

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR



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DIRECTOR

SYLLABUS

- Unit-1 The Study of Organizational Behaviour:** Focus and Purpose, Nature, Scope and Development, OB Models and Models of Man.
- Unit-2 Personality:** Determinants of Personality, Theories of Personality, Individual Difference, Matching Personality and Jobs, Personality and Organization, Perception: Meaning, Perceptual process, perception and O B
- Unit-3 Learning and Behaviour Modification:** Learning process, Theories of Learning, Attitude - Characteristics and Components of Attitude, Attitude and Behaviour, Attitude Formation, Measurement of Attitude, Attitude and Productivity
- Unit-4 Motivation:** Nature of Motivation, Motivation Process, Theories of motivation; Need Priority Theory, Theory X and Theory Y, Two Factor Theory, E R G Model, Limitations and Criticisms of Motivation Theories.
- Unit-5 Leadership:** Importance, Functions, Style, Theories of Leadership, Types. Communication: Importance of communication, communication Process, Barriers to Communication, Steps for improving Communication, Transactional Analysis.

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1 THE STUDY OF Chapter ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

1.0 Learning Objectives:

After completing this chapter you will be able to

- Define Organisational Behaviour.
- Identify the function and principle of organisational behaviour .
- Discuss various models of man, self-actualisation man and complex man.
- Understand the need for study of organisational behaviour.
- Synchronise various factors responsible for increase in diversity of human resources.
- Analyse the contribution of various discipline to organisational behaviour
- Understand the model of organisational behaviour.

Structure

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

An organisation is generally regarded as group of individuals contributing their efforts towards common goal. It is a mechanism which helps the activities to be performed effectively. The organisation is established for the purpose of achieving business objectives those may differ from business to business. But for every business an organisation is a must. In the organisation, individuals and groups behave in diverse ways .Such behaviour is influenced by a wide range of factors which in turn influences the functioning of the organisation. Thus the study and

analysis of human behaviour in organisations has been termed as a separate discipline called as “Organisational Behaviour”. It is a growing discipline, interdisciplinary in nature which draws the combined talents of psychologists, sociologists and anthropologists, who are termed as behavioural scientists..

Human being may be physically alike but not behaviourally. The same person behaves differently in different situations due to the influence of various factors. The important among them include: various models of Man *i.e.*, Economic Man, Social Man, Organisational Man, self-actualising-Man, Complex Man, Impulsive Man. As such human behaviour is presented in fig. 1.1.

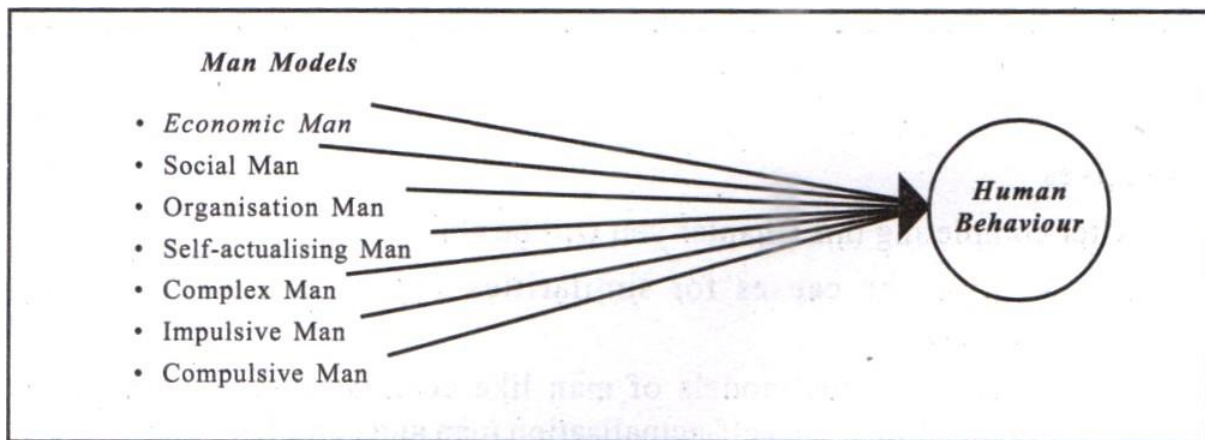


Fig. 1.1: Study of Human Behaviour

1.2 DEFINITIONS OF OB

There are various definitions of organisational behaviour. Some important of them are:

- John W. Newstrom and Keith Davis define the term organisational behaviour as, “the study and application of knowledge about how people as individuals and as groups- act within organisational. It strives to identify ways in which people can act more effectively.”

This definition deals with the behaviour of the people within organisations acting as individual and as groups. It also deals with diverting the human behaviour towards organisational requirements.

- Stephen P. Robbins defines organisational behaviour as “a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structures have on behaviour within organisations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organisation`s effectiveness.”

This definition deals with the development of knowledge regarding the behaviour caused by individuals, group and structures in an organization. It also deals with utilization of such knowledge for enhancing organizational effectiveness.

- Steven L. Mc Shane and Mary Ann Von Glinow define organizational behavior as "the study of people what people think, feel and do in and around organization." The authors view that organizational behaviour included the study of the impact of individual, team and structural characteristics on behaviour in organizations and understanding and predicting the impact of these behaviours on organizational success.

- Fred Luthans defines organizational behaviour as " the understanding, prediction and management of human behaviour in organizations."

This definition seems to be simple and compressive. But further analysis is necessary to understand it thoroughly.

- Organizational behaviour can be defined as studying, predicting and managing human behaviour caused by individuals, groups and structures towards the requirements of organizational strategies.

Analysis of these definitions indicates the following features of organizational behaviour.

Features of organizational Behaviour

- Human behaviour is caused by individuals, groups and structures of the organizations. For example, the tall structures make the individuals to be rule minded and behave mechanically. The flat structures make the individual to be innovative, creative, challenging and committed.
- Human behaviour can be studied, predicted and managed. This can be done to some extent but not completely as required or anticipated.
- Understand the organizational strategies, type of human behaviour necessary for their implementation to the maximum extent.
 - The purpose of organizational behaviour is to enhance organisational efficiency and effectiveness.
 - Organisational behaviour is a multidisciplinary subject i.e. various disciplines contributed to OB.
 - OB is the study of human behaviour in organisation.

- OB is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within the organisation.
- OB is directly concerned with understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour in the organisation.

1.3 FOCUS AND PURPOSE The study of OB helps the organisation in many respects as follows:

- i) It explains about the prediction of behaviour of an individual.
- ii) It explains the interpersonal relationship.
- iii) It helps in marketing.
- iv) It helps in maintaining cordial relationship in the organisation.
- v) It helps the manager to motivate his/her subordinates.
- vi) It tries to understand the reasons for individual differences and use these differences for the benefits of the organisation by adopting suitable methods of motivation, training, etc..
- vii) It helps in framing new economic policy of the country.

1.4 NATURE

Organizational behaviour has emerged as a separate field of study. The nature it has acquired is identified as follows :

1. A Separate Field of Study and not a Discipline Only

By definition, a discipline is an accepted science that is based on a theoretical foundation. But, O.B. has a multi-interdisciplinary orientation and is, thus, not based on a specific theoretical background. Therefore, it is better reasonable to call O.B. a separate field of study rather than a discipline only.

2. An Interdisciplinary Approach

Organizational behaviour is essentially an interdisciplinary approach to study human behaviour at work. It tries to integrate the relevant knowledge drawn from related disciplines like psychology, sociology and anthropology to make them applicable for studying and analysing organizational behaviour.

3. An Applied Science

The very nature of O.B. is applied. What O.B. basically does is the application of various researches to solve the organizational problems related to human behaviour. The basic line of difference between pure science and O.B. is that while the former

concentrates of fundamental researches, the latter concentrates on applied researches. O.B. involves both applied research and its application in organizational analysis. Hence, O.B. can be called both science as well as art.

4. A Normative Science

Organizational Behaviour is a normative science also. While the positive science discusses only cause effect relationship, O.B. prescribes how the findings of applied researches can be applied to socially accept organizational goals. Thus, O.B. deals with what is accepted by individuals and society engaged in an organization. Yes, it is not that O.B. is not normative at all. In fact, O.B. is normative as well that is well underscored by the proliferation of management theories.

5. A Humanistic and Optimistic Approach

Organizational Behaviour applies humanistic approach towards people working in the organization. It, deals with the thinking and feeling of human beings. O.B. is based on the belief that people have an innate desire to be independent, creative and productive. It also realizes that people working in the organization can and will actualize these potentials if they are given proper conditions and environment. Environment affects performance or workers working in an organization.

6. A Total System Approach

The system approach is one that integrates all the variables, affecting organizational functioning. The systems approach has been developed by the behavioural scientists to analyse human behaviour in view of his/her socio-psychological framework. Man's socio-psychological framework makes man a complex one and the systems approach tries to study his/her complexity and find solution to it.

.7. OB studies Similarities in Individuals

People are also similar as well as dissimilar in, likes, dislikes, professions or occupations, interests etc. There are scientists, engineers, technical experts, management expert, politicians, business people etc. We find some people with similar physical, psychological, social abilities and religious beliefs within the broader limits. In other words individuals may not be identically equal to one another but differ from one another within certain limits.

According to the studies of Sir Francis Galton individuals are similar with each other within certain limits to the extent of genetic inheritance in human-beings. We find people with similar physical characteristics like height, weight, body structure, facial design etc. A normal distribution curve is obtained when the scores of the

physical and psychological attributes are plotted (See Fig.1.2.) It is clear that majority of the people have an average attributes (35% plus 35%=70%). Thus, majority of the people are with similar attributes and characteristics. There would be similar attributes even among the people with above average scores.

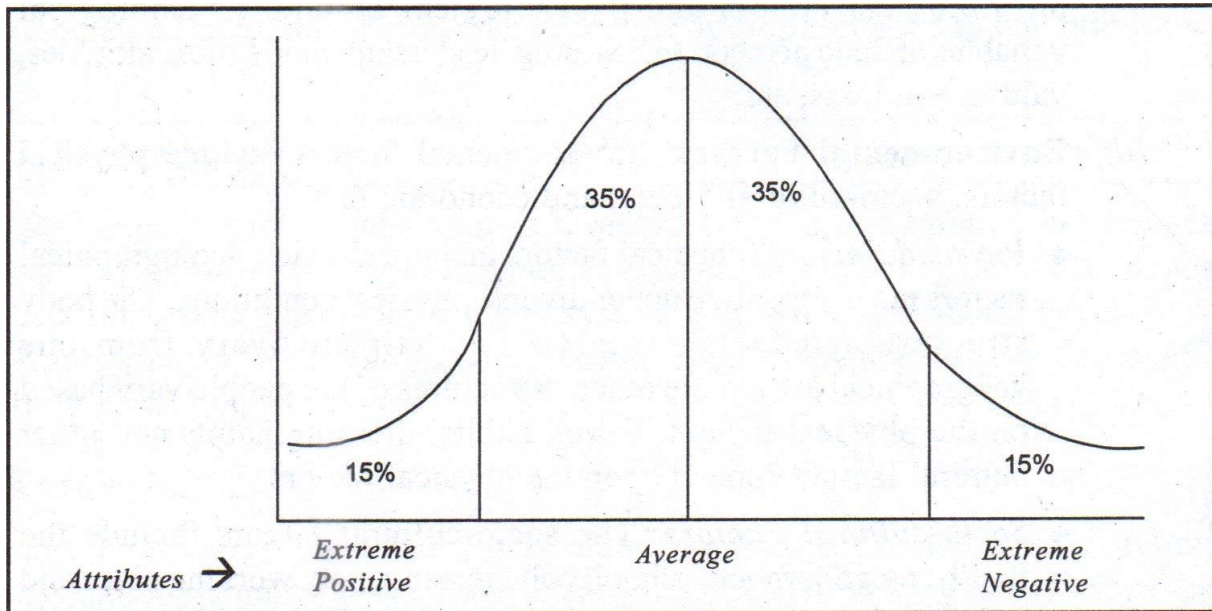
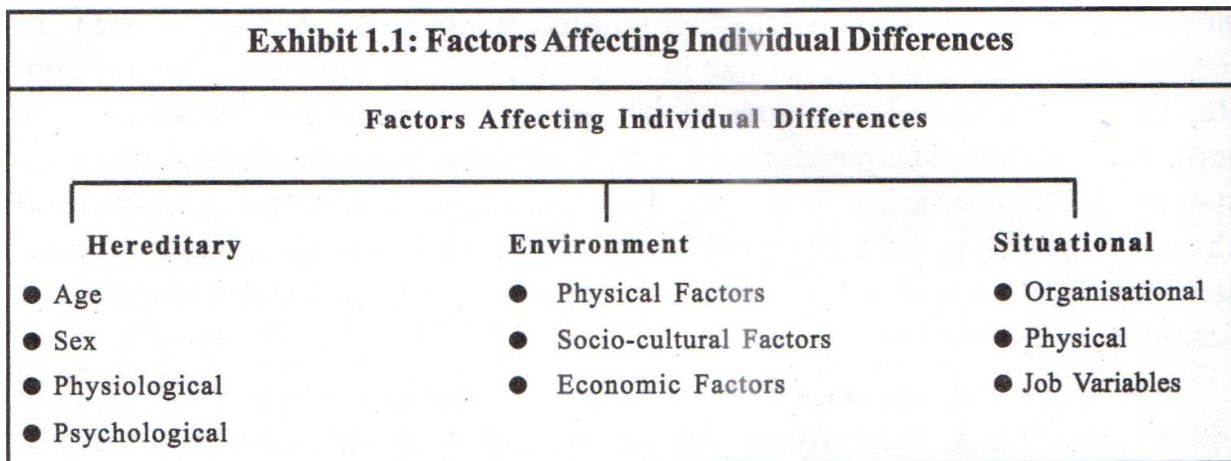


Fig. 1.2: Distribution of Attributes in People in General

8.OB studies Individual Differences

Individuals differ from one to another within the broad spectrum. The factors that influence individual differences are classified into three categories. Individual behavior is a complex phenomenon. We should understand the total human being by studying the total man concept. Now, we shall discuss the factors of individual differences. (See the Exhibit 1.1)



From the above discussion it is clear that OB is not a discipline in itself. It draws concepts and principles from other behavioural sciences, which help in directing human behaviour in the organization.

Information technology, globalization, diversity and ethics serve as important dimensions for organizational behaviour but the people are the key factor. The technology can be purchased and copied but the people cannot be. Interestingly, whereas the technology changes dramatically, sometimes monthly or even weekly, the human side of enterprise has not and will not change that fast..

1.5 SCOPE OF OB

The subject matter of OB consists of three concepts i.e.

- i) Intra individual behaviour
- ii) Inter individual behaviour
- iii) Group behaviour

Let us explain these concepts:-

- i) Intra individual behaviour

This behaviour indicates the behaviour within the individual, which includes different aspects (PPLAMJE):

- Perception
- Personality
- Learning
- Attitude
- Motivation
- Job satisfaction
- Emotion

- ii) Inter individual behaviour

The inter individual behaviour relates to the behaviour between two individuals which includes:

- Group Dynamic
- Team Work
- Communication

- Leadership
- Intergroup Conflict
- Transactional Analysis

iii) Group behaviour

Group behaviour gives due importance towards the attitude of manager when he/she is in the group. It includes:

- Formation of organisation
- Structure of organisation
- Effectiveness of organisation

The three internal organizational elements viz., people, technology and structure and the fourth element, i.e., external social systems may be taken as the scope of O.B.

1. People

The people constitute the internal social system of the organization. They consist of individuals and groups. Groups may be large or small, formal or informal, official or unofficial. They are dynamic. They form, change and disband. Human organization changes everyday. Today, it is not the same as it was yesterday. It may change further in the coming days. People are living, thinking and feeling being who created the organization and try to achieve the objectives and goals. Thus, organizations exist to serve the people and not the people exist to serve the organization.

2. Structure

Structure defines the sole relationship of people in an organization. Different people in an organization are given different roles and they have certain relationship with others. It leads to division of labour so that people can perform their duties or work to accomplish the organizational goal. Thus, everybody cannot be an accountant or a clerk. Work is complex and different duties are to be performed by different people. Some may be accountant, others may be managers, clerks, peons or workers. All are so related to each other to accomplish the goal in a co-ordinated manner. Thus, structure relates to power and duties. One has the authority and others have a duty to obey him.

3. Technology

Technology imparts the physical and economic conditions within which people work. With their bare hands people can do nothing so they are given assistance of buildings, machines, tools, processes and resources. The nature of technology depends very much on the nature of the organization and influences the work or working conditions. Thus, technology brings effectiveness and at the same restricts people in various ways.

4. Social System

Social system provides external environment which the organization operates. A single organization cannot exist also. It is a part of the whole. One organization cannot give everything and therefore, there are many other organizations. All these organizations influence each other. It influences the attitudes of people, their working conditions and above all provides competition for resources and power.

O.B. is the study of human behaviour at work in organizations. Accordingly, the scope of O.B. includes the study of individuals, groups and organization/structure. Let us briefly reflect on what aspects each of these three cover.

Individuals

Organizations are the associations of individuals. Individuals differ in many respects. The study of individuals, therefore, includes aspects such as personality, perception, attitudes, values, job satisfaction, learning and motivation.

Groups of Individuals

Groups include aspects such as group dynamics, group conflicts, communication, leadership, power and politics and the like.

-

Intergroup Organisational behaviour is a multidiscipline and applied behavioural science. OB is derived from and built upon a number of behavioural disciplines. The important among them are: Psychology, Sociology, Social Psychology, Anthropology, Political Science , Technology, Management and Economics

Psychology

Psychology contributes maximum inputs to organisational behaviour. Psychology studies predict and manage the behaviour of human beings and animals. The psychological concepts relevant to organisational behaviour include;

- Perception
- Personality
- Motivation
- Leading
- Job satisfaction
- Emotion
- Leadership
- Values
- Attitude

Psychology helps to understand individual behaviour and interpersonal behaviour.

Sociology

Sociology also made significant contributions to organisational behaviour.

Sociology studies the human beings in group. The contribution of sociology to organisational behaviour includes:

- Group Dynamic
- Team Work
- Communication
- Power and politics
- Organisation theory
- Organisation Design
- Organisation Change
- Intergroup conflict and behaviour

Social Psychology

Social psychology is the blend of psychology and certain sociology concepts.

Contribution of social psychology to organisational behaviour include

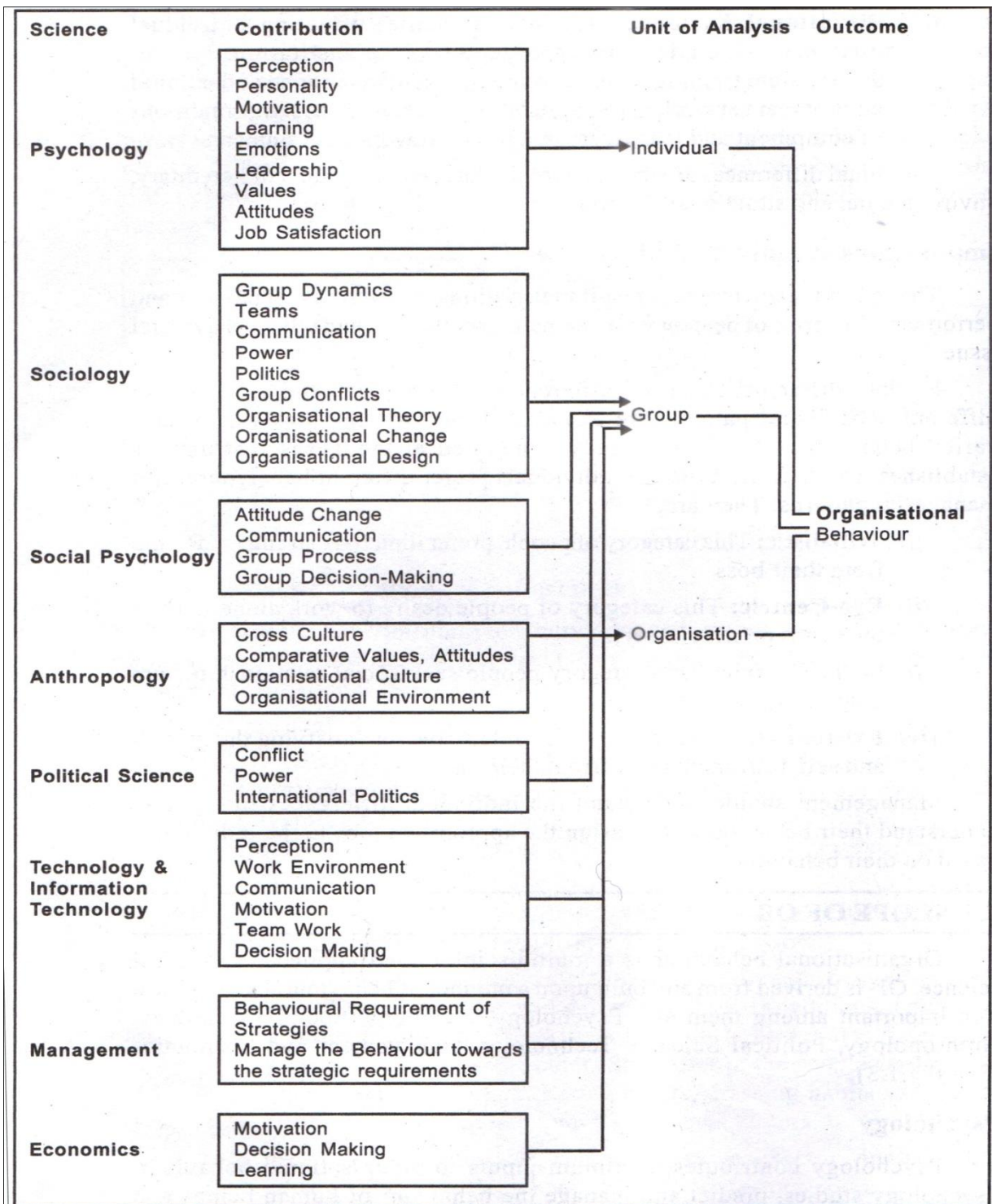
- Attitude Change
- Group Process
- Communication

- Group decision-making

Anthropology

Anthropology studies the societies in order to understand the human beings and their activeness. The contribution of Anthropology to organisational behaviour includes:

- Cross culture
- Comparative attitude
- Organisational Environment
- Comparative values
- Organisational culture



Political Science

Political science studies predict and manage the behaviour of individuals and group in the political environment. The contributions of political science to organisational behaviour include:

- Structuring Conflict
- Political behaviour
- Allocation of power

Technology

Technology is application of knowledge. Technology influences the human behaviour directly and significantly by influencing job design, relation between employees, machinery, organisational structure, working style of employees etc.. The contribution of technology to organisational behaviour includes:

- Perception
- Communication
- Work environment
- Team work

Information technology still makes phenomenal contributions to organisational behaviour. They include:

- Team Dynamic
- Communication
- Decision-making
- Knowledge management

Management

Management is getting things done by the people. In other words, people are directed and motivated to get the things done. Thus management contributes to organisational behaviour in building decision making models. Communication patterns, leadership styles etc. Management contributions to OB include.

- Decision-Making
- Leadership
- Motivation
- Predict the behavioural requirements of organisational strategies and
- Manage the behaviour towards the strategic requirements.

Economics

Economics is the science which studies human behaviour as a relationship between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses. The contribution of economics to OB includes:

- Motivation
- Learning
- Decision-making

Thus, various disciplines contribute to the development of organisational behaviour as a multi-discipline.

1.6 DEVELOPMENT OF OB

The field of O.B. has developed from the studies conducted by behavioural scientists such as industrial psychologists, psychologists and sociologists. The focus of these studies lies in the understanding of the human behaviour in the organisations. The levels at which these studies have been carried out relate to individuals, the small group, the inter-group and the total organization as a socio - economic - technical system. Some studies have also examined the interaction of the organization with its environment. The discipline of OB is based on empirical studies of human behaviour at the work settings. On the other hand human relations is the study of behavioural knowledge in working to develop human motivation towards the attainment of organizational goals. Human relations is action oriented and goal directed approach.

According to Keith Davis the difference between the two is that of between a pathologist and the physician. While the pathologist attempts to understand human illness, the physician tends to employ that knowledge to gain results. Thus O.B. and human relations are complimentary to each other.

Behavioural scientists are focusing their attention on organizational theory, especially organizational adaptability, the relationship of organization structure to human behaviour and decision making. The study of managerial behaviour includes not only the tasks of getting things done through others but also why and how an individual behaves as he does. The specific questions which form the subject matter of O.B. are related to individual, interpersonal, small group and intergroup behaviour,

interaction of formal organization and the informal groups and organization as a system, etc.

The predecessors of O.B. are:

- a. Industrial psychology
- b. Scientific management movement
- c. Human relations movement.

a) Industrial psychology:

Psychology is the “science of human (and also animal) behaviour because it collects facts about behaviour by utilizing methods of science”. Industrial psychology is simply the application or extension of psychological facts and principles concerning human beings operating within the context of business and industry. Industrial psychology draws upon the facts, generalizations and principles of psychology. It uses the methods from the parent discipline. Because it applies the techniques of psychology to the industrial scene and the problems confronting it, industrial psychology formulates and modifies procedures to meet the conditions found in the industry rather than in the laboratory.

Among the early names is that of Walter Dill Scot who opened up the beginning of industrial psychology in America by showing how psychology could be applied to advertising and selling. Edward K Strong Jr. branched industrial psychology into guidance on vocational interests. Hugo Munsteberg with this his researches into industrial accidents and his book “ psychology and Industrial Efficiency”, published in 1913, put industrial psychology in to the study of the worker.

During World War I psychologists were quite active in the war effort, developing group tests for army recruits and aiding in the development of procedures for the selection of officer personnel. In fact, many of the post-war developmental areas of industrial psychology such as group testing, trade testing, rating scales, and the personality inventory had their roots in the activities of psychologists in the World War I efforts. During the post world war I era industry first began to show an interest in the discipline of industrial psychology. Certain firms such as Proctor & Gamble, the Philadelphia Company and the Hawthorn plant of Western Electric Co. formed

their own personnel research programs. In fact, it was at the Hawthorne Western Electric Plant that the famous Hawthorne studies were begun in 1924. These studies provided the foundation and impetus for the expansion of Industrial Psychology beyond the realm of selection, placement and working conditions into the study of motivation and morale and human relations. The depression itself had considerable effect on the development of industrial psychology.

While it may have slowed growth in some directions, it nevertheless opened many additional areas for study. After the depression the importance of employee attitudes began to be recognized; consequently much development since that time has been in this area. World War II was also a major factor in the growth of psychology in industry. Although American Association for Applied Psychology was formed in 1937 as the official organization of industrial psychology, it was the huge psychological contribution to the war effort that proved to industry and others alike that applied psychology had important contributions to offer. Alongside also developed were various training programs of specialized types, and job analysis and performance appraisal techniques.

b) Scientific management movement:

Frederick W Taylor with his ideas, he called “scientific management”, created the interest in the worker and the supervisor. It was he who advocated parity of wages—the internal as well as external parity. It was he who developed various wage payment plans. It was he who insisted on supervisory training in order to make supervisor a strong link between nonmanagement and the management group. F. W. Taylor also recognized the need for giving financial incentives to the workers and therefore developed incentive payments plans too. The changes he brought to the management thought paved the way for later development of O.B.

c) Human relations movement:

According to Fred Luthans three events cumulatively ushered in the era of human relations movement.

They are

- a. the great depression
- b. the Hawthorne experiments
- c. Rise of trade unionism.

The great depression:

The economy was operating in the high gear just before the thundering financial crash occurred in 1929. The production and organizational specialists had achieved great results prior to the crash. After the crash the management began to realize that production could no longer be the only major responsibility of management.

Marketing, finance and more importantly personnel were also required in order for a business to survive and grow. The depression's aftermath of unemployment, discontent and insecurity brought to the surface the human problems that managers were now forced to recognize and cope with. Personnel departments were either created or given more importance and most managers now began to develop a new awakened view of the human aspects of their jobs. Thus human relations took an added significance, as an indirect, and in some cases direct.

The rise of trade unionism:

Another important factor contributing to the rise of human relations' role of management was the organized labour movement. Although labour unions were in existence in America as early as 1792, it was not until the passage of Wagner Act in 1935 that the organized labour movement made an impact on management.

In India, though workers' unions existed since the later half of the 19th century, they operated under terrible legal constraints. It was only in 1926 with the passage of Trade Union Act 1926 that the managers began realizing that the trade unions had come to stay in spite of the wishes of the managers or for that matter management. The only way to avoid any probable friction with the trade union was to understand the human relations role of the management.

A number of management pioneers like Robert Owen, Charles Babbage, Henry Robinson Towne, F.W. Taylor, Henry L. Gantt, Frank B. Gilbreth, Lillian M. Gilbreth, Henry Fayol, Max Weber, Mary Parker Follett, Chester I. Barnard recognised the behavioural side of management. However, Hawthorne studies made the significant impact on organisational behaviour.

Hawthorne experiments: - From 1924 to 1933:

Western Electric Co. conducted at its Hawthorne Works a research program or a series of experiments on the factors in the work situations which affect the morale and productive efficiency of workers. The first of these, the “Illumination Experiments”, was studied in cooperation with the National Research Council of the National Academy of Sciences. In the remainder of the studies, the company was aided and guided by the suggestions of Prof. Elton Mayo and his associates from Harvard University. Because of the large part that Harvard played in the project it is often referred to as the Hawthorne-Harvard Experiments or studies.

As Blum and Naylor in their treatise “Industrial Psychology” observed, “the Hawthorne studies are of utmost significance as they form an honest and concerted attempt to understand the human factor rarely understood in industry, recognizing the employee attitudes, his social situation on the job and his personal history and background”. The Hawthorne studies represent the pioneer attempts to make a systematic and intensive study of the human factor and to demonstrate the utmost complexity in work setting where people interact in small groups under varied organizational conditions. The studies point out that the needs for recognition, security and sense of belonging exert greater impact on workers’ productivity than the physical working conditions; that the attitudes and effectiveness of workers are determined by the social requirements obtained inside and outside the factory environment.

