diversity in the workplace can impact communication styles, work preferences, and attitudes toward technology. Younger employees may bring innovation and technological expertise, while older employees may contribute experience and stability. Organizations should create inclusive environments that value the contributions of employees across different age groups. Age-related stereotypes should be avoided to ensure a collaborative and respectful workplace.
- **Gender:** Gender pertains to the social and cultural attributes associated with being male or female. Gender diversity is crucial for fostering creativity and different perspectives within teams. Analyzing gender distribution can reveal potential gender biases and disparities in leadership roles. Organizations committed to gender equality should implement policies that address gender-based discrimination, provide equal opportunities, and promote a culture of inclusivity.
- **Ethnicity:** Ethnicity refers to shared cultural traits, ancestry, language, and history among a group of people. Examining the ethnic composition of the workforce helps organizations understand the level of diversity and inclusion. It can uncover potential biases and barriers to career advancement for individuals from underrepresented groups. Organizations should actively promote diversity and inclusion initiatives, offer diversity training, and create a culture that values and respects individuals from various ethnic backgrounds.
- **Education:** Education refers to an individual's academic background and attainment. Educational backgrounds influence employees' knowledge, skills, and problem-solving abilities. Analyzing education levels can help identify patterns in job performance and potential training needs. Organizations may tailor training and development programs to address specific educational requirements for various

roles. A diverse range of educational backgrounds can contribute to a well-rounded team.

- **Work Experience:** Work experience reflects an individual's professional history and exposure to industry practices. Work experience provides insights into an individual's expertise, skills, and familiarity with industry practices. Analyzing work experience can inform decisions related to hiring, mentoring, and succession planning. Organizations may recognize the value of both experienced employees and newcomers. Mentorship programs can facilitate knowledge transfer, fostering a culture of continuous learning.
- **Tenure:** Tenure represents the length of time an individual has been with an organization. Employee tenure reflects the length of time an individual has been with the organization. Examining tenure patterns can reveal trends related to employee retention, engagement, and organizational loyalty. Organizations should consider strategies to retain experienced employees, such as career development opportunities, recognition programs, and a positive work environment.

The analysis of biographical characteristics provides organizations with valuable insights for making informed decisions related to workforce management, diversity and inclusion initiatives, and talent development. By recognizing the unique strengths and contributions of individuals based on their biographical characteristics, organizations can build a more inclusive and dynamic workplace.

2.2 PERSONALITY

The word personality in English is derived from the Latin word *persona*. Originally, it denoted the masks worn by theatrical players in ancient Greek dramas. Thus, the initial conception of personality was that of a superficial social image that an individual adopts in playing life roles — a public personality. This view is consonant with that of the contemporary layman who equates personality with physical attractiveness such a conception is not widely held in psychology. These different conceptions clearly indicate that the meaning of personality in psychology extends far beyond the original ‘superficial social image’ concept. It refers to something much more essential and enduring about a person.

Personality may be understood as the characteristic patterns of behaviour and modes of

thinking that determine a person's adjustment to the environment. Personality can be described as how a person affects others, how he understands and views himself and his pattern of inner and outer measurable traits. Thus, personality represents the sum total of several attributes which manifest themselves in an individual; the ability of the individual to organize and integrate all the qualities so as to give meaning to life and the uniqueness of the situation which influences behaviour of an individual. Personality is therefore, a very diverse psychological concept.

2.2.1 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

What determinants go into the development of personality? Of all the complexities and unanswered questions in the study of human behaviour, this question may be the most difficult. For the convenience of study, the determinants of personality can be grouped into five broad categories:

i. Heredity

The role of heredity in the development of personality is an old argument in personality theory. Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, energy level, muscle composition and reflexes and biological rhythms are characteristics that are generally considered to be imported either completely or substantially by one's parents. The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes which contain thousands of genes, which seem to be transmitters of traits. The role of heredity on personality development is still an unsettled area of understanding. The problem is that geneticists face a major obstacle in gathering information scientifically on the human being. Nevertheless, the role of heredity on personality development cannot be totally minimized. Physical attributes, for instance, may be largely attributed to heredity.

The following classification of characteristics is said to be inherited by all humans.

- a. Physical Structure (how tall or short one is, whether one has a long or short nose, large or small feet — briefly, how one is put together)
- b. Reflexes (direct response to stimuli, such as withdrawing from a pin prick, blinking when something approaches the eye)
- c. Innate drives (impulses to act based on physiological tensions; but these must be linked

through learning with activities which will reduce the tensions)

d. Intelligence (the capacity to learn, to modify responses)

e. Temperament (patterned and recurrent responses associated with basic emotional makeup for e.g.- phlegmatic, excitable and or lethargic)

ii. Environment

If all personality characteristics were by heredity, they would be fixed at birth and no amount of experience could alter them. Personality development owes as much to environment as it does to heredity. Environment is a broad term and includes such factors as culture. Culture establishes norms, attitudes and values that are passed along from one generation to the next and create consistencies overtime. Anthropologists, to whom culture as a subject belongs, have clearly demonstrated the important role culture plays in the development of the human personality. While growing, the child learns to behave in ways expected by the culture of the family into which the baby was born. Most cultures expect different behaviour from males than from females. Every culture has its own subcultures, each with its own views about such qualities as moral values, standards of cleanliness, style of dress and definitions of success. The cultural sub-group exerts its influence on personality. All boys are expected to show certain personality characteristics (as compared with girls), but a poor boy raised in an urban slum is expected to behave differently in some respects than a well-to-do raised in a middle class suburb.

Although culture has significant influence on personality development, linear relationship cannot be established between personality and the given culture, for 2 reasons:

a. The culture impacts upon an individual are not uniform, because they are transmitted by certain people-parents and others who are not all alike in their values and practices.

b. The individual has some experiences that are unique. Each individual reacts in his own way to social pressures, differences in behaviour being caused by biological factors.

iii. Contribution from the family

The family has considerable influence on personality development, particularly in the early stages. The parents play an important part in the identification process which is important to an individual's early development. The process can be examined from three different perspectives:

- a. First, identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour (including feelings and attitudes between child and model)
- b. Second, identification can be looked upon as the child's motives or desires to be like the model.
- c. Third, identification can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

The overall home environment created by the parents, in addition to their direct influence, is critical to personality development. Siblings (brothers and sisters) also contribute to personality. It has been argued that, sibling position is an important psychological variable because it represents a microcosm of the significant social experience of adolescence and adulthood. It is argued that those first born are more prone to be schizophrenic, more susceptible to social pressures and more dependent than those later-born. The first born are also more likely to experience the world as more orderly, predictable and rational than later-born children.

iv. Socialization process

There is greater realization that other relevant persons, groups and organizations exercise their due role in personality development. This is commonly called the socialization process. It is especially relevant to organizational behaviour, because the process is not confined to early childhood, rather taking place throughout one's life. In particular, evidence is accumulating that, socialization may be one of the best explanations of why employees behave the way they do in today's organizations.

Socializations involves the process by which a person acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentialities that are open to him or her, starting at birth, those behaviour patterns that are customary and acceptable to the standards of, initial', the family, and later the social group and the employing organization. Thus, socialization starts with the initial contact between mother and her new infant. After infancy, other members of immediate family (father, brothers, sisters and close relatives or friends) followed by the social group (peers, school friends and members of the working group) play influential roles.

v. Situational considerations

Above determinants discussed are no doubt important to personality, but it must be recognized that, it is the immediate situation which may predominate finally. While it seems logical to suppose that, situations will influence an individual's personality, a neat classification scheme that would tell us the impact of various types of situations has so far eluded us. However, we do know that certain situations are more relevant than others in influencing personality. What is of taxonomically, wrote Lee Sechrest, is that situations seems to differ substantially in the constraints they impose on behaviour with some situations, e.g. church, constraining many behaviours and others, e.g., a picnic in a public park — constraining relative few. From the above discussion, it is clear that personality is a complex concept that reflects many influences both within and outside the individual. Personality progresses through identifiable stages and never really stops developing. One can, however, examine personality at any point in time within its developmental sequence in order to compare and contrast individual personalities.

2.2.2 MBTI TEST OF PERSONALITY

The MBTI test is a self-reporting assessment that categorizes individuals into one of 16 personality types, each represented by a unique four-letter code. The four dichotomies, or pairs of opposite personality functions, are Extraversion-Introversion, Intuition-Sensing, Thinking-Feeling, and Judging-Perceiving.

Comprising 93 questions, the MBTI test typically takes about 20-25 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers, and individuals are encouraged to respond honestly without external influence. Participants are asked to reflect on their typical behavior when answering questions.

The theory underlying the MBTI suggests that the world's population can be classified into these 16 distinct personality types. The four dichotomies—Extraversion-Introversion, Intuition-Sensing, Thinking-Feeling, and Judging-Perceiving—capture individual preferences in how people tend to behave.

The creators of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator believed that behavioral preferences vary among individuals, and the four-letter codes (E-I, I-S, T-F, J-P) denote different preferences within the dimensions of extraversion/introversion, intuition/sensing, thinking/feeling, and judging/perceiving, respectively. These are explained below:

- **MBTI Extraverted Types:** Extraverted individuals find energy in social interactions and larger group settings. They thrive on verbal communication and social engagement, directing their energy outward. In the professional realm, they often prefer working in larger groups, finding solitary or one-on-one situations less energizing.
- **MBTI Introverted Types:** Introverted individuals recharge by spending time alone or in small group settings. They may be more reserved in larger groups, preferring to listen rather than speak. They value a few close relationships over numerous acquaintances and focus their energy inward on thoughts and feelings. When making career decisions, introverts often take time for personal reflection before sharing their choices.
- **MBTI Intuition Types:** Those with Intuition preferences absorb information by focusing on the broader picture and future possibilities. They are imaginative, creatively expressive, and adept at recognizing patterns. Intuitive individuals trust inspiration and are more interested in a job's potential than its current description when considering career options.
- **MBTI Sensing Types:** Sensing individuals prefer concrete and tangible information, excelling at observing and recalling specifics. They concentrate on present realities and prioritize experience over intuition. In the workplace, they focus on practical aspects such as job benefits, location, and salary.
- **MBTI Thinking Types:** Thinking individuals make decisions based on logical consequences, aiming to analyze situations objectively by removing emotions. They use critical thinking to identify and solve problems, applying cause-and-effect reasoning. Career choices for thinking types involve logical analysis and a thorough consideration of alternatives to ensure the best decision.
- **MBTI Feeling Types:** Feeling types consider personal and interpersonal values when making decisions, taking emotions and the well-being of others into account. They prioritize harmony, appreciation, and support, displaying compassion and empathy. Career decisions for feeling types are influenced by what is important to them and their significant others, focusing on how choices impact relationships.

- **MBTI Judging Types:** Those preferring Judging seek a planned and orderly lifestyle, aiming to manage and regulate their lives systematically. They are known for being scheduled and methodical, making both short and long-term plans to avoid last-minute stress. The satisfaction for judging types comes from achieving goals within carefully planned timelines.
- **MBTI Perceiving Types:** Individuals favoring the Perceiving process embrace spontaneity and flexibility. They seek to experience and understand life rather than control it, comfortable with last-minute changes and adapting to an open-ended environment.

2.2.3 BIG FIVE MODEL OF PERSONALITY

The Big Five, also known as the Five Factor model of personality, stands as the most widely accepted and scientifically grounded personality theory within the scientific community. While it may not enjoy the same level of recognition among the general public as systems like the Myers-Briggs personality typing, it is considered to be the most empirically supported way of understanding individual differences.

Named the Big Five because it identifies five primary dimensions, each recognized as distinct and independent from the others, this model is alternatively referred to as OCEAN or CANOE, both of which are acronyms representing the five key traits.

In the Big Five model, the five dimensions of personality are:

- **Openness:** Not to be confused with one's tendency to be open and disclose their thoughts and feelings, Openness in the context of the Big Five refers more specifically to Openness to Experience, or openness to considering new ideas. This trait has also been called "Intellect" by some researchers, but this terminology has been largely abandoned because it implies that people high in Openness are more intelligent, which is not necessarily true.

Openness describes a person's tendency to think abstractly. Those who are high in Openness tend to be creative, adventurous, and intellectual. They enjoy playing with ideas and discovering novel experiences. Those who are low in Openness tend to be practical, traditional, and focused on the concrete. They tend to avoid the unknown and follow traditional ways.

In the brain, Openness seems to be related to the degree to which certain brain regions are interconnected. Those high in Openness seem to have more connection between disparate brain regions, which may explain why they are more likely to see connections where others do not.

- ii. **Conscientiousness:** Conscientiousness describes a person's level of goal orientation and persistence. Those who are high in Conscientiousness are organized and determined, and are able to forego immediate gratification for the sake of long-term achievement. Those who are low in this trait are impulsive and easily sidetracked.

In the brain, Conscientiousness is associated with frontal lobe activity. The frontal lobe can be thought of as the "executive brain," moderating and regulating the more animal and instinctual impulses from other areas of the brain. For example, while we might instinctually want to eat a piece of cake that's in front of us, the frontal lobe steps in and says "no, that's not healthy, and it doesn't fit in with our diet goals." People who are high in Conscientiousness are more likely to use this brain region to control their impulses and keep themselves on track.

- iii. **Extraversion:** Extraversion describes a person's inclination to seek stimulation from the outside world, especially in the form of attention from other people. Extraverts engage actively with others to earn friendship, admiration, power, status, excitement, and romance. Introverts, on the other hand, conserve their energy, and do not work as hard to earn these social rewards.

In the brain, Extraversion seems to be related to dopamine activity. Dopamine can be thought of as the "reward" neurotransmitter, and is the main chemical associated with our instinct to pursue a goal. The classic example is a rat in a maze, whose brain pumps out dopamine as he frantically seeks the cheese. Extraverts tend to have more dopamine activity, indicating that they are more responsive to the potential for a reward. Introverts have less dopamine activity, and so are less likely to put themselves out to chase down rewards.

- iv. **Agreeableness:** Agreeableness describes the extent to which a person prioritizes the needs of others over their own needs. People who are high in Agreeableness experience a great deal of empathy and tend to get pleasure out of serving and

taking care of others. People who are low in Agreeableness tend to experience less empathy and put their own concerns ahead of others.

In the brain, high Agreeableness has been associated with increased activity in the superior temporal gyrus, a region responsible for language processing and the recognition of emotions in others.

- v. **Neuroticism:** Neuroticism describes a person's tendency to respond to stressors with negative emotions, including fear, sadness, anxiety, guilt, and shame.

This trait can be thought of as an alarm system. People experience negative emotions as a sign that something is wrong in the world. Fear is a response to danger, guilt a response to having done something wrong. However, not everyone has the same reaction to a given situation. High Neuroticism scorers are more likely to react to a situation with strong negative emotions. Low Neuroticism scorers are more likely to brush off their misfortune and move on.

In the brain, Neuroticism appears to relate to the interconnection of several regions, including regions involved in processing negative stimuli (such as angry faces or aggressive dogs) and dealing with negative emotions. One study found an association between high Neuroticism and altered serotonin processing in the brain.

2.2.3.1 HOW THE BIG FIVE TRAITS DESCRIBE PERSONALITY

Individuals are typically described in terms of having high, average, or low levels of the five personality factors. Each factor is independent from the others, so someone might be high in Extraversion and low in Agreeableness. To gain a full picture of an individual using the Big Five model, it's necessary to know how they measure up on each of the five dimensions. You can measure your own levels of the Big Five personality traits with a Big Five personality test.

2.3 PERCEPTION

Perception is the process through which the information from outside environment is selected, received, organized and interpreted to make it meaningful. This input of meaningful information results in decisions and actions. Perception refers to interpretation of sensory data. In other words, sensation involves detecting the presence of a stimulus

whereas perception involves understanding what the stimulus means. Perception is primarily an individual process so that different people may perceive an identical situation differently. People perceive and behave on the basis of what they perceive reality to be and not necessarily as what reality is. “ All glitters is not gold” and “ things are not what they seem”, are all reflections of various perceptions about the same situation.

2.3.1 PERCEPTION PROCESS

The process of perception involves the interpretation and organization of sensory information from the environment. It's a complex cognitive process that allows individuals to make sense of the world around them. The process of perception typically involves several key stages:

i. **Sensation:**

- a. **Reception of Stimuli:** This is the initial stage where sensory organs, such as the eyes, ears, nose, skin, and taste buds, detect stimuli from the external environment.
- b. **Transduction:** Sensory receptors convert the received stimuli into electrical signals that can be interpreted by the brain.

ii. **Selection:**

- a. **Selective Attention:** Not all stimuli are perceived equally. Selective attention involves focusing on specific stimuli while filtering out others. This is influenced by factors such as relevance, intensity, and novelty.
- b. **Perceptual Filters:** Personal beliefs, attitudes, and expectations act as filters that influence which stimuli are attended to and how they are interpreted.

iii. **Organization:**

- a. **Organization of Sensory Information:** The brain organizes the selected stimuli into meaningful patterns and structures. This involves grouping and categorizing elements to create a coherent perceptual experience.
- b. **Gestalt Principles:** These principles, such as proximity, similarity, continuity, closure, and figure-ground, describe how the brain naturally organizes stimuli into meaningful wholes.

iv. Interpretation:

- a. **Assignment of Meaning:** Once organized, the brain assigns meaning to the perceived stimuli. This stage involves drawing upon past experiences, knowledge, and cultural influences to understand and interpret the sensory information.
- b. **Ambiguity Resolution:** When stimuli are ambiguous or incomplete, the brain engages in processes to resolve uncertainty and fill in missing information based on context and expectations.

v. Perceptual Constancy:

- a. **Constancy Mechanisms:** The brain strives to maintain a stable perception of objects despite changes in their sensory input (e.g., size, shape, color). This is known as perceptual constancy and helps individuals recognize familiar objects under varying conditions.

vi. Integration:

- a. **Synthesis of Perceptions:** The final stage involves integrating the interpreted and organized sensory information into a coherent and meaningful perceptual experience.
- b. **Multisensory Integration:** Information from different sensory modalities (e.g., sight, sound, touch) is combined to create a holistic perception of the environment.

vii. Feedback Loop:

- a. **Continuous Adjustment:** Perception is an ongoing process, and the brain continuously adjusts interpretations based on new sensory input and experiences. This allows individuals to adapt to changing environmental conditions.

The process of perception is not linear but rather dynamic and interactive, with feedback loops influencing each stage. It is a crucial aspect of human cognition, shaping how individuals navigate and interact with their surroundings.

2.3.2 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION PROCESS

The perception process is influenced by three key factors:

- **Characteristics of the Perceiver:** The perceiver's attributes, such as needs, values, experiences, attitudes, habits, ethics, and personality, significantly shape how they interpret information. Cultural background, rooted in upbringing, also plays a pivotal role in influencing perceptions. Judging someone from a different culture can be challenging as it often involves assessing them based on one's own cultural values.
- **Characteristics of the Perceived:** The qualities of what is being perceived, including appearance, communication style, personal behavior, facial expressions, age, gender, and personality traits, impact how it is interpreted. For instance, individuals dressed in business attire are often perceived as professionals, while those in casual work clothes may be assumed to hold lower-level positions.
- **Characteristics of the Situation:** The context in which perception occurs, encompassing the physical location, social environment, and organizational setting, plays a crucial role. For instance, in an organizational setting where individuals have the opportunity to engage in friendly and sociable interactions, trust is likely to be enhanced, and defensiveness reduced. The situation creates an atmosphere conducive to positive perceptions and interactions.

The factors influencing the perception can also be understood in a following way:

- **Cultural Background:** Cultural influences significantly impact how individuals perceive the world. Cultural norms, values, and customs shape the way people interpret and understand stimuli.
- **Past Experiences:** Previous experiences and personal history play a crucial role in shaping perception. Individuals often interpret new information based on their past encounters and learning.
- **Expectations:** Expectations influence perception by shaping what individuals anticipate in a given situation. Preconceived notions and expectations can affect how stimuli are interpreted.
- **Motivation:** Personal needs, desires, and motives influence perception. Individuals may selectively attend to information that aligns with their goals or interests.

- **Emotional State:** Emotions can color perception. One's emotional state at a given moment can influence the interpretation of stimuli, leading to different perceptions in different emotional states.
- **Physical Factors:** Sensory abilities, such as vision, hearing, and touch, can influence perception. Physical conditions like health and fatigue can also impact how individuals perceive stimuli.
- **Social Context:** The presence and behavior of others in a social setting can influence perception. Social norms and expectations can shape how individuals interpret and respond to stimuli.
- **Personality:** Individual personality traits can affect how stimuli are processed. For example, an extroverted person might perceive and respond differently to a social gathering than an introverted person.
- **Selective Attention:** People tend to focus on specific aspects of their environment while ignoring others. Selective attention determines which stimuli are perceived and processed more deeply.
- **Cognitive Load:** The amount of mental effort or cognitive load required to process information can influence perception. High cognitive load may result in simplified or biased perception.
- **Stereotypes and Biases:** Pre-existing stereotypes and biases can influence how individuals interpret information about others, leading to selective perception.

Understanding these factors helps explain why different individuals may perceive the same situation in different ways and highlights the complex nature of the perception process.

2.3.3 ATTRIBUTION THEORY OF PERCEPTION

The Attribution Theory of perception highlights the distinction in how we perceive people compared to inanimate objects. Unlike non-living entities governed by natural laws, individuals possess beliefs, motives, and intentions. Consequently, when observing people, we engage in the process of making inferences about their actions, influenced by assumptions about their internal states.

Attribution theory offers an explanation for how individuals are judged differently based on the meanings ascribed to their behavior. Three key factors shape this determination:

- **Distinctiveness:** This factor examines whether an individual exhibits different behaviors in various situations. For instance, if an employee who is typically punctual arrives late, the observer assesses whether this behavior is unusual. If it is, an external attribution is likely, attributing the behavior to external factors such as specific circumstances.
- **Consensus:** Consensus arises when individuals facing similar situations respond in a comparable manner. High consensus suggests that many people would react similarly. For instance, if other employees taking the same route made it to work on time, attributing an employee's tardiness to external factors becomes less likely. Low consensus, on the other hand, might lead to an internal attribution.
- **Consistency:** This factor examines whether a person's behavior remains constant over time. If an individual consistently displays the same behavior, observers are more inclined to attribute it to internal causes. For example, arriving late for work is perceived differently for an employee for whom it is an unusual occurrence compared to an employee with a consistent pattern of tardiness.

In essence, attribution theory suggests that when we observe someone's behavior, we assess whether it is internally or externally caused based on distinctiveness, consensus, and consistency. This framework helps us understand and interpret the actions of individuals in social and organizational contexts.

2.3.4 SHORTCUTS OF JUDGING PEOPLE

We use a number of shortcuts when we judge others. Perceiving/interpreting what others do is burdensome. As a result, individuals develop technique for making the task more manageable. These techniques are frequently valuable — they allow us to make accurate perceptions rapidly and provide valid data for making predictions. However, they are not foolproof. They can and do get us into trouble. Some of these shortcuts are:

i. Selective perception

Any characteristic that makes a person, object or event stand out will increase the probability that it will be perceived. Why? Because it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see. Only certain stimuli can be taken in. Since we can't observe everything going- on about us, we engage in selective perception. A group's perception of organizational activities is selectively altered to align with the vested interests they

represent. But how does selectivity work as a shortcut in judging other people? Since we cannot assimilate all that we observe, we take in bits and pieces. But those bits and pieces are not chosen randomly rather, they are selectively chosen according to our interests, background experience and attitudes. Selective perception allows us to “speedread” others, but not without the risk of drawing an inaccurate picture. Because we see what we want to see, we can draw unwarranted conclusions from an ambiguous situation. If there is a rumour going around the office that your company’s sales are down and that large layoffs may be coming, a routine visit by a Senior Executive from Headquarters might be interpreted as the first step in managements’ identification of people to be fired, when in reality such an action may be the farthest thing from the mind of the Senior Executive.

ii. Halo effect

When we draw a general impression about an individual on the basis of a single characteristic, such as intelligence, sociability or appearance, a halo effect is operating. E.g: students appraise their classroom instructor by giving prominence to a single trait such as enthusiasm and allow their entire evaluation to be tainted by how they judge the instructor or that one trait. Thus, an instructor may be quiet, assured, knowledgeable and highly qualified, but if his style lacks zeal, those students would probably give him a low rating. The reality of halo effect was confirmed in a classic study in which subjects were given a list of traits such as intelligent, skillful, practical, industrious, determined and warm and were asked to evaluate the person to whom those traits apply. When these traits were used, the person was judged to be wise, humorous, popular and imaginative. When the same list was modified to cold as substituted for warm — a complete different set of perceptions was obtained. Clearly the subjects were allowing a single trait to influence their overall impression of the person being judged. The propensity for the halo cited to operate is not random. Research suggests that it is likely to be most extreme when the traits to be perceived are ambiguous in behavioural terms. When the traits have moral overtones, and then the perceiver is judging traits with which he or she has had limited experience.

iii. Contrast effects

We don’t evaluate a person in isolation. Our reaction to one person is influenced by other persons we have recently encountered. An illustration of how contrast effects operate is an interview situation in which one sees a pack of job applicants. Distortions in any given

candidates evaluation can occur as a result of his or her place in the interview schedule. The candidate is likely to receive a more favourable evaluation if preceded by strong applicants.

iv. Projection

It's easy to judge others if we assume that they're similar to us. E.g.: if you want challenge/responsibility in your job, you assume that others want the same or, you're honest and trustworthy, so you take it for granted that other people are equally honest and trustworthy. This tendency to attribute one's own characteristics to other people — which is called projection — can distort perceptions made about others. People who engage in projection tend to perceive others according to what they themselves are like, rather than according to what the person being observed is really like. When observing others who actually are like them, these observers are quite accurate — not because they are perceptive but because they always judge people as being similar to themselves. So when they finally do find someone who is like them, they are naturally correct. When managers engage in projection, they compromise their ability to respond to individual differences. They tend to see people as more homogeneous than they really are.

v. Stereotyping

When we judge someone on the basis of our perception of the group to which he or she belongs, we are using the shortcut called stereotyping. Generalization, of course, is not without advantages. It's a means of simplifying a complex world, and it permits us to maintain consistency. It's less difficult to deal with an unmanageable number of stimuli if we use stereotypes. In organizations, we frequently hear comments that represent stereotypes based on gender, age, race, ethnicity and even weight. From a perceptual standpoint, if people expect to see these stereotypes, that is what they will perceive, whether they are accurate or not. One of the problems of stereotypes is that they are widespread, despite the fact that they may not contain a shred of truth or that they may be irrelevant. Their being widespread may mean only that many people are making the same inaccurate perception on the basis of a false premise about a group.