The Hawthorne works of the Western Electric Co., Chicago, manufactured equipment for the Bell Telephone system and employed 30,000 workers at the time of experiments. Although, in all material aspects, this was the most progressive company with pension and sickness schemes and numerous recreational and other facilities, there had been a great deal of employee discontent and dissatisfaction among its employees. After a failure of investigation conducted by efficiency experts of the company, in 1924, the company asked for the assistance of the National Academy of Sciences, which initiated its experiments with a view to examining the relationship between the workers efficiency and illumination in the workshop. Like

any experimental design the researchers manipulated the independent variable (illumination) to observe its effects on the dependent variable (productivity) and attempted to hold other factors under control. The following are the broad segments of the study:

Illumination Experiments: 1924 to 1927

To study the effects of changed illuminations on work, two groups of employees were formed. In one group (control group) the illumination remained unchanged throughout the experiments whereas in other group (experimental group) the illumination was enhanced in intensity. As anticipated, the productivity in experimental group showed an improvement. But, strangely enough the output of the control group also went up. The researchers then proceeded to decrease the illumination for the experimental group. The output went up once more. This showed that some factor was operating which increased productivity (dependent variable) regardless of higher or lower intensity of light. Obviously, there was something much more important than wages, hours of work, working conditions, etc. which influenced productivity. Despite their negative results the illumination experiments did not end up in the waste paper basket but provided a momentum to the relay room phase of the studies.

Relay Room Experiments: 1927 to 1932

The relay room experiments that were initiated in 1927 represent the actual beginning of the Hawthorne studies conducted by Elton Mayo and his Harvard colleagues. Taking a cue from the preceding illumination experiments the researchers attempted to set up the test room and selected two girls for the experiments. These girls were asked to choose other four girls, thus making a small group of six. The group was employed in assembling telephone relays. Throughout the series of experiments that lasted over a period of five years, an active observer was sitting with the girls in the workshop. He recorded all that went on in the room, kept the girls informed about the experiments, asked for advice and listened to their complaints. The experiment started by introducing numerous changes each of which continued for a test period ranging from four to twelve weeks. Under normal working

conditions with a forty-eight hour week and no rest pauses, each girl produced 2400 relays a week. These girls were then placed on piecework basis for eight weeks and productivity increased.

Next, two five minutes rest pauses were introduced and afterwards increased to ten minutes; productivity increased sharply. After this six five-minute breaks were introduced, there was a slight fall in the productivity as the girls complained that their work rhythm was broken because of these breaks. Therefore, again two five-minute pauses were introduced. The company provided a hot meal free of charge, the productivity increased.

The girls dispersed at four thirty instead of five p.m. and productivity increased. Subsequently, they were allowed to disperse at four p.m. and productivity still remained the same. After that all the amenities were withdrawn and the girls returned to their normal working conditions with a forty eight-week, including Saturdays, no rest breaks, no piecework and no free meals. This remained for a period of twelve weeks and the productivity was the highest ever achieved.

These results imply that productivity increased basically because of a change in the girls' attitudes towards their work and their work groups. They were made to feel important by soliciting assistance and cooperation. They were no longer cogs in a machine but formed congenial group attempting to assist the company to solve a problem. A feeling of stability and a sense of belonging grew. Therefore, they worked faster and better than before. Medical examination conducted regularly revealed no symptoms of cumulative fatigue. Absenteeism also decreased by eighty percent. It was also observed that girls employed their own techniques of assembling the parts of relays together to avoid monotony. The girls were also given freedom of movement. Under the circumstances the group developed a sense of responsibility and self-discipline. It was concluded that the independent variables i.e. rest etc. were not by themselves causing the variations in the dependent variable i.e. productivity.

Second Relay Room and Mica Splitting test room experiments:

These studies were conducted as a follow up measure. The researchers set up the second relay assembly group to assess the effects of wage incentives on productivity. A group of five workers with adequate experience were shifted to similar positions in the regular department, The nature of supervision, general working conditions and the work setting were similar to those of other workers in the regular department. The difference was that the assemblers in the second relay group were engaged on a different, small group piece rate scheme. This arrangement led to a twelve percent rise in productivity of the experimental group.

In the Mica Splitting study, although the isolated test room conditions of the original relay study were reproduced, the workers were engaged under their normal individual piece rate plan rather than small group incentive schemes employed with the lay room experimental subjects. The results revealed an average increase of fifteen percent of productivity during a period of fourteen months. The outcome of these two studies was quite vague. As Rothlisberger & Dickson in their concluding remarks observed, “there was no evidence to support the hypothesis that the constant rise in the productivity in the relay assembly test room could be attributed to the wage incentives variable alone.” It was concluded that the efficacy of a wage incentive scheme was so dependent on other variables as well that it could not be considered as the sole factor to affect the worker.

Mass Interviewing Program: 1928-1930

Another major aspect of the Hawthorne studies consisted of 21,000 interviews carried out during 1928 to 1930. The original objective was to explore information, which could be used to improve supervisory training. Initially, these interviews were conducted by means of direct questioning. However, this method had the disadvantages of either stimulating antagonism or the over simplified yes or no responses, which could not get to the root of the problems. Therefore, the method was changed to “non directive” interviewing where the interviewer was to listen instead of talk, argue or advice, and take on the role of confidant. On the basis this interviewing program, the following inferences were drawn.

1. Only giving a person an opportunity to talk and air his grievances had a positive impact on his morale.
2. Complaints were no longer necessarily objective statements job facts. Rather, they were frequently symptoms of more deep-rooted disturbances.
3. Workers were governed by the experiences obtained, both inside and outside the company in respect of their demands
4. The worker is satisfied or dissatisfied depending upon how he regarded his social status in the company and what he felt he was entitled to rather than in terms of any objective reference.

Bank wiring room study: Nov 1931 to May 1932

The chief objective was to conduct an observational analysis of the work group.

There were fourteen men employed on “bank wiring”. This was the process where two loose wire ends were soldered. This group of fourteen employees included nine wiremen, three soldermen and two inspectors. The job involved attaching wires to switches for certain parts of telephone equipment. Because of some practical difficulties the study was conducted in a separate test room. However, the study involved no experimental changes once it had started, it was carried out by two persons – an observer and an interviewer. The observer sat in the wiring room being friendly but appeared non-committal. Thus, he won the confidence of the group and was accepted as a regular member.

The interviewer, however, remained an outsider and his task was to explore as much as possible by interviewing the individual worker about his thought and feeling, his values and attitudes etc. He carried out his work under strict confidence, privately and in a different part of the factory. Although he never entered the wiring room, he kept in constant touch with observer. Besides these arrangements, other conditions were identical with the Bank wiring department itself in-so-far as that even the department’s regular supervisors were used the Bank wiring room to maintain order and control.

The results of the Bank wiring room which are markedly opposite to those obtained Relay Room, revealed that this small group of workers emerged as a team with informal leaders who had come up spontaneously.

The group was indifferent towards the financial incentives of the factory because despite the incentive scheme, the output was neither more nor less than

6000 units although optimum capacity was 7000 units per day. It may be noted that whenever any worker attempted to produce more than this group determined quota, he was soon compelled to return to his original output. To do this, the group invented a game known as “binging”. The group norms were more important to the group members than any financial incentive. There prevailed an unwritten code of conduct, which determined a fair day’s work and had influence over the group members. Thus, there existed a highly integrated group in the Bank wiring room, which possessed its own social system contradictory to the objectives of the factory. This implied that it would be irrational to break up these groups. Rather, attempts should be made to see that the interests of the management and workers are identical to such an extent that these informal groups facilitate the achievement of the organisation’s objectives rather than obstructing them.

Implications of the Hawthorne Studies

Why were such contradictory results obtained in the Relay room and the Bank wiring room?

As pointed out earlier, in the relay room production constantly increased throughout the test periods and relay assemblers were greatly motivated and equipped with positive attitudes whereas, in the Bank wiring room there prevailed a restriction of production among dissatisfied workers who displayed negative attitudes towards the objective of the factory. Why? The answer to this question can be found in the reactions of the girls to the Relay test room. They unanimously showed marked preference for working in the test room rather than in the regular department, because of small group, nature of supervision, earnings, novelty of situation, interest in the experiment and attention received in the test room. It may be noted that the last three reasons are related to the well-known “Hawthorn effect”. Numerous behavioural scientists tend to overlook the significance of the first three reasons and are of the opinion that the phenomenal increase in the productivity in the relay room can be attributed primarily to this effect.

It may be noted that the Relay room and the Bank wiring room studies differed in the supervisory aspects. Although in the Relay room there were no regular supervisors engaged, the girls assigned the second priority to nature of supervision which prompted them to increase production and made them feel happier. They regarded the friendly, attentive and genuinely interested .

1.7 ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODEL

In management, the focus is on the study of the five organizational behavior models:

- Autocratic Model
 - Custodial Model
 - Supportive Model
 - Collegial Model
 - System Model
1. Autocratic model

This model has its roots in the historical past, and definitely became a most prominent model of the industrial revolution of 1800 and 1900s. It gives the owners and manager's power to dictate and form decisions while making employees obey their orders. The model asserts that employees need to be instructed and motivated to perform while managers do all the thinking. The whole process is formalized with the managers and authority power has the right to give command to the people, "You do this or else...", is a general dictatorship command. As Newstrom suggests, "the psychological result of the employees is dependence on their boss, whose power to "hire, fire and perspire" is almost absolute. Employers receive less wages as they are less skilled and their performance is also minimum, which they do it rather reluctantly as they have to satisfy the needs of their families and themselves. But there are some exceptions as many employees do give higher performance because either they would like to achieve or have a close

association with their boss, or either they have been promised a good reward, but overall their performance is minimum.

The theory of X assumption of McGregor states employers do not take responsibility and managers have to supervise over their work to obtain desired results. This model can also be compared to the Likert system in which use of punishment, force, fear or threats sometimes are used as means to get the results from the employees.

Now as the values are changing the model is giving place to the modernized thinking, but we cannot say that this model has been discarded. In many organizational setups, it is still proving a useful way to get the things done, especially when the employees are being motivated to fulfill physiological needs or whenever there are any organizational crises. However with the increase in the knowledge, changing the societal values better ways to manage organizational behavior systems is emerging. Yet another step was required and it emerged.

2. Custodial Model

Now the time came when managers began to think the security of the employees is imperative- it could be either social as well economic security. Now managers have begun to study about their employees needs, they found out that though in the autocratic setup employees does not talk back yet they have many things to say but incapability to speak result in frustrations, insecurity, and aggressive behavior towards their boss. Since they are not able to display their feelings, they would vent these feelings on their family and neighbors. This causes suffering to the entire community and relationships and this often results in bad performance. Newstrom gave the example of a wood processing plant where the employees were treated very cruelly even to the extent of physical abuse. Since workers were not able to strike back directly they show their aggression by destroying the good sheets of veneer destroying the supervisor's credibility.

Employers now had begun to think of the ways to develop better relations with the employees and to keep them satisfied and motivated. In 1890 and 1900 many companies started the welfare programs for the employees which began later to be known as paternalism. In the 1930s, these welfare programs evolved in many fringe benefits to provide security to the employees which resulted in the development of the Custodial model of organizational behavior.

A successful custodial approach depends on providing economic security which many companies are now offering as high pay scale, remunerations in the form of health benefits, corporate cars, financial packaging and many other forms of incentives. These incentives increase the employees' satisfaction level and help them to achieve competitive advantage. To avoid layoffs employers also tries to "retain employees, reduce overtime, freeze hiring, encourage both the job transfers and relocations, provide early retirement incentives, and reduce subcontracting to adjust to slowdowns especially in the information technology". (Newstrom, p.32)

The custodial approach induces employees now to show their dependency and loyalty towards the company and not to the boss or managers or supervisors. The employees in this environment are more psychologically contended and preoccupied with their rewards but it is not necessary they would be strongly motivated to give the performance. The studies show that though it has been the best way to make them happy employee but not productive employee, so the question still remains what should be the better way? But overall this step had been a stepping stone for the creation and development of the next step.

3. Supportive Model

Unlike the two previous approaches, the supportive model emphasis on motivated and aspiring leader. There is no space for any control or authoritative power in this model or on the incentives or reward schemes but it

is simply based on motivating staff through the establishment of the manager and employee relationship and the treatment that is given to employees on daily basis.

Quite contrarily to the autocratic mode, it states that employees are self-motivated and can generate value that goes beyond their day to day role or activity. But how the employees get self –motivated? That’s through creating a positive workplace where they are encouraged to give their ideas and there is some kind of “buy -in” in the organizational behavior setup and the direction that it takes.

One of the key aspects of the supportive model has been studies conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of Electric in the 1920s and 1930s. The study was led by Elton Mayo and F.J Roethlisberger to implore on the human behavior at work by implementing and placing keen insight on the sociological, psychological perspective in the industrial setup. They came up to a conclusion that a single organization is a social system and a worker is an important component in the system. They found that worker is not a tool that can be used in any way but has its own behavior and personality and needs to be understood. They suggested that understanding of group dynamism including the application of supportive supervision is imperative to make workers contribute and be supportive.

Through the leadership organizations give the space and climate for the employees to develop, form their own thinking and take an initiative. They would take responsibility and improve themselves. Managers are oriented towards supporting the employees to give performances and not just support them through employee benefits as done in custodial approach.

The supportive model is being widely accepted chiefly in the developed nations where the needs of the employees are different as it fulfills many of the employees emerging needs. This approach is less successful in the

developing nations where the social and economic need of the working class is different. In short, in the supportive model money is not which retain the satisfaction of the employees but it is a part of the organization's life that has been put to the use and makes other people feel wanted.

4. The Collegial Model

In this scheme, the structure of an organization is developed in a way that there is no boss nor subordinates, but all are colleagues who have to work as a team. Each one of the employees has to participate and work in coordination with each other to achieve the target rate. No one is worried about his status or a job title. Manager's role is here like a coach whose function is to guide the team to perform and generate positive and motivating work environment, instead of focusing on his own personal growth. The team requires adopting new approaches, research and development and new technologies to better their performance.

We can also say Collegial model is an extension of the supportive model. The success of the collegial model depends on the management's ability to foster the feeling of partnership between the employees. This makes the employees feel important and needed. They also feel that managers are not just mere supervisors but are also giving their equal contribution to the team.

To make the collegial model success many organizations have abolished the use of bosses and subordinates during working, as these terms create the distance between the managers and subordinates. While some of the organizations have abolished the system of allotting reserved space for executives. Now any employee can park their vehicle in the common parking space, which increases their convenience and makes them more comfortable.

The manager is oriented towards the team performance while each employee is responsible for his task and towards each other. They are more disciplined and work as per the standards set by the team. In this setup employees feel fulfilled as their contribution is accepted and well received.

5. The System Model

The most emerging model of the today's corporate era is the system model. This model emerged from the rigorous research to attain the higher level of meaning at work. Today's employees need more than salary and security from their job, they need the hours they are putting towards the organization is giving them some value and meaning. To add to it, they need the work that is ethical, respectful, integrated with trust and integrity and gives a space to develop a community feeling among the co-workers.

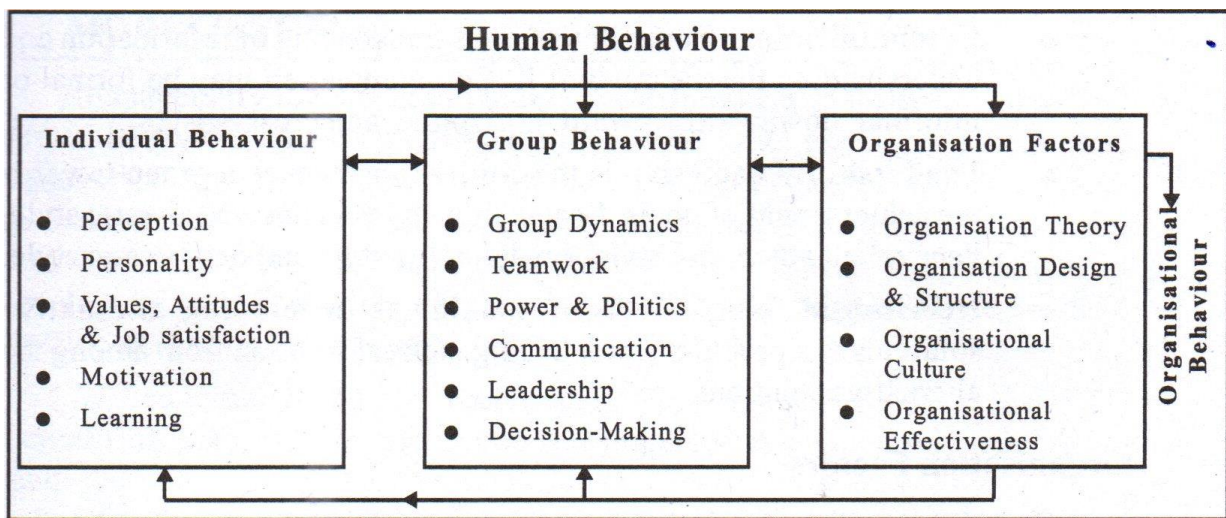
In the system model, the expectations of the managers are much more than getting the work done by the employees. The managers have to show their emotional side, be more compassionate and caring towards their team and they must be sensitive towards the needs of the diverse workforce. They have to devote their attention to creating the feeling of optimism, hope, trustworthiness, courage, self-determination, and through this, they try to develop the positive work culture where the employees feel more at ease and work as if they are working for their family. This ultimately results in the long time commitment and loyalty of the employees and the success of the company.

Managers also try to foster two main concepts; authenticity and transparency and social intelligence. Managers always try to make the employees feel the part of the project and the organization and give them all the support so that they can increase their efficiency and output. In turn, the employees feel more emotionally and psychologically part of the organization and become more responsible for their actions. Employees feel more inspired, motivated, important and feel that what they are doing and what they think

would be good for the organization which goes beyond their personal achievements.

The models have been originated perceiving the changing employee needs with each model have been the stepping stone for the more productive and useful model. To assume that any one of the models has been the best model is wrong as no model is hundred percent perfect but have been evolving all through the years with the changes in our perception, study and social conditions that have been affecting the human behavior. Any of the above models can be modified, applied and extended in many different ways. As there has been advancement in the collective understanding of the human behavior, the new social condition emerged and with it there has been an evolution of the new model.

Human behaviour in organizations are caused by individuals as member of groups and structures of the organizations. Figure 1.5 presents the model of organizational behaviour.



1.8 Models of Man

Managers try to understand individual differences in order to understand human behaviour and assign different jobs to different people. In other words manager understand individual differences in order to make a balance between the individual behavior and job demands. Manager makes

assumption about man while understanding their differences. These assumptions resulted in developing various models of man. Schein and William H. Whyte Jr. have developed five models of man viz.,

- (i) Rational Economic Man
- (ii) Social Man
- (iii) Organisation Man,
- (iv) Self-Actualising Man
- (v) Complex man,
- (vi) Impulsive Man,
- (vii) Compulsive Man

Now, we shall discuss these models.

1. Rational Economic Man:

From the organisational perspective, managers had, for a long time, viewed their employees as rational beings who are primarily motivated by money. They took the 'ECONOMIC MAN' and 'RATIONAL MAN' approach to understand and predict the human behaviour. This model is based on classical organisation theory.

The Scientific Management Movement was based on the belief that by rationally explaining the one best way to do things and offering incentives to workers in the form of piece rates and bonuses, organisational output can be increased.

Psychologists have also studied this model for predicting human behaviour. For example, McGregor's assumptions of Theory X reflect this model.

Assumptions: This model is built on the following assumptions.

- (i) People are motivated primarily by economic incentives. They will do things which get them the greatest economic gain.
- (ii) As the organization controls the economic incentives, human beings are essentially passive agents, who are manipulated, motivated and controlled by the organization.
- (iii) The feelings of the people are essentially irrational and must be controlled to achieve rationality and self interest.

- (iv) Organisations can and must be designed in such a way so as to neutralize and control people's feelings and therefore their unpredictable traits.
- (v) Organizations manipulate the economic incentives in order to get more work as man is passive.
- (vi) Organization can predict human behavior though controlling economic incentives.

2. Social Man:

Man is a social animal. Man lives in and along with the society. He cannot live in isolation. With the passage of time, the advocates of human relations school recognized that there is a lot more to human behaviour than just being social man economic and rational. Advocates of this school considered the worker as a social man. They recognized that man is a part of the social group he is influenced by the social forces and seeks satisfaction of the needs which are related to the maintenance of his social relationships. Eltan Mayo conceived the concept of the social man when he carried out Hawthorne studies during 1927-32.

Assumptions: This model is developed based on the following assumptions.

- (i) Human beings are basically motivated by social needs and all their efforts are directed towards getting this satisfaction by maintaining relationships with others.
- (ii) A human being is more responsive to the pressures and sanctions of his social group than to the incentives and controls of the management. The reason is that he values social relationship higher than his economic motives which are directly under the control of management.
- (iii) The amount of work to be done by a worker is not determined by his physical capacity or by the management but by the social norms.

- (iv) Generally people do not act or react as individuals but as members of a group.
- (v) Informal leaders play an important role in setting and enforcing the group norms.
- (vi) Management should change and organize work in such a way that it provides more belongingness not only in terms of interpersonal and group relationships, but also man's relationship with his job.

3. Organisation Man

Organization man is an extension of social man. People live in the society by cooperating, associating and interacting with other members of the society. Similarly employees in the organization work and live along with others by cooperating, interacting and associating with others. Thus, organization man model is an extension to social man model. The concept of organization man was introduced by William Whyte. He believed that it is very important for a person to be loyal to the organization and cooperative with the fellow workers. Any person who believes in this value system and acts in this way is an organization man. The basis of this concept is and that every individual should sacrifice his individuality for the sake of the group and the organization.

This idea was initially suggested by Henry Fayol, when he suggested that individual interest should be subordinated to the general interest.

Assumption:

(i) The first proposition is that individual by himself is isolated and meaningless. The group is the source of activity. Individuals create only when they move in a group. A group helps to produce a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts.

(ii) The ultimate need of every individual is belongingness. He wants to belong to his families, friends, relatives, colleagues and other members of the society as a whole. Whyte says that there should be no conflict between man and society.

(iii) The goal of belongingness is achieved with the help of science. Whenever there is a conflict between the needs of the society and the needs of the individual, equilibrium can be created by applying the methods of science. Science can help in removing all the obstacles to consensus.

(iv) The organization man concept emphasizes that there is no conflict between the individual interest and the interest of the organization. Even if there is any conflict, individual interest will be sacrificed in favour of the group interest to remove the conflict. However, there is a basic assumption behind this concept.

(v) The assumption is that management will take care of the individual interests. It would be the duty of the management to satisfy the needs of the individuals. People will be willing to sacrifice their interests for the organization only if they are positive that the organization would take care of them.

4. The Self Actuating Man:

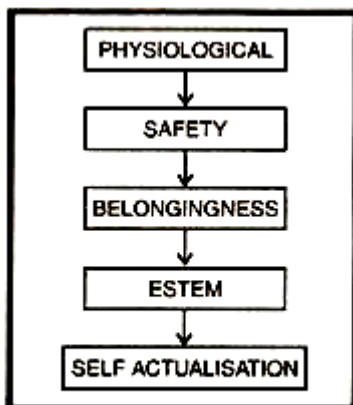
The concept of self actuating man is a further extension of social man and the organization man models. The social man concept assumes that the formation of social groups is the basis of satisfaction for the individuals. But as against this the self actuating man assumes that man's inherent need is to use his capabilities and skills in such a way that he should have the satisfaction of creating certain things. The earlier models do not allow him to satisfy his self actuating needs.

Assumptions about the self actuating man:

(i) The basic assumption about this concept is that the various needs of a man can be put in the order of priority. For example, MASLOW has put various needs in a hierarchy: Every unsatisfied need is a motivational factor for him. Self actualization

according to this diagram is the ultimate goal, because it is last in the hierarchy and by the time his goal is achieved, all the other needs of the man are also satisfied.

(ii) In the process of self actualization, there are various changes in the behaviour of the individual and he moves from immaturity to maturity.



HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

(iii) Another assumption is that a man is primarily self motivated and self controlled. Any incentives given by the management cannot motivate him after a certain level and any control imposed on him cannot threaten him.

(iv) The earlier models were based on the assumption that a man has got immature personality. However, the reality is that if a man is left free, he will put in his maximum efforts.

These assumptions are generally based upon McGregor's theory Y and Argyris's immaturity-maturity theory. To satisfy a self actuating man what are required are all the managerial actions meant to satisfy the social man with some additional features.

5. Complex Man:

Complex man presents the real picture of human picture of human behavior. All the previous models make very simplistic assumptions about people and their behaviour.

Researchers have proved that these assumptions are not correct as explained below:

(i) The earlier models assume that man will always behave according to certain set patterns. But research has indicated that there are many complex variables, which determine the human behaviour. These variables are quite unpredictable. So the human behaviour which is based on these variables cannot follow a set pattern.

(ii) The behaviour of man can be understood and predicted in the given conditions, depending upon the assumptions made. But research has indicated that even if cause-effect relationship is established between the variables and behaviour, it is not easy to understand and predict the individual behaviour because of the individual differences. It is not necessary that everyone will behave accordingly. Most behaviour in the organization can be understood by taking assumptions of complex man.

Assumptions about the complex man:

(i) People are not only complex but are also highly variable. Though their needs can be arranged in a hierarchy, but this hierarchy is also not universal. Different people may have different hierarchies.

(ii) People are capable of learning new motives through their organizational experiences.

(iii) People's motives in different organizations or different sub parts of the same organization may be different.

(iv) People can respond to many different kinds of management strategies.

Though this model is quite complex, it indicates the real situation and lays emphasis on the fact that human behaviour is not as simple as assumed in the previous models. Hence current thinking on the subject is to take a 'complex man' approach and recognize that different individuals have different needs and personality traits and if there is a proper match between these and the environment they operate in, functional behaviour will emerge.

(v) Man is motivated by a complex variables and factors. These complex variables include physiological, psychological, social, political, religious, climatic and geographical factors.

(vi) Interaction of the man with the organisation enables the employee to learn motives.

(vii) Man can behave differently in similar situations due to the absence of cause-effects relationship.

6. Impulsive Man

According to these concepts, man acts and reacts immediately and quickly. The impelling forces result in sudden inclination to act. The impulsive forces make the man to act suddenly without thinking rationally. It would be highly difficult to predict the behaviour of impulsive man.

7. Compulsive Man

A number of factor viz., social factors, cultural factors, political factors, economic factors, natural factors affect human behaviour. In addition, the personality factors of other persons particularly superiors, subordinators and colleagues, company policies, rules and regulations, customers and other stockholders' behaviour affect the behaviour of an employee. Compulsive man does not act or react quickly. He takes into consideration the influence of various factors, situations and personalities, collect the necessary data and information, analyse the interactive output of these factors, analyses the consequences of this output and behaves in a more desirable way. Thus the behaviour of individuals is compulsive.

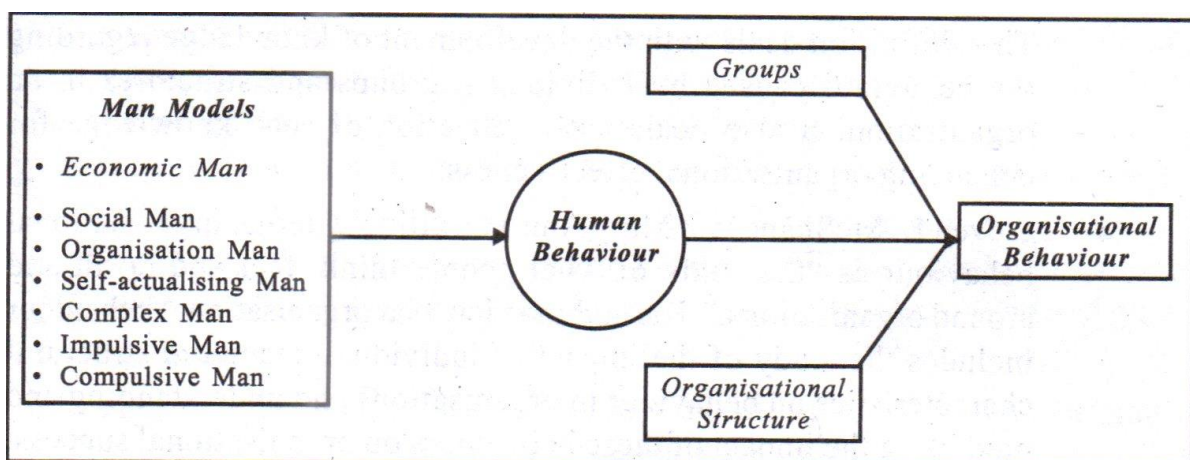


Fig. 1.6: Study of Organisational Behaviour

- Activity -1

Observe twenty people from your community, your teachers and managers whom you know closely and classify them as economic men / women, Social men / women, Organisation men / women, self-actualisation men / women, complex men / women, impulsive men / women and compulsive men / women and write your reasoning.

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- **Activity - 2**

Observe whether they behave similarly or differently. If they behave differently, observe why do they behave differently.

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- **Activity - 3**

Observe just your family members viz., father, mother, brother, sisters etc., and find out whether they behave similarly or differently. If they behave differently and write your reasoning and analysis.

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1.8 SUMMARY

Humans may be physically alike, but not necessarily behaviourally. In fact same person behaves differently in different situations. People have some similarities as well as dissimilarities. Individual differences are due to hereditary factors like age, sex, physiological and psychological. They are also due to environmental factors like physical factors, socio-cultural factors and economic factors. They are also situational factors like organizational, physical and job variables.

Managers make assumptions of people, which resulted in developing various models of man like economic man, social man, organization man, self-actualization man, complex man, impulsive man and compulsive man.

Organizational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact the individual, groups, and structures have on behaviour within organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving and organization's effectiveness. The field of organizational behaviour gained its significance due to various factors like globalization, strides in information technology, total quality management, business process reengineering, bench marking, diversity of human resources, competitive pressure, rapidly growing global business, desire for diverse views and changing workforce demographics.

Various fields of study contributed to the growth of organizational behaviours a separate discipline viz., psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, political science, technology and information technology, management and economics.

1.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the similarities and dissimilarities among individuals?
2. Why people behave and act differently in various situations?

3. Discuss various models of man with their implication on organizational behaviour.
4. What is diversity in human resource? How does it affect human behaviour?
5. Define the term organizational behaviour. Explain the features of organizational behaviour.
6. Discuss the nature of man. Explain various models of man in detail.

1.10.Further Readings:Biswal Pravakar and Rath Namita,2012,Organizational Brhaviour,2nd Edition.Bhubaneswar:B.K.Publication
Robbins,Stephen P..2003, Organizational Brhaviour 10th Edition, New Delhi:PHI

2ND CHAPTER

PERSONALITY AND PERCEPTION

2.0 Learning Objectives

After completing this Chapter you will be able to

- Define Personality.
- Analyse the Significance of Personality Traits viz., the Big Five.
- Understand the Self Concept.
- Explain Personality development theories.
- Know the meaning of perception and differentiate perception form sensation.
- Analyse the perceptual process viz., perceptual inputs, perceptual through puts and perceptual output..
- Understand the relationship between personality and perception.
- Know how the perceptual output leads to behavior.
- Identify various factors those hinder the perception accurately.
- Discuss how to perceive accurately.
- Analyse how people impress others.

Structure

- 2.0 Learning Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Determinants of Personality
- 2.3 Theories of Personality
- 2.4 Individual Difference
- 2.5 Matching Personality and Jobs
- 2.6 Personality and Organizational Behaviour
- 2.7 Perception: Meaning
- 2.8 Perceptual Process(RSOICR)
- 2.9 Perceptual Grouping
- 2.10 Perception and OB

- 2.11 Summery
- 2.12 Self Assessment Questions
- 2.13 Further Readings

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Man is not born a person. At birth he is an infant possessing the potentiality of becoming a person. After birth he associates with other human beings and comes under the influence of their culture. As a result of a variety of experiences and social influences he becomes a person and comes to possess a personality. Mahatma Gandhi designed the non-violence strategy where as Subash Chandra Bose designed the aggressive strategy for the attainment of Independence to India. Bin Laden diverted innocent Muslim youth towards violence and terrorism in the name of God where as Nelson Mandela directed the South Africans towards a peaceful transformation based on Gandhi on the principles of non-violence (Ahimas). These are examples of some VIP's personality.

Definition of personality

The word personality has been derived from the Latin word 'persona' which are translated as " to speak through". Personality is the combination of characteristics or qualities that forms a person's unique identity. It signifies the role which a person plays in public. Every individual has a unique, personal and major determinant of his behavior that defines his/her personality.

Personality trait is basically influenced by two major features –

- Inherited characteristics
- Learned characteristics

Inherited Characteristics

The features an individual acquires from their parents or forefathers, in other words the gifted features an individual possesses by birth is considered as inherited characteristics. It consists of the following features –

- Color of a person's eye
- Religion/Race of a person
- Shape of the nose
- Shape of earlobes

Learned Characteristics

Nobody learns everything by birth. First, our school is our home, then our society, followed by educational institutes. The characteristics an individual acquires by

observing, practicing, and learning from others and the surroundings is known as learned characteristics.

Learned characteristics includes the following features –

- **Perception** – Result of different senses like feeling, hearing etc.
- **Values** – Influences perception of a situation, decision making process.
- **Personality** – Patterns of thinking, feeling, understanding and behaving.
- **Attitude** – Positive or negative attitude like expressing one's thought.

" According to Gordon Allport, personality is " the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment."

Stephen P. Bobbins defines perception as "a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment."

Fred Luthans defines the term personality as, " how people affect others and how they understand and view themselves, as well as their pattern of inner and outer measurable traits and the person-situation intervention."

Robbins defines personality as, " the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts to and interacts with others."

Thus, personality devotes for the methods of affecting others, reacting to others' actions and interacting with others. These methods are chosen by individuals based on several factors. Important one among these are their traits,

On the basis of these definitions it may be said there are two main approaches to the study of personality:

(1) The psychological, and

(2) The sociological.

To sum up we would say that:

(i) Personality is not related to bodily structure alone. It includes both structure and dynamics

(ii) Personality is an indivisible unit.

(iii) Personality is neither good nor bad.

(iv) Personality is not a mysterious phenomenon.

(v) Every personality is unique.

(vi) Personality refers to persistent qualities of the individual. It expresses consistency and regularly.

(vii) Personality is acquired.

(viii) Personality is influenced by social interaction. It is defined in terms of behaviour.

2.2 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

There has been a debate whether the leaders are born or made? It has been viewed after a long debate that leaders are both born and made i.e., heredity. Similarly, there has been an argument as to whether personality is determined at birth or is the result of individual's interaction with the environment. Added to this, it is also argued that situation is another factor that determines personality. The following factors determine the personality of an individual.

Biological Factors

The study of the biological contributions to personality may be studied under three heads:

a. ***Heredity***: Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception.

Physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent from 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.

Research on animals has showed that both physical and psychological characteristics can be transmitted through heredity. But research on human beings is inadequate to support this view point. However, psychologists and

geneticists have accepted the fact that heredity plays an important role in one's personality.

- b. **Brain:** The second biological approach is to concentrate on the role that the brain plays in personality. Though researchers make some promising inroads, the psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of human brain in influencing personality. The most recent and exciting possibilities come from the work done with electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) and split-brain psychology.

Preliminary results from the electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) research give indication that better understanding of human personality and behaviour might come from the study of the brain. Work with ESB on human subjects is just beginning.

There seem to be definite pleasurable and painful areas in the human brain. This being true, it may be possible physically to manipulate personality through ESB.

- c. **Biofeedback:** Until recently, physiologists and psychologists felt that certain biological functions such as brainwave patterns, gastric secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control. Now some scientists believe that these involuntary functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback. In BFT the individual learns the internal rhythm of a particular body process through electronic signals feedback from equipment that is wired to the body area. From this biofeedback the person can learn to control the body process in question. More research is needed on biofeedback before any definitive conclusions can be drawn. But its potential impact could be extremely interesting for the future.
- d. **Physical features:** A vital ingredient of the personality, an individual's external appearance, is biologically determined. The fact that a person is tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white will influence the person's effect on others and this in turn, will affect the self-concept. Practically all would agree that physical characteristics have at least some influence on the personality. According to Paul H Mussen "a child's physical characteristics may be related to his approach to the social environment, to the expectancies of others, and to their reactions to him. These, in turn, may have impacts on personality development".

Other factors;-

1.Cultural Factors

Among the factors that exert pressures on our personality formation are the culture in which we are raised, our early conditioning, the norms among our family, friends and social groups and other influences we experience. Traditionally, cultural factors are usually considered to make a more significant contribution to personality than biological factors.

The culture largely determines attributes toward independence, aggression, competition, and cooperation. According to Paul H Mussen "each culture expects, and trains, its members to behave in the ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned". Culture requires both conformity and acceptance from its members.

There are several ways of ensuring that members comply with the dictates of the culture.

The personality of an individual to a marked extent is determined by the culture in which he or she is brought up. It follows that a person reared in a western culture has a different personality from a person reared in our Indian culture.

2. Family Factors

Whereas the culture generally prescribes and limits what a person can be taught, it is the family, and later the social group, which selects, interprets and dispenses the culture. Thus, the family probably has the most significant impact on early personality development.

A substantial amount of empirical evidence indicates that the overall home environment created by the parents, in addition to their direct influence, is critical to personality development. For example, children reared in a cold, un stimulating home are much more likely to be socially and emotionally Mal adjusted than children rose by parents in a warm, loving and stimulating environment.

The parents play an especially important part in the identification process, which is important to the person's early development. According to Mischel, the process can be examined from three different perspectives.

- i. Identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour including feelings and attitudes between child and model.
- ii. Identification can be looked at as the child's motives or desires to be like the model.
- iii. It can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

From all three perspectives, the identification process is fundamental to the understanding of personality development. The home environment also influences the personality of an individual. Siblings (brothers and sisters) also contribute to personality.

3. Social Factors

There is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organizations, which greatly influence an individual's personality. This is commonly called the socialization process. Socialization involves the process by which a person acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioral potentialities that are open to him or her. Socialization starts with the initial contact between a mother and her new infant. After infancy, other members of the immediate family – father, brothers, sisters and close relatives or friends, then the social group – peers, school friends and members of the work group, play influential roles.

Socialization process is especially relevant to organizational behaviour because the process is not confined to early childhood, taking place rather throughout one's life. In particular, evidence is accumulating that socialization may be one of the best explanations for why employees behave the way they do in today's organizations.

4. Situational Factors

Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. The effect of environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. An individual's personality, while generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The different demands of different situations call forth different aspects of one's personality. According to Milgram "Situation exerts an important press on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide push. In certain circumstances it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed that determines his actions". We should therefore not look at personality patterns in isolation.

2.3 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Personality traits are the characteristics that describe an individual's behaviour. According to Luthans, the way people affect others depends on their personality traits. Personality traits include: height, weight, facial features, colours, dimension etc. Personality traits are enduring characteristics like shyness, submissiveness, laziness, timidity, loyalty, dynamism, aggressiveness, creativity etc. The various studies of traits are outlined below.

Theories

Psychologists and other human behaviour theorists developed personality theories based on research studies. These personality theories are grouped into psychoanalytic theories, socio-psychological theories, trait theories and holistic theories. Now, we shall discuss the psychoanalytic theories.

1. Freudian Stages or Psychoanalytical Theory:

Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytical theory of personality has been based primarily on his concept of unconscious nature of personality. It is based on the notion that man is motivated more by unseen forces than by conscious and rational thoughts. Freud noted that his patient's behaviour could not always be consciously explained. It was a clinical finding which led him to conclude that the major force which motivates a human being is his unconscious framework. This framework includes three conflicting psychoanalytic concepts the Id, the ego and the super ego.

(i) The ID:

ID is the foundation of the unconscious behaviour and is the base of libido drives. In simple words Id is the sources of psychic energy and seeks immediate satisfaction of biological or instinctual needs. These needs include sexual pleasure and other biological pleasures. It is the unconscious part of human personality. Id has animalistic instincts of aggression, power and domination. It demands immediate pleasure at whatever cost. As an individual matures he learns to control the Id, but even then it remains a driving force throughout life and an important source of thinking and behaviour.

(ii) The EGO:

The Ego is associated with the realities of life. Just as the Id is the unconscious part of human personality. Ego is the conscious and logical part because it is concerned about the realities of external environment. The ego of a person keeps the Id in

check whenever it demands immediate pleasure. With its logic and intellect, ego controls the Id so that the pleasures unconsciously demanded by the human beings are granted at an appropriate time and place and in an appropriate manner. For example, a fresh management graduate develops a mental image of a General Manager's position in a multinational company. This is the essence of the Id concept. The job market, competition from other candidates like CAs, ICWAs, MBAs, CFAs etc. And rescission in the industry make him to realize the reality and aspire for a junior management position. This is the essence of the ego concept.

(iii) The Super EGO:

The Super Ego is the higher level force to restrain the Id and is described as the conscious of a person. The super ego represents the norms of the individual, his family and the society and is an ethical constraint on the behaviour. The conscious of a person is continuously telling him what is right and what is wrong. A person may not be aware of the working of the super ego, because conscious is developed by the cultural values inculcated in a person by the norms of society.

All these three elements are interrelated. In order to create a normal personality, there must be a proper balance in the relationship among these forces. For example, if the super ego is overdeveloped, a man will become very impractical and irrational. He will feel guilty over trivial matters. Such a person cannot exist in the modern life.

Though this theory makes significant contributions, it is criticised as:

- It suffers from scientific verification
- It does not give total picture of the behaviour emerging from personality and
- It does not take the social factors into consideration.

2. Chris Argyris's Immaturity Maturity Theory:

In a departure from the strict stage approach, well known organisational behaviour theorist Chris Argyris has identified specific dimensions of the human personality as it develops. Argyris proposes that a human personality rather than going through precise stages, progresses along a continuum from immaturity as an infant to maturity as an adult. However, at any age, people can have their degree of development plotted according to the seven dimensions as shown in the following table:

THE ARGYRIS IMMATURETY-MATURITY CONTINUUM

Immaturity Characteristics	Maturity Characteristics
Passivity	Activity
Dependence	Independence
Few ways of behaving	Diverse behaviour
Shallow interests	Deep interests
Short-time perspective	Long-time perspective
Subordinate position	Super ordinate position
Lack of self awareness	Self awareness and control

Argyris has very carefully pointed out that this model does not imply that all persons reach or strive for all dimensions on the mature end of the continuum.

He has further explained that:

- (i) The seven dimensions represent only one aspect of the total personality. Much also depends upon the individual's perception, self concept and adaptation and adjustment.
- (ii) The seven dimensions continually change in degree from the infant to the adult end of the continuum.
- (iii) The model, being only a construct, cannot product specific behaviour. However, it does provide a method of describing and measuring the growth of any individual in the culture.
- (iv) The seven dimensions are based upon latent characteristics of the personality, which may be quite different from the observable behaviour.

3. Traits Theory:

Freudian and other theories have emphasized the qualitative aspects of personality. The trait theory is quantitative and refers to measurement of psychological characteristics called traits. The trait theory proposes that “an individual may be described in terms of a constellation of traits such as affiliation, achievement, anxiety, aggression and dependency.” A trait is, thus, any distinguishing relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. The traits and the amount of each trait that each person has is assumed to be fairly stable and the differences in personality and behaviour between two individuals is assumed to be a result of differences in the amount of each trait that each person has.

4.The Myers-Briggs Framework

This is a 100 question personality test asking the respondents how they usually feel or act in particular situations. This is one of the most widely used personality tests. The various types of response are characterised by the instruments i.e.MBTI(Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) under four dimensions i.e.

- Sensing
- Intuiting
- Judging
- Perceiving

These four types of traits are again extended to 16 personality traits (as shown in the Table 2.1)

1. Reserved	Vs.	Outgoing
2. Less intelligent	Vs.	More intelligent
3. Affected by feelings	Vs.	Emotionally stable
4. Submissive	Vs.	Dominant
5. Serious	Vs.	Happy-go-lucky
6. Expedient	Vs.	Conscientious
7. Timid	Vs.	Venturesome
8. Tough-minded	Vs.	Sensitive
9. Trusting	Vs.	Suspicious
10. Practical	Vs.	Imaginative
11. Forthright	Vs.	Shrewd
12. Self-assured	Vs.	Apprehensive
13. Conservative	Vs.	Experimenting
14. Group dependent	Vs.	Self-sufficient
15. Uncontrolled	Vs.	Controlled
16. Relaxed	Vs.	Tense

Table-2.1

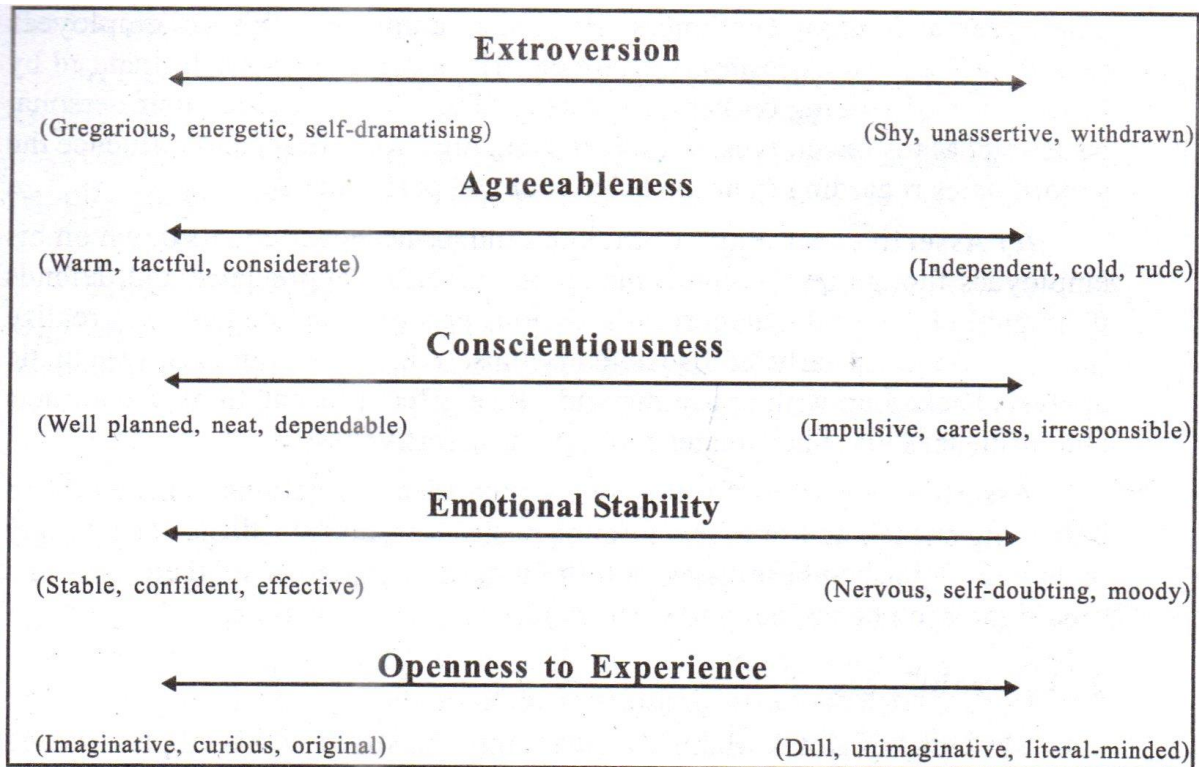
6.The Big Five Models

The major personality traits which influence the job behaviour and job performance are labeled as the 'Big Five Personality Traits.' These traits have emerged from the Research Studies. They are ;

- Extroversion: Sociable, talkative and assertive.
- Agreeableness: Good natured, cooperative and trusting.
- Conscientiousness: Responsible, dependable, persistent and achievement-oriented
- Emotional Stability: calm, self confident, secure, tense, insecure and nervous.
- Openness to Experience: Imaginative artistically sensitive.

Personality traits of an executive/supervisor influence the behavior of the employees in the organization. Mr. Jayasankaran of Delta Airlines attracts and impresses his subordinates due to his impressive height Mr. basanta R&ao of L&T is highly sociable. His subordinates are impressed with the way he conducts the meetings and directs his juniors.

Extreme traits of the 'Big Five' intellectual are presented in Exhibit 2.1.



7. Self Theory:

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

Self, according to Clifford T. Morgan has two distinct sets of meanings:

(i) People's attitude about themselves, their traits and abilities, the impact they could make on others, their plus and minus points. This includes what may be stated as self concept or self image. Self concept or self image relates definitely to one's attitudes, feelings, perceptions and evaluation of self.

(ii) The other relates to psychological processes through which an individual thinks, remembers, perceives, manages and plans.

In the light of the above description, self has been described in two ways:

(i) Self as object and

(ii) self as a process.

The most important contribution in self theory comes from Carl Rogers. He has defined the self or self concept as an organised, consistent, conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of 'I' or 'Me'. The relationship of 'I' or 'Me' with others and to various aspects of life has been analyzed by Rogers.

There are four factors of self concept:

(i) Self Image:

Self image is the way one sees oneself. Every person has certain beliefs about who or what he is, taken together, these beliefs are a person's self image or identity.

(ii) Ideal Self:

The ideal self denotes the way one would like to be. Thus, self image is the reality whereas ideal self is the perception. There may be a gap between these two images because self image indicates the reality of a person as perceived by him and ideal self indicates the ideal position as perceived by him.

(iii) Looking Glass Self:

Looking glass self is the perception of other's perception. It is the way one thinks people perceive about him and the way people actually see him.

(iv) Real Self:

The real self is what one really is. The first three aspects of self concept are the perceptions and they may be same or different, as the real self.

Evaluation:

In analyzing organisational behaviour, self concept plays a very significant role. A person perceives a situation depending upon his self concept which has a direct influence on his behaviour. This implies that a person with a different self concept needs different types of managerial practices.

8.Socio-Psychological Theory

The personality of Late Dhirubhai Ambani of Reliance Industries has been shaped by the society's needs for petroleum products at competitive prices, telecommunications needs for fact communications at the lowest prices and his psychological needs like achievement, involvement etc. Similarly, the personality of Dr. Anji Reddy of Dr. Reddy's laboratories is shaped by the society's need for qualitative medicines at the affordable price by the people of third world countries and his psychological need for achieving something different from others. Thus, the society's needs and psychological factors of the individual shape the personality. The individual and the society cannot live in isolation. These two interact with and are interdependent on each other. The individual contributes to the achievement of society's needs. Similarly, society assists the individual in fulfilling his needs.

The psychological factors of the individual and the sociological factors of the society interact with each other. Thus, this theory is inclusive of social factors and psychological factors. Contributors to this theory include: Adler, Fromm, Horney and Sullivan. Social variables are significant factors in this theory while biological factors are significant in psychoanalytical theory. Behavioural motivation is conscious according to socio-psychological theory.

The contributions of the socio-psychologists are as follows:

Fromm Stressed on the importance of social context. These contributions include: building social relations, making the work more social relevance, making the employee to have the feel of social sets in his work and output.

Sullivan and Horney stressed on interpersonal behaviour. These contributions include: developing transactional abilities, viewing the people positively, developing positive attitude etc. **Adler** emphasised on different variables. These contributions include: career, networking, religious beliefs, balancing family and work requirements etc.

Horney Stressed on predominant intrapersonal behaviours like being competent, aggressive and detached. Compliant people are dependent on others, aggressive people are motivated by the need for power and detached people are self-sufficient.

Managers have to shape the personalities of their employees through the interaction and interrelation of social psychological needs. Now we shall study the trait factor theory.

2.4 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Individual variation is a universal phenomenon. It is said that no two individuals are exactly alike they differ from each other in some way or the other. Such a similarity or difference between persons reveals individual differences in the early 1800s. The science of psychology studies people at three levels of focus captured by the well known quote: "Every man is in certain respects

(a) like all other men,

(b) like some other men,

(c) like no other man". Individual differences psychology focuses on this second level of study.

It is also sometimes called Differential Psychology because researchers in this area study the ways in which individual people differ in their behavior.

Causes of Individual Differences:

There are various causes which are responsible in bringing individual differences.

Heredity:

Some heretical traits bring a change from one individual to other. An individual's height, size, shape and color of hair, shape of face, nose, hands and legs so to say the entire structure of the body is determined by his heretical qualities. Intellectual differences are also to a great extent influenced by hereditary factor.

Environment:

The environmental influences are those which act upon the organism, at the earlier stages development within mother's womb and later external environment which operates from the time birth. The social psychological environment in which, child is born provides social heritage. The customs, socio-economic status, family environment interaction amongst the family members and later peers and school environment cause variety conditions to determine individual differences.

Environment brings individual differences in behaviour, activities, attitude, and style of life characteristics. Personality etc. Environment does not refer only physical surroundings but also it refers the different types of people, society, their culture, customs, traditions, social heritage, ideas and ideals.

Though environment in any home may outwardly look alike but it has different impact on each individual based on interaction patterns, personality and emotional responses of the individual. No two human beings even belonging to the same family, having similar schooling, will have same environment. The psychological environment is determined interpersonal relationship amongst parent child and other members of the family.

Sex:

Due to sex variation one individual differs from other. Men are strong in mental power. On the other hand women on the average show small superiority over men in memory, language and aesthetic sense. Women excel the men in shouldering social responsibilities and have a better control over their emotions.

Age:

Age is another factor which is responsible in bringing individual differences. Learning ability and adjustment capacity naturally grow with age. When one grows in age can acquire better control over our emotions and better social responsibilities. When a child grows then this maturity and development goes side by side.

Education:

Education is one major factor which brings individual differences. There is a wide gap in the behaviors of educated and uneducated persons. All traits of human beings like social, emotional and intellectual are controlled and modifies through proper education.

This education brings a change in our attitude, behaviour, appreciations, Personality. It is seen that uneducated persons are guided by their instinct and emotions where as the educated persons are guided by their reasoning power.

Self:

Individual differences are also due to the particular constitution of self the individual himself. Though all siblings are common heredity and environment, yet no two siblings in a same family are alike . This difference is due to the different genes inherited by the individual as well as differences environment.

Culture:

There has been a tendency in psychology to ignore the experiences of people from different cultures. Two of the studies in this section attempt to explore the experiences of Black People within the Western world. The first study by Gould (1982) is a review of the use of IQ testing. Gould demonstrates how psychological arguments have been used to support racist arguments of White superiority. The study by Habra and Grant (1970) investigates the identity of American Black children. Their study demonstrates that there has been a change in consciousness of Black children from 20 years previously.

Abnormality:

A further issue that is often included in the section of individual differences is what psychologists refer to as abnormality. However the concept of abnormality is also a highly controversial issue. The judgment that somebody is abnormal is relative and is based on factors such as culture, class, religion, sexuality and so on.

2.5 MATCHING PERSONALITY AND JOB

Obviously, individual personalities differ. So, too do jobs. Following this logic, efforts have been made to match the proper personalities with the proper jobs. John Holland's "personality-job fit theory" is concerned with matching the job requirements with personality characteristics. The personality-job fit theory identifies 6 personality types and proposes that the fit between personality type and occupational environment determines satisfaction and turnover. Holland has developed a Vocational Preference Inventory Questionnaire that contains 160 occupational titles. Respondents indicate which of these occupations they like or dislike, and these answers are used to form personality profiles. Six major personality types have been identified as shown in table 2.2..

Holland's Typology of Personality and Sample Occupations

Type	Personality Characteristics	Sample Occupations
Realistic: Prefers physical activities that require skill, strength and coordination	Shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical	Mechanic, drill, press operator, assembly line worker, farmer
Investigative: Prefers activities involving thinking, organizing, and understanding	Analytical, original, curious, independent	Biologist, economist, mathematician, news reporter
Social: Prefers activities that involve helping and developing others	Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding	Social worker, teacher, counsellor, clinical psychologist
Conventional: Prefers rule-regulated, orderly, and unambiguous activities	Conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, inflexible	Accountant, corporate manager, bank teller, file clerk
Enterprising: Prefers verbal activities where there are opportunities to influence others and attain power	Self-confident, ambitious, energetic, domineering business manager	Lawyer, real-estate agent, public relations specialist, small business man
Artistic: Prefers ambiguous and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression	Imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, impractical	Painter, musician, writer, interior decorator.

(Table-2.2)

What does all these mean? The theory argues that satisfaction is highest and turnover lowest where personality and occupation are in agreement. The key points of this model are that

1. There do appear to be intrinsic personality differences among individuals;
2. There are different types of jobs; and
3. People in job environments congruent with their personality type should be more satisfied and less likely to resign voluntarily than people in in congruent jobs.

Hall's Career Stage Model

Hall has developed an overall model for career stages. There are four major career stages. These four career stages include:

Career Stage 1: Exploration

This stage includes searching for an identity, undergoing self examination, role try outs, and taking up different jobs; unstable and less productive. This stage runs from 15 years to 25 years of age.

Career Stage 2: Establishment

This stage includes settling down, need for intimacy, growing and productive period. This stage runs from 25 years to 45 years of age.

Career Stage 3: Maintenance

Person levels off into a highly productive plateau, need for generatively, assumes paternalistic role/mentor. This stage runs from 45 years to 65 years of age.

Career Stage 4: Decline

Indicates the need for integrity (need to feel satisfied with his/her life choices and overall career). This stage is after the age of 65 years.

2.6 PERSONALITY AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The CEOs of Indian companies say, they retain the employees with originality, dependent, confident and self-dramatizing traits even during recessionary periods as they perform better even in adverse situations. They also say, they fire the employees with self-doubting, responsibility, uncommunicative, rude and unassertive traits even in boom conditions as their behaviour does not match the organisational expectations. Research findings indicate that personality has direct influence on behaviour and performance of the people. Hence, we should study the influence of personality on organisational behaviour. They are: locus of control, self-esteem, self-monitoring risk taking etc..

Locus of Control

Locus of control is the center of control of an individual's code of conduct. People can be grouped into two categories i.e., internals and externals respectively.

People who consider themselves as the masters of their own fates are known as internals, while, those who affirm that their lives are controlled by outside forces known as externals.

Before making any decision, internals actively search for information, they are achievement driven, and want to command their environment. Thus, internals do well on jobs that craves complex information processing, taking initiative and independent action.

Externals, on the other hand, are more compliant, more willing to follow instructions, so, they do well in structured, routine jobs.

Self-esteem

It is the extent up to which people either like or dislike themselves. Self-Esteem is directly related to the expectations of success and on-the-job satisfaction.

Individuals with high self-esteem think that they have what it takes to succeed. So, they take more challenges while selecting a job.

On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external distractions. So, they are more likely to seek the approval of others and to adapt the beliefs and behaviors of those they respect.

Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring is the capability of regulating one's behavior according to social situations. Individuals with high self-monitoring skill easily adjust their behavior according to external, situational factors. Their impulsive talents allow them to present public personae which are completely different from their private personalities.

However, people with low self-monitoring skills cannot cover themselves. Regardless of any situation, they are always themselves. They have an attitude of, “what you see is what you get.”

The CEO of LG realised that the sales of the company were decline due to the cultural change. He immediately changed his leadership style and created empowered teams. This change in behaviour enabled the employees to develop a new refrigerator which could store the traditional Korean food. This product turned the company into a profit-making company. Adjustment of the behaviour of the CEO of LG is called self-monitoring.

Risk taking

Generally, managers are reluctant on taking risks. However, individual risk-taking inclination affects the bulk of information required by the managers and how long it takes them to make decisions.

Thus, it is very important to recognize these differences and align risk-taking propensity with precise job demands that can make sense.

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is being practical, emotionally distant, and believing that ends justify means.

Machiavellians are always wanting to win and are great persuaders. Here are the significant features of a high-mach individuals –

- High-Machs prefer precise interactions rather than beating about the bush.
- High-Machs tend to improvise; they do not necessarily abide by rules and regulations all the time.
- High-Machs get distracted by emotional details that are irrelevant to the outcome of a project.

2.7 PERCEPTION : MEANING

Mr. Akshya Nanda is Personal Assistant of the General Manager of HPCL. It was on 5th May 2013 and Mr. Akshya Nanda attended the office at 9:45a.m. and he went directly to the production department to get the production records to place it before the meeting scheduled to be held at 10:30 a.m. on the same day at the General Manager's Chambers. He could complete his business in the production department by 10:20 a.m. and returned to the General Manager's chambers.

The General Manager came to his office at 10:00 a.m. he wanted to have a discussion with Mr. Nanda regarding the arrangements for the day's meeting. He was thinking that Mr. Nanda has not yet come to the office.