2.4 ATTITUDE

An attitude is “mental state of readiness, learned and organized through experience, exerting a specific influence on person's response to people, object and situations with

which it is related”. Attitudes are “learned dispositions towards aspects of our environment. They may be positively or negatively directed towards certain people, service or institutions”.

2.4.1 COMPONENT OF ATTITUDE

Attitudes comprise of three elements:

- **Affective component** The affective component of attitudes refers to your feelings or emotions linked to an attitude object. Affective responses influence attitudes in a number of ways. For example, many people are afraid/scared of spiders. So this negative affective response is likely to cause you to have a negative attitude towards spiders.
- **Cognitive component** The cognitive component of attitudes refer to the beliefs, thoughts, and attributes that we would associate with an object. Many times a person's attitude might be based on the negative and positive attributes they associate with an object.
- **Behavioural component** The behavioural component of attitudes refer to past behaviours or experiences regarding an attitude object. The idea that people might infer their attitudes from their previous actions.

2.4.2 WORK RELATED ATTITUDE

Individuals possess hundreds of attitudes. But in organizational behaviour, we are concerned with work related attitudes which are mainly three:

i. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to one’s feeling towards one’s job. An individual having satisfaction is said to possess positive attitude towards the job. Conversely, a dissatisfied person will have negative attitude towards his other job. When people speak of employee attitudes they invariably refer to job satisfaction. In fact, the two terms are used interchangeably, though subtle difference does exist between the two.

ii. Job Involvement

Job involvement refers to the degree with which an individual identifies psychologically with his or her job and perceives his or her perceived performance level important to self worth. High degree of job involvement results in fewer absence and lower resignation

rates.

iii. Organizational Commitment

The last job attitude refers to organizational commitment. It is understood as one's identification with his or her organization and feels proud of being its employee. Job involvement refers to one's attachment to a job whereas organizational commitment implies an employee's identification with a particular organization and its goals. Needless to say, it is to state that, an individual may be attached to his or her job but may be indifferent to the organization and its objectives. Turnover and absenteeism are low when employees have organizational commitment.

2.4.3 COGNITIVE DISSONANCE

Cognitive dissonance refers to the psychological discomfort or tension that arises when an individual holds conflicting beliefs, attitudes, or values, or when there is a mismatch between one's beliefs and behaviors. This inconsistency creates a state of cognitive dissonance, prompting individuals to seek ways to reduce the discomfort and restore a sense of internal harmony.

The theory of cognitive dissonance, proposed by psychologist Leon Festinger in the 1950s, suggests that individuals strive for cognitive consistency and will actively work to align their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors to resolve the dissonance. This process may involve changing one's beliefs, rationalizing actions, or selectively perceiving information to bring about a more congruent mental state.

For example, if someone values good health but engages in unhealthy behaviors like smoking, they may experience cognitive dissonance. To reduce this dissonance, they might downplay the risks of smoking or convince themselves that the behavior is not as harmful as it seems.

Cognitive dissonance is a fundamental concept in psychology and has applications in various fields, including social psychology, organizational behavior, and decision-making. It helps explain how individuals cope with inconsistencies in their thoughts and actions, offering insights into the ways people manage conflicting beliefs to maintain a sense of internal coherence.

Cognitive dissonance arises when an individual's behavior is inconsistent with their attitudes, creating a state of tension and discomfort. An example of this incongruity is observed when a person acknowledges the health risks of smoking and overeating but

continues to engage in these behaviors. In response to this internal conflict, individuals often seek ways to reduce dissonance and alleviate the associated discomfort.

One common method of dissonance reduction is rationalization. For instance, an individual grappling with the dissonance associated with smoking might rationalize their behavior by downplaying the risks or justifying it in some way. In organizational contexts, cognitive dissonance can manifest when an employee desires to leave their current job due to perceived futility but rationalizes staying by minimizing negative aspects or considering limited alternatives.

Two theoretical frameworks, cognitive dissonance and self-fulfilling prophecy, aid in understanding how attitudes influence behavior. Cognitive dissonance tends to be more pronounced under certain conditions, such as when decisions hold psychological or financial significance, involve numerous foregone alternatives, or when those alternatives have positive attributes.

To alleviate cognitive dissonance, individuals employ various strategies:

- **Seeking Confirmatory Information:** Individuals actively seek information that validates the wisdom of their decision.
- **Selective Perception (Distortion):** They selectively perceive or distort information to align with their decision.
- **Adopting Less Favorable Attitudes:** Individuals may develop less favorable attitudes toward foregone alternatives.
- **Downplaying Negatives and Magnifying Positives:** They downplay negative aspects of their choice while magnifying positive elements.

Self-Fulfilling Prophecy: Transforming Attitudes into Reality

The self-fulfilling prophecy is a process wherein individuals attempt to actualize their attitudes, beliefs, and expectations. If someone predicts a certain outcome, they are likely to exert efforts to make that prediction come true. For example, a person who believes in their competence will undertake challenging tasks, leading to the acquisition of skills and experiences that reinforce their competence. Conversely, individuals with negative self-perceptions may inadvertently limit opportunities for personal growth and competence.

Understanding cognitive dissonance and the self-fulfilling prophecy provides insights into the intricate interplay between attitudes and behavior, shedding light on how individuals navigate and rationalize inconsistencies in their actions.

2.5 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is a multidimensional concept that refers to the level of contentment, fulfillment, and positive feelings an individual experiences in relation to their job or work environment. It is a subjective assessment of one's work and the overall work-related experiences.

2.5.1 FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SATISFACTION

Several key components contribute to an individual's job satisfaction:

- **Work Environment:** The physical and social aspects of the workplace significantly impact job satisfaction. Factors such as the work culture, relationships with colleagues, quality of supervision, and the overall atmosphere play crucial roles.
- **Job Content:** The nature of the work itself, including the tasks, responsibilities, and challenges, contributes to job satisfaction. Individuals often find satisfaction when their job aligns with their skills, interests, and personal values.
- **Compensation and Benefits:** Fair and competitive compensation, along with additional benefits such as healthcare, retirement plans, and other perks, can influence job satisfaction. Feeling adequately rewarded for one's efforts contributes to a positive perception of the job.
- **Opportunities for Advancement:** The presence of opportunities for career growth, skill development, and advancement within the organization is essential for job satisfaction. Employees who see a future for themselves within the company are likely to be more satisfied.
- **Work-Life Balance:** The ability to balance work demands with personal and family life is a crucial aspect of job satisfaction. Organizations that promote a healthy work-life balance often have more satisfied and engaged employees.
- **Recognition and Appreciation:** Feeling recognized and appreciated for one's contributions and achievements fosters a positive work environment. Regular feedback, acknowledgment of accomplishments, and a culture of appreciation contribute to job satisfaction.

- **Relationships with Colleagues:** Positive interpersonal relationships with coworkers and supervisors contribute significantly to job satisfaction. A supportive and collaborative work environment enhances overall job satisfaction.
- **Autonomy and Control:** Having a degree of autonomy and control over one's work and decision-making processes contributes to job satisfaction. Employees who feel empowered are more likely to find their work fulfilling.
- **Organizational Values and Mission:** Alignment with the values and mission of the organization can positively influence job satisfaction. Individuals who feel connected to the broader purpose of their work are more likely to derive satisfaction from it.
- **Job Security:** The perception of job security and stability within the organization can impact job satisfaction. Employees who feel secure in their positions are likely to experience higher levels of satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is a dynamic and subjective concept, varying from person to person and influenced by a range of individual and organizational factors. It plays a crucial role in overall well-being, productivity, and retention within the workforce. Organizations that prioritize understanding and enhancing job satisfaction are more likely to have motivated, committed, and satisfied employees.

2.5.2 MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION

Measuring job satisfaction is a crucial aspect for organizations seeking to understand and enhance the well-being and engagement of their workforce. Various methods and instruments are employed to gauge job satisfaction effectively. One commonly used approach is the use of surveys or questionnaires designed to capture employees' perceptions and sentiments about their work environment. These surveys often include questions related to different facets of the job, such as work content, compensation, relationships with colleagues, and organizational culture. Likert scales, where respondents rate their agreement or disagreement with statements, are frequently used to quantify responses.

Additionally, interviews and focus group discussions provide qualitative insights into job satisfaction, allowing employees to express their opinions and concerns in more detail. Observational methods, where researchers directly observe employee behavior and

interactions in the workplace, offer another dimension to understanding job satisfaction.

Organizations may also utilize objective indicators, such as employee turnover rates, absenteeism, and performance metrics, to infer levels of job satisfaction. High turnover rates or increased absenteeism, for example, may indicate dissatisfaction among employees.

Furthermore, advancements in technology have led to the development of real-time feedback tools and pulse surveys, allowing organizations to capture instantaneous insights into employee satisfaction on an ongoing basis. These tools provide a more dynamic and responsive approach to understanding job satisfaction, allowing for timely interventions.

In summary, measuring job satisfaction involves a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, including surveys, interviews, observations, and the analysis of objective indicators. The chosen method often depends on organizational goals, resources, and the depth of understanding required. Regular assessments enable organizations to identify areas for improvement, implement targeted interventions, and foster a workplace culture that promotes higher levels of job satisfaction among employees.

2.5.3 RELATION OF JOB SATISFACTION WITH FOCUS AREAS OF OB

Job satisfaction is a critical aspect of organizational behavior (OB), and its impact is widespread across various focus areas within OB. The following highlights the relationship between job satisfaction and key focus areas of organizational behavior:

- **Employee Attitudes and Emotions:** Job satisfaction is a critical element in understanding employee attitudes and emotions within the organizational behavior framework. It serves as a barometer of individuals' contentment and fulfillment in their work environment. Positive job satisfaction is correlated with favorable emotional states, leading to increased motivation, commitment, and overall positive attitudes among employees. Conversely, low job satisfaction can result in negative emotions, impacting individual and collective attitudes within the organization.
- **Motivation:** The relationship between job satisfaction and motivation is profound, as the contentment derived from one's job often fuels intrinsic motivation. Satisfied employees are more likely to be self-motivated, engaged in their work, and willing to invest discretionary effort to achieve organizational objectives. Organizations that understand and nurture job satisfaction can leverage it as a powerful tool to

enhance overall employee motivation, ultimately contributing to improved performance and productivity.

- **Perception and Decision-Making:** Employees' perceptions of their job, colleagues, and the organization are intricately linked to their level of job satisfaction. Satisfied employees tend to view their work environment more positively, influencing how they perceive organizational practices and decisions. This positive perception, in turn, contributes to more constructive decision-making processes within the organization.
- **Organizational Culture and Climate:** Job satisfaction plays a pivotal role in shaping the broader organizational culture and climate. Satisfied employees contribute to a positive work environment, fostering collaboration, innovation, and a sense of collective purpose. Organizations that prioritize and enhance job satisfaction can establish a virtuous cycle, where a positive culture reinforces employee satisfaction, creating a mutually reinforcing relationship.
- **Communication:** Effective communication is both influenced by and influences job satisfaction within the organizational context. Satisfied employees are more likely to engage in open, transparent, and constructive communication. This positive communication dynamic contributes to a healthy work environment, facilitates conflict resolution, and strengthens overall organizational cohesion.
- **Leadership and Management:** The leadership style and management practices employed within an organization significantly impact job satisfaction. Supportive and effective leadership fosters higher levels of job satisfaction among employees. Conversely, ineffective leadership can contribute to dissatisfaction, affecting employee retention, commitment, and overall job performance.
- **Group Dynamics and Teamwork:** Job satisfaction has a direct bearing on group dynamics and teamwork within organizations. Satisfied team members are more likely to collaborate effectively, communicate openly, and contribute positively to team goals. High levels of job satisfaction within teams create a cooperative and supportive environment, enhancing overall team performance.
- **Conflict Resolution:** Dissatisfaction in the workplace can contribute to interpersonal conflicts, making conflict resolution an important aspect of managing job satisfaction. Addressing job satisfaction issues becomes integral to resolving

conflicts, as employees with higher satisfaction levels are generally more amenable to constructive problem-solving and resolution.

- **Employee Well-being:** The impact of job satisfaction extends beyond the workplace to influence the overall well-being of employees. Satisfied employees often experience lower stress levels and higher overall life satisfaction. Organizations that prioritize initiatives aimed at enhancing job satisfaction contribute not only to a healthier work environment but also to the holistic well-being of their workforce.

In essence, each of these facets highlights the multifaceted nature of job satisfaction and its far-reaching implications across diverse aspects of organizational behavior. Understanding and managing job satisfaction emerges as a central tenet for fostering a positive, productive, and harmonious work environment.

2.6 LEARNING

Now, let us understand the term ‘learning’ and the various processes of learning. Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. There are two important elements in learning:

- Change must be relatively permanent. It means after ‘learning’ the behaviour of a person must be different from the previous behaviour.
If a person learns car driving, it will last for a long time indicating the changed behaviour. Temporary changes may be only reflexive and fail to represent any learning. Therefore, this requirement rules out behavioural changes caused by fatigue or other temporary adaptations.
- The second element is that the change of behaviour should take place as a result of some kind of experience. Learning must be because of some interaction with the environment and some feedback from such environment that affects behaviour. The experience may be direct or indirect. Sometimes we learn to change our behaviour when our colleagues are punished for that kind of behaviour.

2.6.1 CLASSICAL CONDITIONING THEORY

Classical conditioning, a fundamental concept in behavioral psychology, is a theory of learning that explores the association between stimuli and responses. Developed by Ivan

Pavlov, this theory emphasizes the process of involuntary, automatic learning through repeated pairings of stimuli. The classical conditioning model consists of the following key components:

- **Unconditioned Stimulus (UCS):** In classical conditioning, the unconditioned stimulus is a naturally occurring stimulus that elicits an unconditioned response without prior learning. For example, in Pavlov's famous experiments with dogs, food was the unconditioned stimulus because it naturally triggered salivation.
- **Unconditioned Response (UCR):** The unconditioned response is the automatic and unlearned reaction to the unconditioned stimulus. Using the same example, the unconditioned response in Pavlov's experiments was the dogs' salivation in response to the presentation of food.
- **Conditioned Stimulus (CS):** The conditioned stimulus is initially neutral and does not evoke the unconditioned response. Through repeated pairing with the unconditioned stimulus, it acquires the ability to elicit a response. In Pavlov's experiments, a bell (originally a neutral stimulus) became a conditioned stimulus when it was consistently presented before the food.
- **Conditioned Response (CR):** The conditioned response is the learned reaction to the conditioned stimulus. It is similar or identical to the unconditioned response but is now triggered by the conditioned stimulus alone. In Pavlov's studies, the dogs learned to salivate in response to the bell, even when food was not present.

THE CLASSICAL CONDITIONING PROCESS INVOLVES SEVERAL PHASES:

- i. **Acquisition:** This is the initial learning phase where the association between the conditioned stimulus and the unconditioned stimulus is established through repeated pairings.
- ii. **Extinction:** If the conditioned stimulus is presented without the unconditioned stimulus, the conditioned response weakens and eventually diminishes. This process is known as extinction.
- iii. **Spontaneous Recovery:** After extinction, if the conditioned stimulus is presented again, a weakened conditioned response may reappear. This phenomenon is referred to as spontaneous recovery.

- iv. **Generalization:** Generalization occurs when a conditioned response is elicited by stimuli that are similar but not identical to the conditioned stimulus.
- v. **Discrimination:** Discrimination involves the ability to distinguish between the conditioned stimulus and other stimuli that do not signal the unconditioned stimulus.

Classical conditioning is not limited to Pavlov's experiments with dogs; it has been widely applied in understanding various aspects of human and animal behavior. It provides insights into how associations between stimuli and responses influence learning, emotional reactions, and behavioral patterns.

2.6.2 OPERANT CONDITIONING THEORY

Operant conditioning, developed by B.F. Skinner, is a learning theory that focuses on how behavior is influenced by the consequences that follow it. Unlike classical conditioning, which involves involuntary responses to stimuli, operant conditioning centers on voluntary behaviors and the outcomes, or consequences, that shape those behaviors. The key elements of operant conditioning include:

- **Operant Behavior:** In operant conditioning, behavior is referred to as operant behavior. This encompasses actions or responses that an individual voluntarily performs in a given situation.
- **Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is a crucial concept in operant conditioning and involves the use of consequences to strengthen or increase the likelihood of a particular behavior occurring again in the future. Reinforcement can be positive, where a rewarding stimulus is presented, or negative, where an aversive stimulus is removed.
- **Punishment:** Punishment, on the other hand, is the application of consequences to reduce the likelihood of a behavior happening again. Like reinforcement, punishment can be positive (adding an aversive stimulus) or negative (removing a rewarding stimulus).
- **Skinner's Operant Chamber (Skinner Box):** Skinner developed the operant chamber, commonly known as the Skinner box, as a controlled environment for studying operant conditioning in animals. The box allows researchers to manipulate stimuli and consequences to observe and analyze operant behavior.

- **Schedules of Reinforcement:** Skinner identified different schedules of reinforcement that affect how often and consistently behaviors are reinforced. These schedules include continuous reinforcement (reinforcement after every instance of the behavior) and partial reinforcement (reinforcement after some instances of the behavior).

OPERANT CONDITIONING INVOLVES THE FOLLOWING PRINCIPLES:

- **Positive Reinforcement:** Adding a desirable stimulus to strengthen a behavior. For example, praising a student for completing homework.
- **Negative Reinforcement:** Removing an aversive stimulus to strengthen a behavior. An example is taking pain medication to alleviate a headache.
- **Positive Punishment:** Adding an aversive stimulus to decrease a behavior. This might involve giving a penalty for breaking a rule.
- **Negative Punishment:** Removing a desirable stimulus to decrease a behavior. For instance, taking away a privilege for misbehavior.

Operant conditioning has broad applications in education, parenting, and organizational behavior, shaping how individuals learn and exhibit voluntary actions based on the consequences of those actions.

2.7 MOTIVATION

Motivation is the willingness to exert efforts in order to achieve a desired outcome or goal which will satisfy someone's needs. According to Stanley Vence, motivation implies "any emotion or desire which so conditions one's will that the individual is propelled into action". Robert Dubin defines it as "the complex of forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organisations". According to this definition, motivation is a force which compels the person to join organisation and keep on working therein. Carroll Shartle, "Motivation is a reported urge or intention to move in a given direction or to achieve a certain goal". E.F.L. Brech, "Motivation is a general inspiration process which gets the members of the team to pull their weight effectively to give their loyalty to the group, to carry out properly the tasks that they have accepted and generally to play an effective part in the job that the group has undertaken". Edwin B. Flippo, "Motivation is a process of attempting to influence others to do their work through the possibility of getting reward".

2.7.1 MOTIVATORS?

While motivation is an effort to direct human behaviour towards need satisfaction, motivators are the factors that motivate workers, i.e., incentives and disincentives that influence human behaviour. Motivation reflects wants and desires; motivators are the rewards that satisfy these wants.

2.7.2 TYPES OF MOTIVATORS

i. **Incentives and Disincentives** (carrot & stick approach): When rewards are given to employees in recognition of their behaviour, motivators are in the form of incentives and when penalties are imposed for non-performance of work, motivators are in the form of disincentives.

ii. **Financial and non-financial motivators:** Rewards can be financial and non-financial. Financial rewards are in the form of money.

- Financial motivators are salary, bonus, commission etc. financial motivators satisfy lower order needs of the individual.
- Non-financial motivators are recognition, better working conditions, job enrichment, participative decision-making, goodwill of the firm, quality of work-life, effective feedback system, Training & development opportunities, effective reward system, job security, career enhancement opportunities, etc. Non-financial motivators satisfy the higher order need of the individual.

2.7.3 NATURE OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is a process through which individually does something in order to satisfy some basic needs. It is a responsibility of a manager to motivate the employees towards the attainment of organizational goals through a higher level of performance. The motivation holds the following characteristics:

- i. **Motivation is Personal and Psychological Concept:** Motivation is a personal as well as a psychological concept; hence, the managers have to study the mental and psychological aspects of the individual. Motivating factors are always unconscious but they are to be aroused by managerial action.
- ii. **Motivation is a Process:** Motivation is a process of inspiring, energizing, reducing and activating the employees to a higher level of performance. This process starts

with unsatisfied needs, moves through tension, drives and goal achievement, finally, it ends with the reduction of tension aroused by unsatisfied needs.

- iii. **Motivation is a Continuous Process:** Motivation is a continuous on-going process rather than one shot affair. Because an individual has unlimited wants and needs. Motivation is an unending process. Wants are innumerable and cannot be satisfied at one time. As satisfaction of needs is an unending process, so the process of motivation is also unending. As soon as the existing need is fulfilled, another will appear. Hence, motivation should go continuously.
- iv. **Motivation is a Complex Subject:** Motivation is a complex subject in the sense that the individual's needs and wants may be unpredictable. The level of need of a person depends on his/her psychological and physiological aspects.
- v. **Motivation is Goal Oriented:** Motivation should be directed towards the achievement of stated goals and objectives. Motivation causes goal-directed behavior, feeling of need by the person causes him to behave in such a way that he tries to satisfy himself. From the viewpoint of the organization, the goal is to achieve high productivity through better job performance.
- vi. **Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation:** As an individual can be motivated either by intrinsic factors or extrinsic factors. The intrinsic factors include recognition, social status, self-esteem and self-actualization needs which are related to inner aspects of an individual. On the other hand, the extrinsic factors are physiological and social needs such as food, shelter, health, education, salary, and benefits etc.
- vii. **Positive and Negative Motivation:** By the term motivation, we mean positive motivation which is related to the process of stimulating employees for good performance. But it is not necessary that all the time motivation must be positive, rather sometimes it can be negative also. The negative motivation is also known as punishment which is not desired by the employees.
- viii. **Motivation is Behavior-oriented:** As motivation is person specific, it is related to the personal behavior of an employee. Behavior is a series of activities undertaken by an individual in the organizational workplace. The behavior is directed towards the attainment of goals and objectives.

2.7.4 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION:

Management tries to utilize all the sources of production in a best possible manner. This can be achieved only when employees co-operate in this task. Efforts should be made to motivate employees for contributing their maximum. The efforts of management will not bear fruit if the employees are not encouraged to work more. The motivated employees become an asset to the organisation. The following is the importance of motivation.

- i. **High Performance:** Motivated employees will put maximum efforts for achieving organisational goals. The untapped reservoirs, physical and mental abilities are tapped to the maximum. Better performance will also result in higher productivity. The cost of production can also be brought down if productivity is raised. The employees should be offered more incentives for increasing their performance. Motivation will act as a stimulant for improving the performance of employees.
- ii. **Low Employee Turnover and Absenteeism:** When the employees are not satisfied with their job then they will leave it whenever they get an alternative offer. The dissatisfaction among employees also increases absenteeism. The employment training of new employees costs dearly to the organisation. When the employees are satisfied with their jobs and they are well motivated by offering them financial and non-financial incentives then they will not leave the job. The rate of absenteeism will also be low because they will try to increase their output.
- iii. **Better Organisational Image:** Those enterprises which offer better monetary and non-monetary facilities to their employees have a better image among them. Such concerns are successful in attracting better qualified and experienced persons. Since there is a better man-power to development programme, the employees will like to join such organisations. Motivational efforts will simplify personnel function also.
- iv. **Better Industrial Relations:** A good motivational system will create job satisfaction among employees. The employment will offer those better service conditions and various other incentives. There will be an atmosphere of confidence among employers and employees. There will be no reason for conflict and cordial relations among both sides will create a health atmosphere. So motivation among employees will lead to better industrial relations.
- v. **Acceptability to Change:** The changing social and industrial situations will

require changes and improvements in the working of enterprises. There will be a need to introduce new and better methods of work from time to time. Generally, employees resist changes for fear of an adverse effect on their employment. When the employees are given various opportunities of development then they can easily adapt to new situations. They will think of positive side of new changes and will co-operate with the management. If the employees are satisfied with their work and are not offered better avenues then they will oppose everything suggested by the management. Motivation will ensure the acceptability of new changes by the employees.