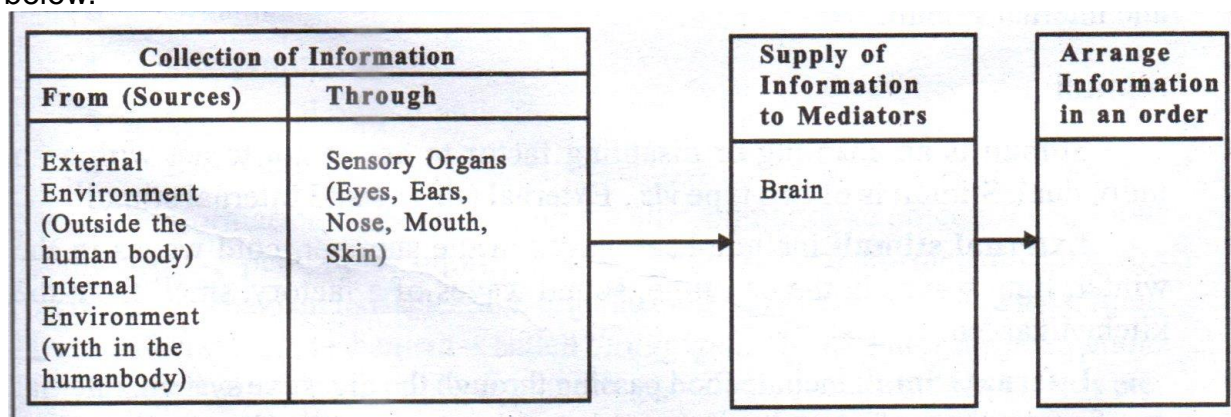
The General Manager was very much angry with Mr. Nanda and scolded him for being late to office and he immediately went to the meeting without giving any scope to Mr. Nanda to answer. This is an example of perception of the General Manager of HPCL.

What is Perception?

Perception is essentially a psychological process whereby people select,organise and interpret sensory stimulations into meaningful information about their work environment.Before we discuss the meaning of perception comprehensively, we would analyze the term 'Cognitive Process.'

Cognition is the act of knowing an item of information. Cognition precedes behavior. It provides input into a person's thinking and perception. Information can be known from the stimulus like overt and covert physical factors,social and cultural factors, environmental factors,technological and mechanical factors and the international factors. Information can be known through the sensory organs like eyes, ears, nose, mouth and skin etc..

Cognitive process is a complex one as it involves the collection of information from many sources through different sensory organs, supply these informations to the cognitive mediators, arranging the information in a sequential order as presented below.



Definition

Uma Sekharan defines perception as. " the process through which people select, organize and interpret or attach meaning to events happening in the environment."

Stephen P.Robbins defines perception as " a process by which individuals organize and interpet their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environments."

Udai Pareek et al., define perception as, " the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data."

The above definitions indicate the following:

- It is a process by which an individual interpretes his sensory impresson.
- It is a process by which an individual receives and interpretes about information.
- It is the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli in order to give meaning to it.

For better understanding of perception, now we discuss the differences between sensation and perception.

Sensation Vs Perception

Sensory organs like eyes and ears collect the data from the environment. The physical senses are vision, touch, smell, taste and hearing. These are the five senses. Some of us believe in the sixth sense. This sixth sense is mostly called "intuition." The physical sense are bombarded by numerous external and internal stimuli.

Stimuli

Stimuli is an enabling or disabling factor to act not to act within an individual. Stimuli is of two type viz., External stimuli and Internal stimuli.

External Stimuli include heat waves in the summer, cold waves in the winter, light waves in the day time, sound waves of a factory, smell from the kitchen/garden.

Internal Stimuli include food passing through the digestive system, internal comfort or discomfort and actions and reactions caused by the physiological functioning.

Sensation is the experience we get by touching a baby, seeing a picture or an incident, listening to conversation, smelling a flower or tasting food.

Thus the perceptual process is broader and complex. It organises and interprets the raw data collected by the sense both from internal and external sources. Further, perceptual process adds, subtracts from the data collected by the senses. Thus, sensation is part of the perceptual process. And perceptual process is broader and complex than sensation.

With this background of the meaning of perception and the different between sensation and perception, we shall now discuss the perceptual process.

2.8 PERCEPTUAL PROCESS (RSOICR)

Before we study the perceptual process, we present H. Joseph Reitz's definition of perception as it helps us to study the perceptual process.

According to H. Joseph Reitz, "perception includes all those process by which an individual receives information about his environment-seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling. The study of the perceptual process shows that their functioning is affected by three classes of variable- the objects or events being perceived, the environment in which perception occurs and the individual doing the perceiving."

It is clear from the above definition that the perceptual process includes the following stages:

- Receiving(R)
- Selecting (S)
- Organising (O)
- Interpreting (I)
- Checking(C) and
- Reacting(R)

There are three important stages involved in perception process, i .e, (1)

Perceptual Inputs, (2) Perceptual Mechanism, and (3) Perceptual Outputs.

I. Perceptual Inputs:

A number of stimuli are constantly confronting people in the form of information, objects, events, people etc. in the environment. These serve as the inputs of the perceptual process. A few of the stimuli affecting the senses are the noise of the air coolers, the sound of other people talking and moving, outside noises from the

vehicular traffic or a street repair shop or a loud speaker playing somewhere plus the impact of the total environmental situation. Some stimuli do not affect the senses of a person consciously, a process called subliminal perception. The information we receive from the environment like objects, events and people are the perceptual inputs. These inputs are transformed through the perceptual mechanism like selection, organisation and interpretation as the output. The transformation mechanism is called throughput. The output is the perception. The perception may be the opinion, feelings, values, attitudes, conclusion etc. These influence the decision and behaviours. Fig.2.2 presents the perceptual process model.

II. Perceptual Mechanism:

When a person receives information, he tries to process it through the following sub processes of selection, organization and interpretation.

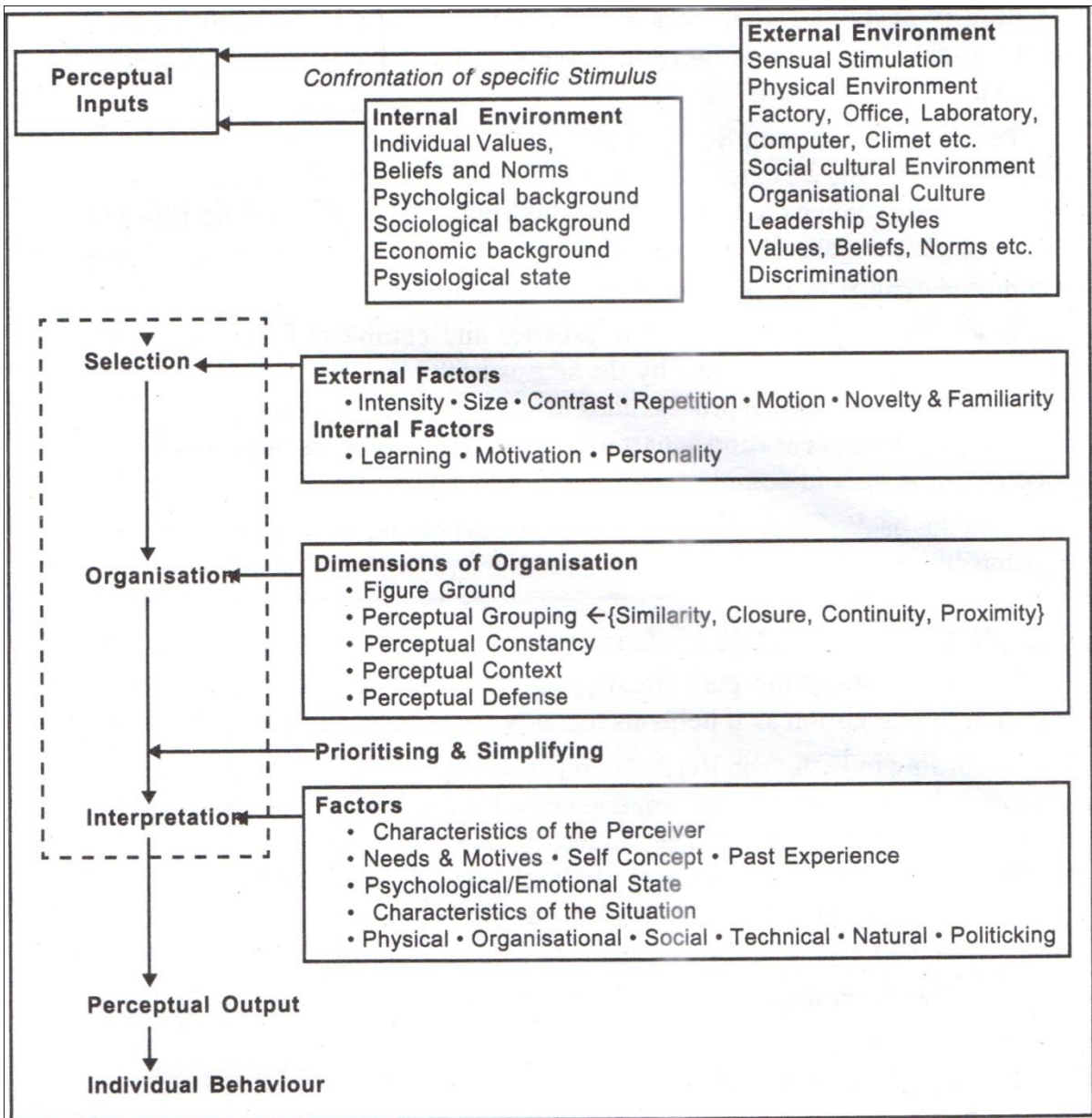
(A) Perceptual Selectivity:

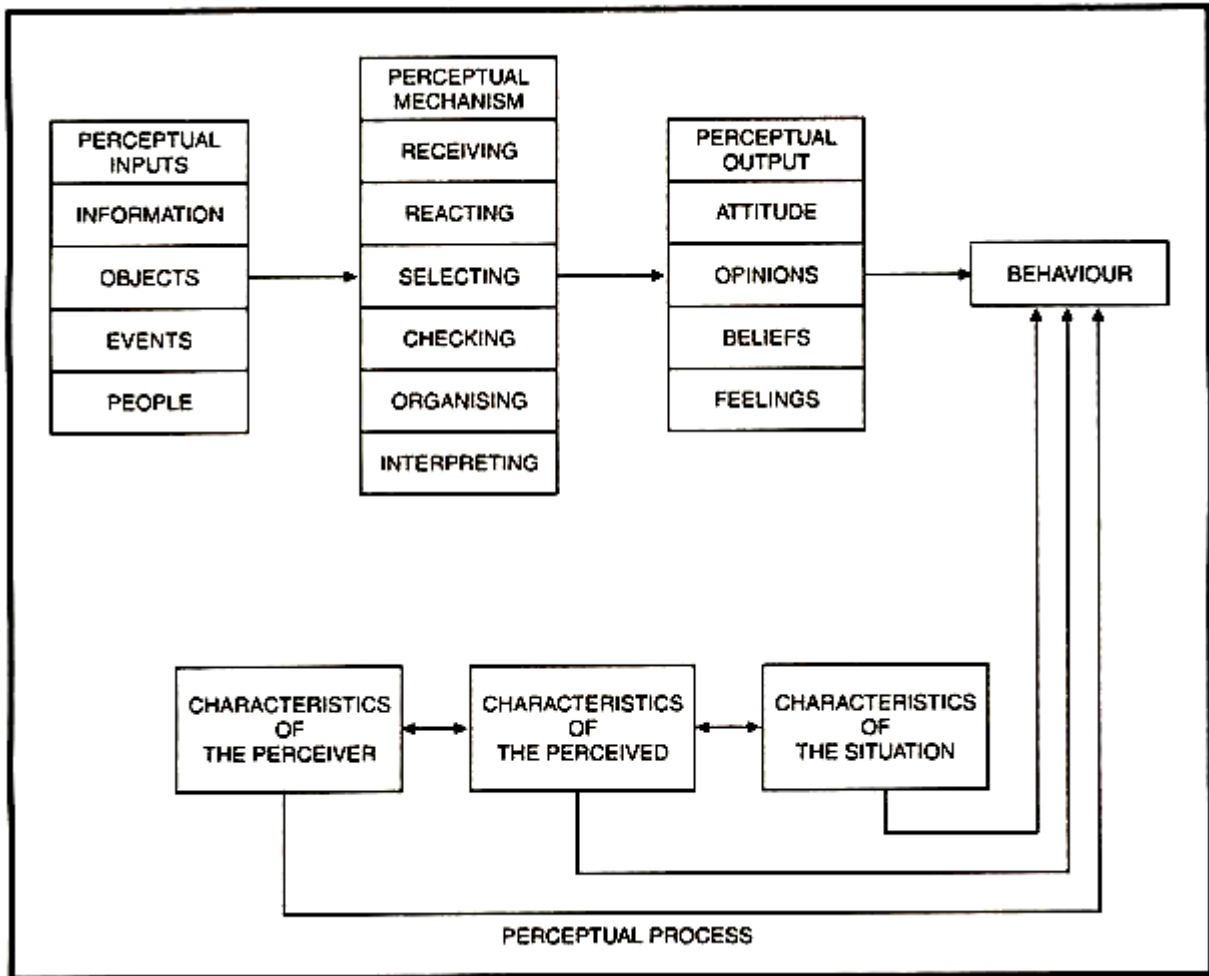
Many things are taking place in the environment simultaneously. However, one cannot pay equal attention to all these things, thus the need of perceptual selectivity. Perceptual selectivity refers to the tendency to select certain objects from the environment for attention. The objects which are selected are those which are relevant and appropriate for an individual or those which are consistent with our existing beliefs, values and needs. For this, we need to screen or filter out most of them so that we may deal with the important or relevant ones.

The following factors govern the selection of stimuli:

(i) External Factors

(ii) Internal Factors





Various external and internal factors which affect our selection process are as explained below:

(i) External Factors:

(a) Size:

The bigger the size of the stimulus, the higher is the probability that it is perceived. Size always attracts the attention, because it establishes dominance. The size may be the height or weight of an individual, sign board of a shop, or the space devoted to an advertisement in the newspaper. A very tall person will always stand out in the crowd on the other hand; a very short person will also attract attention. A full page advertisement will always catch attention as compared to a few lines in the classified section.

(b) Intensity:

Intensity attracts to increase the selective perception. A few examples of intensity are yelling or whispering, very bright colours, very bright or very dim lights. Intensity will also include behavioural intensity. If the office order says "Report to the boss immediately," it will be more intense and effective as compared to the office order which says "Make it convenient to meet the boss today."

(c) Repetition:

The repetition principle states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention drawing than a single one. Because of this principle, supervisors make it a point to give the necessary directions again and again to the workers. Similarly, the same advertisement or different advertisement but for the same product shown, again and again on the TV will have more attention as compared to an advertisement which is shown once a day.

(d) Status:

High status people exert greater influence on the perception of the employees than the low status people. There will always be different reactions to the orders given by the foreman, the supervisor or the production manager.

(e) Contrast:

An object which contrasts with the surrounding environment is more likely to be noticed than the object which blends in the environment. For example, the Exit signs in the cinema halls which have red lettering on a black background are attention drawing or a warning sign in a factory, such as Danger, written in black against a red or yellow background will be easily noticeable. In a room if there are twenty men and one woman, the woman will be noticed first because of the contrast.

Recently we watch the advertisements like the following on TV's:

" Are you tired due to heavy mental work?" Yes!

" Do not use the foods like these as they are not enough for your child.

Our food is complete and planned. Therefore, use our food for your child." " You are not expected to see, taste and use this product..."

Companies present this type of advertisement as the people perceive external stimuli which they do not expect.

Thus, the contrast principle states that, " external stimuli which stand out against the background or which are not what people are expecting will receive their attention."

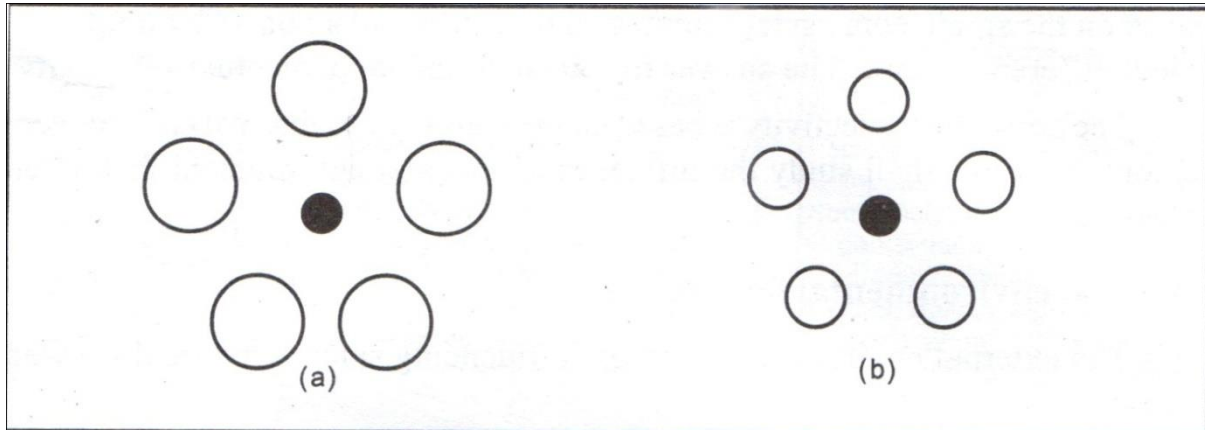


Fig. 2.3: perceptual principle: which black circle is larger

Fig. 2.3 presents the perceptual principle.

The black circle in Fig. 2.3 (a) seems to be larger than that of Fig. 2.3 (b) from a naked eye. But, in reality on measurement both the black circles in Fig. 2.3 (a) and 2.3 (b) are of the same size.

(f) Movement:

The principle of motion states that a moving object receives more attention than an object which is standing still. A moving car among the parked cars catches our attention faster. A flashing neon-sign is more easily noticed.

(g) Novelty and Familiarity:

This principle states that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention getter. New objects in the familiar settings or familiar objects in new settings will draw the attention of the perceiver. A familiar face on a crowded railway platform will immediately catch attention. Because of this principle, the managers change the workers jobs from time to time, because it will increase the attention they give to their jobs.

(h) Nature:

By nature we mean, whether the object is visual or auditory and whether it involves pictures, people or animals. It is well known that pictures attract more attention than

words. Video attracts more attention than still pictures. A picture with human beings attracts more attention than a picture with animals.

(ii) Internal Factors:

The internal factors relate to the perceiver. Perceiving people is very important for a manager, because behaviour occurs as a result of behaviour.

Following are the internal factors which affect perception:

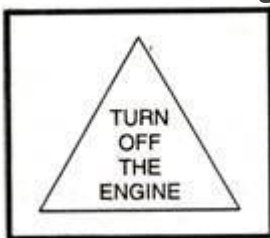
1. Learning:

Although interrelated with other internal factors learning may play the single biggest role in developing perceptual set. A perceptual set is basically what a person expects from the stimuli on the basis of his learning and experience relative to same or similar stimuli. This perceptual set is also known as cognitive awareness by which the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposures to similar stimuli. A number of illustrations have been used by psychologists to demonstrate the impact of learning on perception.

Some are as explained below:

(i) Learning creates expectancy in an individual and expectancy makes him see what he wants to see.

Take the following figure for example:



It takes a few seconds for the reader to realize that there is an extra “the” in the sentence. One tends to read the sentence, because of prior learning in the triangle as “turn off the engine.”

(ii) In this figure, the individual is caught in “Verbal Response Set.” He is likely to read the last words “Mac-Hinery” instead of machinery

M-A-C-D-O-W-E-L-L
M-A-C-D-O-N-A-L-D
M-A-C-B-E-T-H
M-A-C-H-I-N E-R-Y

(iii) Another famous illustration of cognitive awareness is the young woman-old woman experiment.

According to this experiment, if a person is first shown a clear and un-ambiguous picture of a young woman as in fig. (2) and then he is shown an ambiguous picture as in fig. (1), the person will perceive the second picture as that of a young woman. However, if the person is shown the clear picture of an old woman first and then the ambiguous picture, he will perceive the ambiguous picture as that of an old woman.



Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young woman and an old woman



Fig. (2) Young woman



Fig. (3) Old woman

Fig.2.3

It is because of the cognitive awareness as the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposure to Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young similar stimuli.

From the above illustration it is clear that our perceptions and interpretations of such illustrations would depend upon our previous exposure to such situations earlier.

2. Motivation:

Besides the learning aspects of the perceptual set, motivation also has a vital impact on perceptual selectivity. For example, a person who has a relatively high need for power, affiliation or achievement will be more attentive to the relevant situational variables. For example, when such a person walks into the lunch room, he may go to the table where several of his co-workers are sitting, rather than a table which is empty or on which just one person is sitting.

Another example is that a hungry person will be more sensitive to the smell or sight of food than a non-hungry person. In one experiment people who were kept hungry for some time were shown some pictures and were asked to describe what they saw in them. Most of the reported more food items in such perceptions.

3. Personality.

Closely related to learning and motivation is the personality of the perceiving person. For example, the older senior executives often complain about the inability of the new young manager to take tough decisions concerning terminating or reassigning people and paying attention to details and paper work. The young managers, in turn, complain about the 'old guards' resisting change and using paper and rules as ends in themselves. Different perceptions in young and old are due to their age differences. Further, the generation gap witnessed in recent years definitely contributes to different perceptions.

In addition to the above two problems another problem is about the woman in the work place. Women are still not reaching the top levels of organisations. At least part of this problem can be attributed to perceptual barriers such as the established managerial hierarchy is not able to see (perceive) that qualified woman should be promoted into top level positions. Of course, there are individual differences in all age categories but the above examples show that how personalities, values and even age may affect the way people perceive the world around them.

B. Perceptual Organisation:

After having selectively absorbed the data from the range of stimuli we are exposed to at any given time, we then try to organize the perceptual inputs in such a manner that would facilitate us to extract meaning out of what we perceive. Or in other words, person's perceptual process organizes the incoming information into a meaningful whole. While selection is a subjective process, organizing is a cognitive process.

How we organize the stimuli is primarily based on the following principles:

(i) Figure and Ground:

Figure-Ground principle is generally considered to be the most basic form of perceptual organisation. This principle simply implies that the perceived object or

person or event stands out distinct from its back ground and occupies the cognitive space of the individual. For example, as you read this page, you see white as the background and black as the letters or words to be read. You do not try to understand what the white spaces amidst the black letters could mean.

Likewise, in the organisational setting, some people are more noticed or stand out than others. For example, an individual in the organisation might try to focus his entire attention on his immediate supervisor, trying to be in his good books, completely ignoring his colleagues and how they feel about his behaviour. According to this principle, thus, the perceiver tends to organize only the information which stands out in the environment which seems to be significant to the individual.

(ii) Perceptual Grouping:

Grouping is the tendency to curb individual stimuli into meaningful patterns. For instance, if we perceive objects or people with similar characteristics, we tend to group them together and this organizing mechanism helps us to deal with information in an efficient way rather than getting bogged down and confused with so many details. This tendency of grouping is very basic in nature and largely seems to be inborn.

Some of the factors underlying the grouping are:

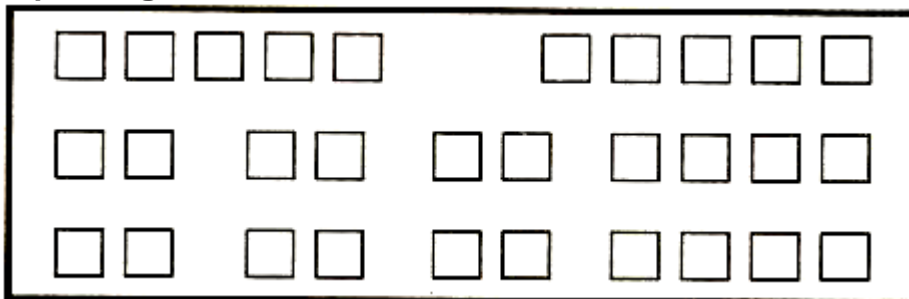
(a) Similarity:

The principle of similarity states that the greater the similarity of the stimuli, the greater the tendency to perceive them as a common group. The principle of similarity is exemplified when objects of similar shape, size or colour tend to be grouped together. For example, if all visitors to a plant are required to wear white hats while the supervisors wear blue hats, the workers can identify all the white hats as the group of visitors. Another example is our general tendency to perceive minority and women employees as a single group.

(b) Proximity:

The principle of proximity or nearness states that a group of stimuli that are close together will be perceived as a whole pattern of parts belonging together. For example, several people working on a machine will be considered as a single group so that if the productivity on that particular machine is low, then the entire group will be considered responsible even though, only some people in the group may be inefficient. The following figure demonstrates the proximity principle.

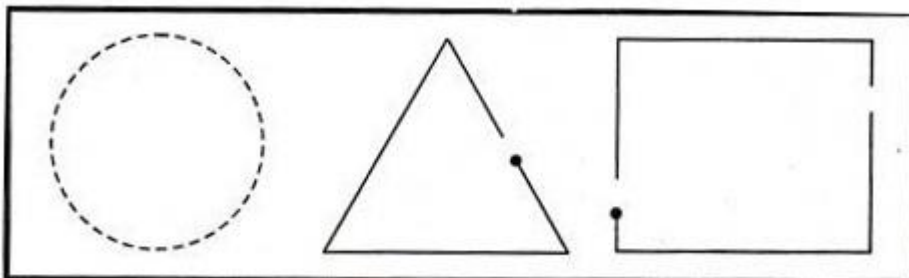
The ten squares in the figure are seen as pairs of two, three, four or five depending on their nearness to each other:



(c) Closure:

The principle of closure relates to the tendencies of the people to perceive objects as a whole, even when some parts of the object are missing. The person's perceptual process will close the gaps that are unfilled from sensory input.

For example, in the following figure the sections of the figures are not complete, but being familiar with the shapes we tend to close the gaps and perceive it as a whole:



Speaking from the point of view of an organisation, if a manager perceives a worker, on the whole, a hard worker, sincere, honest, then even, if he behaves in a

contradictory way sometimes (which is a kind of a gap), the manager will tend to ignore it, because it does not fit in with the overall impression, that he has about the worker.

(d) Continuity:

Continuity is closely related to closure. But there is a difference. Closure supplies missing stimuli, whereas the continuity principle says that a person will tend to perceive continuous lines of pattern. The continuity may lead to inflexible or non creative thinking on the part of the organisational participants. Only the obvious patterns or relationships will be perceived. Because of this type of perception, the inflexible managers may require that employees follow a set and step by step routine leaving no ground for implementation of out of line innovative ideas.

(iii) Perceptual Constancy:

Constancy is one of the more sophisticated forms of perceptual organisation. This concept gives a person a sense of stability in this changing world. This principle permits the individuals to have some constancy or stability in a tremendously variable and highly complex world. If constancy were not at work, the world would be very chaotic and dis-organised for the individual.

There are several aspects of constancy:

(a) Shape Constancy:

Whenever an object appears to maintain its shape despite marked changes in the retinal image e.g. the top of a glass bottle is seen as circular whether we view it from the side or from the top.

(b) Size Constancy:

The size constancy refers to the fact that as an object is moved farther away from us we tend to see it as more or less un-variant in size. For example, the players in

cricket field on the opposite side of the field do not look smaller than those closer to you even though their images on the retina of the eye are much smaller.

(c) Colour Constancy:

Colour constancy implies that familiar objects are perceived to be of the same colour in varied conditions. The owner of a red car sees it as red in the bright sunlight as well as in dim twilight. Without perceptual constancy the size, shape and colour of objects would change as the worker moved about and it would make the job almost impossible.

(iv) Perceptual Context:

The highest and most sophisticated forms of organisation are context. It gives meaning and value to simple stimuli, objects, events, situations and other persons in the environment. The organisational structure and culture provide the primary context in which workers and managers do their perceiving. For example, a verbal order, a new policy, a pat on the back, a raised eye brow or a suggestion takes on special meaning when placed in the context of the work organisation.

(v) Perceptual Defence:

Closely related to perceptual context is the perceptual defence. A person may build a defence against stimuli or situational events in a particular context that are personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Accordingly, perceptual defence may play a very important role in understanding union-management and supervisor-subordinate relationship. Most studies verify the existence of a perceptual defence mechanism.

The general conclusions drawn from these studies are that people may learn to avoid certain conflicting, threatening or unacceptable aspects of the context. The various defenses may be denial of an aspect, by modification and distortion, by

change in the perception, then the last but not the least is recognition but refusal to change.

C. Perceptual Interpretation:

Perceptual interpretation is an integral part of the perception process. Without interpretation, selection and organisation of information do not make any sense. After the information has been received and organised, the perceiver interprets or assigns meaning to the information. In fact, perception is said to have taken place only after the data have been interpreted. Several factors contribute towards the interpretation of data.

More important among them are perceptual set, attribution, stereotyping, halo effect, perceptual context, perceptual defence, implicit personality theory and projection. It may also be noted that in the process of interpretation, people tend to become judgmental. They may tend to distort what they see and even ignore things that they feel are unpleasant.

D. Checking:

After data have been received and interpreted, the perceiver tends to check whether his interpretations are right or wrong. One way of checking is for the person himself to indulge in introspection. He will put a series of questions to himself and the answers will confirm whether his perception about an individual or object is correct or otherwise. Another way is to check the validity of the interpretation with others.

E. Reacting:

The last stage in perception is the reaction. The perceiver shall indulge in some action in relation to the perception. The action depends on whether the perception is favourable or unfavourable. It is negative when the perception is unfavourable and the action is positive when the perception is favourable.

III. Perceptual Outputs:

Perceptual outputs encompass all that results from the throughout process. These would include such factors as one's attitudes, opinions, feelings, values and behaviours resulting from the perceptual inputs and throughputs. Perceptual errors adversely affect the perceptual outputs. The lesser our biases in perception, the better our chances of perceiving reality as it exists or at least perceiving situations with the minimum amount of distortions.

This will help us to form the right attitudes and engage in appropriate behavioural patterns, which in turn will be beneficial for attaining the desired organisational outcomes. It is essentially important for managers who are responsible for organisational results to enhance their skills in order to develop the right attitudes and behaviours.

(iv) Repetition: Mr. Sunil had taken late readmission in MBA course of S.K Institute of Management in September 1999. By that time, first sessional

Test was over in Business Ethics course. Mr. Sunil was told by the teacher the test would be that conducted for him separately at a later date. He used to meet the teacher concerned quite frequently regarding the test. When the teacher asked Mr. Sunil, why do you meet so frequently? His answer was to get the teacher's attention to conduct the test for him.

The repetition principle is that a repeated external stimulus is more attention-getting than a single one. Trade unions include the significant demands in the agendas of the collective bargaining meeting frequently to draw the attention of the top management and the Human Resources Manager. Similar examples include frequent instructions by the superiors to the poor performers and frequent advertisement by the fast moving consumer goods manufacturing/marketing companies.