2.7.5 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

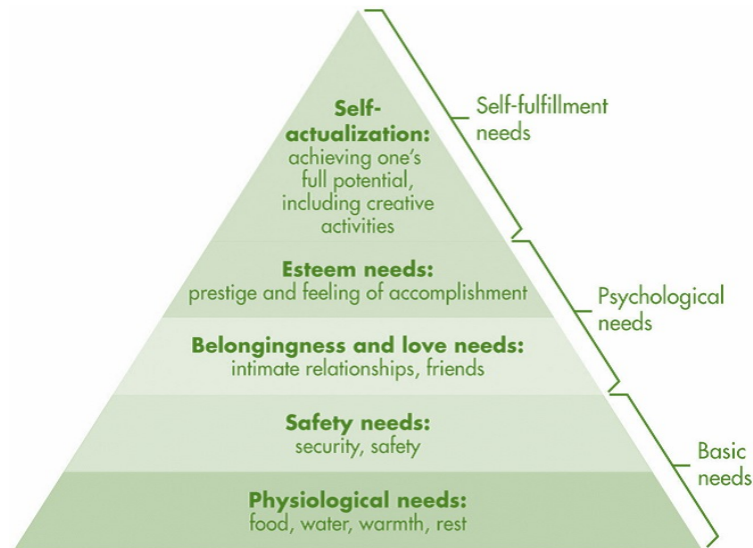
2.7.5A HUMAN NEEDS BASED THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Human needs-based theories of motivation focus on understanding and addressing the various needs that drive individuals to act and achieve certain goals. These theories emphasize the role of human needs in shaping behavior and aim to identify the factors that influence motivation.

2.7.5A.1 MASLOW NEED HIERARCHY THEORY

(a) Maslow's Theory Maslow's need priority model is one of the most widely referred theories of motivation. Abraham Maslow, a clinical psychologist, thought (1943) that a person's motivational needs could be arranged in a hierarchical manner, starting in an ascending order from the lowest to the highest needs, and concluded that once a given level of needs (set of needs) was satisfied, it ceased to be a motivator. The next higher level of need to be activated in order to motivate the individual. Although the hierarchical aspects of Maslow's theory are subject to question and often not accepted, his identification of basic needs has been fairly popular.

Maslow identified five levels in his need hierarchy in an ascending order of importance. The five categories of needs may be described as follows :



1. Physiological Needs : These are the basic needs for sustaining human life itself : needs for food, drink, shelter, clothing, sleep, sex, etc. But once these basic needs are satisfied, they no longer motivate.

2. Safety Needs : Safety or securing needs are concerned with freedom from physical or psychological (mental) harm, danger, deprivation, or threat, such as loss of job, property, food, clothing or shelter.

3. Social or Affiliation or Acceptance Needs : These are belongingness needs emanating from human instinct of affiliation or association with others. These include owners, love and affection, needs of mutual relations, identification with some group, etc. These are the needs more of mind and spirit than of physique.

4. Esteem Needs : This set of needs represents higher level needs. These needs represent needs for self-respect, respect of others, a general feeling of being worthwhile, competence, achievement, knowledge, independence, reputation, status and recognition.

5. Self-actualisation Needs : This set of higher order needs concerns with reaching one's potential as a total human being. It is the desire to become what one is capable of becoming i.e., to maximum one's capacity and abilities in order to accomplish something appreciable and self fulfilling. It is a need for being creative or innovative, for transforming self into reality.

2.7.5A.2 HERZBERG TWO FACTOR THEORY

A significant development in motivation theory was distinction between motivational and

maintenance factors in job situation. A research was conducted by Herzberg and his associates based on the interview of 200 engineers and accountants who worked for eleven different firms in Pittsburgh area. These men were asked to recall specific incidents in their experience which made them feel particularly bad about jobs. The findings of the research led to draw a distinction between what are called as 'motivators' and 'hygiene factors'. To this group of engineers and accountants, the real motivators were opportunities to gain expertise and to handle more demanding assignments. Hygiene factors served to prevent loss of money and efficiency. Thus, hygiene factors provide no motivation to the employees, but the absence of these factors serves as dissatisfies.

Some job conditions operate primarily to dissatisfy employees. Their presence does not motivate employees in a strong way. Many of these factors are traditionally perceived by management as motivators, but the factors are really more potent as dissatisfiers. They are called maintenance factors in job because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the employees. Their absence proves to be strong dissatisfiers. They are also known as 'dissatisfiers' or 'hygienic factors' because they support employees' mental health. Another set of job conditions operates primarily to build strong motivation and high job satisfaction among the employees. These conditions are 'Motivational Factors'. Herzberg's maintenance and motivational factors have been shown in the table given below.

2.7.5A.3 MOTIVATION THEORY BY MCCLELLAND

McClelland (1961) studied using personality tests, the characteristics of people whom he identified as being achievement oriented. According to him high need achievers were always exhibiting behaviour designed to better themselves, working harder in order to accomplish their goals. They shared a number of common characteristics :

1. Preference for performing tasks over which they had sole responsibility, to enable them to identify closely with the successful outcomes of their actions.
2. They were moderate risk takers, and to maximise their chances of success they set themselves moderate goals. This does not mean to say that they avoided challenging situations, but simply that their goals were within an attainable range.
3. They needed continual feedback, since it is only from the knowledge of success that satisfaction can be derived.

McClelland tried to identify why some people were low achievers and concluded that the major reasons for this lie in parental influences, education, cultural background and the value systems dominant in society. According to him, organisations therefore may be concerned with selecting high achievers as managers. However, low achievers can be trained to develop a greater urge to achieve.

2.7.5B HUMAN NATURE BASED THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Human nature-based theories of motivation explore the inherent characteristics and instincts that drive human behavior. These theories suggest that certain fundamental aspects of human nature influence motivation and shape individuals' actions.

2.7.5B.1 MCGREGOR THEORY OF X & Y

We know that there are two types of motivation viz., internal motivation and external motivation. Internal motivation is made up of the forces which exist within an individual, i.e., his needs, wants and desires. External motivation includes the forces which exist inside the individuals as well as the factors controlled by the manager, including job context items, such as salaries, working conditions, company policy and job content items, such as recognition, advancement and responsibility.

Douglas McGregor's theory incorporates both internal and external motivation. McGregor sets forth two alternative views (at opposite extremes) of human nature - the first view is called 'Theory X' and the second view is called 'Theory Y'.

Theory X : According to Theory X there are following assumptions about the human nature, on which the manager has to base his motivation efforts :

- i. Average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
- ii. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organisational objectives.
- iii. Average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all. McGregor felt that Theory X assumptions were used in most industrial organisation of his time, but they were generally incorrect. Thus, the management approaches that develop from these assumptions will be inadequate for the full utilisation of each worker's potential

because they will often fail to motivate people to work for the realisation of organisational objectives. Hence he felt the need to revise and correct these assumptions to conform to the present day organisation set up and ever-developing personality of the employee.

Theory Y : Theory Y is McGregor's modern view of the nature of man. It contains assumptions which he believed could lead to greater motivation and better fulfillment of both individual needs and organisational goals. The Theory Y assumptions are :

- i. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
- ii. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort towards organisational objectives.
- iii. Commitment to objectives is a function of the reward associated with their achievement.
- iv. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
- v. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
- vi. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised. It may be noted that the main foundation of Theory Y is 'integration', i.e., the establishment of an environment in which employees can best achieve their own goals by committing themselves to the organisation's objectives. In doing so, employees are expected to exercise a large degree of internal motivation.

2.7.5B.2 CHRIS ARGYRIS THEORY OF MOTIATION

Chris Argyris was a renowned organizational theorist and psychologist who made significant contributions to the fields of organizational behavior and management. While he is not primarily known for a specific theory of motivation, his work on learning, organizational development, and human behavior in organizations has implications for understanding motivation within the workplace.

One of Argyris's key concepts is the theory of double-loop learning, which he developed with Donald Schön. Double-loop learning goes beyond single-loop learning, which

involves making adjustments within existing frameworks and strategies. In contrast, double-loop learning involves questioning and potentially changing the underlying assumptions and values that guide decision-making and behavior.

In the context of motivation, Argyris's ideas highlight the importance of examining not only individual behaviors but also the organizational structures and systems that shape those behaviors. Here are some key points related to motivation from Argyris's perspective:

- **Incongruence between espoused theories and theories-in-use:** Argyris argued that individuals and organizations often espouse certain values and theories, but their actual behavior (theories-in-use) may not align with these stated values. This incongruence can impact motivation when employees perceive a mismatch between what is officially communicated and what is practiced.
- **Theory of Action:** Argyris introduced the concept of the "theory of action," which involves the set of assumptions and beliefs that individuals use to make decisions and achieve goals. Understanding an individual's theory of action is crucial for understanding their motivations and behaviors in a given situation.
- **Organizational Learning:** Argyris emphasized the importance of creating organizations that support continuous learning and adaptation. Motivation is closely linked to an individual's perception of their ability to learn and grow within the organizational context.

While Argyris did not develop a comprehensive theory of motivation in the traditional sense, his work encourages a holistic approach that considers the interplay between individual and organizational factors. By addressing underlying assumptions, incongruences, and promoting a culture of learning, organizations can create environments that foster employee motivation and engagement.

2.7.5B.3 VICTOR VROOM CONTRIBUTION

It is also considered as expectancy/valence approach attempting at overcoming criticism of other motivational approaches. Expectancy approach aims at differentiating among individuals and situation. It deviates from the assumption that all employees are alike or all situations are alike and therefore there is only one way of motivating them. Expectancy approach advocates that the behaviour of individual is influenced by their expectations,

perceptions and calculations regarding the relationship between performance and rewards. It specifies that the efforts to achieve high performance is a function of perceived likelihood that high performance can be achieved and will be rewarded if achieved and that the reward will be worth efforts made. This approach has three basic elements.

1. Performance Outcome Expectancy : In individuals expecting some consequences of their behaviour which in turn affects their decision to behave in a particular manner. For example, the sales executive who is thinking about exceeding his sales target may expect a praise, a bonus or no reaction.

2. Valence : Outcome of a particular behaviour has a specific valence that is power to motivate which varies from individual to individual. For example, promotion to higher position may have somewhat different valence for the manager who gives too much importance to money as compared to the other manager who attaches more significance to status, development and growth.

3. Efforts Performance Expectancy : Expectation of individual that how difficult it will be to perform successfully will affect their decision about behaviour. For example, if choices are given, individual will select the level of performance which have the highest possibility of achieving outcome which they value.

Although this approach has been developed by Victor Vroom, it was further refined by Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler who made it more useful and practical. They base expectancy model of motivation on the following assumptions : (a) behaviour of an individual is determined by a combination of factors such as characteristics of individuals and characteristics of work environment; (b) individuals make decisions consciously and deliberately regarding their behaviour in organisation; (c) individuals have different needs, goals, devices to fulfill and (d) individuals decide from alternative behaviour on the basis of their expectations that a given behaviour will lead to the desired outcome.

This model has highlighted that the people can differ greatly in how they size up their chances for success in different jobs. Therefore, to motivate people it is just not enough to offer them some rewards. They must also feel convinced that they have ability to get the reward.

2.7.5B.4 KENNETH W. THOMAS' "FOUR INTRINSIC REWARDS"

Kenneth W. Thomas, a professor of management at the Naval Postgraduate School in

Monterey, CA, delves into the concept of intrinsic motivation in his book "Intrinsic Motivation at Work – Building Energy & Commitment." One of his notable contributions is a matrix outlining "The Four Intrinsic Rewards," which are briefly discussed below:

- i. **A Sense of Choice:** Employees benefit when they have a say in how their work is carried out. This involves having the opportunity to choose roles or tasks that align with their strengths and preferences. The contrast lies between workplaces offering flexibility and those adhering to rigid, predefined career paths, limiting individual autonomy.
- ii. **A Sense of Competence:** This reward centers around the satisfaction and pride employees derive from skillfully performing their chosen responsibilities. However, the sense of competence can be undermined by a prevailing attitude of perfectionism, where nothing seems to be deemed satisfactory, whether from managers or colleagues.
- iii. **A Sense of Meaningfulness:** Employees find fulfillment when they perceive their roles and tasks as contributing to a higher purpose. This extends beyond elite positions, encompassing every level of the workforce, including line workers, janitors, and assistants. Meaningfulness, being contagious, is crucial for fostering a positive workplace environment.
- iv. **A Sense of Progress:** Progress, both in terms of task/project advancement and personal development, is vital for sustaining motivation. Employees seek assurance that their time and energy invested in their responsibilities are making a meaningful impact. The distinction lies in whether they perceive progress or feel like they are merely treading water.

Kenneth Thomas emphasizes these intrinsic rewards as essential elements in cultivating a motivated and committed workforce, promoting not only individual well-being but also the overall success of the organization.

2.8 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, understanding the foundations of individual behavior is essential for comprehending the complexities of human interaction in various settings. The analysis of biographical characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and tenure provides insights into the diverse factors shaping individual behavior.

Exploring personality further deepens our understanding, with determinants ranging from genetics to environmental influences. The MBTI test and the Big Five Model of Personality offer frameworks for categorizing and understanding individual differences.

Perception, a key cognitive process, involves intricate factors influencing how individuals interpret and make sense of the world. The Attribution Theory sheds light on how we judge others based on distinctiveness, consensus, and consistency, while shortcuts often serve as quick but potentially biased ways of assessing people.

Attitudes, shaped by work-related factors and cognitive dissonance, play a pivotal role in influencing behavior. Learning, as explained by classical and operant conditioning theories, highlights how behavior is acquired through environmental stimuli and consequences.

Motivation, a driving force behind behavior, is explored through various theories. Human needs theories by Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland delve into the fundamental desires propelling individuals. Human nature theories by McGregor emphasize the role of assumptions about human nature in motivation, while expectancy theories, notably Vroom's, focus on the anticipation of outcomes.

A noteworthy addition is Ken Thomas's Theory of Intrinsic Motivation, which underscores the importance of internal factors and the value of engaging in tasks for their inherent rewards.

In summary, the intricate interplay of biographical characteristics, personality, perception, attitudes, learning, and motivation shapes the foundation of individual behavior. This comprehensive understanding is instrumental for effective leadership, team dynamics, and organizational success. By acknowledging and appreciating the uniqueness of individuals, organizations can create environments that foster growth, satisfaction, and productivity.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ)

Q1.1 Which of the following components of individual behaviour involves the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and behaviours through experience, training, and education?

- A) Attitudes
- B) Perception
- C) Learning
- D) Emotions

Q1.2 Which of the following is considered a characteristic inherited through heredity in the development of personality?

- A) Cultural norms
- B) Reflexes
- C) Environmental influences
- D) Socialization patterns

Q1.3 What is the primary purpose of the MBTI test?

- A) To assess cognitive abilities
- B) To measure physical fitness
- C) To categorize individuals into personality types
- D) To evaluate academic achievements

Q1.4 Which personality type tends to find energy in social interactions and larger group settings, according to the MBTI?

- A) Introverted
- B) Sensing
- C) Extraverted
- D) Thinking

Q1.5 Which of the following, describes how the brain naturally organizes stimuli into meaningful wholes, including concepts such as proximity, similarity, continuity, closure, and figure-ground?

- A) Gestalt Principles
- B) Perceptual Constancy
- C) Sensation Mechanisms

D) Multisensory Integration

Q1.6 What role does the social context play in influencing perception?

A) It determines sensory abilities.

B) It shapes cultural norms.

C) It impacts cognitive load.

D) It influences how individuals interpret stimuli in a social setting.

Q1.7 What does the cognitive component of attitudes primarily involve?

A) Past behaviours or experiences

B) Beliefs, thoughts, and attributes

C) Feelings or emotions

D) Inferences from previous actions

Q1.8 What is the impact of job satisfaction on employee attitudes in organizational behaviour?

A) Positive job satisfaction correlates with negative attitudes.

B) Positive job satisfaction is linked to increased motivation and positive attitudes.

C) Low job satisfaction has no effect on employee attitudes.

D) Job satisfaction is irrelevant to employee emotions.

Q1.9 What is the primary focus of McGregor's Theory X?

A) External control and punishment

B) The expenditure of effort in work

C) Seeking responsibility and ambition

D) Employee commitment to objectives

Q1.10 What is the term used by Herzberg for factors that prevent the loss of money and efficiency?

A) Motivators

B) Dissatisfiers

C) Hygiene factors

D) Maintenance factors

Answer Keys: 1.1-C, 1.2-B, 1.3-C, 1.4-C, 1.5a, 1.6-D, 1.7-B, 1.8-B, 1.9-B, & 1.10-C.

2. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q2.1 State the key biographical characteristics concerning organisational behaviour.

Q2.2 Define personality.

Q2.3 What is perception?

Q2.4. State the factors influencing job satisfaction.

Q2.5 What are the different categories of need classified by Abraham Maslow.

3. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q3.1 Explain the big five model of personality.

Q3.2 Elaborate the attribution theory of perception.

Q3.3 Elaborate the cognitive dissonance.

Q3.4 Examine the various components of classical conditioning model learning.

Q3.5 Analyse the Victor Vroom's Expectancy theory of motivation.

UNIT-III: THE GROUP

- Group- Meaning, Types, Reasons for group formation;
- Stages of Group development;
- Group theories;
- Group Properties – Role, Norms, Conformity, Size, & Cohesiveness;
- Group Dynamics- Management of Dysfunctional groups:
- Difference between Group and Team.

3.1 GROUP

A group can be defined as a collection of a small number of individuals collaborating toward common goals, developing shared attitudes, and consciously perceiving themselves as part of a unified entity. Causal aggregations of people, lacking awareness or meaningful interaction, do not qualify as groups.

Marvin Shaw characterizes a group as "two or more persons interacting in a manner where each person influences and is influenced by every other person."

According to Homans, a group constitutes "a number of persons engaging in communication with each other, often over an extended period, and of a small enough size that each individual can directly communicate with all others, not through intermediaries, but face to face."

3.2 TYPE OF GROUPS

Groups can be categorized based on various factors, offering insights into their purpose, structure, formation process, and size of membership. Here are key classifications:

- **Primary and Secondary Groups:**

Primary groups involve intimate, face-to-face associations and cooperation, exemplified by family and peer groups. In contrast, secondary groups are characterized by larger size and individual identification with shared values and ethnic backgrounds.

- **Membership Groups and Reference Groups:**

Membership groups are those to which individuals actively belong, such as co-operative societies or workers' unions. Reference groups, on the other hand, are those individuals identify with or aspire to join.

- **Ingroup and Outgroup:**

Ingroups comprise individuals sharing prevailing societal values or holding dominant positions in social functioning, like members of a team or family. Outgroups, in contrast, are perceived as subordinate or marginal, encompassing masses or conglomerates like street performers or office workers.

- **Interest Vs Friendship Groups:**

Interest groups unite individuals with a shared goal or concern, collaborating to achieve a specific objective. Friendship groups, on the other hand, form around common features, such as regional origin, shared viewpoints, or language.

- **Formal and Informal Groups:**

Formal groups are structured social arrangements where activities are planned by some individuals to achieve common purposes. They play a crucial role in goal accomplishment, activity coordination, logical relationship establishment, specialization, division of labor application, and fostering group cohesiveness.

3.3 REASONS FOR GROUP FORMATION

Group formation is a multifaceted phenomenon, influenced by various motivations that cater to both individual and collective needs. Here's a detailed elaboration of the reasons for group formation:

- **Companionship and Social Bonds:** Individuals are inherently social beings, seeking connections and companionship. Group formation provides a platform for camaraderie and social interaction, offering a sense of belonging. Within these social units, members can express their feelings, receive advice, and alleviate the monotony of work through shared experiences.
- **Security and Shielding:** Groups serve as a protective shield, especially in the face of potential managerial scrutiny. Membership in a group can offer a layer of security, providing individuals with refuge during challenging situations or when

mistakes occur. The collective support within the group can shield members from the full impact of potential consequences.

- **Pursuit of Collective Interests:** Groups often come together to pursue shared interests and objectives. This collective pursuit may involve negotiating for mutual benefits such as improved piece rates, better working conditions, or symbolic perks like larger desks or extended lunch hours. The synergy of the group amplifies their influence in achieving these shared goals.
- **Seeking Assistance and Support:** Individuals within a group may join or form one to tap into the collective knowledge and support network. The group becomes a valuable resource for seeking assistance or advice related to job responsibilities. Members can share insights, skills, and experiences, contributing to the professional development of each member.
- **Informal Communication Hub:** Groups serve as informal communication hubs within an organization. Beyond official channels, groups facilitate the swift exchange of information about the company. The grapevine effect within a group allows for the dissemination of news, updates, and insights that might not be conveyed through formal channels, contributing to a well-informed and connected community.

Group formation is a dynamic process influenced by the innate human need for social connections, security, shared interests, support, and effective communication. Understanding these varied motivations provides insights into the intricate fabric of group dynamics within organizational settings.

3.4 STAGES IN THE GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Group development unfolds in stages, each characterized by distinct characteristics, challenges, and dynamics. The classic model of group development, often attributed to Bruce Tuckman, consists of the following stages:

i. **Forming:**

The forming stage marks the initial phase of group development, where individuals come together and acquaint themselves. Politeness and caution characterize interactions as members seek to understand their roles, the group's purpose, and

each other. There is often a reliance on a directive leadership style during this stage to provide clarity and guidance as the group forms.

ii. **Storming:**

The storming stage is characterized by increased openness but also the emergence of conflicts and differences among group members. Power struggles and disagreements may surface as individuals assert themselves and vie for positions within the group. Leadership plays a crucial role in facilitating conflict resolution and guiding the group through the challenges of defining roles and responsibilities.

iii. **Norming:**

As the group moves into the norming stage, a sense of cohesion begins to develop. Norms, shared values, and a clearer understanding of roles and responsibilities are established. The group works to balance individual and collective goals, overcoming challenges related to inclusion and collaboration. Leadership takes on a more consultative role as the group solidifies its identity.

iv. **Performing:**

The performing stage represents the pinnacle of group development, characterized by high performance and effective collaboration. Members work together seamlessly to achieve common goals, leveraging their established norms and shared values. Challenges in this stage revolve around maintaining motivation and sustaining high performance. Leadership becomes more delegative as trust is established, and members are competent in their roles.

v. **Adjourning (or Mourning):**

In the adjourning stage, the group disbands either because its task is completed, members depart, or the group transforms into a new entity. This stage involves dealing with the emotional aspects of disbanding, especially if strong bonds have formed. Leadership in this stage entails recognizing achievements, facilitating closure, and acknowledging the contributions of both individuals and the group as a whole.

It's important to note that while Tuckman's model is widely used, some variations include additional stages or emphasize the cyclical and non-linear nature of group development. Additionally, some models include a stage called "Norming" between Storming and Performing, highlighting the importance of establishing norms before reaching optimal

performance. The stages provide a framework for understanding and managing the dynamics of groups as they evolve over time.

3.5 THEORIES OF GROUP FORMATION

Theories of group formation seek to explain how and why individuals come together to form groups. These theories encompass various perspectives and factors influencing the process. Common theories include:

3.5.1 PROPINQUITY THEORY

Proximity theory, also known as the proximity effect, posits that individuals are more likely to affiliate with one another based on spatial or geographical proximity. This principle suggests that physical closeness in a shared environment, such as the workplace, contributes significantly to the formation of social groups. For example, employees working in the same area of a plant or office are more prone to establish connections and form groups compared to those who are not physically located together.

The theory acknowledges a fundamental factor—proximity—that can influence social interactions and group dynamics. In practical terms, we often observe this phenomenon in various settings. However, it's crucial to note that while proximity plays a role in group formation, it is not the sole determinant. Several other factors and dynamics contribute to the complexities of group behavior.

Contrary to analytical theories that delve deeply into the intricacies of group dynamics, proximity theory focuses on a straightforward aspect: physical closeness. It provides a basic understanding of one of the factors influencing social grouping in organizational contexts. Nevertheless, scholars and practitioners in the field of organizational behavior recognize that group formation can be influenced by a myriad of factors, including shared goals, common interests, and interpersonal relationships. As such, while proximity theory sheds light on a fundamental aspect of social interaction, it does not offer a comprehensive analysis of the multifaceted nature of group behavior. Researchers and organizational leaders often combine insights from proximity theory with other perspectives to gain a more holistic understanding of group dynamics in various workplace environments.

3.5.2 HOMANS' THEORY

George C. Homans' theory on group formation is grounded in the idea that the extent of shared activities among individuals directly influences the frequency and strength of their interactions, and vice versa. Homans argues that the more activities people share, the more interactions they will have, and the stronger their shared activities and sentiments will become. Likewise, the more sentiments individuals have for each other, the more likely they are to engage in shared activities and interactions. This reciprocal relationship between activities, interactions, and sentiments forms the core of Homans' theoretical framework.

In the context of group formation within organizations, Homans' theory emphasizes that the members of a group come together not solely due to physical proximity but because of a shared purpose or common activities aimed at achieving group goals. It highlights the significance of interaction as a key element in the development of common sentiments among group members. These common sentiments, in turn, strengthen the cohesion within the group and contribute to its overall stability.

Homans' theory provides valuable insights into the dynamics of group behavior and social relationships. By emphasizing the interplay between shared activities, interactions, and sentiments, the theory underscores the importance of purposeful engagement and mutual understanding among group members. This approach offers a nuanced perspective on group formation, moving beyond mere physical proximity as the primary driver of social interactions.

Furthermore, the theory suggests that effective group formation involves not only engaging in shared activities but also fostering positive sentiments among members. This recognition of the emotional and relational aspects of group dynamics adds depth to the understanding of how and why groups form within organizational settings.

Homans' theory contributes significantly to our understanding of group formation by highlighting the interconnectedness of shared activities, interactions, and sentiments. It offers a framework that goes beyond spatial or physical proximity, emphasizing the role of purposeful engagement and emotional connections in the development and sustainability of groups within social contexts.