(v) Motion: During the periods of strikes and agitations, agitators mostly destroy the moving buses and vehicles are moving objects draw the attention rather than stationery objects. Similarly, the moving processes of the production processes receive the worker's attention very much rather than the stationary equipment and its maintenance. The principle here is that, moving objects receive more attention of the people in the field of vision than the stationary objects do.

The companies follow this principle in their advertisements and incorporate mostly moving parts in the advertisements.

(vi) Novelty and Familiarity: Talapatra Paper Mills Employees` Union had been demanding the management for the payment of dearness allowance due to increase in cost of living since 1971. Management did not concede to this demand of workers despite the frequent demands until 1982. The Union resorted to a novel technique of representing the problem by the employees` wives in September 1982. Then the issue had drawn the attention of the top management when their wives explained their problems in managing the family budgets. The management immediately accepted the demand and paid the dearness allowance.

Here, the novelty and familiarity principle is that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention drawer. In this example, the demand of dearness allowance was familiar but representation of the demand by the employees` wives was novel which had drawn the attention of the management. It is said that the efficient managers do the same thing differently. Another example for novelty and familiarity is the job rotation. Here, employee is familiar one whereas the new job is the novel one. Computerisation of my jobs in commercial banks resulted in novelty in doing the familiar job.

Computer aided teaching also brings the novelty in teaching and learning the familiar courses and topics/subjects.

Internal Environmental Factors

So far we have discussed various external factors which influence perceptual selectivity. Now shall we discuss the internal factors influencing the perceptual selectivity. Individual`s physiological and psychological makeup influence their learning, motivation and personality. Learning, personality and motivation of an individual, in turn, influence the perceptual selectivity. Internal factor include:

Learning and Perception

Dr. P. S. Rao had been teaching the course on ‘Organisational Behaviour.’ He used to write the following on the board.

“Which bind them to get her as a social entity.”

Nearly 80 percent of the students used to read the sentence as

“Which bind them to get her as a social entity”.

While remaining 20 percent of the students use to read the sentence correctly as

“Which bind them together as a social entity.”

It took a few seconds for the 80 percent of the students to realize that there are two unnecessary gaps (in fact, it is something wrong).

The 20 percent of the students who got it right used to read it correctly as ‘together’ due to their familiarity with the sentence from prior learning. Thus, these students are perceptually set to read the three independent words as single word as: ‘Together.’

Read the matter in the triangle given below.

So, what did you read?

SWITCH OFF THE LIGHT

If yes, read the matter given in the triangle again.

Did you notice any difference?

The matter given in the triangle is:

SWITCH OFF THE THE LIGHT

There are two “THE” in the sentence.

Most of us read this spontaneously as ‘switch off the light,’ without realising that there is something wrong. The mistake is the word ‘The’ which is printed twice.

This is due to our familiarity from prior learning, that we are perceptually set to read as 'switch off the light.'

These two examples show that learning affects set by creating an expectancy to perceive in a certain manner. Expectancies play a vital role in the cognitive explanation of behaviour. In essence, we see and listen what we expect to see and listen. This can be further understood by pronouncing the following word very slowly.

M-A-T-H-E-M-A-T-I-C-S

If we pronounce this word as 'Mat-He-Mat-ics' we are caught in a verbal response set. A number of similar examples are as follows: **O-F-F-I-C-E**

If we pronounce the word as 'Off-Ice' we are caught in a verbal response set.

M-A-N-A-G-E-M-E-N-T

Similarly, if we pronounce the word as 'Man-Age-Ment' we are caught in a verbal response set.

The most classical example for explaining the impact of learning on development of perceptual set is 'young lady-old lady experiment' as presented in Fig 2.5.

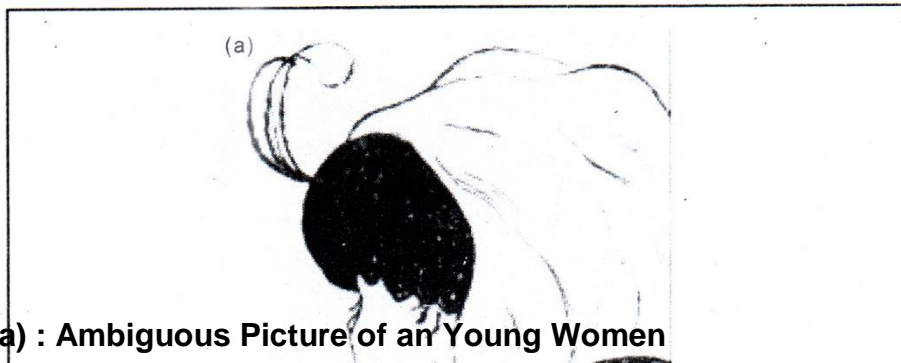


Fig.2.5 (a) : Ambiguous Picture of an Young Women



Obse

1. If we see only figure 2.5 (a), we perceive that it is a figure of a young lady.
2. If we compare figure (a) with (b), we observe that lady in figure (a) is young and the lady in figure (b) is old.

3. If we compare figure (a) with figure (c), we perceive that lady in figure (a) is old and the lady in figure (c) is young.
4. If we compare figure (c) with (b), we perceive that lady in figure (b) is young and the lady in figure (b) is old.

Fig. 2.6: The Two-Three-Pronged Objects

- If we compare all the three, then we perceive that lady in figure (a) is a mix figure of young and old ladies; lady in figure (b) is old lady and lady in figure (c) is young lady.

We perceive that:

- if we see the above figures spontaneously, we perceive that there are three pronged objects.
- If we see the above figures closely and calmly, we observe that there are only two pronged circles, which is correct.

If we see the figure independently, we cannot make the distinction as stated earlier. Therefore, it is clear that perceptual set *i.e.*, comparing one against another gives us a picture close to reality. Thus, learning plays a significant role in developing perceptual set.

Now, we present other varieties of commonly used illusions to present the impact of the leaned set on perception. Fig. 2.6 presents the two-three-pronged objects.

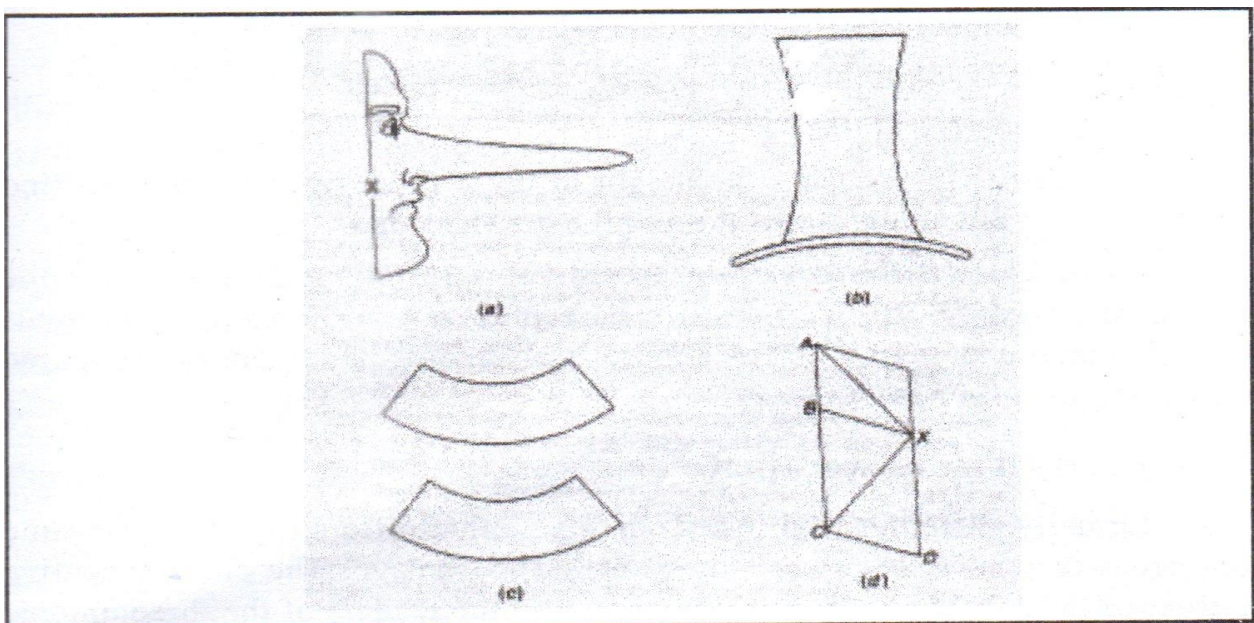
These objects are drawn in contrary to common perceptions of such objects. Fig. 2.7 also presents common perceptual illusions. Illusion may be a form of perception that badly distorts reality.

On observing the figure 2.7 (a)

- We perceive from the figure (a) that the length of nose is larger than the height of the face.
- But, when these dimensions are measured with the scale, you will find that length of nose is equal to the height of the face.

On observing the figure 2.7 (b)

- Most of us feel that the height of the that is more than the width of the brim
- But, when these dimensions are measured with the measures of scale, you will find that both the dimensions are the same.



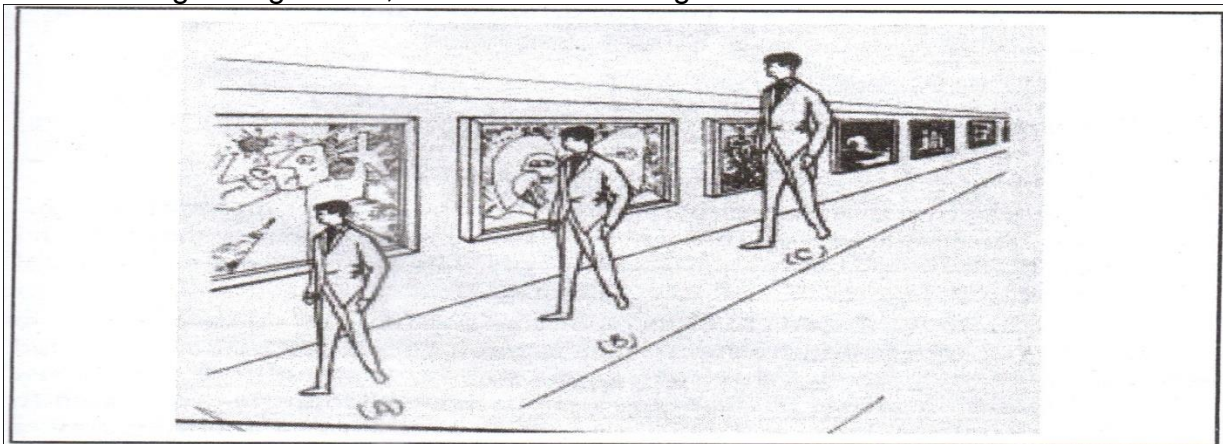
On observing the figure 2.7(c)

1. Most of us feel that the dimensions of the upper figure are larger than the lower figure.
2. But, when these dimensions are measured with the measures of scale, you will find that both the dimensions are the same.

On observing the figure 2.7(d), we feel the following:

1. The length of line CX is more than that the length of line XD
2. The length of line XD is more than that the length of line AD
3. When these dimension are measured, you will find that the dimensions of these lines CX, XD and AD are identically equal.

On observing the figure 2.8, we feel the following:



1. Person (c) in the figure is the tallest
2. Person (b) in the figure is tall
3. Person (a) in the figure is short
4. When you measure the height of these three figures, you will find that the height of all these three are the same.

We perceived differently from the actual in the above figure due to the strong role played by the learned set in perception process. This figure presents the role that the learned set plays a more stronger role in perception compared to the previous figures.

Perceptual set in the workplace

Normally, different employees perceive either differently or on the same line from the same set of real things at the workplace. The chief executive officer of the newly established company told the leaders of the three unions, "The company cannot pay the bonus to you."

The leaders of the three unions were cross-checked to know their perception. Though the statement is unclear, ambiguous and indicating negative view, all the three leaders expressed positively that the company now pays good salaries through it cannot pay bonus as it is in the initial stage of establishment. Thus, perception may be favourable and positive but the statement seems to be negative. Further, all the people may perceive in the same way.

Personality and Perception

Information technology, computerization, office less offices, home-cum-offices, paperless offices and business process reengineering and enterprise

resource planning brought radical changes in the line of thinking and personalities between the young managers and the senior managers.

The senior managers view that the young managers change at a fast rate unnecessarily resulting in wastage in resources and methods. Whilst the young managers perceive that the old managers resist change, if not, move very slowly resulting in becoming the back number in these days of severe competition.

Similar personality differences can also be perceived between male executives and female executives and between the old generation and the younger generation people. Thus, the people of different age groups, sex, backgrounds and values perceive the world around them quite differently.

Professional Experience and Knowledge: Professional/occupational experience and knowledge also play a vital role in developing perceptual set. Further, they also help in attracting the attention of the perceiver. For example, the chief medical officer of the chemical company went to the production department to see the production manager who is a friend of the former. The personal assistant of the production manager informed him that his boss is in the factory. He went into the factory and met the production manager. Later, the production manager was explaining the new technology that the company adopted recently to the Chief medical officer. He identified the areas in the new technology that would cause lung disease to the operators out of his professional knowledge. All the other employees could not identify this.

Paranoid Perception: The person who is the victim of a situation or an event cannot perceive the events like most others who are not the parties to it. For example, the one who is denied promotion can perceive that injustice was done to him and his cognition won't select any other factor which would give him the indication that he is less qualified or less experienced or less efficient than the one who was promoted. Thus the perceptual field of the emotionally disturbed person differs from that of the others. The disturbed person suffers from excessive repression, projection, distortion of reality and highly individual based interpretation such persons behave in an inflexible manner due to the feeling of insecurity.

Perceptual Organisation

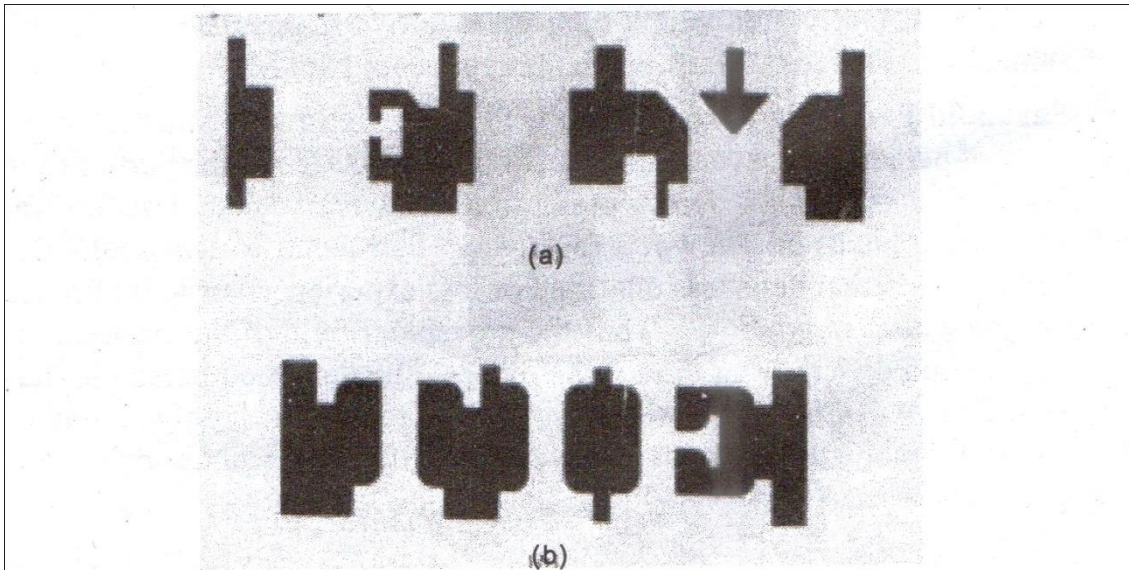
After selecting the inputs from the external environment, based on the influences of the internal environmental factors, we have to organize the inputs in a logical and sequential manner. Therefore, perceptual organisation is the next logical step in the perception process. The data and information have to be organised in a logical and sequential way in order to get a meaningful whole.

The dimensions of the perceptual organization include:

Figure – Ground

We organise information and data based on the figure-ground principle. This principle states that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its background and occupies the cognitive space of the individual. The perceived objects stand out as separable from their general background.

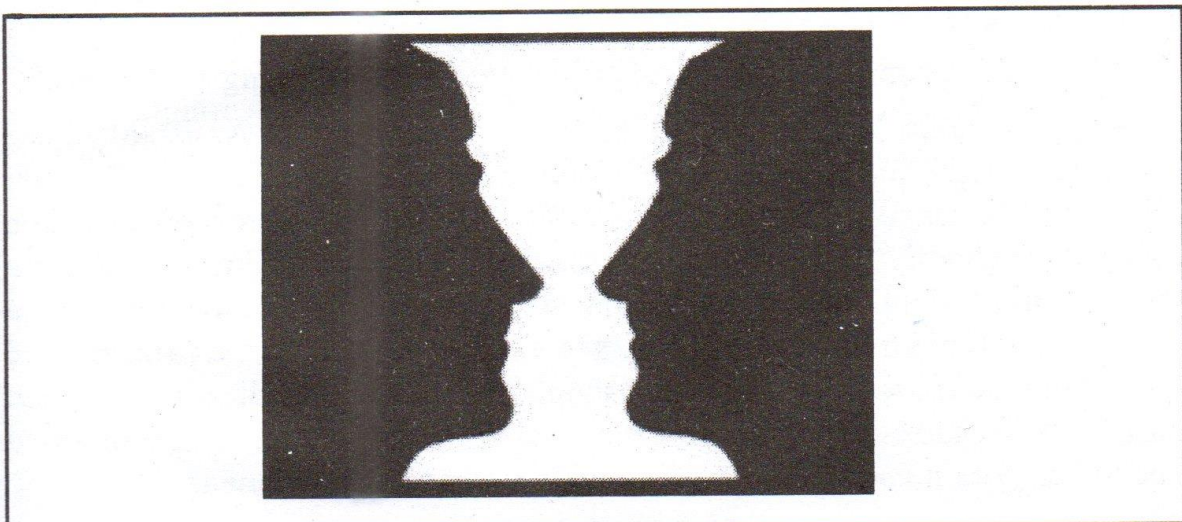
For example, the employees during their probation give top priority for their performance rating given by their superiors rather than on the other activities including their relations with their colleagues.



Observations from the Figure 2.9 include:

1. We perceive an irregular shape of black portion against the white portion.
2. If we close the white portion around (not within) each of the upper figures and read the white portion within each figure, we can get the word **FLY**.
3. Similarly, if we close the white portion around (not within) each of the lower figures and read the white portion within each figure, we can get the word **TIE**.

We perceive an irregular shape against a white background at the first glance. If we closely observe the black background and the white portion within the black background, we can observe the words 'FLY' and 'TIE'. This example presents that perceptual selectivity will influence perceptual organization. Normally, we find the black letters against the white background in the books. But it is opposite in Fig. 2.9 because the letters are in white and the black is the background.



Observations from the figure 2.10 include:

1. We observe a rough picture of black and white options.
2. If we observe the black portion by closing the white portion, we see two rough profiles: one of a male and other of a female.

- If we take the white portion by closing the black portion, we see the shape like a white vase.

2.9 Perceptual Grouping

Perceptual grouping is the tendency to join/club individual stimuli together into recognisable and meaningful patterns. If we perceive objects of people with similar characteristics, we tend to group them together. For example, if we see the students at the University Canteen of UU, discussing the concepts of organisational behaviour, we tend to group them as 'Management Students.' We tend to group the constellations of stimuli together by the following factors:

- Similarity:** Principle of similarity states that we perceive the objects of stimuli as one group or a common group, if there is greater similarity of stimuli among them. When we see the children with the same uniform, we group them as the students of a single school. Similarly, we can also group the employees of B.H.E.L. based on their uniform. We can group those who wear the turban on their head as 'Sikhs.' Fig 2.11 presents the similarity principle.

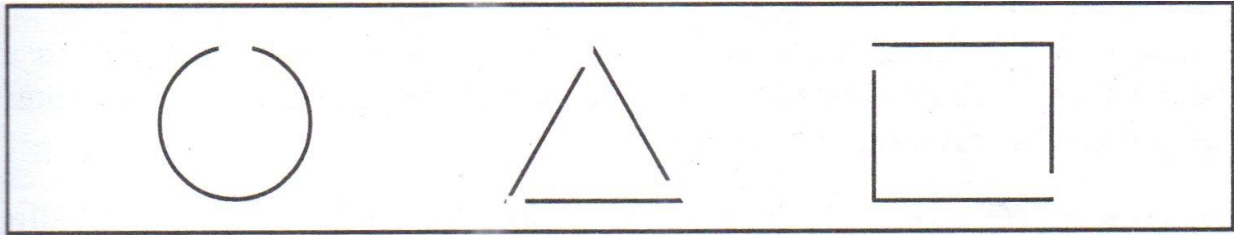
A	B	C	D	E	F
X	X	X	X	X	X
÷	÷	÷	÷	÷	÷
?	?	?	?	?	?
\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$

Observations from the figure 2.11 include:

- On the first impression, we immediately see the horizontal arrangement (columns) of the letters or symbols due to their similarity like ABC..... Or XXX ... but we do not observe the vertical arrangement (rows) as they are dissimilar to each other and also difficult to comprehend them.
 - Thus, similarity of objects plays vital role in grouping the objects.
- Closure:** The principle of closure states that we sometimes perceive a whole when one does not actually exist. Our perceptual process will close the gaps which are unfilled from sensory inputs. For example, $3 \quad 3=6$. We easily perceive that it is $3+3=6$, even when the symbol '+' is missing here. It is quite common that members of an informal organisation see a whole that does not exist.

Highly specialist managers or technical experts often fail to integrate their activities with other employees/experts in the same department or line. Hence, shift towards generalisation took place in the recent times and under business process reengineering.

Most of the modern art, movie making and cartoons need us to close the gaps and make the whole unlike traditional art. Observe Fig. 2.12, which clearly shows that the perceiver perceives the whole circle, triangle and rectangle.



Observations from the Figure 2.12 include:

1. We observe gaps in the circle, triangle and rectangle.
2. With our previous experience, we perceive that the first figure is a circle, second a triangle and third figure as a rectangle on closure of gaps.
3. The closing-up of the gaps is due to our past experience.

Thus, we say that the perceiver perceives the whole.

(iii) Continuity: Some of us may confuse continuity with closure. There is a little but clear difference between continuity and closure. Closure provides missing stimuli while the continuity principle says that we will tend to perceive continuous lines or patterns. We observe the following numbers:

2,4,6,8,10,12,.....

The continuity principle says that the number after 12 is 14. This type of continuity is normal in mathematics. But it leads to inflexible or non-creative thinking on the part of the members of the organisation. Therefore, we can view that continuity can greatly influence the system design of organisational structure. However, continuity limits the innovative ideas or designs or creative flow of information.

(iv) Proximity: The Chief Marketing Manager of COCA-COLA organised the meeting of the Marketing Managers. Twenty marketing managers attended the meeting. Out of the 20, two managers did while addressing the members expressed his dissatisfaction saying that: "I am very much unhappy with the performance of the regional marketing managers....." the chief marketing manager grouped all the regional marketing managers into one due to proximity of nature of jobs, though the performance of a few regional managers is good.

The principle of proximity indicates that a group of stimuli which are close together will be perceived as a whole pattern of parts belonging together. Thus, all the marketing managers are perceived as a single whole.

Perceptual Constancy

So far, we have discussed various factors that influence the perceptual organisation. Further, we discussed earlier that various factors influence the perceptual process. These factors complicate the task of perceptual organisation and perceptual process. But, Mr. Santosh Panda, Production Supervisor of Britannia Biscuits Limited expresses that every day he perceives the same raw material like wheat powder, sugar, salt etc., same machines, same tools and almost same employees. We can state here that the size, design, shape, colour and location of the objects are almost constant. This feature is referred to as the principle of perceptual constancy. It indicates a sense of stability in the dynamic world. Perceptual constancy principle permits us to have some constancy in a tremendously variable and highly complex world. Perceptual constancy makes the perceptual organisation simple.

Perceptual Context

Mr. A.K.Nanda was leaving for Paris from New Delhi by Air India flight. He came to Airport just 30 minutes before the check-in time. He verified his bag and other attaches for his ticket and passport. He could get the passport, but failed to locate his ticket. He recollected at the moment that he placed his ticket in the cupboard in the hotel.

He spontaneously took a decision to go back to the hotel and go to Paris the next day, rather than requesting the officer concerned to permit him to travel by the scheduled flight simply due to the assumption that officers of Air India work by rules like bureaucrats.

The context of the public sector organisational culture and organisational structure of Air India influenced the perception process of Mr. A.K.Nanda. This is what is called perceptual context. Thus organisational culture, structure and objects are the context in which employees and customers perceive the company activities, policies and objectives. Our perceptions regarding quality of the services of Indian Railways – a public sector transport corporation – in contrast to the private sector transport organisations are perceptually set accordingly.

Perceptual Defense

Mr. Bipin Chatoi has been working as a subordinate of Mr. B.M.Mishra in Baghei Chemicals Ltd. Mr. Bipin Chatoi had a problem regarding his working hours. He approached the trade union leaders for solving the problem rather than his superior. Trade Union leaders referred the issue to Mr. B.M.Mishra for settlement. Mr. B.M.Mishra was surprised for the act of Mr. Bipin Chatoi for not informing him of the problem first.

Mr. B.M.Mishra called Mr. Bipin Chatoi and asked him the reason for not expressing the problem to him first. Mr Bipin Chatoi replied, "I had enough experience with you regarding the grievance redressal, when I informed you first." The block developed by Mr. Bipin Chatoi against stimuli/situational events can be referred to as 'Perceptual Defense'.

We may build a defense (i.e. a block / a refusal to recognise) against stimuli or situational events in the context that are personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Perceptual defense is closely related to perceptual context.

Prioritising and Simplifying

Dr.D.V. Ramana, Human Resources Manager, COCACOLA receives a number of representations from employees, problems from the trade union leaders, memos from production manager, requests from marketing manager and orders from the general manager. He arranges all these based on the importance and urgency of each item and makes a priority list. Thus, he simplifies the complex data and information and perceives the important and urgent issues by keeping the other issues as pending. This is called prioritising and simplifying.

Interpretation

Dr. Dinesh has been working as a scientist in Godrej Refrigerators Ltd.,. His wife forgets many things. She dumps many vegetables and other things in the refrigerator and forgets the usage of them. Consequently they get spoiled. He warned his wife many times but in vain. He organised this information, used his judgemental skills and abilities and interpreted the information in such a way that this is not only the problem (forgetfulness) of his wife or other housewives, but the problem with the limited functions of refrigerators available in the market. Then he started researching on how to develop new functions to the existing refrigerators, which would indicate the housewives regarding the expiry time of the articles stored in it. Ultimately he succeeded in his research and his company released the new

product. Dr.Dinesh interpreted the information through his judgemental skills before actually perceiving the problem.

The perceiver after selecting and organizing the stimuli/information has to interpret them in order to make a sensible meaning. The sensible meaning, thus arrived will help the perceiver to make decisions or to act in the situation. The perceiver cannot draw any meaning without the interpretation.

Perceptual Output

The information selected from the external environment through the stimuli is organised and interpreted by one cognitive process. This interpretation turns into the perceptual output. In other words, it is the perception. Perception is in various forms like attitude, opinion, view, feeling and the like. For example, a superior expresses his opinion regarding his subordinate. Employee express their view about their working conditions. Customers express their attitude towards the quality and utility of the products/services.

Individual Behaviour

Perception in the form of attitude, opinion, feeling etc. influence the behaviour. Employees who feel satisfied regarding their job contribute maximum to their jobs. Job satisfaction results in the maximum contribution to the job.

2.10 PERCEPTION AND OB

OB helps in giving directions to systematic perceptions and enables an individual perceive in a unique way so that organisation can achieve competitive advantages.

Reduction of perceptual barriers is important in improving unique way in thinking perceptual barriers can be minimized and the accuracy of the perception can be enhanced by enhancing perceptual skills. Perceptual skills can be enhanced by adopting the following measures:

- Knowing oneself more accurately
- Assessing and knowing the others more exactly
- Being empathic
- Having positive attitudes
- Enhancing one`s self-concept
- Taking a conscious effort to reduce the perceptual barriers
- Open and two-way communication with the employees
- Develop the habit of analysing the incidents/people/objects from the multi-dimensional point of view
- Avoid attributions
- Get complete information from multi-sources regarding an object/incident/a person and organize, interpret and perceive from the data.
- Be in the adult ego state, so that you would be a rational decision-maker. It does mean that your internal factors would be in control.
- Avoid other perceptual distortions that bias our perception
- Avoid inappropriate attributions.

These measures help us to perceive other people, objects and situations as accurately as possible. But most of the subordinates working in various companies

are concerned about how their superior perceive them? In fact most of us also think, how our friends perceive us, how our colleagues view us and the like. In turn, we prefer to behave appropriately to others` preferences in order to impress them.

Impression Management

The purpose of impression management or self-presentation is to regulate or monitor the perceptions others from of us. We mostly tend to try to present ourselves in a socially desirable or acceptable way in order to impress others. The employees tend to present themselves in an acceptable way to their superiors in order to be rated high in the performances appraisal or to be considered for continuation of employment or promotion or salary increase and the like.

The impression management strategies (see Exhibit 2.1) include enhancing the positive behavioural outcomes and reducing the negative behaviour outcomes. In addition, the employees would like to give the impression that they are capable of more than what they are actually capable of. In addition, they use other strategies like hiding the weaknesses, disassociation with the trouble-makers and the like.

Exhibit 2.1: Impression Management (IM) Techniques

Conformity

Agreeing with someone else's opinion in order to gain his or her approval.

Example: A manager tells his boss, "you're absolutely right on your reorganisation plan for the western regional office/couldn't agree with you more."

Excuses

Explanations of a predicament-creating event aimed at minimising the apparent severity of the predicament.

Example: Sales manager to boss, "We failed to get the ad in the paper on time, but no one responds to those ads anyway."

Apologies

Admitting responsibility for an undersirable event and simultaneously seeking to get a pardon for the action.

Example: Employee to boss, "I'm sorry I made a mistake on the report. Please forgive me."

Acclamation

Explanation of favourable events to maximise the desirable implications for oneself.

Example: A salesperson informs a peer, "The sales in our division have nearly tripled since I was hired."

Flattery

Complimenting others about their virtues in an effort to make oneself appear perceptive and likeable.

Example: New sales trainee to peer, "You handled that client's complaint so tactfully! I could never have handled that as well as you did."

Favours

Doing something nice for someone to gain that person's approval.

Example: Salesperson to prospective client, "I've got two tickets to the theater tonight that I can't use. Take them. Consider it a thank-you for taking out the time to talk with me."

Association

Enhancing or protecting one's image by managing information about people and things with which one is associated.

Example: A job applicant says to an interviewer, "What a coincidence. Your boss and I were roommates in college."

(Source: Quoted in Robins, *op.cit.*, p. 370. Based on B.R.Schlenker, *Impression Management (Monetary, CA:Brooks/Cole, 1980)*; W.L.Gardner and M.J.Martinko, "Impression Management in Organisations," *Journal of Management*, June 1988, p. 332; and R.B.Cialdini, "Indirect Tactics of Image Management Beyond Basking," In R.A.Glacialone and P.Rosenfeld (eds.), *Impression Management in the Organsiation (Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1989)*, pp. 45-71.

- **Activity-1**

Analyse the characteristics of your classmates/ fifteen people you know closely and analyse their personalities.

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- **Activity - 2**

Observe five employees of an organisation, interview team, find their characteristics and personalities, the jobs they are doing and find whether personality characteristics match or mismatch with their job profiles.

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- **Activity - 3**

Select three successful business people and three unsuccessful business people, analysis their personalities and find out whether there is any relationship between personalities and success or failure of the organisations.

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- **Activity – 4**

Interview three employees of an organization and ask them about their experiences of misperception that led to a dispute with their boss/subordinates.

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2.11 SUMMARY

Personality is sum total of ways in which an individual reacts to and interacts with others. Personality traits include: reserved, intelligent, feelings, submissive, timid etc. The big five model include openness to experience, emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness and extroversion. Determinants of personality include heredity, environment and situation. Personality development stages include: Freudian Stages, Erikson`s stages of personality development, Adult Life stages, Hall`s career stage model Immaturity to maturity approach.

Personality theories include: Psychoanalytical theory, Socio-Psychological theory, Trait Factor Theory and Holistic / Self Theory of personality. Personality contributes to organisational behaviour through the concepts like locus control, self-monitoring and Type `A` and Type `B` personalities.

Perception is another concepts that contribute significantly to organisational behaviour. Perception is a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environments. Perceptual process include getting perceptual inputs from internal and external environments, selecting the items from external environmental factors through intensity, size, contrast, repetition, motion, novelty and familiarity and internal factors like learning, motivation and personality.

Dimensions of organization include figure ground, perceptual grouping, perceptual constancy, perceptual constancy, perceptual context and perceptual defence. The next stage include prioritising and simplifying these factors, interpretation, perceptual output and individual behaviour.

2.12 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Difine personality?
2. Explain the personality traits. State in details of big five personality traits.
3. Analysis various personality development theories
4. What is perception? How do you differentiate it from sensation?
5. What is perceptual process? Discuss the perceptual inputs, throughputs and output.
6. How do the internal environmental factors affect the perceptual selectivity.
7. How do you organise the data and information in the perceptual throughout process?
8. Discuss the factors that influence the interpretation of data and information in perception process.
9. Why do people fail to perceive close to reality.

10. Why and how people impress others?

2.13. Further Readings: Biswal Pravakar and Rath Namita, 2012, Organizational Behaviour, 2nd Edition. Bhubaneswar: B.K. Publication
Robbins, Stephen P., 2003, Organizational Behaviour 10th Edition, New Delhi: PHI

Chapter-3

LEARNING AND ATTITUDE

3.0 Learning Objectives

After completing this Chapter you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning of learning and various learning theories
- Explain the meaning of attitudes, and functions of attitudes
- Comment on the changes in attitudes and enabling factors

Structure

- 3.0 Learning Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction Learning:
- 3.2 Learning Process
- 3.3 Theories of Learning
- 3.4 Attitude-Characteristics and Components
- 3.5 Attitude and Behaviour
- 3.6 Attitude Formation
- 3.7 Measurement of Attitude
- 3.8 Attitude and Productivity
- 3.9 Summary
- 3.10 Self Assessment Questions
- 3.11 Further Readings

3.1 INTRODUCTION – LEARNING

Learning plays a vital role in the organisation. People learn from the experience of changing behaviour and from the informations collected. Therefore, we should understand the concept of learning in order to understand the behaviour of individuals, groups and the organisation.

Meaning and Definition

In simple words, learning is a change in behaviour as a result of experience. Different scientists defined learning differently as:

According to Stephen P. Robbins, "Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience."

According to Steers and Porter, "Learning can be defined as relatively permanent change in behaviour potentiality that results from reinforced practice or experience."

Munn et. al. have defined learning as, "The process of having one's behaviour modified, more or less permanently, by what he does and the consequences of his action, or by what he observes."

Features or Characteristics of Learning

Learning has the following characteristics:

- **Learning involves changes:** As indicated earlier, people acquire new information which is processed in their cognition. This process produces new knowledge. This new knowledge brings changes in their existing pattern of behaviour.
- **Change must be Relatively Permanent:** When the information acquired is converted into knowledge and wisdom, people change their behaviour more or less permanently.
- **Behavioural issues:** The change in the knowledge and wisdom should produce different attitudes and values. These new attitudes and values should change the behaviour.
- **Experience-based:** Learning is based on experience. Experience may be direct or indirect, personal or through observation or through reading.
- **Reinforcement:** The practice and experience must be given due importance for learning to occur or to be repeated.

3.2 LEARNING PROCESS

People learn through different means like observation of others, direct experiences and indirect experiences. Learning through these various means is called social learning. Social learning theory integrates behavioural concepts, cognitive concepts and environmental determination. This theory draws the inputs from the principles of classical and operant conditioning. It also recognises that learning takes place through various means like vicarious, modelling and self controlling process.

People learn from various models like parents, teacher, peers, leaders etc. The influence of models is significant in social learning theory. There are four processes through which the model influences the individuals. The learning process is very well explained by social learning theory.

Now, we shall discuss the theories of learning.

3.3 THEORIES OF LEARNING

There are four theories of learning viz.,

- Classical Conditioning Theory
- Operant Conditioning Theory
- Cognitive Theories
- Social Learning Theories

Classical Conditioning

The Russian Pioneering behaviourist Ivan Pavlov conducted classical conditioning experiment using dogs as subjects. Classical conditioning came out of experiments to teach dogs to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell. Pavlov measured the amount of Salvia secreted by a dog. Pavlov presented meat powder to the dog (unconditioned stimulus), then he noticed a great deal of salivation (unconditioned response). When he merely rang a bell (neutral stimulus) the dog had no salivation. Next Pavlov presented the meat powder along with ringing the bell. After doing this several times, he rang the bell without presenting the meat. This time the dog salivated to the bell alone. The dog had become classically conditioned to salivated (conditioned response) to the sound of the bell (conditioned stimulus).

The classical conditioning reveals that the stimulus elicits response i.e., S→R.
Example of classical conditioning

	Stimulus (S)	Response (R)
The Individual	Sees a Snake	→ Runs away
	is ordered by an autocratic manner	→ Says 'Yes' boss
	sees a good book	→ reads it

Skinner felt that classical conditioning cannot explain the more complex human behaviours. He felt that human behaviour affects or is affected by the environment. This behaviour is explained by operant conditioning.

Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning emphasises that learning occurs as a consequences of behaviour i.e., R→S. Employees work for more hours to get more salary or not to be fired. If the management pays more salary to those employees who work for more hours, then the employees repeat their behaviour of working for more hours. Paying more salary is called reinforcement. Reinforcement strengthens behaviour and increases the likelihood of repeating that behaviour. Example of operant conditioning:

	Response (R)	→ Stimulus (S)
The Student	Studies hard	Gets first class
The employee	Commits to the company	is promoted
The businessman	is ethical	maximises wealth
The Student	enters the class room	listens to the lecture

Operant conditioning is more relevant to human learning than classical conditioning. It also explains most of the organisational behaviour researchers to explain the effectiveness of managers.

Now, we shall discuss cognitive theories.

Cognitive Theories

Cognitive theories emphasise on the cognitive process. Cognitive learning theories establish the relationship between cognitive environmental cues and expectations.

Edward Tolman is a widely recognised cognitive theorist. He conducted an experiment using white rats as subjects. He found that a rat could learn to run through as intricate maze with purpose and direction toward a goal (food). The rat learned to expect that certain cognitive cues associated with the choice point might eventually led to food. Tolman's approach is depicted as S-S (Stimulus-Stimulus). In other words learning is the association between the cue and expectancy.

Employees expect higher salaries, promotions and high quality of work life. Employees learn that they can achieve their expectations by working productively. The realisation of working productively is the result of cognitive environmental cues. Organisational behaviour researchers are currently concerned about the relationship between cognitions and organisational behaviour.

Now, we shall discuss the social learning theory.

Social Learning Theory

People learn through different means like observation of other, direct experiences and indirect experiences. Learning through these various means is called social learning. Social learning theory integrates behavioural concepts, cognitive concepts and environmental determinants. This theory draws the inputs from the principles of classical and operant conditioning. It also recognises that learning takes place through various means like various, modelling and self controlling process.

People learn from various models like parents, teacher, peers, leaders etc. The influence of models is significant in social learning theory. There are four processes through which the model influences the individuals. These four processes include:

- **Attentional Processes:** People learn from the critical features of the models like leadership skills, attractiveness, timely decision-making etc.
- **Retention Process:** The level of influence of the model depends on the level to what extent the individual remembers the model.
- **Motor Reproduction Processes:** People may times imitate the models. Children imitate their parents and teachers. This is because observation is converted into action.
- **Reinforcement Processes:** Individuals prefer to exhibit the behaviour of the model, if such behaviour results in rewards. People pay more attention to and learn the positively reinforced behaviours from the models.

3.4 ATTITUDES - CHARACTERISTICS AND COMPONENTS

An attitude is an evaluation of an attitude object, ranging from extremely negative to extremely positive. Most contemporary perspectives on attitudes also permit that people can also be conflicted or **ambivalent** towards an object by simultaneously holding both positive and negative attitudes toward the same object. This has led to some discussion of whether individual can hold multiple attitudes toward the same object. An attitude can be as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, events, activities, and ideas. It could be concrete, abstract or just about anything in your environment, but there is a debate about precise definitions. Eagly and Chaiken, for example, define an attitude as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor."

"Attitudes are evaluative statements – either favourable or unfavourable – concerning objects, people or events. They reflect how one feels about something."

Attitudes and values are interrelated.

Characteristics of attitudes

Attitude can be characterized by:

- **Affective Cognitive consistency:** The degree of consistency between the affective and cognitive components influences the attitude—behavior relationship. That is, the greater the consistency between cognition and evaluation, the greater the strength of the attitude-behavior relation.
- **Strength:** Attitudes based on direct experience with the object may be held with greater certainty. Certainty is also influenced by whether affect or cognition was involved in the creation of the attitude. Attitudes formed based on affect are more certain than attitudes based on cognition

- **Valence:** It refers to the degree or grade of likeliness or unlikeliness toward the entity/incident. If a person is fairly unconcerned toward an object then his attitude has low valence.
- **Direct Experience:** An attitude is a summary of a person's past experience; thus, an attitude is grounded in direct experience predicts future behavior more accurately. Moreover, direct experience makes more information available about the object itself.
- **Multiplicity:** It refers to the amount of features creating the attitude. For example, one may show interest in becoming a doctor, but another not only shows interest, but also works hard, is sincere, and serious.
- **Relation to Needs:** Attitudes vary in relative to requirements they serve. Attitudes of an individual toward the pictures serve only entertainment needs, but attitudes of an employee toward task may serve strong needs for security, achievement, recognition, and satisfaction.

Thus, the components of the attitude are:

- **Cognitive:** 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.
- **Affective:** The affective component of attitudes refer 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
- **Behavioural:** 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. Behavioural component of an attitude is an intention to behave in a certain way towards someone or something. The following diagram explains the present and past attitudes.

Exhibit 3.1: Past and Present Attitudes

<i>Sl. No.</i>	<i>Past Attitudes</i>	<i>Present Attitudes</i>
1.	Economies need to be protected from the rest of the globe. As such tariffs and duties were imposed.	Economies need to be opened for enhancing the efficiency of the domestic economy. As such tariffs, quotes etc. are removed and the concept of Globalisation is emerged.
2.	Bureaucratic organisational structures were best suitable.	Organic and humanistic structures are best suitable.
3.	Authority was centralized.	Authority is decentralized.
4.	Management by control.	Management by autonomy and empowerment.
5.	Workers work better as individuals.	Employees perform better as members of Teams.
6.	Workers try to avoid the work.	Employees create the work and take it as challenge.

3.5 ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR

The effects of attitudes on behaviors is a growing research enterprise within psychology. Icek Ajzen has led research and helped develop two prominent theoretical approaches within this field: the theory of reasoned action and, its theoretical descendant, the theory of planned behavior. Both theories help explain the link between attitude and behavior as a controlled and deliberative process. In psychology, the theory of planned behavior (abbreviated TPB) is a theory that links one's beliefs and behavior.

The theory states that attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, together shape an individual's behavioral intentions and behaviors.

The concept was proposed by Icek Ajzen to improve on the predictive power of the theory of reasoned action by including perceived behavioural control.^[1] It has been applied to studies of the relations among beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions and behaviors in various fields such as advertising, public relations, advertising campaigns, healthcare, sport management and sustainability.

Employees follow the orders of their boss, if they have positive attitude towards their boss. Attitudes are more important as they affect and determine job behaviour. Positive attitudes result in positive behaviour and vice versa. Management should develop positive attitudes among employees in view of positive relationship between attitudes and behaviour.

Attitudes influence behaviour by performing several functions. Now, we shall discuss these functions.

3.6 ATTITUDE FORMATION

Attitude can be either positive or negative. Gaining positive attitude will take an organisation to a newer heights. Attitude formation is determined by various factors like internal organisational environment including the group to which an individual belongs or external factors.

It is important for a manager to create and manage better working environment so that, it will create positive attitude to accomplish given task. Manager

should evaluate and appraise both individuals and groups to identify if there is any push required to gain positive attitude from time to time.

3.7 MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDES

Though attitude is a hypothetical construct it is also subject to measurement. The most common and frequently used measures of attitudes are the questionnaires which ask the respondents to evaluate and rate their attitude toward a particular object directly, and to respond favorably or unfavorably about his belief regarding the attitude object. Generally, bipolar scales are used to assess the attitudes of individual employees in an Organisation. Different types of scales are in use with respect to measurement of attitudes viz., Thurstone's scale, Likert's scale, Bogardus's social distance scale, Guttman's scale etc. Let us throw a dim light on these scales.

Thurstone's scale: The statements, both favorable and unfavorable, relating to the area in which attitudes were to be measured are placed into eleven piles; one representing the most favorable one and one representing the unfavorable. Individuals will then be asked to check those statements with which they agreed. The average of the scale values of the items, which they accepted, will give an indication of the placement of a person along the attitude continuum.

Likert's scale: Another scale that is relatively easy when compared to the earlier is the one that is developed by Rensis Likert. Likert's scale consists of five boxes ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Under each statement of attitude the respondent will be given a chance to check one of five boxes and finally all the ratings are summed up. The Likert's scale is also known as summed-rating measure, because several statements are collected in an attitude area, such as one's attitude about, a job, and the scales are added up or summed to obtain a person's attitude toward his job. The summed-rating scale provides a means of measuring the intensity of one's attitude toward a particular object/event in addition to the direction.

Bogardus's social distance scale: Perhaps the simple scale of measuring attitudes is the social distance scale developed by Bogardus in 1925. The scale is composed of a large number of statements regarding national, racial or ethnic groups.

Guttman's scale: Guttman in 1950 developed cumulative scaling technique to measure attitudes. In the scale of one's attitude toward work, an employee might be presented with six statements displaying successively higher degrees of dissatisfaction. It is assumed that the employee will reach some point beyond which he can no longer agree. The main threshold is considered to be the degree of satisfaction.

Measuring attitudes by means of projective tests: Other methods are, therefore, sometimes required to obtain a truer picture of attitudes. One such method is the projective test, which requires a person to respond to an unstructured stimulus situation. The rationale behind such tests is that, when the stimulus situation is unstructured, mainly his motives, expectations, and other personal factors determine the individual's responses. Projective tests of attitude are particularly valuable in the study of prejudice, since so many of our prejudices operate at an unconscious level or are deliberately disguised to conform to prevailing taboos – against the expression of overt prejudice.

There are good many other scales to measure attitudes. From a practical standpoint, one should either use a standard questionnaire or consult an expert to obtain a valid estimate of attitudes of the employees in an Organisation.

Some problems in attitude measurement

- When paper and pencil or interview methods are used to assess attitudes, there are certain matters which require special care. Leading questions, which induce the subject to give a certain answer, should be avoided. For example the question "How do you feel about TV shows which feature violence, cheating and immoral conduct"? It would be impossible to express agreement with such TV shows.
- The questions should be understandable to the respondent and should take into account the respondent's way of thinking about the matter in question. Open-ended questions, as distinct from structured set of questions, are often used. So that the respondent does not have to choose between fixed alternatives and may respond freely according to how he thinks and feels about the subject. Then, depending on his answers, he is asked further questions which are intended to find out how he feels about specific aspects of the subject.
- Respondents sometimes consciously or unconsciously distort their answers. Conscious distortion or faking is most likely to occur when a person has some motive to misrepresent his attitude, such as fear of reprisal, embarrassment, or guilt at feeling a certain way or a desire to please or impress the questioner. We may answer attitude questions by giving what we consider to be the socially desirable answer instead of expressing feelings we think others would reject.

- One must be careful to get a representative sample of whatever group or population to which one wishes to generalise his findings.

3.8 ATTITUDE AND PRODUCTIVITY

Attitude and productivity are closely associated. Knowledge, Skills, Ability etc., of an individual cannot be utilised without his positive attitude towards a given task. The positive attitude helps an employee to take the given task as a game or play.

It gives immense pleasure to an individual to work happily and take team along with them. This enhances the productivity and reduces wastage of resources.

- **Activity-1**

Conduct a small experiment on your pet animals similar to Pavlov’s experiment and write your observation.

.....

- **Activity-2**

Take case of an employee who was awarded punishment by his/her superior and analyse his/her learning behaviour.

.....

- **Activity-3**

Prepare a small questionnaire and conduct a survey of Attitudes of Customers towards a product or attitudes of employees towards their organisation.

- **Activity-4**

Observe the five people who frequently change their attitudes and find causes and their value system.

.....

3.9 SUMMARY

The fast growing information and knowledge make learning as the order of the day not only for individuals but also for organisation. Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. Characteristics of learning include: learning involves change; change must be relatively permanent, inclusion of behavioural issues and experience based.

There are three categories of learning theories viz., behaviouristic theories (classical conditioning, operant conditioning), cognitive theories, and social learning theory. Principles of learning include: law of effect, reinforcement, positive and negative reinforcement and punishment.

Learning and attitudes are closely linked to each other. Attitudes are evaluative statements—either favourable or unfavourable—concerning objects, people or events. They reflect how one feels about something. Attitudes invariably influence and shape behaviour of individuals. Functions of attitudes include: Adjustment function, ego-defensive function, value expressive function and knowledge function. Various measures enable change in attitudes viz., additional information, use of fear, resolving discrepancies, influence of friends and peers and co-opting approach

3.10 SELF- ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is learning? Discuss various learning theories.
2. What are attitudes? Explain the characteristics and components of attitudes.
3. What are the changes in attitudes? Explain the methods of measurement of attitudes.

Chapter – 4

Motivation

Learning Objectives

After completing this Chapter you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning of learning and various learning theories.
- Explain the meaning of attitudes, and functions of attitudes.
- Comment on the changes in attitudes and enabling factors.
- Know different types of motives like primary motives, secondary motives, general motives, power motives, achievement motives and affiliation motive.
- Understand the meaning and the basic motivation concepts like, motivation, motive and motivating.
- Explain the significance and nature of motivation.
- Analyse content theories, process theories and reinforcement theories.
- Observe the developments of the motivation concepts from the analysis of various motivations theories.

Structure

4.0 Learning Objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Definition

4.3 Classification of Motive

4.4 Nature of Motivation

4.5 Motivation Process

4.6 Theories of Motivation

4.6.1 Achievement Motivation Theory

4.6.2 Need Priority Theory

4.6.3 Theory X and Theory Y

4.6.4 Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory

4.6.5 Alderfer ERG Theory

4.6.6 William Ouchi's Theory Z

4.7 Summery

4.8 Self Assessment Questions

4.9 Further Readings

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Motivation is an important factor which encourages persons to give their best performance and help in reaching enterprise goals. A strong positive motivation will enable the increased output of employees but a negative motivation will reduce their performance. A key element in personnel management is motivation.

Motivation results from the interaction of both conscious and unconscious factors such as the (1) intensity of desire or need, (2) incentive or reward value of the goal, and (3) expectations of the individual and of his or her peers. These factors are the reasons one has for behaving a certain way. An example is a student that spends extra time in studying for a test because he or she wants a better grade in the class.

Every human action is the result of a need or desire. One experiences a sort of mental discomfort as long as that need remains unsatisfied in him. The moment the action is initiated he makes an attempt to get over the discomfort! What causes an action is it the need or desire? What causes a need is called the stimulus. Therefore, the manager's duty is to create the stimulus that causes a need which initiates action that leads to satisfaction. This should be a repetitive process for the action to continue. All this is call 'Motivation' in management.

According to **Likert**, "It is the core of management which shows that every human being gives him a sense of worth in face-to face groups which are most important to him....A supervisor should strive to treat individuals with dignity and a recognition of their personal worth."

4.2 Definitions:

Motivation has been variously defined by scholars as follows:.

Berelson and Steiner defined:"A motive is an inner state that energizes, activates, or moves and directs or channels behaviour goals."

Lillis defined as:"It is the stimulation of any emotion or desire operating upon one's will and promoting or driving it to action."

Dubin defined as:Motivation is the complex of forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organization."

Vance defined as : "Motivation implies any emotion or desire which so conditions one's will that the individual is properly led into action."

Characteristics of Motivation:

Motivation is a psychological phenomena which generates within an individual. A person feels the lack of certain needs, to satisfy which he feels working more. The need satisfying ego motivates a person to do better than he normally does.

From definitions given earlier the following inferences can be derived:

1. Motivation is an inner feeling which energizes a person to work more.

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

Motives

The term motive is derived from the Latin word 'movere.' It means 'to move'. 'Motive' is defined as an inner state that energises, activates (or moves) and directs (or channels) the behaviour of individuals towards certain goals. Motives are certain important needs of human beings. These needs have different degrees of potency or strength.

The strong need or motive creates high tension or disequilibrium in a person and makes him restless until the need is fulfilled. For example, the need for professional recognition makes the doctor restless until the co-doctors and patients recognize him as an efficient doctor. In order to reduce the tension, the doctor treats the critical cases. Motives induce the individuals to channel their behaviour towards those actions which would reduce the disequilibrium. Thus, motives are drives which energise individuals to an action with a directions. For example, the strong motive of earning large sums of money directs the students to take up the action of studying course which have fast earnings.

4.3 CLASSIFICATION OF MOTIVE

Human motives can be classified into two;

- Primary motives
- Secondary motives

Primary motives

- Primary needs are mainly physiological/biological and unlearned. They include need for food, water, clothing and shelter, sleep, sex and other material concerns

Secondary motives:

- Are mainly psychological and learned. And they include belongingness, power prestige, competence recognition and achievement.

- For organizational behaviour, as the society develops economically and becomes more complex, the primary motives give way to secondary motives in motivating behaviour

Motivating

Marketing Manager of ABCD Ltd. tells sales force as: those who achieve 100% targets will receive 100% of monthly salary as commission and will be promoted to Area Sales Managers. Thus the marketing manager induced the sales force to engage in extensive sales through the motives of commission and promotion. Motivating implies that one person induces another person to engage in action or desired work by ensuring that a channel to direct the motive of the person becomes available and accessible to the person.

Managers play a significant role in motivating the subordinates. They identify employees' talents, skills, creativity and innovative ideas and energises them to put these into action. Thus, the managers motivate their subordinates. Through this action, the managers help to convert the innovative and creative ideas of their subordinates into worthwhile actions. Managers play a significant role in motivating their subordinates by channelling the employee's potentialities and work behaviour towards the organisational goals.

Exhibit 4.1: Examples of Key Secondary Needs

Need for Achievement

- Doing better than competitors
- Attaining or surpassing a difficult goal
- Solving a complex problem
- Carrying out a challenging assignment successfully
- Developing a better way to do something

Need for Security

- Having a secure job
- Being protected against loss of income or economic disaster
- Having protection against illness and disability
- Being protected against physical harm or hazardous conditions
- Avoiding tasks or decisions with a risk of failure and blame

Need for Power

- Influencing people to change their attitudes or behaviour
- Controlling people and activities
- Being in a position of authority over others
- Gaining control over information and resources
- Defeating an opponent or enemy

Need for Status

- Having the right car and wearing the right clothes
- Working for the right company in the right job
- Having a degree from the right university
- Living in the right neighbourhood and belonging to the country club
- Having executive privileges

Need for Affiliation

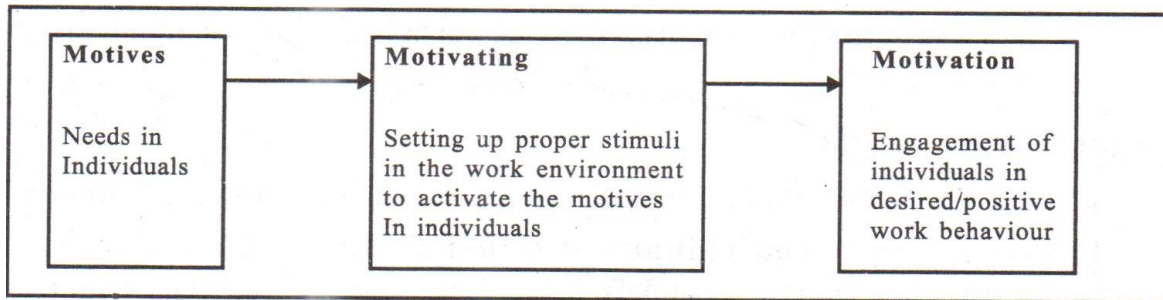
- Being liked by many people
- Being accepted as part of a group or team
- Working with people who are friendly and cooperative
- Maintaining harmonious relationships and avoiding conflicts
- Participating in pleasant social activities

Exhibit 4.2: Need Hierarchy in Different Countries

<i>Country</i>	<i>Need Priority</i>
United States and Japan	Self-actualisation, esteem, safety, physiological and social
France	Self-actualisation, esteem, physiological, safety and social
Germany	Self-actualisation, physiological, esteem, social and safety
India	Physiological, self-actualisation, esteem, social and safety
Malawi	Physiological, self-actualisation, esteem, safety and social
China (Esteem needs are not in evidence)	Self-actualisation, safety, physiological and social

Further, the managers also convert a weak desire into a strong desire and motive. This, in turn helps the employee to make use of his potentialities for his benefit and also for the organisation.

The relationship among motive, motivating and motivation is presented in Fig. 4.1.



4.4 NATURE OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is mainly concerned with the directing of employees towards organisational objectives and mission. The nature of motivation is discussed as

(i) Motivation is a Continuous Process: As we have studied in economics, human wants are unlimited. It is said that, 'Even' God cannot satisfy all human wants.' With the satisfaction of one want, another want preferably of the higher order is created. Thus, new wants emerge when the present wants are satisfied. Further, all the wants cannot be satisfied at the same time. Wants are to be satisfied one after another continuously. Hence, motivation is also a continuous and an unending process.

(ii) Motivation is a Psychological Concept: Motivation is concerned with the psychological aspects of the human being. The level of satisfaction, contentment, etc. by using the same reward/ incentive varies from person to person. This is due to variations in aspirations attitudes, feelings and perceptions of the individuals. Thus, motivation is reaction of the organs of the human body to the inducements/incentives offered.

(iii) The Entire Individual is Motivated: As stated earlier, motivation is a psychological concept interacting with the total organs of an individual. Further, each individual is an integrated and comprehensive system. The entire system of an individual reacts to the motivation. Thus, the entire individual is motivated.

(iv) Frustrated Individual fails to be motivated: Some individuals are frustrated despite of the rewards due to the wide gap between his/her aspirations and rewards. Some of the frustrated persons become mentally ill and these persons cannot be motivated.

(v) Goals Lead to Motivation: Goals form a part of the motivational process. Goal achievement results in the satisfaction of want. Goal fulfilment leads to reduction of drives and fulfils deficiencies. Thus goal achievement ends the motivation process.

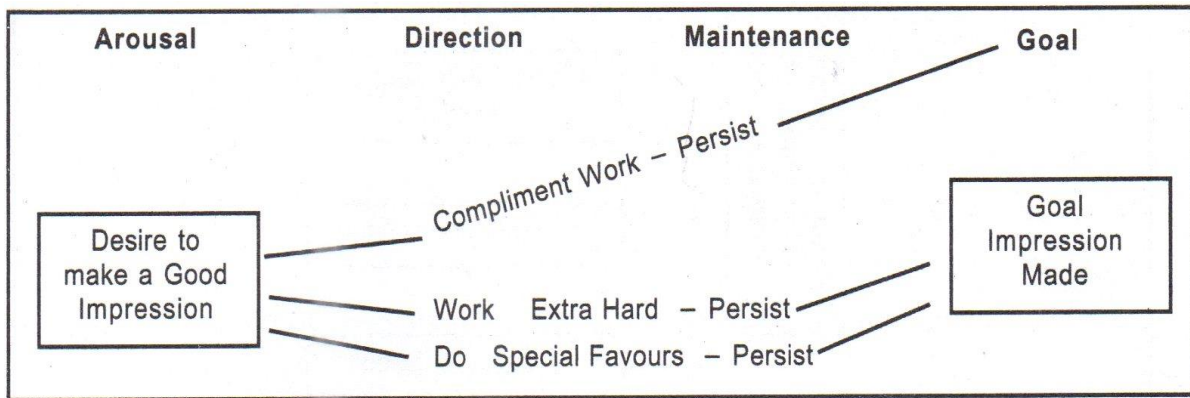
(vi) The self-Concept as a Unifying Force: Self concept is the life position of a person that he formulates about himself during his childhood. He thinks himself in

the same way during his life time until and unless a major change takes place in the rest of the life time. Therefore, those who formulated a positive view about themselves during the childhood will be motivated by themselves in the rest of the life time. And the vice versa is true in case of negative self concept.