3.5.3 BALANCE THEORY

The Balance Theory, proposed by Theodore Newcomb, offers insights into the dynamics of interpersonal attraction and the formation of social relationships. According to this theory, individuals are drawn to each other based on shared attitudes towards mutually relevant objects and goals. Once a relationship is established, there is a natural tendency to maintain a symmetrical balance between the level of attraction and the alignment of common attitudes. The theory posits that if an imbalance occurs, efforts will be made to restore equilibrium. However, if this balance cannot be reinstated, the relationship may ultimately dissolve.

In essence, the Balance Theory expands on the concepts of propinquity and interaction by introducing the crucial factor of 'balance' in social relationships. While propinquity emphasizes physical proximity and interaction underscores the engagement between individuals, the Balance Theory underscores the significance of shared attitudes and the equilibrium in attraction within a relationship.

This theory highlights the additive nature of group formation. It suggests that, beyond mere physical closeness and interaction, a fundamental requirement for the formation and survival of a group is a balanced relationship among its members. The shared attitudes and values that initially bring individuals together, such as beliefs about authority, work, lifestyle, religion, or politics, act as the cohesive forces within the group.

The Balance Theory posits that groups naturally strive to maintain a harmonious equilibrium between the level of attraction among members and their shared attitudes. When imbalances occur, individuals within the group may make conscious efforts to restore symmetry. However, if these efforts prove unsuccessful and the equilibrium cannot be reestablished, it may lead to the dissolution of the relationship or, in the context of groups, the disintegration of the social unit.

The Balance Theory contributes a nuanced perspective to the understanding of group formation by emphasizing the need for a harmonious balance between interpersonal attraction and shared attitudes. It provides a framework that goes beyond mere physical closeness and interaction, recognizing the importance of psychological and attitudinal alignment for the cohesive functioning and longevity of social relationships and groups.

3.5.4 EXCHANGE THEORY

Exchange Theory, rooted in social psychology, revolves around the concept of reward-cost outcomes in interpersonal interactions. According to this theory, individuals are attracted to groups based on a rational assessment of what they stand to gain in exchange for their interactions with group members. In essence, there exists an implicit exchange relationship where individuals weigh the rewards and costs associated with affiliating with a particular group.

For an individual to be drawn to a group, the anticipated rewards of association must outweigh the perceived costs. The theory posits that there needs to be a minimum positive level of outcome—where rewards exceed costs—for attraction or affiliation to occur. Rewards in this context go beyond material gains; they encompass psychological benefits that satisfy an individual's needs, while costs may include anxiety, frustration, embarrassment, or fatigue incurred during interactions.

In the context of Exchange Theory, several factors play crucial roles. Proximity, or physical proximity, sets the stage for potential interactions, providing the initial conditions for the exchange process. Interaction itself becomes a medium through which rewards and costs are experienced and evaluated. Additionally, common attitudes, values, or goals within the group contribute to the perceived rewards, enhancing the attractiveness of the group.

The theory acknowledges that individuals are rational actors who engage in a cost-benefit analysis when considering group affiliations. This analytical approach emphasizes that individuals seek social connections that maximize their rewards while minimizing associated costs.

Exchange Theory aligns with broader economic and rational choice perspectives, providing a framework for understanding social interactions as transactions where individuals seek favorable outcomes. By integrating proximity, interaction, and common attitudes, the theory recognizes the multifaceted nature of human relationships, emphasizing the dynamic interplay between rational decision-making and social dynamics in the formation and maintenance of groups.

In addition to the theoretical perspectives on group formation outlined earlier, employees

within an organization may come together for practical reasons related to economic security or social considerations. From an economic standpoint, individuals may choose to form groups to collaborate on projects under a shared incentive plan, or they may unite within a union to collectively advocate for higher wages. Joining such groups offers individuals a collective front to address issues of unequal or unilateral treatment, providing a sense of solidarity in addressing shared concerns.

3.6 GROUP PROPERTIES: ROLE, NORMS, CONFORMITY, SIZE, COHESIVENESS

Working groups differ significantly from disorganized mobs. These groups possess distinctive properties that influence the behavior of their members, allowing for the explanation and prediction of individual behaviors within the group and the group's overall performance. Key properties include roles, norms, status, group size, and the level of group cohesiveness. These aspects are essential for understanding the dynamics and outcomes of working groups. These are discussed below:

3.6.1 ROLE

Roles within a group or organization play a pivotal role in shaping individual behavior and group dynamics. Understanding various aspects of roles, including role identity, role perception, role expectations, role conflict, and role ambiguity, provides valuable insights into the complexities of social structures and interpersonal relationships within a workplace.

- **Role Identity:** Role identity encompasses the attitudes and actual behaviors consistent with a particular role. Individuals shape their role identity based on the expectations associated with their position in a social unit. The ability to shift roles rapidly demonstrates the adaptive nature of individuals when they recognize the need for significant changes in response to different situations. For example, individuals promoted from non-managerial to supervisory positions may swiftly transition from pro-union attitudes to management perspectives.
- **Roles Perception:** Roles perception guides the activities of both managers and workers. It reflects how individuals perceive their own roles and how they believe others should act in their respective roles. These perceptions serve as a foundation

for behavior and interaction within the organizational context. A clear understanding of roles perception is crucial for fostering effective communication and collaboration among team members.

- **Roles Expectation:** Roles expectation refers to the way others believe an individual should act in a given situation. It is closely linked to the concept of the psychological contract—an unwritten agreement between employees and their employers. Failure on the part of management to fulfill their part of the psychological contract can lead to negative repercussions on employee performance and satisfaction. Clear communication and alignment of expectations are essential to maintaining a healthy psychological contract.
- **Role Conflict:** Role conflict arises when there are differing perceptions or expectations regarding an individual's role. Such conflicts make it challenging for individuals to meet one set of expectations without rejecting another. For instance, a company president may face role conflict when different department heads advocate for conflicting organizational strategies. Resolving role conflicts requires effective communication and negotiation to align expectations and foster a cohesive organizational culture.
- **Role Ambiguity:** Role ambiguity occurs when a role is inadequately defined or substantially unknown. In such situations, individuals are unsure how to act, leading to confusion and potential disruption in performance. Role conflict and role ambiguity can have detrimental effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Clearly defined roles, communicated through job descriptions and performance expectations, contribute to employee satisfaction and organizational effectiveness.

Roles in a social unit are not static but dynamic components that influence behavior, interactions, and overall organizational dynamics. Recognizing and managing aspects such as role identity, roles perception, roles expectation, role conflict, and role ambiguity are essential for promoting a healthy work environment and ensuring that individuals can contribute effectively to their teams and organizations.

3.6.2 NORMS

Norms represent the accepted standards of behavior shared among members of a group,

guiding them on what is deemed appropriate or inappropriate in specific circumstances. These guidelines inform individuals about expectations in various situations, serving as a framework for behavior within the group. When agreed upon and accepted by the group, norms act as a subtle influence on members' behavior, minimizing the need for external control. While norms vary among groups, communities, and societies, their presence is universal.

Several common classes of norms emerge within workgroups, including:

- **Performance Norms:** Workgroups often establish explicit cues guiding members on the level of effort expected and the methods for accomplishing tasks.
- **Appearance Norms:** This category encompasses norms related to appearance, such as appropriate dress, loyalty to the workgroup or organization, and guidelines on when to appear busy.
- **Arrangement Norms:** Originating from informal workgroups, these norms primarily regulate social interactions within the group, defining acceptable behaviors and dynamics.
- **Resources Norms:** The final category pertains to norms governing the allocation of resources, which can stem from the group or the broader organization. Examples include norms related to pay, assignment of challenging tasks, and distribution of new tools and equipment.

Understanding and acknowledging these diverse classes of norms is essential in comprehending the intricate fabric of group dynamics. Norms play a pivotal role in shaping behavior, fostering cohesion, and establishing expectations within workgroups, ultimately contributing to the overall functioning and effectiveness of the group.

3.6.3 STATUS

Status, as a socially defined position or rank bestowed upon individuals or groups by others, is a pervasive element in every society. Even within the smallest groups, there emerges a nuanced framework of roles, rights, and rituals that serve to distinguish and assign significance to its members. This dynamic interplay of status is a crucial aspect of understanding human behavior, as it serves as a potent motivator and yields significant behavioral consequences when individuals perceive a misalignment between their perceived status and how others perceive it.

In essence, status is a multifaceted concept that extends beyond mere hierarchical arrangements. It encompasses the intricate web of social roles and expectations that individuals navigate within their communities. These roles often come with prescribed rights, responsibilities, and privileges, shaping the dynamics of interpersonal relationships and influencing behavioral patterns.

The development of status within a group is a complex interplay of social, cultural, and psychological factors. It is a reflection of societal values, norms, and the distribution of power. Members of a group, whether consciously or unconsciously, engage in a continuous negotiation of status, vying for recognition and validation from their peers.

Moreover, status is not solely about the tangible benefits or privileges associated with a position. It also carries symbolic and psychological weight. The perception of one's status can significantly impact self-esteem, confidence, and overall well-being. When individuals perceive a disparity between their self-perceived status and how others perceive it, it can lead to a range of behavioral responses.

These behavioral consequences may manifest as efforts to assert dominance, seek approval, or conform to societal expectations. Alternatively, individuals may challenge existing status hierarchies, striving for upward mobility or advocating for a more equitable distribution of status within the group.

Status is a pervasive and intricate element of human social structures. Its influence extends beyond mere hierarchical arrangements, shaping social roles, relationships, and individual behavior. Recognizing the importance of status provides valuable insights into the dynamics of human interaction and the complex interplay of societal forces that influence our lives.

3.6.4 SIZE

The size of a group serves as a pivotal determinant in shaping its dynamics and performance, wielding a significant influence over its collective behavior. The impact of size, however, is not uniform and varies depending on the nature of the task at hand. In organizational contexts, groups are broadly categorized as either large or small, each possessing distinctive attributes that contribute to their effectiveness in different scenarios. Smaller groups are renowned for their efficiency, showcasing a propensity to swiftly accomplish tasks. In such settings, individual performance tends to shine, bolstered by the

streamlined communication and coordination inherent in a compact group. The agility of smaller groups makes them particularly well-suited for endeavors that demand prompt and precise execution, leading to heightened productivity.

Conversely, larger groups, typically comprised of a dozen or more members, excel in harnessing diverse input. When the goal involves comprehensive fact-finding, the breadth of perspectives within a larger group often proves more effective. However, an interesting nuance emerges in tasks centered around problem-solving. In this domain, smaller groups consistently outshine their larger counterparts, receiving superior marks for their collaborative problem-solving abilities.

A critical aspect associated with group size is the phenomenon known as social loafing. This phenomenon encapsulates the tendency of individuals to exert less effort when working collectively compared to when working individually. The implications of social loafing underscore the importance of not only considering the size of the group but also acknowledging its potential impact on individual contributions and the overall dynamics of collaborative efforts. It emphasizes the necessity of managing and mitigating such tendencies to ensure optimal group performance and cohesion. Thus, understanding the nuanced interplay between group size, task requirements, and social dynamics is imperative for fostering effective teamwork and achieving desired outcomes in diverse organizational settings.

3.6.5 COHESIVENESS

Groups exhibit varying degrees of cohesiveness, reflecting the extent to which members are drawn to one another and motivated to remain part of the group. This cohesiveness can arise from factors such as prolonged interaction, a smaller group size fostering increased engagement, or external threats that forge stronger bonds among members. The significance of cohesiveness lies in its correlation with group productivity.

Research consistently indicates that the link between cohesiveness and productivity is contingent on the performance-related norms established within the group. In instances where performance norms are high—demanding elevated output, quality work, and cooperation with external individuals—a cohesive group tends to outperform a less cohesive one. Conversely, when cohesiveness is high but performance norms are low, productivity levels are diminished. If cohesiveness is low but performance norms are high,

productivity improves, albeit to a lesser extent than in highly cohesive groups. When both cohesiveness and performance-related norms are low, productivity tends to fall into the low-to-moderate range.

To foster cohesiveness within a group, several suggestions are put forth:

- **Reduce Group Size:** Making the group smaller can enhance cohesion by promoting increased interaction and a sense of intimacy among members.
- **Promote Goal Agreement:** Encouraging alignment with group goals fosters a shared sense of purpose, strengthening the bonds among group members.
- **Facilitate Increased Interaction Time:** Increasing the time members spend together enhances familiarity and rapport, contributing to greater cohesiveness.
- **Elevate Group Status and Membership Perceived Difficulty:** Raising the status of the group and making membership more challenging to attain can intensify the group's attractiveness and cohesiveness.
- **Stimulate Inter-Group Competition:** Fostering competition with other groups can create a sense of unity among group members, enhancing cohesiveness.
- **Group Rewards over Individual Rewards:** Offering rewards to the entire group, as opposed to individual members, reinforces collective identity and cohesiveness.
- **Physically Isolate the Group:** Creating a physical separation for the group can enhance its distinct identity and contribute to cohesiveness.

By considering and implementing these strategies, organizations can actively cultivate cohesiveness within groups, thereby positively influencing productivity and overall group dynamics.

3.7 DYSFUNCTIONAL GROUPS

Dysfunctions of groups refer to the negative functions of groups. These include the following four:

- i. **Norm Violation:** Norm violation, a notable dysfunction within groups, involves the breach of established standards that define the appropriateness of behavior. Norms serve as the benchmarks against which the acceptability of conduct is judged within a group. They play a crucial role in determining the expected behavior in specific situations, providing a shared understanding that enables individuals to predict and align with the actions of others.

Norms not only guide individual behavior but also contribute to the overall coherence and acceptability of group conduct. They act as a social contract that fosters a sense of order and predictability within the group. Without norms, group activities would descend into chaos, lacking the cohesive principles that bind members together.

Despite the vital role of norms in maintaining group stability, instances of norm violation are not uncommon. Groups may deviate from accepted norms, leading to disruptive behaviors such as antisocial conduct, dishonesty, sexual harassment, and the spread of rumors. These violations can erode the trust and harmony within the group, creating challenges for effective collaboration and shared objectives.

Addressing norm violations within a group involves recognizing the importance of reinforcing and upholding these standards. Establishing clear expectations and consequences for norm violations, fostering open communication, and promoting a culture of accountability are crucial steps in mitigating the negative impact of norm violations. By addressing these challenges, groups can work towards creating a positive and respectful environment that enhances both individual well-being and collective productivity.

- ii. **Group Think:** Groupthink, a phenomenon intricately tied to group norms, describes a situation in which pressures for conformity within a group hinder critical appraisal of unconventional, minority, or unpopular views. Regarded as a detrimental affliction, groupthink can significantly impede the performance of many groups. It occurs when the group becomes excessively focused on seeking consensus, and the norm for agreement overrides a realistic evaluation of alternative courses of action, suppressing the full expression of deviant, minority, or unpopular perspectives. This phenomenon leads to a deterioration in individual mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgment due to the pressures exerted by the group.

Symptoms of groupthink include various behavioral patterns within the group:

- **Rationalization:** Group members tend to rationalize any resistance to the assumptions they have made, even when presented with evidence

contradicting their basic assumptions. This continual reinforcement of assumptions contributes to the persistence of groupthink.

- **Direct Pressures:** Members apply direct pressures on those who express doubts about the group's shared views or question the validity of arguments supporting alternative perspectives favored by the majority. This pressure discourages dissent within the group.
- **Silence and Minimization:** Members with doubts or differing viewpoints may seek to avoid deviating from perceived group consensus by remaining silent about their misgivings. They might also downplay the importance of their doubts, minimizing the potential impact of alternative perspectives.
- **Illusion of Unanimity:** An illusion of unanimity arises, assuming that if someone does not speak, they are in full accord. Abstention becomes viewed as a "Yes" vote, creating a false sense of unanimous agreement.

Research on groupthink vulnerability has identified moderating variables, including group cohesiveness, leader behavior, and insulation from outsiders. However, findings on the consistent impact of these variables have been inconclusive. Key insights include:

- Highly cohesive groups tend to have more discussion and bring out more information, but it remains unclear whether such groups discourage dissent.
- Groups with impartial leaders who encourage member input are more likely to generate and discuss alternative solutions.
- Leaders should avoid expressing a preferred solution early in the group's discussion to prevent limiting critical analysis and increasing the likelihood of the group adopting that solution as the final choice.
- Insulation of the group leads to fewer alternative solutions being generated and evaluated.

Understanding and mitigating groupthink is essential for promoting healthy group dynamics, encouraging diverse perspectives, and enhancing decision-making processes within organizations.

- iii. **Risky Shift:** In comparing group decisions with individual decisions of members within the group, evidence suggests that there are differences. In some cases, the

group decisions are more conservative than the individual decisions. More often, the shift is toward greater risk. What appears to happen in groups is that the discussion leads to a significant shift in the positions of members toward a more extreme position in the direction toward which they were already leaning before the discussion. So conservative types become more cautious and the more aggressive types take on more risk. The group discussion tends to exaggerate the initial position of the group.

The risky shift can be viewed as a special case of groupthink. The decision of the group reflects the dominant decision-making norm that develops during the group's discussion. Whether the shift in the group's decision is toward greater caution or more risk depends on the dominant pre-discussion norm. The greater occurrence of the shift toward risk has generated several explanations for the phenomenon. It has been argued, for instance, that the discussion creates familiarization among the members. AS they become more comfortable with each other, they also become more bold and daring. Another argument is that our society values risk, we admire individual who are willing to take risks, and group discussion motivates members to show they are at least as wiling as their peers to take risks. The most plausible explanation of the shift toward risk, however, seems to be that the group diffuses responsibility Group decision free any single member from accountability for the group's final choice. Greater risk can be taken because even if the decision fails, no one member can be held wholly responsible.

- iv. **Social Loafing:** Social loafing refers to the tendency for individuals to exert less effort when working collectively than when working individually, challenging the expectation that the group's overall productivity should be at least equal to the sum of each individual's effort. Despite the common stereotype that a sense of team spirit enhances individual effort and boosts the group's overall productivity, social loafing reveals a counterintuitive aspect of group dynamics.

In the late 1920s, German psychologist Max Ringelmann conducted a seminal study comparing individual and group performance in a rope-pulling task. Ringelmann anticipated that the group's combined effort would be proportionate to the sum of individual efforts. For instance, if three people pulled together, the

expectation was that they would exert three times as much force as an individual, and similarly, eight people should generate eight times the force.

However, Ringelmann's results did not align with these expectations. Groups of three people exerted a force only two-and-a-half times the average individual performance, and a group of eight achieved less than four times the solo rate. This discrepancy highlighted that increases in group size were inversely related to individual performance, contradicting the assumption that larger groups would naturally yield proportionately higher levels of effort.

The phenomenon of social loafing has broader implications for understanding group dynamics and individual contributions within a collaborative context. Addressing social loafing requires recognizing the potential for diminished effort in group settings and implementing strategies to foster individual accountability, motivation, and a sense of purpose within the collective effort. By acknowledging and mitigating social loafing, groups can strive to achieve optimal levels of productivity and performance.

3.7.1 MANAGING DYSFUNCTIONAL GROUP

There are many ways of managing a dysfunctional group. A few of them are highlighted below:

- **Fill vacant roles with capable people with amazing attitudes, skills for that particular area, and zealous attention to detail and follow-through:**

Top talent loves other top talent. They hate being on a team with others that are slowing them down. Most companies we see do a decent job hiring for attitude and skills but a terrible job judging someone's attention to detail and follow-through.

- **Set the vision for the group and establish milestones to achieving the vision:**

You're the group leader. That means, it's part of your job description to set the goal for the group. It doesn't have to be a vision with a capital "V." Just paint a picture of what you want to accomplish over the next few weeks/months/years. You don't want you're team saying, "what the heck are we doing? Where is this leading us?" The vision also needs milestones. People want to know how they're doing in relation to their goal. Milestones let you tell them.

- **Follow-up and remind the team how they're doing against the milestones:**
 This sounds simple, but a lot of team leaders forget to update their members on how they're progressing against plan. If too much time passes between updates, people's attention drifts to other topics.
- **Agree on meeting 'rules of the road.' Start and end meetings on time:**
 It's unacceptable for team members to be late for meetings. This can't be enforced differently across the group. Even if it's your star sales person who's late, he/she should be held accountable just as if it was anyone else. If we're a team, we all need to follow the same rules.
- **Schedule regular face time with each of your team members at least monthly and ideally bi-weekly:**
 The best bosses who have the best teams know the importance of 'checking in' and keeping a finger on the pulse with every team member. When it doesn't happen, you can see the team start to gradually drift apart.
- **Hold fewer team-wide meetings but smaller ones with the right people attending.**
 Top talent hate it when their valuable time is chewed up by endless meetings that they really shouldn't even be at anyway. This is especially a problem in companies which have a more participative/democratic culture. Yet, you'll have a happier team with fewer meetings with only the most necessary people invited.
- **Do annual performance reviews and discuss the team member's developmental needs:**
 This one is a big differentiator between the high- and low-performing teams. Everyone's busy. (Don't you get sick of people telling you how busy they are? Aren't we all?) Yet, a lot of people will use their busy-ness as an excuse for not doing performance reviews in a timely manner. They see it as less important than "getting real business done." Yet, when we've studied multiple industries and multiple companies, whether or not you do timely performance reviews is a huge predictor of team performance. The best team leaders make time for this – and their people appreciate it and get better in the areas they need to.
- **Hold people accountable:**
 If someone's not pulling their weight, you've got to call them on that. Other team

members who are pulling their weight will resent you more than they resent the loafer if you don't.

- **Measure the team's progress at least annually:**

There are lots of tools available to measure where your team is at today and where it needs to be tweaked. It's a good idea to get in the habit of benchmarking the team's performance relative to others on an annual basis. By reviewing the strengths and weaknesses from their own ratings and seeing them in black-and-white, you'll find it easier to gain consensus on the areas that need improvement.

3.8 A GROUP AND A TEAM

In the contemporary organizational landscape, the adoption of the group or team concept has become a prevalent strategy for successfully executing diverse client projects. When two or more individuals are categorized together, whether by organizational design or driven by social needs, it is identified as a **group**. In contrast, a **team** is a cohesive assembly of individuals linked together with the explicit goal of achieving a common objective. Within an organization, groups are often formed based on shared interests, beliefs, common experiences, and principles, facilitating seamless coordination among members. There are two primary types of groups: Formal Groups, strategically created by organizational management to fulfill specific tasks, and Informal Groups, naturally forming within the organization to meet social or psychological human needs, exemplified by entities such as ethnic groups, trade unions, friendship circles, or airline flight crews.

In a team, members operate with a shared understanding, collaborating to leverage strengths and mitigate weaknesses by complementing each other's skills. The hallmark of effective team dynamics is "synergy," where the collective achievement surpasses what individual members could accomplish independently. Three fundamental features characterize successful team functioning:

- **Cohesion:** Team members exhibit a sense of unity and camaraderie, fostering a positive and collaborative working environment.
- **Confrontation:** Teams engage in constructive confrontation, addressing challenges and conflicts openly to enhance problem-solving and decision-making processes.

- **Collaboration:** The essence of a team lies in collaborative efforts, where members work together towards a common objective, pooling their diverse skills and perspectives for optimal results.

Embracing the concepts of groups and teams is not only integral to project success but also essential for nurturing a culture of collaboration, innovation, and shared achievement within modern organizations.

3.8.1 DISTINCTION BETWEEN A GROUP AND A TEAM

While the terms "group" and "team" are often used interchangeably, they represent distinct concepts with differences in structure, dynamics, and purpose. Here's an elaboration on the key distinctions between a group and a team:

- **Purpose and Goals:**
 - **Group:** A group may come together for various reasons, and its members may share a common interest, location, or affiliation. The primary focus of the group is on sharing information, perspectives, or experiences, and the goals may be individual or loosely connected.
 - **Team:** A team forms with a specific, collective goal or task in mind. Team members work collaboratively towards achieving a shared objective, and success is often dependent on the contributions of each team member.
- **Structure:**
 - **Group:** Group structure tends to be less defined, and roles may not be explicitly assigned. Decision-making processes can be informal, and there may be less accountability for individual contributions.
 - **Team:** Teams have a more defined structure with roles and responsibilities clearly assigned. Decision-making is often a collaborative process, and each team member's contribution is essential to achieving the team's goals.
- **Interdependence:**
 - **Group:** In a group, individual members may work independently and their efforts may not be directly tied to the contributions of others.
 - **Team:** Team members are interdependent, meaning the success of the team relies on the collaboration and coordination of each member's efforts.

- **Accountability:**
 - **Group:** Individual accountability may be lower, as there is often less emphasis on the direct impact of each member's contribution to the overall outcome.
 - **Team:** Team members are individually accountable for their specific roles and contributions. The success of the team is contingent on each member fulfilling their responsibilities.
- **Communication:**
 - **Group:** Communication within a group may be less formal, and members may share information without a strict focus on achieving a particular outcome.
 - **Team:** Communication is more structured within a team, with a focus on coordinating efforts, sharing updates, and ensuring everyone is aligned towards achieving the team's goals.
- **Examples:**
 - **Group:** A social club, where individuals gather for a common interest without a specific task to accomplish.
 - **Team:** A project team working together to complete a specific assignment within a specified timeframe.

Understanding these differences is crucial for effective collaboration in both professional and social settings. Depending on the context and goals, individuals may participate in groups or teams, each serving a distinct purpose in fostering cooperation and achieving desired outcomes.

3.9 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, delving into the intricacies of groups provides a comprehensive understanding of their meaning, types, and the underlying reasons for their formation. From formal groups strategically created by organizational management to informal groups that naturally emerge to fulfill social and psychological needs, the landscape of groups within an organization is diverse. Exploring the stages of group development unveils the dynamic nature of these entities, ranging from forming to storming, norming, performing, and eventually adjourning.

Group properties such as roles, norms, conformity, size, and cohesiveness play pivotal roles in shaping the dynamics within a group. The distinction between a group and a team becomes evident in their structures, purposes, and interdependence among members. Recognizing these differences is crucial for fostering effective collaboration and achieving shared goals.

Understanding group dynamics becomes paramount, especially in managing the inevitable challenges that may arise within these entities. Examining the management of dysfunctional groups sheds light on issues like norm violations, groupthink, risky shifts, and social loafing. By addressing these challenges, organizations can optimize the functioning of their groups, ensuring a healthy and productive collaborative environment.

In essence, groups are not mere collections of individuals but intricate social entities with their own developmental stages, properties, and dynamics. Navigating these elements thoughtfully contributes to the overall success of organizations and the well-being of their members. Embracing the nuances of group dynamics allows for proactive management, fostering an environment where groups can evolve, collaborate, and ultimately thrive.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ)

Q1.1 What characterizes Primary Groups?

- A) Large size and shared values
- B) Face-to-face associations and cooperation
- C) Structured social arrangements
- D) Individual identification with ethnic backgrounds

Q1.2 Which category includes workers' unions and co-operative societies?

- A) Membership Groups
- B) Primary groups
- C) Reference Groups
- D) Secondary Groups

Q1.3 Which type of group involves individuals aspiring to join or identify with?

- A) Primary Groups
- B) Outgroups

- C) Reference Groups
- D) Friendship Groups

Q1.4 Which stage in the group formation is characterized by increased openness but also the emergence of conflicts and differences among group members?

- A) Norming
- B) Forming
- C) Performing
- D) Storming

Q1.5 What is the key factor in Propinquity Theory influencing social grouping in organizations?

- A) Common interests
- B) Shared goals
- C) Spatial or geographical proximity
- D) Group size

Q1.6 According to Homans' Theory, what strengthens cohesion within a group?

- A) Physical proximity
- B) Shared sentiments
- C) Large group size
- D) Collective goals

Q1.7 What does Exchange Theory emphasize in the evaluation of group affiliation?

- A) Physical appearance
- B) Rational assessment of reward-cost outcomes
- C) Group size
- D) Shared workspace

Q1.8 What does status encompass beyond hierarchical arrangements?

- A) Economic privileges
- B) Educational qualifications
- C) Geographical locations
- D) Social roles and expectations

Q1.9 In which type of task do smaller groups consistently outperform larger groups?

- A) Problem-solving
- B) Fact-finding

- C) Diverse input
- D) Coordination

Q1.10 What is a key factor that influences the correlation between cohesiveness and productivity in a group?

- A) Group size
- B) External threats
- C) Performance-related norms
- D) Membership difficulty

Answer Keys: 1.1-B, 1.2-A, 1.3-C, 1.4-D, 1.5-C, 1.6-B, 1.7-B, 1.8-D, 1.9-A, & 1.10-C.

2. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q2.1 What is a group?

Q2.2 Define formal and informal group.

Q2.3 What is the exchange theory of group formation?

Q2.4 What is status concerning a group?

Q2.5 State four measures for managing dysfunctional groups.

3. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q3.1 Explain reason for forming groups.

Q3.2 Elaborate on the various stages in the group formation process.

Q3.3 Examine the different types norms existing in a group.

Q3.4 Explain the characteristics of dysfunctional groups.

Q3.5 Distinguish between a group and a team.

UNIT-IV: CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

- Organisational Conflict – Sources, Levels of conflict, Types of Conflict;
- Conflict Management Techniques; Transactional Analysis, Johari Window;
- Negotiation - Negotiation Process;
- Inter Group Behaviour - Inter Group Conflicts

4.1 ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

Organizational conflict refers to the disagreement or discord arising within an organization when the goals, interests, values, or actions of different individuals or groups are incompatible. Conflict is a natural and inevitable aspect of organizational life due to the diversity of individuals, varying perspectives, and the complex nature of organizational goals and processes. According to S.P. Robbins, “Conflict is a process in which an effort is purposefully made by one person or unit to block another that results in frustrating the attainment of the other’s goals or the furthering of his or her interests.” Mary Parker Follet defines conflict as, “The appearance of difference, difference of opinions, of interests.” Louis R. Pondy defines, “Conflict may be viewed as a breakdown in the standard mechanism of decision making.”

4.2 SOURCES OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

Organizational conflicts can arise from various sources, and understanding these sources is crucial for effective conflict management. Common sources of organizational conflict can be three categories.

- **Communicational Aspect of Conflict**

The communicational aspect of conflict is a potent force, often fueled by poor communication practices within an organization. Conflict can stem from misunderstandings or incomplete information during the communication process,

creating a breeding ground for discord. When information is inadequately transmitted or received, it sets the stage for conflict to emerge.

The improper exchange of information is exacerbated by the filtering of information at various levels of the organizational structure. As information moves through different layers, crucial details may be distorted or omitted, contributing to the escalation of conflicts. While a certain amount of information is functional, an excess of information beyond a certain point can become a source of conflict, overwhelming individuals and groups.

Semantic difficulties further compound communication-related conflicts. Differences in background, training, selective perception, and the availability of incomplete or inadequate information about others can result in misinterpretation and disputes. In situations where job completion relies on accurate communication, the absence of clear, correct, and understandable information can lead to heightened conflict.

Addressing conflicts related to communication requires a focus on improving the clarity, transparency, and accessibility of information within the organization. Strategies to mitigate these conflicts include fostering a culture of open communication, providing clear guidelines for information dissemination, and promoting training programs that enhance communication skills. By addressing the communicational aspects of conflict, organizations can create a more harmonious and productive working environment.

- **Behavioural Aspect of Conflict**

The behavioral aspect of conflict is rooted in the intricacies of human thoughts, feelings, attitudes, emotions, values, and perceptions, reflecting fundamental aspects of individual personalities. Conflicts of this nature often arise from the diverse ways in which people perceive and interpret situations. For instance, conflicting perceptions among individuals can trigger tensions, as one person's viewpoint may clash with another's.

Moreover, individuals with low self-esteem may be more prone to perceiving even minor matters as threats, leading them to overreact and consequently sparking conflicts. In today's society, conflicts predominantly manifest in behavioral terms,

driven by unrealized expectations and the inherent complexity of social and organizational systems.

Conflicts can also emerge from differing perspectives on specific issues or causes that necessitate collective participation. Those who feel underprivileged or harbor unrealized expectations may find themselves in conflicting situations. From the standpoint of organizational behavior, conflicts often arise due to a clash between the formal goals of the organization and the psychological growth and needs of individuals.

Addressing conflicts with a behavioral foundation involves recognizing and understanding the diverse elements that contribute to human behavior within the organizational context. Strategies to manage such conflicts include fostering a culture of empathy, promoting open dialogue, providing platforms for individuals to express their perspectives, and aligning organizational goals with the psychological well-being and growth of its members. By navigating the behavioral aspects of conflict, organizations can cultivate a more harmonious and psychologically supportive work environment.

- **Structural Aspects of Conflict**

Structural aspects of conflict are deeply embedded in the organizational design, encompassing both the overall structure of the organization and its sub-units. Several factors contribute to conflicts at the structural level:

- **Size of Organization:** The size of an organization is a significant factor influencing the presence of conflict. Larger organizations often experience challenges such as reduced goal clarity, increased supervisory levels, and a greater likelihood of information being diluted or distorted as it traverses through various levels.
- **Participation:** The level of participation in decision-making processes plays a crucial role. On one hand, if subordinates are excluded from decision-making, resentment and conflict may arise. On the other hand, increased participation may also lead to conflicts, as individuals become more aware of intricate details and potential disagreements.

- **Role Ambiguity:** Role ambiguity, arising from ill-defined job responsibilities, can lead to conflicts. When individuals in certain positions struggle to perform due to unclear expectations, conflicts may emerge between them and others who depend on their role. Addressing such conflicts involves redefining and clarifying roles and their inter-dependencies.
- **Scarcity of Resources:** Uneven distribution of resources, especially in the face of scarcity, can breed dissatisfaction and resentment among employees. In times of organizational decline or cutbacks, conflicts may intensify as units contend with a shrinking pool of resources. The potential for conflict significantly rises when vital resources, such as capital, facilities, and staff assistance, become limited or inadequate.

Effectively managing conflicts stemming from structural aspects requires organizational leaders to proactively address these factors. This may involve streamlining communication channels in larger organizations, finding a balance in participation levels, clarifying role expectations, and implementing fair resource allocation practices. By addressing structural issues, organizations can create an environment that minimizes conflicts and promotes smoother functioning across all levels.

4.3 TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICTS

The organisational conflict can be classified into goal conflict, role conflict and interpersonal conflict. These are discussed below:

- i. **Goal Conflict:** Goal conflict arises when two or more motives obstruct each other, leading to internal tension. There are three types of goal conflict:
 - a. **Approach-Approach Conflict:** This occurs when an individual is motivated to approach two or more positive but mutually exclusive goals. For instance, a young person facing the choice between two excellent job opportunities or an executive deciding between two attractive office locations.
 - b. **Approach-Avoidance Conflict:** In this scenario, an individual is motivated to approach a goal while simultaneously being motivated to avoid it. The goal contains both positive and negative characteristics, leading to internal conflict. For example, managers involved in long-range planning may feel

confident about a future goal, but as the time approaches to commit resources and implement the plan, negative consequences may outweigh the positives, causing internal conflict.

- c. **Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict:** This conflict arises when an individual is motivated to avoid two or more negative but mutually exclusive goals. For instance, a worker who dislikes their supervisor yet refuses to accept unemployment compensation due to pride. Resolving this conflict becomes challenging, especially in times of scarce job opportunities.

- ii. **Role Conflict:** A role consists of a pattern of norms related to expected behavior. Individuals in an organization often play multiple roles simultaneously, leading to role conflict. A classic example is the first-line supervisor who faces conflicting expectations. The key to resolving role conflict lies in acknowledging its existence, understanding its causes, and managing it effectively.

- iii. **Interpersonal Conflict:** Conflict situations involve at least two individuals with opposing views, ambiguity, and a tendency to jump to conclusions. The JOHARI WINDOW framework, developed by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham, helps analyze the dynamics of interaction. This model encourages recognizing and understanding differing perspectives to manage interpersonal conflicts effectively.

4.4 LEVEL OF CONFLICT

Organizational conflict can occur at various levels within a company. These levels are interconnected, and addressing conflict at one level may influence conflicts at other levels.

Here are common levels of organizational conflict:

- **Individual Level:** Conflict at the individual level involves personal issues, such as conflicting values, goals, or job-related stress. It can manifest as internal struggles within an employee and may affect their performance and well-being.
- **Interpersonal Level:** Interpersonal conflict arises between two or more individuals within the organization. This level of conflict may result from differences in communication styles, personality clashes, or disputes over resources or responsibilities.

- **Team/Group Level:** Conflicts within teams or workgroups can stem from disagreements on tasks, goals, or team dynamics. Team-level conflict can affect collaboration, productivity, and the overall cohesiveness of the group.
- **Departmental Level:** Conflict between different departments or functional units can arise due to competition for resources, conflicting goals, or differences in priorities. Departmental conflicts may impact the overall efficiency and effectiveness of the organization.
- **Organizational Level:** Conflicts at the organizational level involve disputes that affect the entire organization. This can include clashes in leadership styles, strategic misalignment, or issues related to the organizational structure. Resolving conflicts at this level may require significant organizational change.
- **Intra-Organizational Level:** Conflicts may occur between different units, divisions, or branches within the organization. This level of conflict can result from power struggles, competition, or differences in organizational culture.
- **Inter-Organizational Level:** Conflict can extend beyond the boundaries of a single organization and involve disputes with external entities such as suppliers, partners, or competitors. Inter-organizational conflicts may impact business relationships and alliances.
- **Macro Level:** At a macro level, conflicts can be influenced by external factors such as economic conditions, industry changes, or shifts in societal expectations. These conflicts may require strategic adjustments to adapt to external forces.

Understanding the level at which conflict is occurring is crucial for implementing appropriate conflict resolution strategies. Effective conflict management involves addressing conflicts proactively, promoting open communication, and fostering a positive organizational culture that encourages collaboration and problem-solving.

4.5 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

Conflict represents a divergence between workers and management that requires effective management within an organization. It can lead to strained working relationships, and if unresolved, may negatively impact the overall organizational climate. Managing conflict can take various approaches. The involved parties may reach an agreement on resolving the conflict or take preventive measures to avoid similar conflicts in the future.

Resolutions can also occur when one party prevails over the other. Alternatively, conflict may be suppressed, with parties avoiding strong reactions or attempting to ignore disagreements. Successful conflict management involves implementing strategies such as negotiation, prevention, resolution, or suppression.

Organizations employ various conflict management techniques to address and resolve conflicts that arise among employees, teams, or departments. Here are three common conflict management techniques: avoidance, diffusion, and confrontation, along with examples:

- i. **Avoidance:** Avoidance involves ignoring or sidestepping the conflict, temporarily postponing its resolution, or withdrawing from the situation. This technique is often used when the issue is minor, and addressing it immediately may not be beneficial.

Example: Imagine two team members have a minor disagreement about the best approach to a project. Rather than confronting the issue immediately, they may decide to focus on their individual tasks for the day and address the conflict at a later, more appropriate time.

- ii. **Diffusion:** Diffusion aims to reduce the intensity of the conflict by addressing the emotional aspects and creating a more positive atmosphere. This technique involves finding common ground, emphasizing shared goals, and promoting understanding among conflicting parties.

Example: In a team where there is tension between two employees due to a misunderstanding, a manager may organize a team-building activity. This could be a collaborative project or a team outing that encourages positive interactions and helps build stronger relationships, thereby diffusing the conflict.

- iii. **Confrontation:** Confrontation involves addressing the conflict head-on, openly discussing the issues, and seeking a resolution. This technique is suitable when the conflict is significant, and avoidance or diffusion may not lead to a satisfactory resolution.

Example: Suppose there is a disagreement between two managers about the allocation of resources for a critical project. In a confrontation approach, both managers would engage in a frank and open discussion to express their concerns, clarify misunderstandings, and work towards finding a mutually

agreeable solution.

Each conflict management technique has its place depending on the nature and severity of the conflict. Effective conflict resolution often involves a combination of these techniques, with the choice depending on the specific circumstances and goals of the organization. Successful conflict management fosters a positive work environment, improves communication, and contributes to the overall health and productivity of the organization.

OTHER CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES ARE:

- i. **Collaboration:** Collaboration involves a joint effort by conflicting parties to find a mutually beneficial solution. This technique emphasizes open communication, active listening, and a commitment to finding common ground. Collaboration often leads to creative solutions and strengthens relationships.

Example: In a cross-functional team where there are differing opinions on project priorities, team members may engage in collaborative problem-solving sessions. Through open discussions and brainstorming, the team can develop a comprehensive plan that considers everyone's perspective.

- ii. **Compromise:** Compromise seeks a middle ground where both parties make concessions to reach a resolution. This technique acknowledges that neither party may achieve all its goals but aims to find a balanced and acceptable solution for both.

Example: In a situation where two departments are vying for a limited budget, the leaders may engage in negotiations to reach a compromise. Each department might agree to scale down its original budget request to ensure that both can achieve their essential objectives.

- iii. **Mediation:** Mediation involves bringing in a neutral third party to facilitate communication and guide the conflicting parties toward a resolution. The mediator does not impose a solution but helps the parties explore options and reach an agreement voluntarily.

Example: When there is interpersonal conflict within a team that is affecting collaboration, a professional mediator may be brought in to facilitate a structured conversation. The mediator helps the team members express their concerns, understand each other's perspectives, and work together to find

common ground.

- iv. **Training and Education:** Training and education involve providing employees with the skills and knowledge needed to manage conflicts effectively. This proactive approach aims to prevent conflicts by fostering a culture of communication, emotional intelligence, and conflict resolution skills.

Example: An organization might conduct workshops on effective communication and conflict resolution techniques for its employees. This training equips individuals with the tools to address conflicts before they escalate and promotes a more harmonious work environment.

- v. **Change Management:** In some cases, conflicts arise due to changes in the organization, such as restructuring or new leadership. Change management techniques involve carefully planning and communicating organizational changes to minimize resistance and potential conflicts.

Example: During a merger of two companies, employees from both sides may experience conflicts due to uncertainty and changes in roles. Effective change management involves clear communication, addressing concerns, and providing support to help employees adapt smoothly.

By employing a combination of these conflict management techniques, organizations can tailor their approach to different situations and promote a positive and collaborative workplace culture. The key is to choose the technique that aligns with the specific nature and context of the conflict at hand.

4.6 TECHNIQUES, APPROACHES/MECHANISMS TO DEAL WITH CONFLICT

Conflict is an inherent aspect of organizational dynamics, and managers must recognize its presence. Addressing conflict involves employing various strategies and approaches to ensure constructive outcomes. The three main mechanisms for dealing with conflict are Conflict Management, Conflict Reduction and Conflict Resolution. These are discussed below:

(A) Conflict Encouragement:

In certain situations, managers may intentionally encourage conflict, recognizing that specific types and levels of conflict can enhance individual and group satisfaction and

performance. The key techniques for fostering constructive conflict are as follows:

- a) **Bringing in External Expertise:** Managers can introduce an outside expert or consultant to shake up established norms, stimulating constructive conflict within the organization.
- b) **Cultivating Creative Thinking:** Encouraging individuals to think creatively and innovatively is crucial for fostering a positive conflict environment.
- c) **Fostering Competition:** Creating competitive scenarios in interpersonal and group relations can channel conflict in a constructive direction.
- d) **Discouraging Avoidance:** Managers should discourage the tendency to avoid conflict, compromise excessively, or prioritize compatibility on goals. Additionally, avoiding mild acceptance of assigned roles and responsibilities is essential.
- e) **Express Criticism:** Explicitly criticizing mediocrity, low skill levels, dishonesty, lack of commitment, resource misuse, blocked communication, and poor performance helps address and resolve conflicts effectively.

By understanding and utilizing these strategies, managers can navigate conflict situations, turning them into opportunities for growth and improved organizational performance.

(B) Conflict Reduction:

In instances where conflicts escalate to disruptive levels, adversely impacting organizational performance, the focus shifts to conflict reduction. This involves minimizing conflicts and bringing them down to a tolerable level. Key techniques for conflict reduction include:

- (a) **Enhancing Coordination and Communication:** In complex and dynamic organizations, conflict reduction can be achieved by improving coordination activities and ensuring better communication flows among team members.
- (b) **Addressing Resource Allocation Disputes:** If conflicts arise from disagreements over the distribution of scarce or deficient resources, managers can reduce conflict by increasing the availability of resources.
- (c) **Aligning Goals:** When excessive conflict arises from differences in goals, managers can reduce conflict by redirecting everyone's attention to a subordinate goal. This may involve emphasizing a common objective, such as survival,

navigating a major financial crisis, or collectively defending against an external threat.

- (d) **Facilitating Compromises:** Managers play a crucial role in facilitating compromises, especially in labour-management conflicts. This approach aims to find middle ground and promote mutual understanding to reduce conflict levels.

By employing these conflict reduction strategies, managers can effectively mitigate conflicts within the organization, fostering a more harmonious and productive work environment.

(C) Conflict Resolution Strategies in Organizations

Conflict in Organization is Inevitable: Managers often find themselves grappling with conflict in organizational settings, necessitating the implementation of effective conflict resolution strategies. When faced with dysfunctional conflict situations, managers typically have two options: (a) avoidance or (b) resolution. Avoidance entails choosing to do nothing, remaining neutral, downplaying disagreements, or waiting for time to resolve conflicts naturally. On the other hand, conflict resolution involves eliminating the underlying reasons for a given conflict, and managers can employ various techniques for this purpose:

C1. Diffusion Strategy:

- (a) **Smoothing or Accommodation:** This involves playing down differences, emphasizing similarities, and promoting peaceful coexistence through recognizing common interests. While this approach maintains superficial harmony, it may not address the potential for conflict in the long run.
- (b) **Compromise:** A 'give-and-take' exchange where neither party emerges as a clear winner. It is suitable when conflicting goals or resources can be divided or exchanged. However, compromise may establish conditions for future conflicts.

C2. Power Intervention:

- (a) **Hierarchical Intervention or Forcing:** Higher-level management steps in, especially when time is crucial, and orders conflicting parties to handle the situation in a particular manner.

- (b) **Mediation or Arbitration:** Involves employing a consultant or arbitrator to hear and settle the dispute.
- (c) **Politics:** Political resolution involves redistributing power between conflicting parties, where one party accumulates enough power to influence the outcome.

C3. Organizational Interactions:

- (a) **Buffering:** Utilized when the outputs of one group are the inputs of another, involving building up inventory to absorb output fluctuations.
- (b) **Illogically Sequenced Procedures:** Changing procedures to remove unnecessary difficulties.
- (c) **Group Separation:** Reducing contact between groups prone to conflict.
- (d) **Training Programs:** Improving interpersonal relationships and socializing new members.
- (e) **Incentives:** Installing monetary and non-monetary incentives for the group as a whole.
- (f) **Communication Redesign:** Modifying communication systems to resolve conflict.
- (g) **Overlapping Memberships:** Establishing work groups with overlapping memberships.
- (h) **Liaison Groups:** Enhancing coordination through a group with formal authority to resolve conflict.
- (i) **Physical Workplace Design Changes:** Modifying the design of physical workplaces to resolve conflict, such as office space and desks.

C4. Confrontation Strategy:

- (a) **Problem Solving:** Involves formal confrontation meetings where conflicting parties present their views, work through differences, and build an atmosphere of trust and openness.
- (b) **Mutual Personnel Exchange:** Increases communication and understanding by exchanging personnel between groups.
- (c) **Superordinate Goals:** Focuses conflicting parties on common, important, or highly valued goals that supersede individual or group goals.

Implementing these conflict resolution strategies empowers managers to address conflicts effectively, fostering a more collaborative and harmonious organizational environment.

4.7 TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS AS A TOOL OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Transactional Analysis (TA) emerges as a psychoanalytic theory and therapeutic approach crafted by Eric Berne in the 1950s. At its core, TA delves into the intricate exchanges of communication between individuals, deeming these exchanges as "transactions." When engaging in conversations, the initiator provides the 'transaction stimulus,' and the responder reciprocates with the 'transaction response.' TA involves a methodical analysis of these communication processes, necessitating self-awareness regarding emotions, thoughts, and behaviors during interactions.

In the realm of TA, the human personality comprises three distinct "ego states"—complete systems of thought, feeling, and behavior influencing our interactions. These ego states—Parent, Adult, and Child—establish the framework for TA theory. Berne's inspiration draws from Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic concepts, particularly the notion that childhood experiences significantly shape adult personalities and psychological well-being.

Berne, extending Freud's ideas, posits that childhood experiences, especially parental influence, mold the development of the three ego states. Unconsciously, individuals may replay parental attitudes and behaviors in their conversations or respond to present interactions based on past childhood emotions and anxieties. Berne introduces the concept of the "life script," a pre-conscious life plan shaped by self-limiting decisions made in childhood for survival. Dysfunctional behavior, according to Berne, results from these early decisions.

The goal of transactional analysis psychotherapy is to alter the life script, steering individuals away from self-limiting patterns established in childhood. Beyond individual therapy, TA finds application in reshaping organizational and societal behavior, striving to replace violent scripting with cooperative, non-violent conduct. In essence, TA serves as a comprehensive framework for understanding and transforming human interaction, offering insights into the complex interplay of communication, emotions, and behavioral patterns.

The Ego States

Transactional Analysis (TA) postulates the existence of three distinct ego states that shape our interactions: the child ego state, the parent ego state, and the adult state. The ego state we inhabit during an interaction is influenced by factors like childhood conditioning, past

traumas, and the ego state of the person we are interacting with. Shifting from default or unconscious reactions in child or parent modes to a conscious, adult mode requires self-awareness.

- **Child State:**

- (a) **Adapted Child:** Rooted in childhood conditioning, this state responds based on past reinforcements, whether positive or negative. The adapted child conforms to others' wishes to seek approval but may display rebellion in the face of perceived conflict, leading to resistance, hostility, or emotional reactivity.

- (b) **Free Child:** This ego state is characterized by creativity, spontaneity, playfulness, and a pursuit of pleasure. It embodies the carefree and unrestrained aspects of childhood.

- **Parent State:**

- (a) **Critical/Controlling Parent:** Shaped by interactions with authority figures, especially during the first five years of life, the critical parent holds judgments and rigid beliefs. It tends to be disapproving, aggressive, and imposes 'shoulds' and 'should nots' on situations or individuals.

- (b) **Nurturing Parent:** This state takes on a rescuing role, attempting to soothe others in a nurturing manner. While well-intentioned, it can be inappropriate, especially in interactions with adults rather than children.

- **Adult State:**

The adult state differs from the other two by lacking subdivisions. Interactions from the adult state occur in the present moment, free from past conditioning or external influence. The adult state is characterized by openness, rationality, and a reluctance to make hasty judgments. Communication from the adult state tends to be respectful, open to compromise, attentive to others, and conducive to healthy social interactions.

Understanding and consciously navigating these ego states within ourselves and others is a fundamental aspect of practicing TA, fostering more constructive and aware communication.