Features of Motivation

The analysis of definitions on motivation presents the following features:

- 1. Motivation is Individual's Internal Feeling:** Motivation is a psychological process within individuals. Individual needs/desires are the feelings in the mind of a person regarding the deficiencies. These deficiencies include physical, social and psychological.
- 2. Motivation is Concerned with the Total Person:** Individuals are total persons. They are self-contained. Each individual is an inseparable unit and all his needs are interrelated. The individual feelings in the social area affect his physical and psychological areas also. Individuals feelings and motivation is continuous process. They result in continuous and interrelated human behaviour.
- 3. Motivation = anticipated values x Perceived Probability:** Motivation is the product of anticipated values from an action and the perceived probability that these values would be attained by the action. The anticipated value is called 'Valence' and the perceived probability is called 'Expectancy.' Thus the
$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy}$$
- 4. Motivation is the willingness to exert** high levels of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the efforts and the ability to satisfy some individual need.
- 5. Motivation involves** the arousal, direction and maintenance of behaviour towards a goal. It is presented in Fig.4.2.

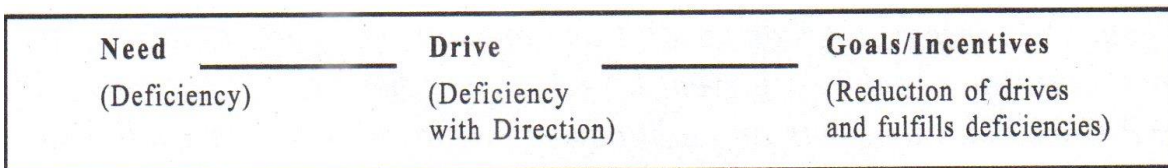


4.5 MOTIVATION PROCESS

Motivation is derived from the word motive. “A motive is an inner state that energises, activates or moves and directs or channels behaviour towards goals.”

“Motivation represents an unsatisfied need which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing the individual to move in a goal directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium by satisfying the need.” According to the Encyclopaedia of Management, “motivation refers to the degree of readiness of an organization to pursue some designated goal and implies the determination of the nature and locus to the forces, including the degree of readiness.”

Motivation is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or ‘incentive.’ Thus, the process of motivation lies in the meaning of and relationship among needs, drives and incentives (Fig. 4.3).



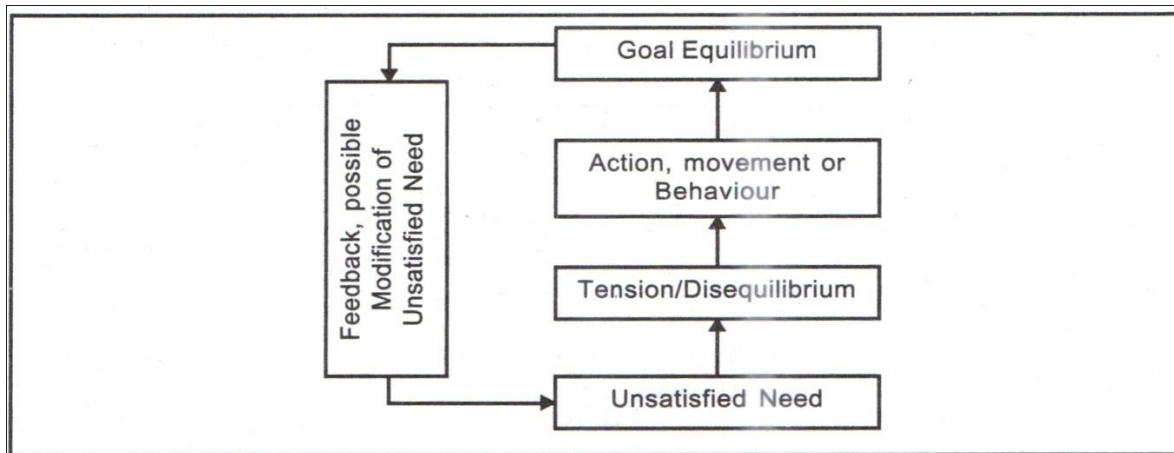
Need: Need is deficiency. Needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance.

Drive: Drive is a deficiency with direction. They are action-oriented and provide an emerging thrust towards goal accomplishment.

Incentives: Incentive is anything that will alleviate a need to reduce a drive.

Constant state of tension is the nature of motivated people. The drives towards an activity relieve the tension. The outcome or the result also reduces the tension. Greater activity is needed to reduce the greater tension. The greater activity increases the level of motivation. Thus greater tension needs greater activity which

results in higher motivation. The basic motivation process is presented in Fig. 4.4. This process shows that these are three phases in motivation.



There are three areas in motivation viz., motives, motivation and motivating. Now, we shall study them.

The three basic phases of motivation include: Effort, Persistence and Direction.

Effort: The strength of a person’s work related behaviour is determined by the amount of effort devoted for the activity. For example, the salesman of an insurance company can sell more number of insurance policies and of higher value, by devoting a lot of time for and effort in meeting and convincing the prospective customers.

Persistence: Motivation should be a permanent and an integral part of human beings. Motivation should also be persistence in the efforts. Therefore, individuals put their efforts continuously until the goal is achieved. Once the predetermined goal is achieved, the individual selects or chooses further higher goal. Then the individual puts further additional effort and strives continuously and persistently to achieve the higher goal. For example, an MBA student has a goal of securing ‘A’ grade in MBA and puts all the efforts to achieve the goal. Once this goal is achieved, he selects another goal of becoming an ERP Consultant and puts an additional effort to achieve this goal. Thus, high motivation needs higher level and persistent efforts.

Direction: The goal achievement requires a clear direction in addition to persistent hard work. Direction enhances the level and quality of output. The efforts should be directed towards the organisational goals. Clear direction ensures that the persistent efforts are put for the right purpose in the right level and in the right time.

The candidate who earned MBA degree and would like to become an ERP consultant, directs all his time, money, mental and physical inputs to learn necessary skills and become an ERP consultant.

4.6 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The theoretical approaches to motivation can be classified into there:

1. The content theories – which go as far back as early 1900
2. Process theories
3. Contemporary theories

(1)Content Theories

1900 – Scientific management theories (Fredrick Taylor which emphasized wages and incentives as motivators

1940s – Hawthorne Studies (Elton Mayo) emphasizes working conditions and need for affiliation as motivators

1950s/1960s - Maslow's Hierarchy of needs Theory

Douglas McGregor Theory X and Y

Herzberg two factor theory

Alderfer Expectancy, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory

(2)Process Theories

1960s Vroom Expectancy Theory

Porter Lawler Performance/satisfaction model

(3)Contemporary Theories

Stacy Adams equity Theory of work motivation

1961 McClelland Achievement Motivation model

4.6.1.D.C. McClelland Achievement Motivation Theory

While many psychologists have studied common factors in human motivation, others have focused on differences between individuals. One such researcher is

McClelland of Harvard University. He and his team drew attention to three set of needs in particular as follows:

- The need for achievement (n-Ach)
- The need for power (n-Pow)
- The need for affiliation, or belonging (n-Aff)

McClelland isolated the n-Ach as key human motive and that is influenced strongly by personality and environment

Achievement may be defined as the degree to which persons wishes to accomplish challenging goals succeeds in competitive situation and exhibit desire for feedback regard performance

He concluded that n-Ach is developed more by childhood experiences and culture background than by purely inherited factors. Hence the importance of management by supervisors training and designing jobs to increase achievement motivation

Persons with high need for achievement tend to have the following characteristics:

1. *Want to do better than the competitors – highly competitive*
2. *Moderate risk takers*
3. *Need for immediate feedback. these people prefer activities that will provide immediate feedback e.g. mechanical work rather than research work, sales rather than marketing*
4. *Satisfaction with accomplishment: accomplishing a task is intrinsically satisfied in itself without necessary accompanying material rewards – want money for what it can buy and not for its own sake*
5. *Preoccupied with the task: higher achievers tend to be totally preoccupied with the task until they are successfully completed. They cannot stand to leave a job half finished and are not satisfied with themselves until they give maximum effort.*
6. *They are dedicated, committed and hence sometimes unfriendly, braggers*
7. *They like attaining or surpassing a difficult goal and are excited when solving difficult and complex problems*
8. *Are innovative – enjoy developing better ways of doing things*
9. *Can exercise personal responsibility*

Need for Power

Characteristics

- Need to influence others
- Control others
- Being in possession of authority
- Gaining control of information
- Defeating the opponent

Need for affiliation

- Being liked by many people
- Being accepted as part of a group
- Working with people who are friendly
- Maintain harmonious relationship and avoid conflict
- Participating in pleasant social activities

Need for security

- Have a secure job
- Be protected against loss of income
- Protection against illness and disability
- Protection against physical harm or hazardous condition
- Avoid tasks with a risk of failure or blame

Need for status

- Having the right car
- Wearing the right clothes
- Working for the right company
- Having a degree from the right university
- Living in the right neighborhood
- Belong to a certain club

4.6.2.MASLOW'S HIERARCHY NEED THEORY

The most popular and important content theories of motivation is the Maslow's Theory. According to Maslow, human needs form a hierarchy, starting at the bottom

with the physiological needs and ascending to the highest need of self-actualisation as shown in fig. 4.5 He says when one set on needs are satisfied, they no longer work as motivation as a man seeks to satisfy the next higher level needs. Drawing mainly from humanistic psychology and clinical experience, Abraham Maslow outline on overall theory of motivation He said that a person's motivation could be arranged in hierarchical manner.

He believed that *once a given level of need is satisfied, it no longer serves to motivate. The next level needs to be activated in order to motivate an individual. Once the needs at the lower level are satisfied, those at the next higher level emerge and demand satisfaction.*

There are five levels in his hierarchy of needs:

- Basic or Physiological Needs

- These are the needs which must be satisfied to maintain life. The basic needs include need for food, water, air and shelter.

Application: These needs are unlearned (primary) these needs can be met by providing basic salary or wage and safe working conditions.

- Safety or Security Needs
- Once the physiological needs have been met, the needs at next higher levels, safety needs emerge.
- Need for a stable environment relatively free from threats
- This includes emotional as well as physical safety
- Safety needs include desire for protection from physical danger, quest for economic security, preference for familiar rather than the unfamiliar, and desire for an orderly predictable world.

Application: Safety needs can be met by job security, joining trade union and fringe benefits such as insurance or medical scheme, severance pay, pension plans.

- Social Needs /love and belongingness

- When physiological and safety needs have been met, social needs the next level become important motivators.

- Need related to affectionate relations with others and status within the group
- These needs include the desire to belong, to be accepted, to give and receive friendship and affection.

Application: Social needs are met by compatible formal and informal work groups, friendship at work, joining clubs, societies and social groups

- Ego or Esteem Needs

- Once physiological, safety, and social needs are satisfied, the esteem needs assume priority.
- Self esteem needs can be broken into two categories. The first category reflects our need for competence and achievement or success. This can be satisfied intrinsically.
- The second category of esteem needs include the desire for reputation, prestige and recognition from others.

Application : Ego or self –esteem needs can be met by promotion or merit pay increase, high status job title, less direct supervision, delegation of authority.

- Self-Actualization or Self-Fulfillment Needs

- Self-actualization or self-fulfilment is the highest level in the hierarchy. These are the individual needs for realizing his or her own potential for continued self development and creativity.
- It is a feeling of accomplishment and of being satisfied with one's self or become the best one is capable of becoming.
- Self actualization is the persons motivation to transform self perception into reality
- *Application:* Self – actualization needs can be met by challenging jobs, creative tasks, advancement opportunities, and achievement in work. Realization of one's potential.

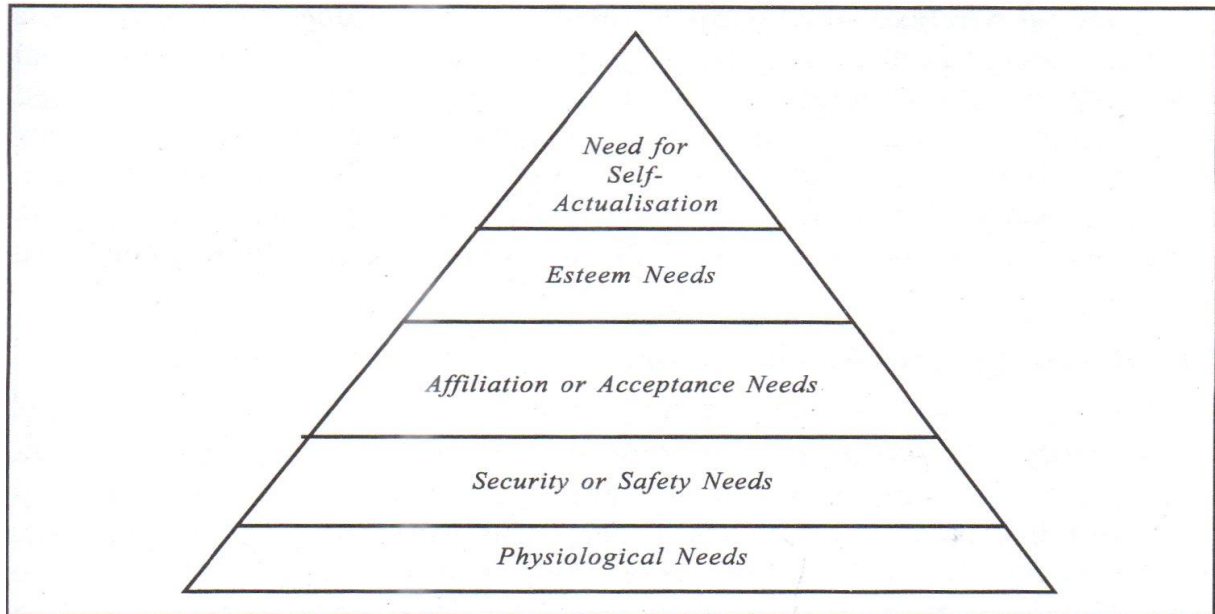
According to Maslow, people tend to satisfy their needs systematically starting with basic physiological needs and then move up the hierarchy.

Until a particular group of needs is satisfied, a person's behaviour will be dominated by them

Thus a person who is hungry will not be motivated by safety or affection needs.

Maslow later modified this argument by stating that *there was an exception to this rule in respect to self actualization – for this level it seems that satisfaction of one need gives rise to further need for realizing ones potential*

Fig. 4.5



Critical Analysis of Maslow`s Theory: The first question that arises is “Do needs follow hierarchy?” Studies and surveys conducted by experts reveal that needs do follow hierarchy to some extent. But it should be remembered that it cannot be generalised in the sense that needs do not necessarily follow the same hierarchy among all the people at all times. It also depends on the cultural values and personality of the individuals and their environment. But it is true that psychological needs would emerge only after the physiological needs are satisfied.

4.6.3.DOUGLAS MCGREGOR THEORY X AND THEORY Y

McGregor saw two different set of assumption made by managers about their employees – X and Y

Theory X

- Regards employees as being inherently
- Lazy – the average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can
- Because of the laziness, most people require coercion and control, direction, threat with punishment to get the work done
- Avoid responsibility
- Has relatively little ambition and only seeks security

Theory Y

This theory sees people in a more favourable light

- Employees are seen as liking work – which they see as natural as rest or play
- Work is seen as a source of satisfaction
- Employees do not have to be controlled or coerced so long as they are committed to the organisation objectives. Employees will exercise self control and self direction to achieved objectives
- Under proper conditions, they will not only accept but also seek responsibility
- Employee exercise imagination and ingenuity at work

In real life, a bred of the two is likely to provide the best prescription for effective management

4.6.4.HERZBERG'S MOTIVATION- HYGENE THEORY (TWO FACTOR THEORY) 1959

Herzberg conducted a motivational study on about 2000 accountants and engineers employed by firms around Pittsburg, Pennsylvania

The interviews focused on satisfactory and dissatisfactory feelings about the job (experiences)

The interviewees were asked two questions:

1. When did you feel particular good about your job – what turned you on?
2. When did you feel exceptionally bad about your job – what turned you off?

Following the interview, Herzberg and his team came up with the conclusion that:

- Certain factors tend to frequently lead to job satisfaction and other facts led frequently to job dissatisfaction.
- The factors leading to satisfaction were called motivators
- Those giving rise to dissatisfaction were called hygiene factors

According to Herzberg, there are two factors that are associated with employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The two factors are called hygiene factors (dissatisfies) and Motivators (satisfiers)

The study showed that good feelings (motivators) were associated with job experience and job content. For example an accounting supervisor felt good about being given the job to install new computer equipment

The most important motivators or satisfiers that emerged were

- Achievement
- Recognition
- The work itself
- Responsibility
- Advancement -Opportunity for advancement or professional growth

As noted, these factors are intimately related to the content of work i.e. with the intrinsic challenges, interest and individual responses

Satisfiers are those benefits above and beyond the basic elements of the job. Satisfiers tend to enhance motivation Commitment and loyalty of employees.

- Hygiene Factors

The study showed that bad feeling were associated generally with the surrounding environment or peripheral aspects of the job – the job context. Fore example the boss/subordinate relationship

The most important hygiene factors to emerge were

- The company policy and administration
- Supervision – the technical aspects
- Salary
- Interpersonal relationship – with supervisor
- Working conditions

From this analysis, Herzberg concluded that

1. Job satisfaction is related to job content (motivators
2. Job dissatisfaction is related to job context (hygiene factors)

The term hygiene refer to (as it does in health) factors that are preventive

In Herzberg theory, hygiene factors are those that prevent dissatisfaction, but do not make a positive contribution to employees well being (at least not in a lasting way)

3. Motivators can bring about positive satisfaction whereas hygiene factors can only prevent dissatisfaction. i.e. if motivators were absent form the job, the employees is likely to experience real dissatisfaction

However, if the hygiene factors are provided, they will not in themselves bring about substantial job satisfaction

Hygiene doe not positively promote good health but acts to prevent ill health

- Hygiene factors do not act as motivators but when they are withdrawn, they create dissatisfaction and may result in lower productivity.
- Employees take hygiene factors for granted as part of the job. Hygiene factors include company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, salaries and fringe benefit, status and security.

- Hygiene factors are not intrinsic part of the job, but are related to the conditions or the working environment under which the job is performed.

<i>Maintenance Factors or Dissatisfiers or Hygiene Factors</i>	<i>Motivational Factors or Satisfiers</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Context • Extrinsic Factor • Company Policy and Administration • Quality of Supervision • Relations with Supervisors • Work Conditions • Pay • Peer Relations • Personal Life • Relations with Subordinates • Status • Job Security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Content • Intrinsic Factors • Achievement • Recognition • Work Itself • Responsibility • Advancement • Possibility of Growth

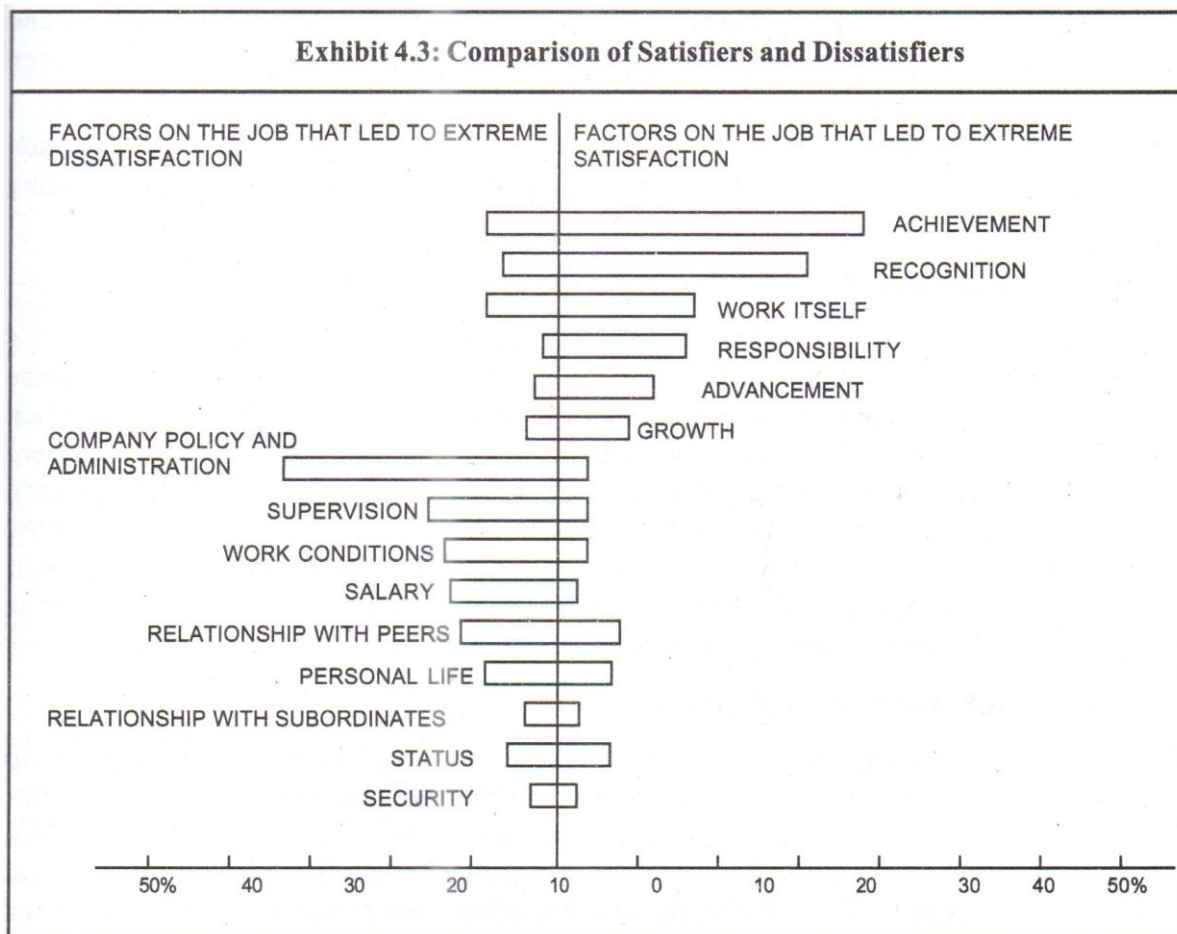
Frederick Herzberg's theory is also called *motivation-hygiene theory*. Herzberg believed that individual's relation to work is a basic one. Individual's attitude towards work determines his/her success or failure on the job. Herzberg conducted a study by asking the question: what do people want from their jobs? He asked the respondents to describe situations or events when they felt exceptionally good and bad about their jobs. The response of the respondents are tabulated as presented in Exhibit 4.3.

Herzberg concluded that the replies of the good feeling of the jobs of the respondents are significantly different from those of the bad feelings of the jobs of the respondents. Factors on the right side of the exhibit tend to be related to job satisfaction motivational factor and the factors on the left side of the exhibit tend to be related to job dissatisfaction maintenance factors.

Criticisms: This theory suffers from the following Criticisms.

- The procedure used by Herzberg is limited by its methodology.
- The reliability of the methodology used by Herzberg is questioned.
- The conclusions of this theory are related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Therefore, it is not a theory on motivation.
- This theory does not provide measurement to find out the total job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction.
- This theory ignores situational variables and
- Herzberg did not cover the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, though he assumed that there is a relationship between these two factors.

However, this theory significantly contributes to the literature on motivation and this theory is known by most of the practicing managers. The practicing managers practice this theory in motivation their subordinates.



4.6.5. ALDERFER ERG THEORY

Similar to Herzberg and Maslow

Alderfer formulated a needs category model of motivation,

Like Maslow and Herzberg, he felt that there is value in categorizing needs and that there is a basic distinction between lower-order needs and higher-order needs

Alderfer identified three groups of core needs

1. Existence Needs
2. Relatedness needs
3. Growth needs

Existence – concerned with survival (physiological well being)

Relatedness needs – stresses the importance of interpersonal, social relationship

Growth needs – related to individual intrinsic desire for personal development

Unlike Maslow, the ERG needs do not have a strict line of demarcations

Unlike Maslow also, he does not contend that the lower needs must be fulfilled before a higher level need becomes motivation or that deprivation is the only way activate a need

According to ERG theory, a person's background or cultural environment may dictate that the relatedness needs will take precedence over unfulfilled existence needs and the more the growth needs are satisfied, the more they will increase in intensity.

ERG theory says that when a higher order growth needs are stifled or cannot be met due to personal circumstance, lack of ability or some other factors, the individual is likely to regress back to lower order needs and feel these needs more strongly. For example, if a person cannot move up the corporate ladder and is stuck in a job he does not like, the individual is likely to emphasize social relationship both on and off job and become more interested in pay and benefits

This Alderfer calls frustration- regression relationship

Whereas Maslow emphasis is on satisfaction- progression relationship in which a person moves up the hierarchy after a lower – order need is met

4.6.6 Willam Ouchi`s theory Z

Ouch proposed Theory Z – a hybrid model that blends elements of successful Japanese managerial practice with an assessment of US workers` needs. It focuses heavily on a humanistic philosophy, teamwork and consensus decisions.

The distinguishing features of Theory Z companies include:

- Long-term employment
- Non-specialized carrers
- Individual responsibility
- Concern for the total person
- Control systems are less formal
- Consensus decision-making and
- Slower rates of promotion.

It is believed that theory Z companies develop close, cooperative, trusting relationships among workers, managers and other groups.

Theory Z emphasizes that industrial teams are created within a stable work environment. This match enables the employee to satisfy his needs for affiliation, independence and control. Further, it contributes for the organisation`s needs of high quality and high productivity.

Maruti Udyog Limited in India, Toyota, Honda and Nissan are the best examples for the practices and outcomes of Theory Z. These organisations` level of quality and productivity has been quite higher than those of their competition in the respective countries. In fact, the rate of absenteeism and number of grievances in these companies are very low compared to those in similar organisations.

Positive Points of Theory Z: The positive points of theory Z are:

- Theory Z companies have made a commendable attempt to adapt Japanese ideas into their organisations.
- This theory is based on shared concern for multiple employees needs.
- Theory Z suggests strong bondage between organisations and its employees.
- Employees involvement is a prominent factor in this theory.
- Theory Z encourages the practice of informal organisations.
- This theory encourages automatic coordination among employees.

Negative Points of Theory Z: Theory Z is not free from criticism.

- It is criticised that this theory is not new. It is an extension of earlier theories which failed to receive popularity.
- It is also criticized that the research supporting this theory is limited.
- The other criticism is that this theory fails to provide useful criteria for helping managers regarding the correct time to use this theory.
- The volatile firms in the software industry, information technology and other high technology industries cannot provide life time employment.
- Slow rates of promotions frustrate employees.

Despite these limitation or criticisms, Theory Z helps managers in managing human resources efficiently and balancing human behaviour with the organisational environment.

These similarities among the content theories are presented in fig.4.6.

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory	Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory	Alderfer's ERG Theory	McClelland's Theory
<i>Motivational Factors</i> Achievement Work itself Responsibility Advancement Growth	Self Actualisation Needs	Growth Needs	Need for Achievement
Recognition	<i>Self-Esteem</i> Esteem Needs <i>Respect of Others</i>		Need for Power
<i>Hygiene Factors</i> Supervision Interpersonal Relationship	Belongingness Needs	Relatedness Needs	Need for Affiliation
Job Security Company Policies	<i>Interpersonal Security</i> Security Needs Physical Security	Existence Needs	
Pay Working Conditions	Physiological Needs		

• **Activity – 1**

Interview five managers of different companies and ask them in Maslow's Need hierarchy theory applicable in their department.....

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• **Activity – 2**

Find from your known information that whether there are certain Theory 'X' employees and Theory 'Y' employees. If yes write their characteristics.

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- **Activity -3**

Identify from a company's practices that the employees be motivation based on Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation.

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4.7. Summary

Motivation is derived from the word motive. Motive is an inner state that energises, activates or moves and directs or channels behaviours towards goals. Types of motivation include positive motivation and negative motivation.

The basic theory of motivation is Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory of motivation, which identifies five categories of, needs viz., psychological needs, security needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualisation needs. Theory X and Theory Y are based on opposite assumptions towards man. Herzberg's two factor theory is based on satisfiers and dissatisfiers. ERG Theory is based on existence, relatedness and growth needs of individuals.

These theories have their own limitations in applications and as such criticisms are levelled against them.

4.8 SELF –ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is motivation? Describe the nature of motivation.
2. Explain the Maslow's Theory of Motivation.
3. Explain the, Herzberg Two factor theory of Motivation
4. Compare and contrast Maslow's Theory of Motivation and ERG Theory of Motivation.
5. Examine the similarities and difference among theory X , Theory Y and Theory Z.

4.9 Further Readings: Biswal Pravakar and Rath Namita, 2012, Organizational Behaviour, 2nd Edition. Bhubaneswar: B.K. Publication
Robbins, Stephen P.. 2003, Organizational Behaviour 10th Edition, New Delhi: PHI

Chapter - 5

LEADERSHIP AND COMMUNICATION

5.0 Learning Objectives

After completing this Chapter you will be able to:

- Know the meaning of leadership, power of the leader and difference between leader and manager.
- Analyses different types of leadership theories.
- Understand various leadership styles and their effectiveness.
- Know the meaning and purpose of communication.
- Discuss the importance and process of communication.
- Understand various barriers to communication and how to overcome them.
- Understand the causes of inter-personal conflicts' and evaluate them through Transaction Analysis.

Structure

- 5.0 Learning Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Importance of Leadership
- 5.3 Functions
- 5.4 Leader vs. Manager
- 5.5 Leadership Styles
- 5.6 Leadership Theories
- 5.7 Communication: Meaning
- 5.8 Importance of Communication
- 5.9 Communication Process
- 5.10 Barriers to Communication
- 5.11 Steps for Improving Communication
- 5.12 Transactional Analysis
- 5.13 Summery
- 5.14 Self Assessment Questions
- 5.15 Further Readings

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership can be defined as the ability of the management to make sound decisions and inspire others to perform well. It is the process of directing the behavior of others towards achieving a common goal. Leadership is defined as "the process whereby one individual influences other group members towards the attainment of defined group or organizational goals."

In short, leadership is getting things done through others. The concept of leadership has undergone a sea change from the concept of 'born-leader' to 'situation-leader' and to effective leader. Views, assumptions and theories of leadership have changed significantly in recent years. Business and industry have set managers more as leaders to achieve the challenges. The quality of leadership provide by the managers determine the degree of success of business. Some people are born leaders and need little training or development. But many managers do not born with qualitative leadership skills. Such managers need training and development to acquire and develop leadership skills. However, born leaders can be more efficient with training.