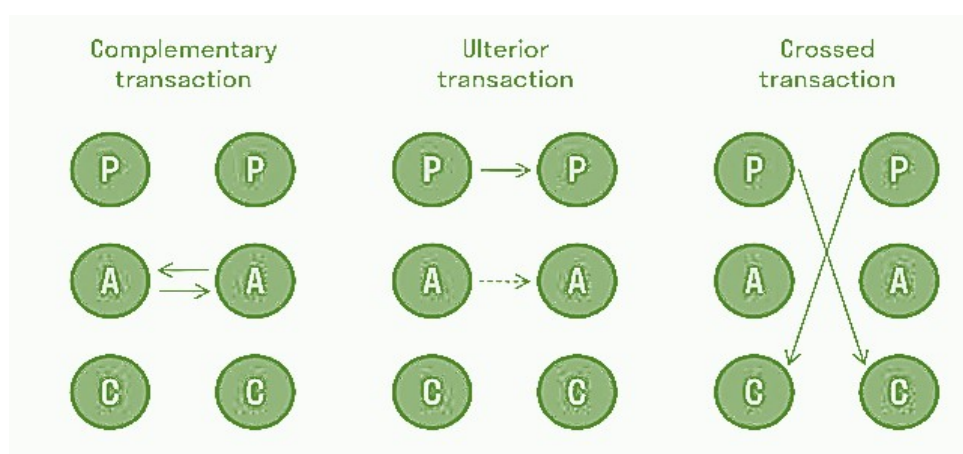
HOW DO THE EGO STATES INTERACT AND AFFECT COMMUNICATION?

The interplay of the child, parent, and adult states significantly influences how individuals

process and react to information or communication. Eric Berne noted that people require "strokes," which represent units of interpersonal recognition, for their well-being and growth. Recognizing how individuals give and receive positive and negative strokes, and actively transforming unhealthy stroking patterns, constitutes a vital aspect of transactional analysis work.

Transactional analysis posits that communication and transactions characterized by an adult-to-adult dynamic are the most effective and conducive to healthy relationships. This emphasizes the importance of engaging in interactions from a rational, present-moment perspective, free from past conditioning or external influences. Understanding and navigating these ego states contribute to fostering positive communication, building healthier relationships, and creating a supportive social environment.

The different types of transactions below explain how interactions from the different ego states interact with each other.



- i. **Complementary Transactions:** It is important to note that although the phrase ‘complementary transactions’ sounds positive, it does not necessarily mean that this type of communication is always healthy communication. A complementary transaction takes place when the lines between the ego state of the sender and that of the receiver are parallel (which can be seen in the image to the right). This means that whatever ego state that the sender is in, their communication reaches or impacts the desired ego state of the receiver, thus the receiver responds in a way that complements the sender's ego state instead of challenging it. When this complementary transaction happens from adult-to-adult state, it is thought to be the best type of communication, as it is respectful and reduces conflicts. When a

complementary transaction happens from the ego state of child and is received and responded to from the ego state of a nurturing parent, it will also help to reduce conflicts and create a degree of harmony in the interaction, however you can see why this would not necessarily be the best form of interaction in a work place environment between two adults. Or for example, in a marriage if one partner was worried about an event the other may take on a more nurturing parental state to help calm and support them, which is great, however if this is the primary mode of communication between the two then over time it would cause strain and be quite draining.

- ii. **Crossed Transactions:** Crossed transactions are when ego states of two people interacting do not match, when the ego state of the sender does not reach the desired or intended ego state of the respondent, thus they respond to the sender in a conflicting way (which can be seen by the crossed over arrows in the image to the right). In a crossed transaction it requires one or both of the people in the interaction to shift ego states for communication to be able to carry on.

An example of this would be if a customer came to you complaining of their recent purchase, using very belittling language, jumping to the conclusion that this mistake had been made purposely and told you that they were going to report you, speaking to you from their critical parent state, intending you to then reply from your child ego state, such as been very apologetic, begging them not to report you, responding with anything that strengthens their authority in the situation. However, if you were to respond from your adult or parent state instead then this would cause a crossed transaction, and someone would then have to shift their ego states to accommodate for this and so the communication can continue. TA believes that if you respond from your adult state it is more likely that the sender can then also come back into their adult state, to accommodate for the discrepancy in uncomplimentary ego states, resulting in transactions from adult to adult, which are healthier and more respectful.

- iii. **Ulterior Transactions:** Ulterior transactions are when the sender outwardly gives a message to the receiver that sounds like its coming from his adult state to the receiver's adult state. However, there is actually an underlying, subtle message given from the sender's child or parent state, with the intention of being received by

the responder's child or parent state, thus two messages are sent at the same time. This can be done consciously or unconsciously by the sender. This type of interaction is highlighted in the image showing the dashed line. An example of this would be if someone's teacher or friend said 'You can choose to study subjects that lead to becoming a doctor, however it is very hard and requires lots of intelligence'. The use of language suggests adult to adult respectful communication with a subtle warning, however they may have said it with the intent of triggering the receiver's rebellious child ego state, so they might think 'I will show you that I am also very intelligent and can become a doctor' and thus study harder.

The three different transactions in communication are not defined by verbal language and words alone, it also incorporates tone of voice, body language and facial expressions. Understanding of the transactional analysis and its application in organisational context will help in minimizing conflicts that occurred owing to communication issues among the members.

4.8 JOHARI WINDOW

It is necessary to improve self-awareness and personal development among individuals when they are in a group. The 'Johari' window model is a convenient method used to achieve this task of understanding and enhancing communication between the members in a group. American psychologists Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham developed this model in 1955. The idea was derived as the upshot of the group dynamics in University of California and was later improved by Joseph Luft. The name 'Johari' came from joining their first two names. This model is also denoted as feedback/disclosure model of self-awareness.

The Johari window model is used to enhance the individual's perception on others. This model is based on two ideas- trust can be acquired by revealing information about you to others and learning yourselves from their feedbacks. Each person is represented by the Johari model through four quadrants or window pane. Each four window panes signifies personal information, feelings, motivation and whether that information is known or unknown to oneself or others in four viewpoints.

4.8.1 THE JOHARI WINDOW MODEL

The method of conveying and accepting feedback is interpreted in this model. A Johari is represented as a common window with four panes. Two of these panes represent self and the other two represent the part unknown to self but to others. The information transfers from one pane to the other as the result of mutual trust which can be achieved through socializing and the feedback got from other members of the group.

- i. **Open/self-area or arena** – Here the information about the person his attitudes, behaviour, emotions, feelings, skills and views will be known by the person as well as by others. This is mainly the area where all the communications occur and the larger the arena becomes the more effectual and dynamic the relationship will be. ‘Feedback solicitation’ is a process which occurs by understanding and listening to the feedback from another person. Through this way the open area can be increased horizontally decreasing the blind spot. The size of the arena can also be increased downwards and thus by reducing the hidden and unknown areas through revealing one’s feelings to other person.
- ii. **Blind self or blind spot** – Information about yourselves that others know in a group but you will be unaware of it. Others may interpret yourselves differently than you expect. The blind spot is reduced for an efficient communication through seeking feedback from others.
- iii. **Hidden area or façade** – Information that is known to you but will be kept unknown from others. This can be any personal information which you feel reluctant to reveal. This includes feelings, past experiences, fears, secrets etc. we keep some of our feelings and information as private as it affects the relationships and thus the hidden area must be reduced by moving the information to the open areas.
- iv. **Unknown area** – The Information which are unaware to yourselves as well as others. This includes the information, feelings, capabilities, talents etc. This can be due to traumatic past experiences or events which can be unknown for a lifetime. The person will be unaware till he discovers his hidden qualities and capabilities or through observation of others. Open communication is also an effective way to decrease the unknown area and thus to communicate effectively.



The Johari Window Model

4.8.2 HOW TO USE JOHARI WINDOW FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION?

- a. **Remove blind spots:** We all have blind spots. It's important to set aside your own bias and understand the viewpoint from the other person's perspective. If you've taken the PeopleKeys' Introduction to Behavioral Analysis course, you'll recall the Johari Window. The Johari Window, also known as the "trust model," shows us how removing blind spots can build trust and open communication. Asking open-ended questions to get the other person talking will help reveal what they believe the issue to be and help you understand where to go from there. Conflict sometimes occurs simply because someone just wants to be heard or understood.
- b. **Keep the end goal in mind:** As a leader, you are responsible for staying in control of the situation as well as being fair in moving toward a positive outcome. Ask yourself: "What can I do to make this a win-win situation?" Make sure all issues are laid out on the table to be addressed. Keep your emotions controlled -- take a deep breath and remain calm and assertive (but not aggressive). It is just as important to actively listen to what the other person is saying as it is to talk it out. Employ good listening skills and solicit feedback to confirm you truly understand the message the other person is trying to get across. If appropriate, empathize and be sincere in both your verbal communication and body language.
- c. **Recognize and understand the other person:** Recognizing the personality style of the person in opposition will reveal some important knowledge about them which will help you stay in control of the situation

- d. **Come up with an action plan and follow through:** Look for common ground in your discussion, and regardless of whether this is a one and done situation or requires additional resolution it is important to work out a plan of action together and come up with solutions to build upon your relationship and resolve your conflict fairly. Determine a time to follow up with the other person to make sure no other issues need to be addressed. It would be great if all quarrels ended in a win-win for both parties, but unfortunately there are times when this is unlikely and either both parties walk away with a severed relationship or another means of resolution will need to be sought after.

4.9 NEGOTIATIONS

Negotiation is a process through which two or more individuals or groups seek to resolve an issue or achieve a more favorable outcome through compromise. It serves as a constructive method to reach agreements without resorting to arguments, fostering satisfaction for all involved parties.

The application of negotiation is diverse, spanning various scenarios and involving different groups. Examples include individuals negotiating prices at a market, startups engaging in business negotiations for a potential merger, or governments striving to reach a peace agreement. Negotiation is a practical skill applicable in daily life, such as in salary discussions at work or sales negotiations. Additionally, negotiation strategies prove valuable for managing conflicts and resolving disputes, extending their usefulness to personal life situations.

4.9.1 TYPES OF NEGOTIATION

Negotiations can be broadly classified into two types based on the perspectives and leadership styles of the parties involved:

- i. **Distributive Negotiation:** Also known as "hard bargaining," distributive negotiation occurs when both parties adopt extreme positions, resulting in a win-lose outcome. This approach operates on the premise of a "fixed pie," where the negotiation is viewed as a limited pool of value, and one side's success is perceived

as the other side's loss. Common examples include negotiating prices in real estate transactions or at a car dealership.

- ii. **Integrative Negotiation:** In integrative negotiation, parties reject the notion of a fixed pie and instead believe that mutual value and gains can be created by offering trade-offs and reframing the problem. The focus is on achieving a win-win solution where both sides benefit. This approach emphasizes collaboration and finding common ground to maximize outcomes for everyone involved.

4.9.2 THE NEGOTIATION PROCESS

While various negotiation tactics exist, most effective negotiations typically involve five common steps to achieve a successful outcome:

- i. **Preparation:** Often overlooked but crucial, negotiation preparation is the initial and vital stage. Research both sides of the discussion, identify potential trade-offs, determine desired and undesired outcomes, list concessions for bargaining, understand decision-making power within your organization, establish relationship goals with the other party, and prepare your BATNA ("best alternative to a negotiated agreement"). Setting ground rules, such as negotiation location, timing, participants, and time constraints, is also part of the preparation.
- ii. **Exchange of Information:** In this phase, both parties share their initial positions, allowing each side to express underlying interests and concerns without interruption. This includes articulating desired outcomes and explaining the reasoning behind their perspectives.
- iii. **Clarification:** Continuing the discussion initiated in the information exchange, the clarification step involves justifying and reinforcing claims. If disagreements arise, both parties should engage in a calm discussion to reach a mutual understanding of differing viewpoints.
- iv. **Bargain and Problem-Solve:** The core of the negotiation process, this step involves a give-and-take between both parties. Starting with initial offers, each party proposes counter-offers while managing concessions. Effective negotiators maintain emotional control, employ strong verbal communication skills (active listening, calm feedback, and body language in face-to-face negotiations), and aim for a win-win outcome.

- v. **Conclusion and Implementation:** Once an acceptable solution is reached, both parties express gratitude for the discussion, irrespective of the negotiation outcome. Successful negotiations prioritize creating and sustaining positive, long-term relationships. The parties outline expectations, ensuring effective implementation of the compromise. This step often involves a written contract and follow-up to confirm smooth implementation.

4.10 INTER GROUP BEHAVIOUR - INTER GROUP CONFLICTS

Inter-group behavior refers to the interactions, dynamics, and relationships that occur between different groups within an organization. These groups can be departments, teams, or any other distinct units that operate within the larger organizational framework. Inter-group behavior plays a crucial role in shaping the overall organizational culture, influencing productivity, and determining the success of collaborative efforts.

One significant aspect of inter-group behavior is the occurrence of inter-group conflicts. Inter-group conflicts arise when there are disagreements, tensions, or competition between two or more groups within an organization. These conflicts can stem from various sources, including differences in goals, resources, communication breakdowns, or perceived competition for recognition and rewards.

4.10.1 CAUSES OF INTER-GROUP CONFLICTS

Inter-group conflicts within organizations can arise from various causes, often rooted in differences and competition between different groups. Here are some common causes of inter-group conflicts:

- i. **Differences in Goals and Objectives:** When different groups within an organization have conflicting goals or objectives, it can lead to tensions and competition for resources and recognition.
- ii. **Resource Scarcity:** Limited resources, such as budget, personnel, or workspace, can create competition among groups. When resources are scarce, conflicts may arise over their allocation and use.

- iii. **Task Interdependence:** Interdependence between groups, where the performance of one group affects another, can lead to conflicts if there are disagreements on priorities, timelines, or methods.
- iv. **Communication Breakdown:** Poor communication channels between groups can result in misunderstandings, misinterpretations, and the escalation of conflicts. Lack of clarity can lead to resentment and frustration.
- v. **Competitive Organizational Culture:** Organizational cultures that foster internal competition rather than collaboration can contribute to inter-group conflicts. A culture that rewards individual achievements over collective success may lead to rivalry between groups.
- vi. **Perceived Inequity:** When groups perceive that they are being treated unfairly in terms of rewards, recognition, or opportunities, it can trigger conflicts. Perceived inequity may result from biased decision-making or unequal distribution of resources.
- vii. **Leadership Styles:** Different leadership styles within groups can lead to clashes. For example, if one group has an autocratic leader while another promotes participative leadership, it can create friction in decision-making processes.
- viii. **Cultural Differences:** Diverse organizational cultures within different groups, especially in large or multinational organizations, can lead to conflicts. Differences in values, communication styles, and work norms may contribute to misunderstandings.
- ix. **Role Ambiguity:** Unclear roles and responsibilities can lead to conflicts as groups may blame each other for perceived shortcomings or failures. Clarity in job roles helps reduce ambiguity and potential conflicts.
- x. **Historical Conflicts:** Past conflicts or unresolved issues between groups can resurface and perpetuate inter-group tensions. Historical animosities may affect collaboration and communication.
- xi. **Change and Uncertainty:** Organizational changes, restructuring, or uncertainties about the future can create anxiety and tensions between groups as they may perceive threats to their stability or interests.

- xii. **Lack of Team Identity:** When groups lack a shared identity or sense of belonging, it may lead to isolationist behaviors and conflicts. Building a sense of unity and shared purpose can help mitigate conflicts.

Understanding these causes allows organizations to implement proactive measures to prevent and manage inter-group conflicts. Effective communication, collaborative leadership, and fostering a culture of cooperation can contribute to resolving and preventing conflicts between different groups within the organization.

4.10.2 IMPACT OF INTER-GROUP CONFLICTS ON ORGANISATION

Inter-group conflicts can have a profound impact on organizations, influencing various aspects of organizational functioning and performance. Here are some key impacts of inter-group conflicts on an organization:

- i. **Reduced Productivity:** Inter-group conflicts can lead to a decrease in overall productivity as energy and effort that could be directed towards organizational goals are diverted into managing conflicts.
- ii. **Poor Team Collaboration:** Collaboration between different groups becomes challenging, hindering the ability of teams to work together effectively. This lack of cooperation can impede the achievement of common objectives.
- iii. **Increased Turnover:** Persistent inter-group conflicts can contribute to higher employee turnover rates. Individuals may seek alternative work environments where they perceive a more positive and less conflict-ridden atmosphere.
- iv. **Negative Organizational Culture:** Prolonged conflicts between groups can shape a negative organizational culture characterized by distrust, resentment, and a lack of cohesion. This negative culture may affect employee morale and engagement.
- v. **Ineffective Communication:** Inter-group conflicts often result in breakdowns in communication. Communication channels become strained, leading to misunderstandings, misinformation, and a lack of information sharing.
- vi. **Stress and Burnout:** Employees caught in the midst of inter-group conflicts may experience heightened stress levels and burnout. Constant tension and uncertainty can negatively impact the well-being of individuals.
- vii. **Impact on Decision-Making:** Conflicts can influence decision-making processes within the organization. Rational decision-making may be compromised, and decisions may be driven more by inter-group tensions than by organizational goals.

- viii. **Resource Wastage:** Efforts and resources that could be directed towards innovation and improvement may be wasted on managing and resolving inter-group conflicts, leading to inefficiencies.
- ix. **Customer Dissatisfaction:** External stakeholders, such as customers or clients, may be negatively impacted by inter-group conflicts. Reduced collaboration and communication can result in poor customer service and dissatisfaction.
- x. **Decreased Organizational Performance:** The overall performance of the organization can be compromised when different groups are not working cohesively. This can affect the achievement of strategic objectives and financial targets.
- xi. **Undermined Employee Engagement:** Inter-group conflicts contribute to a toxic work environment that undermines employee engagement. Employees may disengage from their work when faced with ongoing conflicts and negativity.
- xii. **Difficulty Attracting Talent:** Organizations struggling with inter-group conflicts may face challenges in attracting top talent. Potential employees may be deterred by a reputation for internal discord and a negative workplace culture.
- xiii. **Erosion of Organizational Reputation:** Persistent inter-group conflicts can damage the organization's reputation both internally and externally. A negative image may affect relationships with clients, partners, and other stakeholders.
- xiv. **Innovation and Creativity Impairment:** Inter-group conflicts can stifle creativity and innovation within the organization. A tense environment is less conducive to idea generation and collaboration, hindering the development of new initiatives.
- xv. **Legal and Regulatory Risks:** Severe inter-group conflicts may lead to legal and regulatory risks for the organization. Discrimination, harassment, or other issues arising from conflicts can result in legal challenges.

Addressing inter-group conflicts proactively through conflict resolution strategies, effective leadership, and fostering a positive organizational culture is crucial to mitigate these negative impacts and promote a healthy and productive work environment.

4.10.3 INTER-GROUP CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES

Effectively resolving inter-group conflicts requires a strategic and thoughtful approach. Organizations can employ various conflict resolution strategies to address and mitigate conflicts between different groups. Here are some key inter-group conflict resolution strategies:

- i. **Open Communication Channels:** Encourage open and transparent communication between groups. Establishing clear channels for dialogue helps in expressing concerns, sharing perspectives, and fostering understanding.
- ii. **Mediation and Facilitation:** Utilize neutral third-party mediators or facilitators to guide discussions and negotiations between conflicting groups. An unbiased mediator can help identify common ground and facilitate resolution.
- iii. **Conflict Resolution Training:** Provide conflict resolution training to employees and leaders. Equip individuals with the skills to identify, manage, and resolve conflicts constructively, promoting a culture of conflict competence.
- iv. **Collaborative Problem-Solving:** Encourage groups to engage in collaborative problem-solving. Focus on finding solutions that benefit all parties involved rather than perpetuating a win-lose mentality.
- v. **Establish Common Goals:** Identify and establish common goals that transcend individual group interests. Shared objectives can create a sense of unity and collaboration, reducing inter-group conflicts.
- vi. **Leadership Intervention:** Engage leadership at various levels to intervene and address conflicts. Leaders can provide guidance, set expectations, and model constructive conflict resolution behaviors.
- vii. **Cultural Sensitivity Training:** Conduct cultural sensitivity training to increase awareness and understanding of different groups' values, norms, and perspectives. Enhancing cultural competence can reduce misunderstandings that lead to conflicts.
- viii. **Create Cross-Functional Teams:** Foster collaboration by creating cross-functional teams composed of members from different groups. Working together on projects can break down barriers and build positive relationships.

- ix. **Establish Conflict Resolution Policies:** Develop and communicate clear conflict resolution policies within the organization. Clearly outline procedures for reporting, addressing, and resolving inter-group conflicts.
- x. **Promote Diversity and Inclusion:** Embrace diversity and inclusion initiatives to create an inclusive organizational culture. A diverse and inclusive environment promotes acceptance and reduces the likelihood of conflicts based on differences.
- xi. **Regular Team-Building Activities:** Organize regular team-building activities that bring different groups together in a relaxed and collaborative setting. Building interpersonal relationships can contribute to conflict prevention.
- xii. **Feedback Mechanisms:** Establish feedback mechanisms that allow employees to express concerns or conflicts anonymously if necessary. Encouraging feedback provides an early warning system for potential conflicts.
- xiii. **Empower Employee Representatives:** Empower employees to act as representatives or liaisons between different groups. Having designated individuals who can bridge communication gaps can facilitate conflict resolution.
- xiv. **Encourage Flexibility:** Promote flexibility in work arrangements and processes. Flexibility can accommodate different group needs and preferences, reducing friction caused by rigid structures.
- xv. **Performance Recognition:** Recognize and reward collaborative and inclusive behaviors. Positive reinforcement encourages individuals and groups to contribute positively to conflict resolution efforts.
- xvi. **Establish Conflict Resolution Committees:** Form committees or task forces dedicated to addressing inter-group conflicts. These committees can investigate issues, propose solutions, and monitor the implementation of conflict resolution strategies.
- xvii. **Continuous Monitoring and Evaluation:** Continuously monitor the organizational climate for signs of inter-group conflicts. Regularly evaluate the effectiveness of conflict resolution strategies and make adjustments as needed.

By implementing a combination of these strategies and tailoring them to the specific organizational context, leaders can contribute to a harmonious work environment, reduce inter-group conflicts, and promote a culture of collaboration and mutual respect.

4.10.4 INTER-GROUP CONFLICT AND ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLE

Inter-group conflicts within an organization can have a significant impact on its overall dynamics and functioning. Leadership plays a crucial role in managing and resolving inter-group conflicts to ensure a healthy and productive work environment. Here are key aspects of the organizational leadership role in addressing inter-group conflicts:

- i. **Conflict Prevention:** Effective leaders work proactively to prevent inter-group conflicts by fostering a positive organizational culture, promoting open communication, and addressing potential sources of tension before they escalate.
- ii. **Promoting a Collaborative Culture:** Leaders set the tone for collaboration by promoting a culture that values teamwork and cooperation. Encouraging cross-functional collaboration and breaking down silos can reduce the likelihood of inter-group conflicts.
- iii. **Conflict Resolution Skills:** Leaders need strong conflict resolution skills to address inter-group conflicts promptly and effectively. This includes the ability to listen actively, empathize with different perspectives, and guide groups toward mutually beneficial solutions.
- iv. **Creating a Shared Vision:** Leaders articulate a shared vision and common goals that unite different groups within the organization. When teams understand their collective purpose, it fosters a sense of unity and minimizes conflicts arising from divergent objectives.
- v. **Building Trust and Relationships:** Trust is fundamental to resolving conflicts. Leaders invest in building trustful relationships between groups by promoting transparency, integrity, and reliability in organizational processes and communications.
- vi. **Effective Communication:** Leaders ensure that communication channels are clear, open, and accessible. Miscommunication or lack of communication can exacerbate inter-group conflicts, and leaders play a role in facilitating effective communication.
- vii. **Mediation and Facilitation:** When conflicts arise, leaders may act as mediators or facilitators to guide discussions and negotiations between conflicting groups. Neutral leadership is essential to ensure fair and unbiased conflict resolution.

- viii. **Crisis Management:** In situations where conflicts escalate into crises, leaders must be adept at crisis management. Timely and decisive action, along with clear communication, helps in preventing further escalation and damage to the organizational climate.
- ix. **Cultural Competence:** Leaders demonstrate cultural competence by understanding and respecting the diversity within the organization. Sensitivity to cultural differences helps prevent conflicts based on misunderstandings or stereotypes.
- x. **Conflict Resolution Policies:** Leaders establish clear conflict resolution policies within the organization. These policies outline procedures for reporting conflicts, the escalation process, and mechanisms for resolution, providing a framework for addressing inter-group conflicts.
- xi. **Employee Involvement:** Leaders involve employees in the resolution process by seeking their input and feedback. Including representatives from conflicting groups in decision-making fosters a sense of ownership and commitment to the resolution.
- xii. **Training and Development:** Leaders invest in training programs to enhance conflict resolution skills among employees. These programs can include workshops on communication, negotiation, and teamwork to equip individuals with the tools to navigate conflicts constructively.
- xiii. **Performance Evaluation:** Leaders integrate conflict resolution and collaboration skills into performance evaluations. Recognizing and rewarding employees who contribute positively to conflict resolution reinforces the importance of these skills in the organizational context.
- xiv. **Learning from Conflicts:** Leaders view conflicts as opportunities for learning and improvement. After resolving conflicts, leaders analyze the root causes and implement preventive measures to avoid similar issues in the future.
- xv. **Adaptability and Flexibility:** Leaders demonstrate adaptability and flexibility in responding to changing dynamics. An ability to adjust strategies based on the nature of conflicts and evolving organizational needs is essential for effective leadership.

- xvi. **Ethical Leadership:** Ethical leadership is foundational for resolving conflicts with integrity and fairness. Leaders model ethical behavior, ensuring that conflict resolution processes align with organizational values and ethical standards.
- xvii. **Continuous Improvement:** Leadership involves a commitment to continuous improvement in conflict resolution processes. Regularly reviewing and refining strategies based on feedback and outcomes contributes to organizational resilience.

Organizational leaders play a pivotal role in managing and resolving inter-group conflicts. Their leadership style, communication skills, and commitment to fostering a collaborative culture greatly influence the organization's ability to navigate challenges, promote harmony, and achieve shared objectives. Effective leadership contributes to a positive organizational climate where conflicts are addressed constructively, and employees can thrive in a collaborative and supportive environment.

4.11 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, effective conflict management is paramount for organizational harmony, and understanding the sources, levels, and types of conflict is crucial for implementing appropriate conflict management techniques. Techniques such as transactional analysis and the Johari Window provide valuable insights into interpersonal dynamics, fostering self-awareness and improving communication within teams.

Negotiation, a key component of conflict resolution, follows a systematic process that involves preparation, information exchange, clarification, bargaining, and concluding with implementation. This strategic approach ensures that agreements are reached amicably, emphasizing win-win outcomes.

Inter-group behavior adds another layer to organizational dynamics, where conflicts may arise between different groups. Recognizing and addressing inter-group conflicts is vital for maintaining a cohesive and productive organizational environment. By implementing conflict management strategies, understanding transactional dynamics, and navigating negotiations skillfully, organizations can foster positive inter-group

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ)

Q1.1 What type of conflict arises when an individual is motivated to approach two or more positive but mutually exclusive goals?

- a. Approach-Avoidance Conflict
- b. Approach-Approach Conflict
- c. Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict
- d. Role Conflict

Q1.2 What conflict management technique involves a joint effort by conflicting parties to find a mutually beneficial solution through open communication and active listening?

- a. Compromise
- b. Collaboration
- c. Mediation
- d. Training and Education

Q1.3 How does change management contribute to conflict resolution in organizations?

- a. Imposing changes to eliminate conflicts
- b. Encouraging employees to avoid conflicts
- c. Planning and communicating organizational changes effectively
- d. Providing training only to managers for conflict resolution

Q1.4 What is a key aspect of leadership's role in preventing inter-group conflicts within an organization?

- a. Fostering a positive organizational culture
- b. Encouraging a competitive culture
- c. Reactive conflict resolution
- d. Ignoring potential sources of tension

Q1.5 In the context of conflict reduction, what technique involves redirecting everyone's attention to a subordinate goal to minimize excessive conflict arising from differences in goals?

- a. Enhancing Coordination and Communication
- b. Addressing Resource Allocation Disputes
- c. Aligning Goals
- d. Facilitating Compromises

Q1.6 Which conflict resolution strategy involves formal confrontation meetings where conflicting parties present their views, work through differences, and build an atmosphere of trust and openness?

- a. Problem Solving
- b. Buffering
- c. Smoothing or Accommodation
- d. Power Intervention

Q1.7 According to Eric Berne's Transactional Analysis (TA) theory, what are the three distinct "ego states" that form the framework for understanding human personality?

- a. Parent, Teacher, and Child
- b. Super-ego, Ego, and Id
- c. Parent, Adult, and Child
- d. Introvert, Extrovert, and Ambivert

Q1.8 The "Adapted Child" ego state in Transactional Analysis (TA) is characterized by:

- a. Creativity, spontaneity, and playfulness
- b. Conforming to seek approval, but displaying rebellion in conflict
- c. Holding judgments and rigid beliefs
- d. Attempting to soothe others in a nurturing manner

Q1.9 In distributive negotiation, what is the underlying premise regarding the value of the negotiation?

- a. Both parties can achieve a win-win outcome
- b. Mutual value and gains can be created by offering trade-offs
- c. The focus is on collaboration and finding common ground
- d. One side's success is perceived as the other side's loss

Q1.10 What is the primary purpose of establishing feedback mechanisms in inter-group conflict resolution?

- a. Encouraging flexibility in work arrangements
- b. Promoting diversity and inclusion initiatives
- c. Fostering cultural sensitivity through training
- d. Allowing employees to express concerns or conflicts anonymously

Answer Keys: 1.1-b, 1.2-b, 1.3-c, 1.4-a, 1.5c, 1.6-a, 1.7-c, 1.8-b, 1.9-d, & 1.10-d.

2. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q2.1 State the sources of organisational conflict.

Q2.2 Briefly explain the various levels of organisational conflict.

Q2.3 Define transactional analysis.

Q2.4 How do the ego states, as advocated by Transactional Analysis Theory, interact and influence communication?

Q2.5 List the causes of inter-group conflict.

3. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q3.1 Elaborate on various conflict management techniques

Q3.2 Illustrate different approaches to conflict management.

Q3.3 Explain the Johari window model for improving communication.

Q3.4 Examine the negotiation process.

Q3.5 Analyse the impact of inter-group conflict on organisations.

UNIT-V: LEADERSHIP

- Leadership – Concept, Meaning, Difference with Management;
- Approaches - Trait, Behavioural and Situational Leadership Approaches;
- Leadership Theories - Fiedler's Contingency Theory, Blake & Mouton's Leadership Grid;
- Leadership Styles, Transactional & Transformational Leadership;
- Politics – Meaning, Factors Contributing to Political Behaviour;
- Power - Meaning, Contrasting Leadership and Power

5.1 LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a process of exercising influence over an individual or a group. Effective leadership is necessary for inspiring the people to work for the accomplishment of objectives. It provides a cohesive force which holds the group intact and develops a spirit of cooperation. Chester Bernard viewed leadership as the quality of behavior of individuals whereby they guide people and their activities. A leader interprets the objectives of the

people working under him and guides them towards achievement of those objectives. He also creates and sustains enthusiasm among them for superior performance. In the words of Louis A. Allen, “A leader is one who guides and directs other people. He gives the efforts of his followers a direction and purpose by influencing their behavior”. Managers at all levels must perform leadership function in order to lead the subordinates towards organizational goals.

5.1.1 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

The importance of leadership is paramount in various aspects of organizational, societal, and personal contexts. Effective leadership contributes significantly to the success, growth, and well-being of individuals and groups. Here are key reasons highlighting the importance of leadership:

- **Guidance and Direction:** Leaders provide a clear vision and direction for the organization. They set goals, articulate strategies, and guide individuals or teams toward achieving common objectives.
- **Inspiration and Motivation:** Effective leaders inspire and motivate others to perform at their best. They foster a positive and encouraging environment, boosting morale and commitment among team members.
- **Decision-Making and Problem-Solving:** Leaders are responsible for making informed decisions and solving complex problems. Their ability to analyze situations, weigh options, and make sound choices is crucial for organizational success.
- **Team Building and Collaboration:** Leaders build cohesive and high-performing teams. They understand individual strengths, foster collaboration, and create a sense of unity that enhances overall productivity.
- **Communication:** Strong leadership involves effective communication. Leaders convey expectations, provide feedback, and ensure that information flows seamlessly within the organization. Clear communication minimizes misunderstandings and conflicts.
- **Adaptability and Change Management:** Leaders navigate their teams through change and uncertainty. They are adaptive and resilient, steering the organization toward growth and innovation in dynamic environments.

- **Accountability and Responsibility:** Leaders take accountability for their decisions and actions. They set an example of responsibility, fostering a culture of accountability throughout the organization.
- **Employee Development:** Leaders play a crucial role in the professional development of their team members. They identify strengths and weaknesses, offer guidance, and provide opportunities for skill enhancement.
- **Crisis Management:** In times of crisis, effective leaders remain calm, make strategic decisions, and lead their teams through challenges. Their ability to manage crises ensures organizational stability.
- **Ethical Leadership:** Leaders set ethical standards and serve as role models for ethical behavior. Ethical leadership builds trust, integrity, and a positive organizational culture.
- **Innovation and Creativity:** Leaders encourage a culture of innovation and creativity. They inspire employees to think outside the box, take risks, and contribute to the development of new ideas and solutions.
- **Strategic Planning:** Leaders engage in strategic planning to position the organization for long-term success. They align goals with the overall mission and develop plans that drive sustainable growth.
- **Conflict Resolution:** Leaders address conflicts and interpersonal issues within the team. They facilitate resolution, promote open communication, and create an environment where differences are managed constructively.
- **Customer Focus:** Leaders emphasize the importance of customer satisfaction. They align organizational strategies with customer needs, ensuring that products or services meet or exceed expectations.
- **Overall Organizational Performance:** Leadership has a direct impact on organizational performance. Strong leadership fosters efficiency, productivity, and a positive organizational climate, leading to overall success and achievement of objectives.

Leadership is a cornerstone for achieving goals, fostering growth, and creating a positive and impactful organizational culture. Effective leaders influence and inspire others, leaving a lasting imprint on the success and well-being of individuals and organizations alike.

5.1.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a multifaceted concept with various characteristics that contribute to effective and influential leadership. Here are some key characteristics of leadership:

- i. **Vision:** Leaders have a clear and inspiring vision for the future. They articulate a compelling picture of what can be achieved and motivate others to work towards that vision.
- ii. **Integrity:** Ethical behavior and honesty are integral to effective leadership. Leaders demonstrate integrity by adhering to ethical principles, being transparent, and maintaining consistency in their actions.
- iii. **Confidence:** Confidence instills trust and inspires followership. Leaders exhibit self-assurance, showing that they believe in their abilities and the vision they are pursuing.
- iv. **Decisiveness:** Leaders make timely and informed decisions. They are comfortable taking calculated risks and demonstrate decisiveness in the face of uncertainty.
- v. **Adaptability:** The ability to adapt to changing circumstances is crucial. Leaders embrace change, learn from setbacks, and adjust strategies to navigate evolving situations.
- vi. **Empathy:** Empathetic leaders understand and share the feelings of others. They demonstrate compassion, listen actively, and consider the well-being of their team members.
- vii. **Resilience:** Resilience enables leaders to bounce back from challenges and setbacks. They maintain composure under pressure, learn from failures, and inspire perseverance.
- viii. **Influence:** Leaders have the capacity to influence and persuade others. They use effective communication and interpersonal skills to gain support for their ideas and initiatives.
- ix. **Motivation:** Leaders motivate and inspire their team members. They understand individual and collective needs, provide encouragement, and create a positive work environment.

- x. **Accountability:** Leaders take responsibility for their actions and the outcomes of their decisions. They hold themselves and their team members accountable for achieving goals.
- xi. **Courage:** Courageous leaders take bold steps and make tough decisions, even in the face of adversity. They are not afraid to challenge the status quo or confront difficult situations.
- xii. **Humility:** Humble leaders acknowledge their limitations, seek input from others, and appreciate the contributions of their team. They create an inclusive and collaborative atmosphere.
- xiii. **Effective Communication:** Leaders communicate clearly and authentically. They convey information, expectations, and feedback in a way that fosters understanding and alignment.
- xiv. **Strategic Thinking:** Strategic leaders think critically about long-term goals and objectives. They analyze situations, anticipate future trends, and develop plans to achieve organizational success.
- xv. **Team Building:** Leaders excel in building high-performing teams. They recognize individual strengths, foster collaboration, and create an inclusive and supportive team culture.
- xvi. **Innovativeness:** Innovative leaders encourage creativity and open-mindedness. They seek new ideas, embrace innovation, and encourage a culture of continuous improvement.
- xvii. **Delegating Skills:** Effective leaders delegate tasks and responsibilities based on individual strengths. They trust their team members, provide guidance, and empower others to contribute meaningfully.
- xviii. **Consistency:** Consistent leadership builds trust and reliability. Leaders maintain consistency in their values, decisions, and actions, creating a stable and predictable environment.
- xix. **Positive Attitude:** A positive attitude is contagious and contributes to a healthy work culture. Leaders exhibit optimism, resilience, and a can-do spirit, even in challenging situations.

- xx. **Lifelong Learning:** Great leaders are committed to continuous learning and self-improvement. They stay updated on industry trends, seek feedback, and invest in their own development.

These characteristics collectively define effective leadership and contribute to the overall success of leaders in various roles and contexts.

5.2 STYLES OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership style refers to a leader's behavior. Behavioral pattern which the leader reflects in his role as a leader is often described as the style of leadership. Leadership style is the result of leader's philosophy, personality, experience, and value system. It also depends upon the types of followers and the organizational atmosphere prevailing in the enterprise.

Different types of leadership styles are:

- i. Autocratic leadership;
- ii. Participative leadership;
- iii. Free rein leadership; and
- iv. Paternalistic leadership

i. Autocratic or Authoritarian Leadership: The autocratic leader gives orders which must be obeyed by the subordinates. He determines policies for the group without consulting them and does not give detailed information about future plans, but simply tells the group what immediate steps they must take. He gives personal praise or criticism to each member on his own initiative and remains aloof from the group for the major part of the time. Thus, under this style, all decisionmaking power is centralized in the leader. Leader adopting this style stresses his prerogative to decide and order and subordinates' obligation to do what they are told to carry out. Autocratic leadership may be negative because followers are uniformed, insecure and afraid of leader's authority. Such a leader may be called the strict autocrat who realizes on negative influences and gives orders which the subordinates must accept. Leadership can be positive also because the leader may use his power to disperse rewards to his group. When his motivational style is positive, he is often called a benevolent autocrat. The benevolent autocrat is effective in getting high productivity in many situations and he can develop effective human relationships. There is another type of autocratic leader known as manipulative autocrat, who makes the subordinates feel that they are participating in decision-making process even though he has already taken the decision. An autocratic leader assumes that people

basically work for money they and want security. Because of such assumptions about human beings, he exercises tight control and supervision over his subordinates. But these assumptions do not hold good in all the situations. If the motivational style is negative, people will dislike it. Frustration, low morale and conflict develop easily in autocratic situations.

ii. Participative or Democratic Leadership: A democratic leader is one who gives instructions only after consulting the group. He sees to it that policies are worked out in group discussions and with the acceptance of the group. Participative manager decentralizes managerial authority. His decisions are not unilateral like that of the autocratic leader. Unlike an autocratic manager who controls through the authority, a participative manager exercises control mostly by using forces within the group. Some of the advantages of participative leadership are:

- It increases the acceptance of management's ideas.
- It improves the attitude of employees towards their jobs and the organization.
- It increases the cooperation between management and employees.
- It leads to reduction in the number of complaints and grievances.
- It increases the morale of the employees.

iii. Free Rein or Laissez Faire Leadership: A free rein leader does not lead, but leaves the group entirely to itself. The free rein leader avoids power. He depends largely upon the group to establish its own goals and work out its own problems. Group members work themselves and provide their own motivation. The leader completely abdicates his leadership position by giving most of the work entrusted to him to the group which he is supposed to lead. This is also known as permissive style of leadership, where there is least intervention by the leader. Abdication of authority by the leader and letting the group to operate entirely on its own are the common features of this style. This mode of direction can produce good and quick results if the subordinates are highly educated, responsible and brilliant who have a strong desire and commitment to give their best to the organization.

iv. Paternalistic Leadership: This type of leader's attitude is that of treating the relationship between the leader and his group as that of family with the leader as the head of family. He works to help, guide, protect, and keep his followers happily working together as members of a family. He provides them with good working conditions, fringe

benefits and employee services. This style has been successful, particularly in Japan because of its cultural background. It is said that employees under such leadership will work harder out of gratitude.

5.2 APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP –

Trait, behavioral, and situational leadership approaches are three distinct perspectives or theories that aim to understand and explain leadership. Each approach focuses on different aspects of leadership and offers unique insights into how leaders emerge and function in various contexts. These three approaches are discussed below:

5.2.1 TRAIT APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP THEORY

Trait theory seeks to determine universal personal characteristics of effective leaders. Numerous physical, mental, and personality traits were researched during the period from 1930 to 1950. Leaders were characterized by a wide variety of traits ranging all the way from neatness to nobility. In the late 1940s, Ralph Stogdill reported on the basis of at least fifteen studies that leaders possess intelligence, scholarship, dependability in exercising responsibilities, activity and social participation and socio-economic status. He also found traits such as sociability, persistence, initiative, knowing how to get things done, self confidence, alertness, insight, cooperativeness, popularity, adaptability and verbal facility in ten leadership studies. Persons who are leaders are presumed to display better judgment and engage themselves in social activities. The study of the lives of successful leaders reveals that they possessed many of these traits.

Trait studies have not produced clear results because they do not consider the whole leadership environment. Personal traits are only a part of the whole environment. Though a certain trait exists, it will not become active until a certain situation calls for it. Thus, there is no sure connection between traits and leadership acts. Leadership is always related to a particular situation. A person may prove successful in one situation due to some traits, but may fail in another situation.

5.2.2 BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP THEORY

Behavioral theories of leadership shift the focus from inherent traits to the actions and behaviors exhibited by leaders. These theories propose that effective leadership is not

exclusively determined by specific personal characteristics but is also shaped by observable behaviors. Among these theories, the Ohio State Leadership Studies and the Michigan Leadership Studies stand out as prominent examples.

Initiated in the late 1940s, **the Ohio State Leadership Studies** identified two pivotal dimensions of leadership behavior. First, consideration, also known as employee-centered behavior, involves leaders showing genuine concern for the well-being and needs of their followers. This includes building positive relationships, active listening, and creating a supportive work environment. Second, initiating structure, or job-centered behavior, entails leaders focusing on organizing and defining work tasks. They provide clear instructions, set expectations, and ensure a well-organized and structured work environment. According to this theory, leaders can exhibit varying degrees of consideration and initiating structure, leading to four distinct leadership styles.

Conducted around the same time, **the Michigan Leadership Studies** introduced two leadership styles. Employee-oriented leaders, akin to consideration in the Ohio State model, concentrate on building relationships, supporting subordinates, and valuing their well-being. On the other hand, production-oriented leaders, comparable to initiating structure, prioritize task accomplishment, efficiency, and organizational objectives. Both sets of studies collectively emphasize the idea that effective leaders strike a balance between consideration for individuals and attention to task accomplishment. This shift from trait-based identification to recognizing the significance of leadership behaviors in influencing outcomes underscores the contribution of behavioral theories.

In summary, behavioral theories underscore that leadership goes beyond personal characteristics, emphasizing the crucial role of actions that impact followers and tasks. Effective leaders demonstrate adaptability in their behaviors based on the specific context and the needs of their team.

5.2.2.1 LIKERT'S MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS AND LEADERSHIP

Rensis Likert and his team conducted an extensive study on leadership styles, exploring both employee-oriented and production-oriented approaches across various organizations, including business, medical, and government institutions at the University of Michigan. The study concluded that supervisors with outstanding performance records prioritize the human aspects of their subordinates' challenges and strive to build effective workgroups

with high-performance goals.

Likert developed four leadership styles or systems based on leader behavior and seven variables: motivation, communication, interaction, influence, decision-making, goal-setting, and control.

- i. **Exploitative-Authoritative Style of Leadership (System 1):** This style, akin to the task management style in Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid, aims at maximizing production while neglecting the human aspect of organizational behavior. Leaders make decisions unilaterally, communicating them down the chain of command, and maintain full control. Motivation is driven by fear, threats, and punishments, extracting minimal output from workers. Trust and confidence are lacking, leading to the formation of informal groups with goals contrary to the organization's objectives.
- ii. **Benevolent Authoritative Style (System 2):** Slightly improving upon System 1, this style maintains a focus on production but adopts a friendlier approach toward subordinates. Leaders use economic rewards and mild punitive measures for motivation. Communication still primarily flows from top to bottom, with increased interaction between managers and subordinates. Decisions are mostly made at the top, but some routine decisions involve lower-level managers. Control remains predominantly at the top, with some delegation. This system results in the formation of informal groups, but their goals are not consistently contradictory to the organization's objectives.
- iii. **Consultative Style (System 3):** An improvement over System 2, this style involves making important decisions at the top while allowing lower-level managers to handle operational decisions. Communication is bidirectional, leaders exhibit moderate trust in subordinates, and loyalty is reciprocated. Control is shared between top and lower levels. Production is relatively good, motivation comes mainly through rewards, and penalties are used occasionally. Informal groups are supportive of organizational goals.
- iv. **Participative Style (System 4):** Representing an optimum situation, this system involves extensive interaction between leaders and subordinates, with full involvement in goal-setting. Control is not concentrated at the top, and subordinates self-control their activities toward organizational goals.

Communication flows both ways, and there is a high level of trust, confidence, and loyalty. Production reaches its maximum, and motivation is driven by the active participation of workers in decision-making processes. Informal groups align their goals with formal organizational goals.

Observing that System 1 is entirely production-oriented, and System 4 is entirely employee-oriented, it is recommended for organizations to transition from System 1 to System 4 to achieve both organizational and individual goals effectively.

5.2.3 SITUATIONAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

Situational leadership approach, developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard in the late 1960s, is a leadership model that posits that effective leaders vary their leadership style based on the readiness or maturity of their followers in a given situation. The theory contends that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to leadership, and leaders should adapt their style to the specific needs and capabilities of their followers.

The core concept of situational leadership is based on the relationship between task behavior (directive) and relationship behavior (supportive). The theory identifies four primary leadership styles, each corresponding to a different combination of these behaviors:

- **Telling (S1 - High Task, Low Relationship):** In situations where followers have low readiness or maturity, leaders need to provide specific instructions and closely supervise task performance. This directive approach helps individuals who lack the necessary skills or confidence.
- **Selling (S2 - High Task, High Relationship):** As followers gain some competence but still lack confidence, leaders should employ a supportive and directive style. This involves explaining decisions, providing support, and encouraging followers to participate in the decision-making process.
- **Participating (S3 - Low Task, High Relationship):** When followers have high readiness but lack the willingness or motivation, leaders should adopt a more participative and supportive role. This includes collaborating with followers, seeking their input, and facilitating decision-making.
- **Delegating (S4 - Low Task, Low Relationship):** In situations where followers demonstrate both high readiness and motivation, leaders can take a hands-off

approach, delegating tasks and granting autonomy. This style promotes independent decision-making and self-directed behavior.

The effectiveness of situational leadership lies in the leader's ability to assess the readiness of followers and adjust their leadership style accordingly. A dynamic and flexible approach allows leaders to respond appropriately to the evolving needs of their team members, fostering development and achieving optimal performance.

5.3 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Selected leadership theories explained here are as follows:

5.3.1 FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY THEORY

Fiedler's Contingency Theory, developed by Fred Fiedler in the 1960s, is a leadership theory that suggests that effective leadership is contingent on the interaction between the leader's style and the favorability of the situation. Fiedler's model was one of the first to consider the context or situation in which leadership occurs.

Key Concepts of Fiedler's Contingency Theory:

- **Leadership Style:** Fiedler identified two primary leadership styles:
 - **Task-Oriented Leaders:** Emphasize getting the job done and are focused on achieving goals.
 - **Relationship-Oriented Leaders:** Emphasize building relationships and are concerned with the well-being of their team members.
- **Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Scale:** Measurement Tool: Fiedler proposed the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale to measure a leader's orientation. Leaders rate their least preferred co-worker on a scale from 1 to 8 based on factors such as friendliness, competence, and cooperation.
 - **High LPC vs. Low LPC:** High LPC leaders tend to be relationship-oriented, while low LPC leaders are more task-oriented.
- **Situational Favorability (or Contingency Variables):** Fiedler identified three key situational factors that determine the favorability of the situation for a leader:
 - **Leader-Member Relations:** The extent to which the leader is accepted and supported by group members.
 - **Task Structure:** The degree to which tasks are well-defined and structured.

- **Position Power:** The amount of formal authority and influence the leader has.
- **Matching Leadership Style to Situation:** Fiedler proposed that the effectiveness of a leader is contingent on the match between their leadership style and the situational favorability (Contingency Theory Mode).
 - **Three Possible Leadership Situations:**
 - **Favorable Situation:** High leader-member relations, high task structure, and high position power.
 - **Unfavorable Situation:** Low leader-member relations, low task structure, and low position power.
 - **Moderate Situation:** Falls in between favorable and unfavorable situations.
- **Implications and Criticisms:**
 - **Practical Application:** Fiedler's model suggests that organizations should select leaders based on their leadership style and the situational context in which they will be leading.
 - **Criticism:** The model has faced criticism for its simplicity and the binary categorization of leadership styles.
 - The LPC scale has been criticized for subjectivity and cultural bias.
 - Some argue that the model does not consider the dynamic and evolving nature of leadership situations.
- **Contemporary Relevance:** While Fiedler's Contingency Theory was groundbreaking, it has been less influential in recent years compared to more contemporary theories that integrate a broader range of situational factors.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory emphasizes the importance of matching leadership style to the situational context, recognizing that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to effective leadership. It remains a foundational theory in the study of leadership, but contemporary models have built upon and refined its ideas.

5.3.2 BLAKE AND MOUTON MANAGERIAL GRID

Robert R. Blake and James S. Mouton have illustrated the two dimensions of leadership, namely concern for people and concern for production, through a grid framework. The

term 'Grid' refers to an iron grating or a framework of parallel bars.

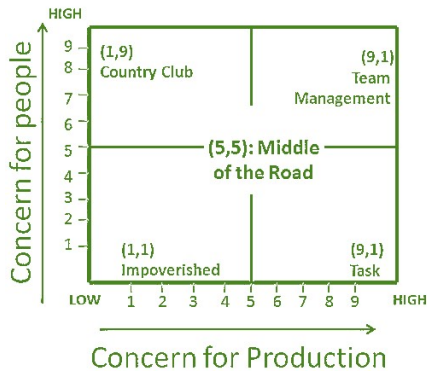


Fig. Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

In the depicted figure above, Blake and Mouton have identified five fundamental leadership styles observed in actual managerial practices, representing different combinations of the mentioned dimensions. It is crucial to note that these basic styles are a matter of convenience rather than an absolute reality. A brief description of these styles is given below.

- i. **The 9, 1 Managerial Style (Task-Oriented):** In the 9, 1 managerial style, individuals are considered tools for production, reflecting an autocratic leadership approach. This style prioritizes tasks and job requirements, minimizing human relationships and interactions. Subordinates are expected to follow orders unquestioningly, with little emphasis on their development or communication beyond issuing instructions. In conflicts between a subordinate and the boss, the goal is for the boss to prevail.
- ii. **The 1, 9 Managerial Style (Country Club):** The 1, 9 managerial style involves a more leisurely approach to work, where people are guided rather than compelled. Subordinates are motivated to complete tasks to avoid trouble, and the boss assumes a role more akin to a supportive big brother than an autocratic leader. Social relationships take precedence, and the group, rather than the individual, is considered crucial for organizational harmony. The aim is to foster friendliness and harmony among organization members.
- iii. **The 1, 1 Managerial Style (Impoverished):** In the 1, 1 managerial style, the manager exerts minimal influence on interactions with group members, expressing little concern for both production and people. This manager is likely to perform messenger and carrier functions, conveying orders from higher layers to lower

layers. Criticism is primarily in self-defense, and the manager minimizes involvement in the organization's purpose and with its people. This style reduces the need for active managerial responsibilities, leaving subordinates to find their own ways of performing tasks.

- iv. **The 5, 5 Managerial Style (Middle Road):** The 5, 5 managerial style considers both the "people" and "production" dimensions equally important in the work environment, aiming to maintain a balance between the two. This style assumes that people will willingly work if reasons are explained to them, but information is shared cautiously to prevent resistance. Adequate concern is shown for people to achieve sufficient production. This approach is evident in management development, communication, and performance reviews. Meetings are conducted to listen to suggestions, fostering a sense of participation in decision-making.
- v. **The 9, 9 Managerial Style (Team-Oriented):** The 9, 9 managerial style distinguishes itself by emphasizing goal setting as a fundamental management approach for a variety of problems. The focus is on integrating the people and production dimensions of work with a high concern for growth. The key lies in involving and engaging those responsible in planning and executing work, fostering team spirit and leading to significant organizational accomplishments.

Blake and Mouton's managerial grid outlines five distinct leadership styles, each characterized by varying degrees of concern for people and production. These styles range from autocratic task orientation to team-oriented collaboration, providing a framework for understanding leadership approaches in organizational settings.

5.3.3 TRANSACTIONAL & TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transactional and transformational leadership are two prominent models that offer distinctive approaches to organizational leadership. These frameworks provide insights into how leaders engage with their teams, motivate individuals, and navigate the complexities of achieving organizational goals. These two models are discussed below:

5.3.3.1 TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transactional leadership, often referred to as managerial leadership, is a leadership approach where the leader utilizes a system of rewards and punishments to ensure optimal

performance from their subordinates. In this style, leaders guide and motivate their followers by providing clear direction on roles and task requirements, steering them toward established goals. The emphasis is placed on the tasks assigned to subordinates and their roles in accomplishing those tasks. Transactional leaders are dedicated to organizational goals and offer rewards to those who excel in their performance. The primary focus is on achieving results, adhering to the existing organizational structure, and evaluating success based on the organization's established system of rewards and penalties. Typically holding formal authority and occupying positions of responsibility, transactional leaders play a crucial role in maintaining routine, managing individual performance, and facilitating group performance within the organization.

5.3.3.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERS:

Transactional leaders exhibit distinct characteristics that define their leadership style within an organizational setting:

- **Task-Oriented Focus:** Transactional leaders prioritize the accomplishment of specific tasks and goals. They are concerned with ensuring that their subordinates meet established performance standards.
- **Clarity in Expectations:** Clear guidelines and expectations are set by transactional leaders. They communicate role requirements and task specifications to their subordinates, leaving little room for ambiguity.
- **Use of Rewards and Punishments:** A key characteristic is the reliance on a system of rewards and punishments. Transactional leaders use incentives and consequences to motivate and control the behavior of their team members.
- **Transactional Exchanges:** This leadership style operates on a transactional basis, where leaders provide rewards (such as promotions, bonuses, or recognition) for meeting expectations and, conversely, apply corrective measures or penalties for failing to do so.
- **Conformance to Existing Structures:** Transactional leaders typically conform to the existing organizational structures, processes, and systems. They work within the established framework to achieve organizational objectives.

- **Focus on Short-Term Goals:** The orientation of transactional leadership is often towards short-term goals and immediate tasks. The emphasis is on achieving results within the current operational framework.
- **Formal Authority:** Transactional leaders hold formal positions of authority within the organization. They derive power from their designated roles and use it to maintain order and drive performance.
- **Management of Routine Operations:** These leaders excel in managing routine and day-to-day operations. They ensure that tasks are executed efficiently and that the team adheres to established procedures.
- **Transactional Leadership Style:** As the name suggests, this style revolves around transactions between leaders and followers, where compliance with directives is rewarded, and deviations are penalized.
- **Task Monitoring:** Transactional leaders actively monitor the performance of tasks and individuals. They intervene when necessary to correct deviations from established norms and expectations.

Transactional leaders are characterized by their focus on tasks, clarity in expectations, use of rewards and punishments, adherence to existing structures, and a transactional approach to leadership exchanges. Their style is effective in maintaining order and achieving short-term goals within established organizational frameworks.

5.3.3.3 ASSUMPTIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL THEORY

Transactional leadership theory is built upon several key assumptions that shape its principles and practices in organizational leadership. These assumptions provide the foundational beliefs on which the transactional leadership model is based:

- **Clarification of Roles and Tasks:** The theory assumes that organizational success is contingent upon clearly defined roles and tasks. Transactional leaders believe that by providing explicit instructions and expectations, they can guide their subordinates toward achieving specific objectives.
- **Motivation through Rewards and Punishments:** A fundamental assumption of transactional theory is that individuals are primarily motivated by external rewards and punishments. Transactional leaders use a system of incentives, such as

promotions or bonuses, to encourage desired behavior, while corrective measures or penalties deter undesirable actions.

- **Transactional Exchanges:** The theory posits that leadership is essentially a transactional exchange between leaders and followers. Leaders provide resources, support, or rewards in exchange for the compliance and performance of their subordinates. This transactional nature forms the basis of the leader-follower relationship.
- **Conformity to Existing Structures:** Transactional leadership assumes that organizations operate most effectively when members adhere to existing structures, rules, and procedures. Leaders within this model work within the established organizational framework to achieve goals.
- **Short-Term Focus:** There is an inherent assumption that transactional leadership is best suited for achieving short-term goals and maintaining day-to-day operations. The emphasis is on immediate results and the efficient functioning of the organization in the current operational context.
- **Risk Aversion:** Transactional leaders are assumed to be risk-averse and prefer stability. They rely on established procedures and practices to mitigate uncertainty and ensure a controlled work environment.
- **Hierarchical Structure:** The theory operates within a hierarchical organizational structure. It assumes that a clear chain of command, with leaders having formal authority, is essential for effective decision-making and task execution.
- **Task Monitoring and Control:** Transactional leaders assume that closely monitoring tasks and enforcing control mechanisms are necessary for achieving organizational objectives. Regular checks and interventions are part of maintaining order and productivity.
- **Transactional Leadership Style as Effective:** The theory assumes that the transactional leadership style, characterized by explicit directives, contingent rewards, and corrective actions, is effective in managing and leading teams.
- **Measurement of Success:** Success, according to transactional leadership, is measured by the degree of compliance with established norms, adherence to rules, and the achievement of predefined performance metrics.

These assumptions collectively shape the mindset and practices of transactional leaders,

guiding their approach to organizational leadership and influencing how they interact with their teams.

5.3.3.4 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transformational leadership is a style of leadership in which leaders encourage, inspire, and motivate employees to innovate and create change that will help the company grow and shape its future success.

Transformational leaders “provide individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation and possess charisma”. Charisma is “a form of interpersonal attraction that inspires support and acceptance”. A leader with charisma is more successful than a non-charismatic leader. They instil a sense of mission in followers and teach them to subordinate individual interests in the interests of organisations. They focus on organisational goals and developmental needs of followers. They develop a vision to see old problems in new ways and arise the desire to achieve group goals.

Transformational leadership is similar to captaincy of a team, where the goal is to bring out the best from every team member. It must be effective, efficient and excellent to avoid waste of human potential. It is not enough to be transformational in one’s individual actions alone.

5.3.3.5 FOUR COMPONENTS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP:

To be effective, efficient and excellent, four components of transformational leadership should be understood and developed; purpose, knowledge, authority and trust:

- **Purpose:** The transformational leader reasons and acts with organisational purposes firmly in mind. This provides focus and consistency.
- **Knowledge:** He has the knowledge to judge and act prudently. This knowledge is found throughout the organisation and its environment but must be shared by those who hold it.
- **Authority:** He not only has the power to make decisions but also recognises that all those involved and affected must have authority to contribute towards shared purposes.
- **Trust:** He inspires — and is the beneficiary of — trust throughout the organisation and its environment. Without trust and knowledge, people are afraid to exercise

authority. Transformational leaders “go beyond ordinary expectations by transmitting a sense of mission, stimulating learning experiences and inspiring new ways of thinking.”

5.3.3.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS:

Transformational leadership is characterized by a set of distinct qualities that set it apart from other leadership styles. Here are key characteristics of transformational leaders:

- **Visionary Orientation:** Transformational leaders possess a clear and compelling vision for the future. They inspire and motivate followers by articulating an overarching goal that goes beyond day-to-day operations, instilling a sense of purpose and direction.
- **Inspirational Motivation:** These leaders have the ability to inspire and motivate others to achieve beyond their expected capabilities. They communicate optimism and enthusiasm, fostering a shared commitment to the organization's goals.
- **Intellectual Stimulation:** Transformational leaders encourage creativity and innovation among their team members. They stimulate intellectual curiosity and challenge the status quo, promoting a culture of continuous learning and improvement.
- **Individualized Consideration:** A hallmark of transformational leadership is the personalized attention given to each team member. Leaders show genuine concern for the personal and professional development of individuals, recognizing their unique strengths and needs.
- **Charisma and Charm:** Transformational leaders often exhibit charismatic qualities. They have a magnetic presence, drawing others in with their charm, confidence, and ability to articulate a compelling vision.
- **Emotional Intelligence:** Effective transformational leaders are emotionally intelligent. They understand and manage their own emotions while empathizing with the feelings of others. This emotional awareness contributes to creating a positive and supportive work environment.
- **Empowerment and Delegation:** Transformational leaders empower their team members by entrusting them with responsibilities and authority. They believe in the capabilities of their followers and provide opportunities for growth and autonomy.

- **Ethical and Moral Leadership:** Integrity is a fundamental characteristic of transformational leaders. They adhere to high ethical standards, promoting honesty, fairness, and transparency in their leadership practices.
- **Adaptive and Vision Implementation:** While having a clear vision, transformational leaders are also adaptable. They can adjust strategies and approaches to navigate changing circumstances, ensuring the realization of the organizational vision.
- **Commitment to Personal Growth:** Transformational leaders are committed to their own personal growth and development. They view leadership as an ongoing journey of learning and self-improvement, setting an example for others to follow.
- **Effective Communication:** Communication is a strength of transformational leaders. They convey their vision and expectations clearly, using effective listening skills to understand the needs and concerns of their team members.
- **Resilience and Positive Outlook:** In the face of challenges, transformational leaders exhibit resilience. They maintain a positive outlook, instilling confidence in their team and demonstrating the belief that obstacles can be overcome.

These characteristics collectively contribute to the transformative impact that leaders with this style can have on individuals and organizations, fostering growth, innovation, and a positive organizational culture.

5.3.3.7 DISTINGUISH BETWEEN TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transactional leadership and transformational leadership represent distinct approaches, each with its unique focus and impact on organizational dynamics.

- **Focus:** Transactional leadership is centered on day-to-day operations and the efficient completion of tasks within the organization. Leaders following this approach establish clear expectations, relying on a system of rewards and consequences to ensure compliance. In contrast, transformational leadership directs its focus towards long-term vision, seeking to inspire and motivate followers by creating a compelling organizational direction.
- **Motivation:** Transactional leaders motivate through a structured system of rewards and punishments. Compliance with established rules is encouraged through

tangible incentives. On the other hand, transformational leaders draw motivation from a different well—they inspire and ignite personal growth by fostering a shared vision and values among team members.

- **Leadership Style:** Transactional leadership adopts a task-oriented and directive style. The emphasis is on maintaining routine operations and ensuring that predefined tasks are efficiently executed. In contrast, transformational leadership takes on an inspirational role, aiming to foster creativity and individual growth among team members.
- **Relationship:** Transactional leadership establishes a transactional and contractual relationship with team members. The focus is on meeting immediate objectives through clear agreements. In contrast, transformational leadership forges emotional and visionary connections, emphasizing shared purpose and values.
- **Adaptability:** Transactional leadership is effective in stable and routine environments where operational efficiency is paramount. On the flip side, transformational leadership thrives in dynamic and changing contexts, where a long-term perspective and adaptability are crucial.
- **Communication:** Transactional leaders prioritize clear instructions and expectations, ensuring that tasks are carried out efficiently. In contrast, transformational leadership places a premium on open communication and the cultivation of shared goals, fostering an environment of collaboration and shared understanding.
- **Time Horizon:** Transactional leadership is geared towards achieving short-term results, emphasizing immediate task completion. In contrast, transformational leadership looks beyond immediate gains, focusing on long-term organizational development and growth.

In practice, both leadership styles offer distinct advantages and are applicable in different organizational contexts. The choice between transactional and transformational leadership hinges on factors such as organizational culture, the nature of tasks, and the challenges faced by leaders and their teams. Each style brings its own set of merits to the leadership landscape, contributing to the richness and adaptability of leadership practices in diverse settings.

5.4 POWER

The concept of power in organizational behavior lacks a universally accepted definition and encompasses a diverse range of meanings. Generally, it pertains to an individual's capacity to influence another person's behavior, leading them to undertake actions they might not have otherwise. Various definitions of power highlight its multifaceted nature. Max Weber, a renowned sociologist, offered an early definition, describing power as "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance." Another perspective defines power as the capability to accomplish tasks even in the face of opposition or the skill to triumph in political conflicts and outmaneuver adversaries. According to Pfeffer, an organizational behavior theorist, power is "the ability to influence behavior, to change the course of events, to overcome resistance, and to get people to do things that they would not otherwise do."

5.4.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF POWER

Power possesses characteristics related to authority and influence, with Chester Barnard defining power as "informal authority." In the realm of modern organizational sociology, authority is often seen as "legitimate power." To gain a better understanding, it's essential to distinguish between power and authority as well as power and influence.

- **Power-Authority Distinctions:** The possession of power grants an individual the ability to manipulate or influence others. Authority, on the other hand, legitimizes power within an organization. Notably, power doesn't necessarily have to be legitimate. A distinction exists between top-down classical bureaucratic authority and Barnard's acceptance theory of authority. According to Barnard, authority is characterized by "the character of a communication (order) in a formal organization by virtue of which it is accepted by a member of the organization as governing the action he contributes." Grimes emphasizes that what legitimizes authority is the promotion of collective goals associated with group consensus.
- **Power-Influence Distinction:** Influence encompasses a broader scope than power and represents the process of affecting the potential behavior of others. Power is seen as the capacity for influence. Although authority differs from power due to its legitimacy and acceptance, the terms influence and power are often used interchangeably.

- **Political Behaviour:** One perspective posits that large organizations resemble governments, making them fundamentally political entities. Political behavior in organizations refers to activities beyond one's formal role definition. This perspective departs from the classical idealistic, rational organization. Walter Nod's four postulates of power highlight political realities in organizations. These postulates include the presence of competing coalitions within organizations, these coalitions seeking to protect their interests, the dehumanizing effect of unequal power distribution, and the exercise of power within the organization.

5.5 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR

Political behavior within organizations is a complex phenomenon influenced by a myriad of factors at both the individual and organizational levels. Understanding these factors is crucial for comprehending the dynamics of political behavior and its implications for organizational functioning.

- **Individual Factors:** Individual characteristics play a significant role in shaping political behavior. High self-monitors, individuals adept at reading social cues and conforming to social norms, exhibit a higher degree of skill in political maneuvering compared to their low self-monitoring counterparts. Furthermore, individuals with an internal locus of control, indicating a belief in their ability to control their environment, tend to be proactive in engaging in political behaviors to manipulate situations in their favor. The expectation of increased future benefits also influences the likelihood of resorting to political means, with individuals keen on avoiding losses and utilizing both legitimate and illegitimate strategies based on their assessment of future gains. The number of alternative job opportunities available to an individual also plays a role in determining the approach to political behavior.
- **Organizational Factors:** Several organizational factors contribute significantly to the prevalence and nature of political behavior within an organizational context. The availability, criticality, and scarcity of resources are directly linked to the degree of political activity. In times of declining resources or shifts in their existing distribution, political behavior tends to become more pronounced. Trust, or the lack thereof, within the organizational structure is another critical factor. Low levels of

trust contribute to higher instances of political behavior, often taking illegitimate forms. Cultural factors, including role ambiguity, ambiguous decision-making, lack of agreement on decisions, uncertain long-range strategic decisions, zero-sum reward allocation practices, democratic decision-making processes, performance evaluation systems, and the actions of self-seeking senior managers, all contribute to organizational conflicts and elevated levels of politicking. Additionally, technological complexity and a turbulent external environment are associated with increased political behavior. The occurrence of planned or unplanned organizational changes, influenced by external environmental forces, tends to serve as a catalyst for heightened political behavior among organizational members. Understanding and managing these factors is crucial for creating a more transparent and constructive organizational environment.

5.6A DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND POWER

Power is the capacity of an individual to influence or control the actions of others. Leadership, on the other hand, is the ability to inspire people to willingly follow instructions and oversee the successful completion of a project without resorting to the use of force. While traditional beliefs suggested that power stemmed from leadership, the relationship between the two is more intricate, and in many instances, power can precede leadership. Despite the interrelated nature of power and leadership, distinctions exist, causing potential confusion among those who may not fully grasp the differences.

- **Definition:** Power refers to an individual's ability to exercise control over others. Leadership involves creating a vision, motivating people to work towards that vision, coaching and building a team to execute the vision, and managing the successful delivery of the envisioned outcome.
- **Credibility:** Credibility is essential in leadership but not mandatory in power dynamics.
- **Source:** Power is often derived from a position of authority. Leadership is considered a personal attribute.
- **Nature:** Power tends to be controlling and forceful, compelling followers to adhere to commands. Leadership revolves around inspiring subordinates to accomplish tasks willingly.

- **Dependence:** Leadership necessitates power for effectiveness, but power does not inherently rely on leadership. One can possess power without being a leader. However, all effective leaders require some form of power to inspire and lead subordinates successfully.
- **Types:** Types of power include coercive, legitimate, expert, referent, and reward. Various leadership styles encompass autocratic, democratic, transformational, monarchical, and laissez-faire approaches. Understanding these distinctions is crucial for individuals navigating organizational dynamics and aspiring to foster positive influence within a group or team.

5.6B DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Leadership and management, often used interchangeably, represent distinct aspects of organizational roles and functions. While both are crucial for an organization's success, they involve different skill sets, approaches, and focuses.

- **Definition:**
 - **Leadership:** Involves inspiring and guiding a team toward a common vision and fostering positive change.
 - **Management:** Focuses on planning, organizing, and controlling resources to achieve specific objectives efficiently.
- **Nature:**
 - **Leadership:** Emphasizes influencing and motivating people, often focusing on the long-term and broader organizational goals.
 - **Management:** Concentrates on maintaining order, coordinating tasks, and ensuring day-to-day operations run smoothly.
- **Vision vs. Execution:**
 - **Leadership:** Concerned with setting a vision, aligning team members, and inspiring them to achieve shared goals.
 - **Management:** Concerned with implementing the vision, organizing resources, and ensuring tasks are completed as planned.
- **Approach to Change:**
 - **Leadership:** Drives and embraces change, encouraging innovation and adaptation.

- **Management:** Implements and oversees change, ensuring it aligns with established processes and goals.
- **Focus on People:**
 - **Leadership:** Focuses on people, their development, and building strong, motivated teams.
 - **Management:** Focuses on processes, structures, and systems, ensuring efficiency and productivity.
- **Risk-Taking:**
 - **Leadership:** Involves taking calculated risks to achieve transformative outcomes.
 - **Management:** Involves mitigating risks and ensuring stability and consistency.
- **Relationship with Subordinates:**
 - **Leadership:** Involves inspiring and influencing subordinates, often based on trust and respect.
 - **Management:** Involves coordinating and directing subordinates, often based on authority and control.
- **Long-Term vs. Short-Term:**
 - **Leadership:** Takes a long-term perspective, focusing on the organization's future and evolution.
 - **Management:** Takes a short-term perspective, focusing on immediate goals and operational efficiency.
- **Innovation:**
 - **Leadership:** Encourages and fosters innovation, pushing boundaries for continuous improvement.
 - **Management:** Ensures the effective implementation of established processes and procedures.

Understanding the nuanced differences between leadership and management is essential for individuals aspiring to excel in organizational roles, as both contribute uniquely to an organization's overall success.

5.7 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the exploration of leadership, management, politics, and power offers a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics within organizational settings. Leadership, distinguished from management, embodies the ability to inspire, guide, and create a vision that motivates individuals toward shared goals. Various approaches, such as trait, behavioral, and situational, shed light on the multifaceted nature of leadership, emphasizing the importance of context and adaptability.

Delving into leadership theories, Fiedler's Contingency Theory and Blake & Mouton's Leadership Grid exemplify the diverse frameworks guiding leadership practices. The emergence of charismatic and transformational leadership styles underscores the influential role leaders play in shaping organizational culture and inspiring positive change.

Moreover, the discussion on politics unveils the intricate web of factors contributing to political behavior in organizations. Individual factors like self-monitoring and internal locus of control, coupled with organizational aspects such as resource availability and trust, significantly influence the prevalence of political dynamics within an organizational context.

Finally, the examination of power highlights its diverse meanings and its relationship with leadership. While leadership often requires some form of power, it is crucial to distinguish the two concepts. Power, derived from authority or influence, can impact organizational behavior, emphasizing the need for individuals to comprehend and navigate these dynamics effectively.

In navigating the complex landscape of leadership, politics, and power, individuals within organizations must strive for a nuanced understanding, leveraging these concepts to foster positive organizational cultures, inspire teams, and contribute to sustained success.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ)

Q1.1 What role does ethical leadership play in organizational culture?

- a) Encouraging competitive behaviour
- b) Building trust and integrity
- c) Managing conflict
- d) Maximising customer focus

Q1.2 Why is accountability an important characteristic of effective leaders?

- a) To keep subordinate happy
- b) To shift blame to others
- c) To hold oneself and team members responsible
- d) To encourage goal achievement

Q1.3 What is the primary focus of consideration, as identified in the Ohio State Leadership Studies?

- a) Task accomplishment
- b) Employee-centered behaviour
- c) Organizing work tasks
- d) Efficiency and productivity

Q1.4 What distinguishes the Exploitative-Authoritative Style of Leadership (System 1) from other styles in Likert's framework?

- a) It focuses on maximizing production while neglecting the human aspect.
- b) It emphasizes employee-centered behaviour.
- c) It encourages extensive interaction between leaders and subordinates.
- d) It is characterized by a participative decision-making process.

Q1.5 In the situational leadership approach, when followers have high readiness but lack the willingness or motivation, which leadership style should leaders adopt?

- a) Telling
- b) Selling
- c) Participating
- d) Delegating

Q1.6 According to Fiedler's Contingency Theory, in a situation with high leader-member relations, high task structure, and high position power, the leadership situation is considered:

- a) Favourable
- b) Unfavourable
- c) Moderate
- d) Neutral

Q1.7 Which characteristic is NOT associated with transformational leadership?

- a) Visionary Orientation
- b) Micromanagement
- c) Inspirational Motivation
- d) Emotional Intelligence

Q1.8 Which is a key characteristic of transactional leadership?

- a) Emphasis on long-term goals
- b) Uses punishment
- c) Visionary
- d) Focus on routine operations

Q1.9 What distinguishes authority from power in organizational sociology?

- a) Authority is always legitimate, while power may not be.
- b) Power is based on formal roles, while authority is informal.
- c) Authority is the ability to manipulate, while power is legitimate influence.
- d) Power and authority are interchangeable terms.

Q1.10 Which of the following characteristics is more emphasized in leadership roles than in management roles?

- a) Day-to-day operational efficiency
- b) Mitigating risks
- c) Focusing on people and team development
- d) Implementing established processes

Answer Keys: 1.1-B, 1.2-C, 1.3-B, 1.4-A, 1.5C, 1.6-A, 1.7-B, 1.8-D, 1.9-A, & 1.10-C.

2. SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q2.1 Define leadership.

Q2.2 Provide a brief overview of the Participative Leadership style.

Q2.3 Explain the foundational premise of Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership.

Q2.4 Outline the key assumptions of transactional leadership theory

Q2.5 Enumerate the factors that contribute to political behaviour within organizations.

3. LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

Q3.1 Analyse the advantages and situations conducive to applying autocratic and free rein leadership styles.

Q3.2 Evaluate the Blake & Mouton's Leadership Grid.

Q3.3 Examine the trait approach to leadership.

Q3.4 Distinguish between transactional and transformational leadership.

Q3.5 Explain the distinctions between power and leadership.



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