For Example, Mahatma Gandhi, JRD Tata and Dheerubhai Ambani belong to the born leaders category where as Bipin Chatoj of KIDS Exports and Pardhasaradhi of Hindustan Lever belong to the 'made leaders' category.

5.2 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is very important in a firm as it leads to higher performance by the team members, it improves motivation and morale within the members, and helps to respond to change.

Leadership facilitates organizational success by creating responsibility and accountability among the members of the organization. In short, it increases value in an organization.

Leadership involves the exercise of influence on the part of the leader over the perception, motivation, communication, personality and ultimately over the behavior of other people (preferably followers). Leadership is therefore, the study of leader's influence over the thoughts, feelings, opinions, beliefs, attitudes and actions of followers.

There is no single, universally accepted definition of a leader. At a broad level, the common characteristic of a leader is that he should be ahead of others and have the ability to articulate his thoughts clearly.

A Leader should also have the ability to effectively demonstrate confidence in his people. Respect, trust and acceptability should be gained, and not commanded. A good leader should master the art of listening to his team, being sensitive to his people's needs, and above all, to lead by example. Of course, the styles will vary.

Leaders are born, not made. Leadership cannot be taught in B- schools. Only the styles can be altered and refined. A leader moves ahead, trying new things, knowing that not all the loose ends are tied up, that not everyone is fully aboard, and that success is not assured. A leader must follow the maxim "practice what you preach". Leadership also means upholding, at all costs, the ideals, principles and credos that one considers sacrosanct.

The process of influencing others is subject to interpretation and differs with culture, age and society. However, one attribute applies to all leadership : setting the right example. The only way leaders can utilize their ability to touch the lives of those around them is become involved themselves.

Leadership is an important function of management which helps to maximize efficiency and to achieve organizational goals. The following points justify the importance of leadership in a concern.

1. **Initiates action-** Leader is a person who starts the work by communicating the policies and plans to the subordinates from where the work actually starts.
2. **Motivation-** A leader proves to be playing an incentive role in the concern's working. He motivates the employees with economic and non-economic rewards and thereby gets the work from the subordinates.
3. **Providing guidance-** A leader has to not only supervise but also play a guiding role for the subordinates. Guidance here means instructing the subordinates the way they have to perform their work effectively and efficiently.
4. **Creating confidence-** Confidence is an important factor which can be achieved through expressing the work efforts to the subordinates, explaining them clearly their role and giving them guidelines to achieve the goals effectively. It is also important to hear the employees with regards to their complaints and problems.
5. **Building morale-** Morale denotes willing co-operation of the employees towards their work and getting them into confidence and winning their trust. A leader can be a morale booster by achieving full co-operation so that they perform with best of their abilities as they work to achieve goals.
6. **Builds work environment-** Management is getting things done from people. An efficient work environment helps in sound and stable growth. Therefore, human relations should be kept into mind by a leader. He should have personal contacts with employees and should listen to their problems and solve them. He should treat employees on humanitarian terms.
7. **Co-ordination-** Co-ordination can be achieved through reconciling personal interests with organizational goals. This synchronization can be achieved through proper and effective co-ordination which should be primary motive of a leader.

8. **Basis for Co-operation:**

Effective leadership increases the understanding between the subordinates and the management and promotes co-operation among them.

9. **Aid to Authority:**

The use of authority alone cannot always bring the desired results. Leadership acts as an aid to authority by influencing, inspiring and initiating action.

10. **Needed at All Levels of Management:**

Leadership plays a pivotal role at all levels of management because in the absence of effective leadership no management can achieve the desired results.

5.3 FUNCTIONS

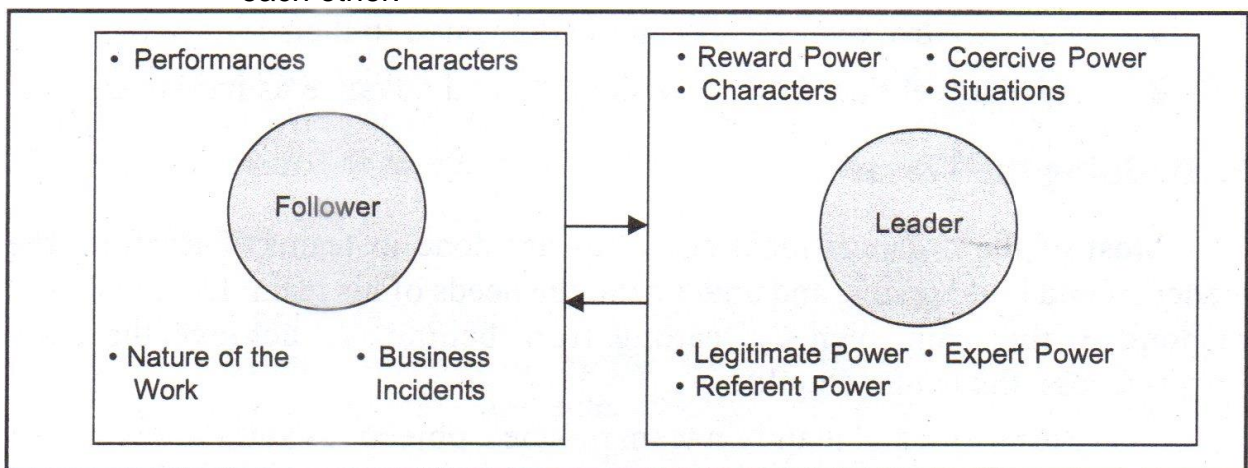
As stated earlier leader influences his followers towards a common goal. He acts as a friend, philosopher and guide. Following are the function of leader.

1. **Mutual Influences of Leader and Follower**

The definition on leadership indicates that the leader influences the follower. However, it is viewed that the followers also influence leaders. Infact, leader and follower influence each other mutually. The followers` factors those influence leaders include:

- Subordinates`/followers` performances
- Subordinates`/followers` characteristics
- The nature of the work itself
- Business policies and incidents.

Fig. 5.1 Presents the Mutual influence of follower and leader on each other.



2. Effectiveness of Leaders

The effectiveness of leaders depend of their ability to influence and be influenced by the followers in the task accomplishment. In essence, leaders

- Ensure that the necessary tasks are accomplished
- Build and reinforce the team and foster teamwork and team spirit and
- Develop each member of the team.

3. Task Achievement

Leaders ability to contribute to the task accomplishment depends on:

- Clarity of purpose, formulating it with enthusiasm and reinforcing the followers of it quite often.
- Understanding clearly the long-run and short plant of the company and know how the task fits in the overall plans.
- Planning in advance the process of task accomplishment.
- Determining all kinds of resource necessary to accomplish the task and provide them.
- Making the organisational structure as adaptable as possible to do the task efficiency.
- Pacing progress towards achievement of task.
- Feeding information forward and back up to evaluate the results.

4. Development of Individuals

Leaders should remember that their followers are human beings with their own values, aspirations, needs and attitudes. Therefore, the leaders should respect his followers and create conducive work environment and culture so that the followers must

- Have satisfaction from personal achievement in the job they do
- Have a feel that they make a worthwhile contribution to the objectives
- Have a feel that the job is challenging, demanding the best of them and give them higher responsibilities
- Be recognized adequately for their achievement
- Have control over the jobs/tasks delegated to their followers
- Have a feel that they grow, develop and advance as human beings.

5. Building the Teams

Most of the organizational activities are done in teams. Therefore, the leader should build teams, and understand the needs of his team. Leader should respond to the team even by leading from behind. To achieve the team effectiveness, the leader should:

- Formulate and maintain team policies, objectives and standards.
- Involve all the team members in achievements of objectives.
- Communicate and brief the team members face-to-face regarding the matters affect them at work.

- Consult and involve the team members in decision-making which affect them.

6. Make the Vision Tangible

Leaders have to formulate vision, mission and purpose. Followers commit to the achievement of the vision, if it is tangible and attainable. The leaders transform the vision into tangible reality, promote it and convince the followers regarding its significance. The leaders have to carry out the following steps in order to make the vision tangible and realize it.

- Formulation of vision and mission.
- Formulation of objectives and goals to be achieved for successful achievements of mission.
- Analysis of external environment for opportunities and threats.
- Appraise the organization to know the strengths, weaknesses, competitive advantages and core competencies of the company.
- Formulation of strategic alternatives to achieve the goals.
- Develop the organization structure appropriate for the strategy.
- Create organization climate necessary to achieve the strategy.
- Formulation of the tactics necessary to achieve the strategy.
- Development of feed forward and feedback system to evaluate the strategic management process.
- Implement the strategy and modifying it. If necessary, based on the environmental changes.

Qualities of a Good Leader:

A successful leader secures desired behaviour from his followers. It depends upon the quality of leadership he is able to provide. A leader to be effective must possess certain basic qualities. A number of authors have mentioned different qualities which a person should possess to be a good leader.

Some of the qualities of a good leader are as follows:

1. Good personality.
2. Emotional stability.
3. Sound education and professional competence.
4. Initiatives and creative thinking.

5. Sense of purpose and responsibility.
6. Ability to guide and teach.
7. Good understanding and sound judgment.
8. Communicating skill.
9. Sociable.
10. Objective and flexible approach.
11. Honesty and integrity of character.
12. Self confidence, diligence and industry.
13. Courage to accept responsibility

5.4 Leader Vs Manager

A leader is someone whom people follow or someone who guides or directs others. A manager is someone who is responsible for directing and controlling the work and staff in an organization, or of a department within it.

The main difference between the two is that a leader works by example, while a manager dictates expectations. If a manager goes against the rules, that will tarnish his position as a manager. If a leader goes against the example he or she is trying to set, that will be seen as a setback.

Managers in the past like Mr. Krishna Murthy of Maruti Udyog Limited ran the business under the relatively stable environmental factors. But, the leaders in the new millennium like Mr. Bill Gates of Micro Soft., Mr. Dhirubhai Ambani of Reliance Petrochemicals, win over the competitors create the new external environment, and conquer the market.

A Bennis put it, " To survive in the twenty-first century, we are going to need a new generation of leaders-leaders not managers. The distinction is an important one. Leaders conquer the context-the volatile, turbulent, ambiguous surrounding that sometimes seems to conspire against us and will surely suffocate us if we let them-while managers surrender to it."

Thus Managers surrender to the external environment, while leaders flight with the environment and create new environment. Managers tend to be impersonal

towards goals while leaders take active and personal attitude towards goals. Managers tend to view work as an enabling process while leaders work from high task positions, seek out risk and danger when opportunity and reward appear high.

Following are a few differences between the two –

- A leader is an innovator and creator whereas a manager is a commander.
- A leader can't be a manager but the opposite is possible, a manager is more than a leader.
- A leader does what is right, while the manager makes things right.
- A leader deals with change whereas a manager plans for a change.
- Leaders relate ideas to people in more intuitive and empathic ways while managers work with people.
- Leaders bring change whereas managers cope up with change.
- Leaders develop a vision and direction for the future.
- A leader gives direction to do something whereas the manager plans for everything that is to be done.
- A leader encourages people whereas the manager controls people.
- A leader handles communication, credibility, and empowerment whereas a manager deals with organizing and staffing.

Warren G. Bennis presents the differences between manager and Leader as shown in Exhibit 5.2.

Exhibit 5.2: Managers Vs. Leaders in the Twenty-First Century	
<i>Managers</i>	<i>Leaders</i>
Administers	Innovates
A copy	An original
Maintains	Develops
Focusses on Systems and Structures	Focusses on People
Relies on control	Inspires trust
Short-range view	Long-range perspective
Asks how and when	Asks what and why
Eye on the bottom line	Eye on the horizon
Imitates	Originates
Accepts the Status Quo	Challenges the Status Quo
Classic good soldier	Own person
Does things right	Does the right thing

Difference between Manager and Leader

Basis	Manager	Leader
Origin	A person becomes a manager by virtue of his position.	A person becomes a leader on basis of his personal qualities.
Formal Rights	Manager has got formal rights in an organization because of his status.	Rights are not available to a leader.
Followers	The subordinates are the followers of managers.	The group of employees whom the leaders leads are his followers.
Functions	A manager performs all five functions of management.	Leader influences people to work willingly for group objectives.
Necessity	A manager is very essential to a concern.	A leader is required to create cordial relation between person working in and for organization.
Stability	It is more stable.	Leadership is temporary.
Mutual Relationship	All managers are leaders.	All leaders are not managers.
Accountability	Manager is accountable for self and subordinates behaviour and performance.	Leaders have no well defined accountability.
Concern	A manager's concern is organizational goals.	A leader's concern is group goals and member's satisfaction.
Followers	People follow manager by virtue of job description.	People follow them on voluntary basis.
Role	A manager can continue in office till he performs his duties	A leader can maintain his position only through day to day

continuation	satisfactorily in congruence with organizational goals.	wishes of followers.
Sanctions	Manager has command over allocation and distribution of sanctions.	A leader has command over different sanctions and related task records. These sanctions are essentially of informal nature.

5.5 LEADERSHIP STYLES

Different leadership styles exist in work environments. The culture and goal of an organization determine which leadership style fits best. Some organizations offer different leadership styles within an organization, depending on the necessary tasks to complete and departmental needs.

We find five different leadership styles in the corporate world. They are as follows –

Free-rein or Laissez-faire Style

These leaders avoid authority and responsibility. They mostly depend upon the group to establish objectives and goals, formulate policies and programmes. The group members train and motivate themselves. Contrary to the autocratic style the leader play minor or negligible roles and depend upon the group.

A laissez-faire leader does not directly supervise employees and fails to provide regular updates to those under his supervision. Highly experienced and trained employees with minimal requirement of supervision fall under the laissez-faire leadership style.

But, not all employees possess these features. This leadership style blocks the production of employees needing supervision. The laissez-faire style implements no leadership or supervision efforts from managers, which can lead to poor production, lack of control and increasing costs.

Autocratic Style

Autocratic leaders centralize power of decision-making in themselves. Followers have no say either in decision-making or in implementation. They

have to completely obey and follow the instructions of the leaders. The leaders take full authority and full responsibility. Autocratic leaders are classified into:

- (a) Strict autocrat who follows autocratic style completely where the method of influencing subordinates is thoroughly negative ;
- (b) Benevolent autocrat who typically gives awards to the followers ;
- and (c) Incompetent autocrat who adopts autocratic style with a view to hide his incompetency.

This leadership style benefits those who require direct supervision. Creative employees who participate in group functions detest this leadership style.

Democratic Style

Democratic leaders decentralise authority and encourage subordinates to express their opinion in decision- making as well as in implementing the decision. However, decisions are taken by the leaders. Thus, decisions are arrived at by consultation.

This is also known as the democratic leadership style. It values the input of team members and peers, but the responsibility of making the final decision rests with the participative leader.

Participative Style

Participative leaders decentralize authority and encourage subordinates to participate and involve in decision-making and implementation processes. Decisions are made by the leader and his subordinates.

It is, however, concluded that there is no clear-cut leadership style which is applicable universally and in all circumstances. Therefore, the leaders have to adopt appropriate style depending upon the situational requirements.

Participative leadership motivates employee morale because employees make contributions to the decision-making process. It accounts to a feeling that their opinions matter. When an organization needs to make changes within itself, that is internally, the participative leadership style helps employees accept changes easily as they play a role in the process. This leadership style meets challenges when companies need to make a decision in a short period of time.

Transactional

Transactional leadership style is formed by the concept of reward and punishment. Transactional leaders believe that the employee's performance is completely dependent on these two factors. When there is an encouragement, the workers put in their best effort and the bonus is in monetary terms in most of the cases. In case they fail to achieve the set target they are given a negative appraisal.

Transactional leaders pay more attention to physical and security requirements of the employees.

Transformational

Transformational leadership has the ability to affect employee's perceptions through the returns that organization gets in the form of human capital benefits. These leaders have the ability to reap higher benefits by introducing knowledge management processes, encouraging interpersonal communication among employees and creating healthy organizational culture.

It helps in flourishing organizational innovation by creating a participative environment or culture. It promotes a culture where the employees have autonomy to speak about their experiences and share knowledge.

It has been seen that transformational leaders are more innovative than transactional and laissez-faire leaders.

Traditional Theory

Traditional theory is a theory based on different traits of a human beings. It assumes that leaders are born and not made. According to this theory, leadership behavior is the sum total of all traits that a leader possess.

Thus this theory gives the profile of a successful and complete leader. According to this theory, there are five human traits. They are –

- **Physical trait** – it includes energy, activity, appearance, and height.
- **Ability trait** – it includes judgement, knowledge, and fluency in speech.
- **Personal trait** – it includes self-confidence, creativity, and enthusiasm.
- **Work trait** – it includes organization and achievement.
- **Social trait** – it includes interpersonal skill, cooperativeness, popularity and prestige.

Drawbacks

Following are the major drawbacks of this theory –

- Traits are not arranged according to their importance.
- There is no quantitative tool to judge the human traits.
- This trait can't be used universally.
- This trait can be achieved and developed.
- Situational factors are avoided.

Leadership styles based on modern theories

Leaders of the modern, high-technology and highly competitive organisations exhibit inspirational style with vision and perform the work effectively i.e., do the right things.

Mr. Kulkarni of Larsen and toubro leads the company with clear vision, emphasis on quality, comprehensive outlook and perfectness in work, creation and diversification into the related areas. He sets high goals by consulting the managers and followers of the company and employees. He encourages and inspires the employees for working efficiently.

The leadership styles based on the charismatic and transformational theories are classified into three viz., envisioning, energising and enabling.

- (i) **Envisioning:** This style includes creating a picture of the future or a desired future state with which people can identify. Envisioning generates excitement. Thus, this style emphasises on articulating a compelling vision and setting high goals and expectations.
- (ii) **Energising:** The leaders in this style directs the generation of energy, the motivation to act among the organizational employees. This style also includes demonstrating personal excitement and confidence, seeking, finding and using success.
- (iii) **Enabling :** The leader helps the followers psychologically to act or perform in the face of challenging goals. This style includes empowering, expressing personal support and empathising.

Followership Styles – A New Approach

There is a misconception that an effective leader is enough to mould and direct in group behaviour towards the attainment or organisational goals. But attainment of organisational goals more or less equally depends on the committed and effective followers. In fact no leader can be effective without effective followers. Here the term effective follower is used in the sense that the follower should be potential and he should be in a position to willingly contribute most of his potentialities towards the organizational goal.

The followership styles are not given due recognition except mentioning them at the maturity level of followers. Various authors have failed to recognize the significance of the follower in the leader-follower interaction. In fact, the follower is as important as the leader in any situation. In view of this background an attempt is made in this paper to develop the followership styles suitable to situational requirements.

Followership Styles

We come across different types of followership styles in real life situations. They can broadly be divided into six categories, viz., No-boss, yes-boss, grumbling, Escapism, Intellectual arrogant and Critical.

A brief clarification of the followers styles is as follows:

- (1) **No-Boss Style:** The follower in this style is a non-obliging type. He says 'No' to the leader for his instruction/orders irrespective of the nature and magnitude of the instruction.
- (2) **Yes-Boss Style:** The follower in this style blindly says yes to leader for his instructions irrespective of the nature and magnitude of the instructions and he carries out the orders without critically evaluating them. Excessive humility in this style may be referred to as sub-servant style of the followership.
- (3) **Grumbling Style:** Follower in this style grumbles while responding to the order of instructions of the leader only to show his reluctance for carrying out the instructions. However, he carries out the orders.
- (4) **Escaping Style:** The follower in this style responds positively to the instructions of the leader, but escapes himself in carrying out the orders.

(5) Intellectual Arrogancy Style: Some followers may be highly qualified, more than the leader either in terms of formal educational qualifications or intelligence or knowledge. Such followers in some situations think that they can function effectively than their leaders as they are more intelligent than their leader. The followers in such style respond arrogantly to the orders of their leaders. This style is referred to as Intellectual Arrogancy.

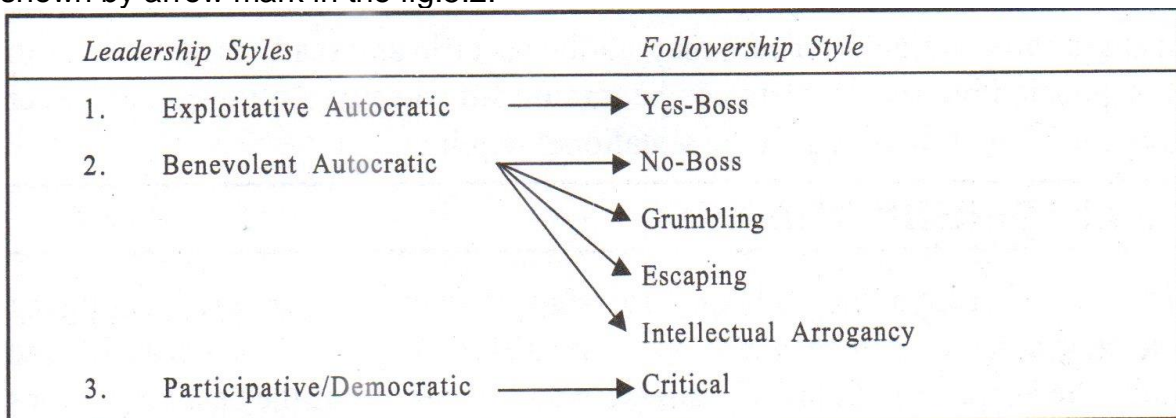
Critical Style: Followers in this style 'do not respond either positively or negatively to the orders of their leaders. They critically appraise the instruction/orders of the leaders, consider the pros and cons of the decision of the leader and then if the order is wise, they carry it out. If the order is unwise, they appraise the pros and cons of it to the leader and advise him to modify his order. If the leader does not positively respond to the advice of the followers, then they carry out the order of the leader. If the leader does not positively respond to the advice of the followers, then they carry out the order of the leader. If the leader changes his order, then carry out the modified orders. This style of the follower can be compared to the 'Vidhura', followership style towards Dhritrashtra in the Mahabharata.'

All of us belong to the categories of both the follower and the leader, but we may be leaders in some situations and followers in other situations. Similarly, each follower would not limit his style to any of the above-mentioned followership styles and may go on changing his styles depending upon the situations.

Most of the writers identified three leadership styles, viz., Exploitative Autocratic, Benevolent Autocratic, Participative or Democratic. The problem arises when there is lack of coordination between the leader's style and the follower's style. The leader-follower interaction would be effective when there is harmony between the style of the leader and the followers, otherwise the interaction would not be effective and it may lead even to the leader-follower conflict.

How to Match the Followership Style with the Leadership Style?

Matching of these two styles is most essential in management as its basic objective or getting things done by others can be effectively attained only when there is perfect match between these two styles. Conflict between these two adversely affects the management effectiveness. Hence, the leader should make himself fit for a match. The possible matches between leadership and followership styles are shown by arrow mark in the fig.5.2.



Zero Level Conflict

As shown in the above figure, the level of conflict would be 'zero' when the leader with exploitative autocratic style interacts with the follower with the 'yes-boss' style. Similarly, the conflict would be at zero level when the leader with participative

style interacts with the followers with critical style. Benevolent autocratic leader by offering monetary and non-monetary benefits and by conferring new designations on his followers with the styles of 'No-boss', 'Grumbling', 'escaping' and 'Intellectual Arrogance' can minimize the level conflict but he cannot bring down the conflict to 'Zero' level. This, the zero level conflict matching are: (i) Exploitative autocratic style of the leader and yes-boss of the followers; and (ii) Participative/democratic style of the leader and critical style of the follower.

Effective Match

Though it may be said that the match between participative style of the leader and critical style of the follower is effective and desirable, there is no such effective match in practice as these two styles are subjected to situational requirement.

Match of Situation-Leadership Style-Followership Style

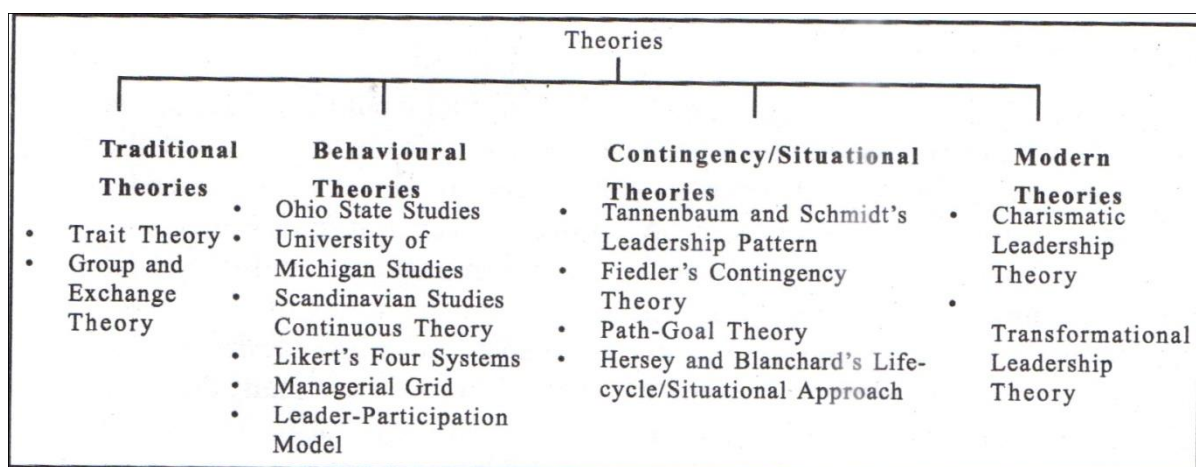
The mere coincidence of leadership and followership styles will not produce effective results. What is more essential is the coincidence of these two styles which should meet the situational requirements to maximize the human resources contribution towards the organisational effectiveness. The emergency situations can be handled effectively if the leader is in exploitative autocratic style and the follower is in yes-boss style. Other of the leader and the follower may not suit to this situation and hence, they may be ineffective match in situations of exigency.

The leader has to insist the followers to accept his decision in some situations like adoption of latest technology which normally is resisted by the followers. In such situations, the leader in 'the Benevolent Autocratic' style can impress upon the follower to accept the decision of adoption of technology by offering benefits.

It is clear from the analysis that leader-follower and situations interaction should be taken into account to attain the organisational goals rather than mere leadership styles. One may agree to this but he faces the problem of integration of these three variables. There are may not specific and ready made answer to this question but the problem can be minimized when the follower and leader adopt to their style based on the situational requirements.

5.6 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

There is a lot of literature on leadership. Most of this literature is confusing and contradictory. Hence, we should draw different approaches to classify and study the leadership. Study of leadership theories is one of the best approaches to study leadership. Leadership theories are classified as shown in fig. 5.3.



Traditional Theories

Traditional theories of leadership include great man theory, trait theory and Group and Exchange theories of leadership.

The Great Man theory evolved around the mid 19th century. Even though no one was able to identify with any scientific certainty, which human characteristic or combination of, were responsible for identifying great leaders. Everyone recognized that just as the name suggests; only a man could have the characteristic (s) of a great leader.

The Great Man theory assumes that the traits of leadership are intrinsic. That simply means that great leaders are born, they are not made. This theory sees great leaders as those who are destined by birth to become a leader. Furthermore, the belief was that great leaders will rise when confronted with the appropriate situation. The theory was popularized by Thomas Carlyle, a writer and teacher. Just like him, the Great Man theory was inspired by the study of influential heroes. In his book "On Heroes, Hero-Worship, and the Heroic in History", he compared a wide array of heroes.

In 1860, Herbert Spencer, an English philosopher disputed the great man theory by affirming that these heroes are simply the product of their times and their actions the results of social conditions.

Trait Theory (1930's - 1940's)

The trait leadership theory believes that people are either born or are made with certain qualities that will make them excel in leadership roles. That is, certain qualities such as intelligence, sense of responsibility, creativity and other values puts anyone in the shoes of a good leader. In fact, Gordon Allport, an American psychologist, "...identified almost 18,000 English personality-relevant terms" (Matthews, Deary & Whiteman, 2003, p. 3).

The trait theory of leadership focused on analyzing mental, physical and social characteristic in order to gain more understanding of what is the characteristic or the combination of characteristics that are common among leaders.

There were many shortfalls with the trait leadership theory. However, from a psychology of personalities approach, Gordon Allport's studies are among the first ones and have brought, for the study of leadership, the behavioural approach.

- In the 1930s the field of Psychometrics was in its early years.
- Personality traits measurement weren't reliable across studies.
- Study samples were of low level managers
- Explanations weren't offered as to the relation between each characteristic and its impact on leadership.
- The context of the leader wasn't considered.

Many studies have analyzed the traits among existing leaders in the hope of uncovering those responsible for ones leadership abilities! In vain, the only

characteristics that were identified among these individuals were those that were slightly taller and slightly more intelligent!

Trait theories of leadership sought personality, social, physical or intellectual traits those differentiated leaders from non-leaders. Trait theorists refer the people like Mahatma Gandhi, Indra Gandhi, Marget Thatcher, Nelson Mandela, N.T. Rama Rao and describe them in terms of charismatic, enthusiastic and courageous.

The research studies focus on personal traits or characteristics that distinguish the leaders from the followers and a successful leader from an unsuccessful leader. A number of research studies were conducted during the last 50 years. The cumulative findings of these studies conclude that some traits increase the likelihood of success as a leader, but more of the traits guarantee success.

Stodgill classified these traits into five categories viz.,

- Intelligence and scholarship,
- Physical traits like age, height, weight, strength etc.,
- Personality characterized by self-confidence, honesty, integrity, creativity and imitation.
- Social status and experience and
- Task-orientation.

Group and Exchange Theories of Leadership

Social Psychology is the basis for group theories of leadership. Social exchange view of leadership indicates that, “exchange theories propose that group members make contributions at a cost to themselves and receives benefits at a cost to the group or other members. Interaction continue because members find the social exchange mutually rewarding.”

Social exchange indicates that leadership is an exchange process between the leaders and followers. This theory indicates that there are three domains of leadership viz., leader-based domain, follower-based domain and relationship-based domain.

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories of leadership propose that specific behaviors differentiate leaders from non-leaders. These theories opine that leader’s style is oriented either an employee-centered or a job centered. Emphasis. These theories attempt to explain leadership in terms of the behavior that the leader exhibits. These theories have modest success in building consistent relationship between patterns of leadership behavior and group performances. However, consideration of situational factors is missing in these theories. Now, we discuss behavioral theories.

Ohio State Studies

The research that was conducted at Ohio State University. USA in the late 1940s provides the basic for behavioural theories. These research studies concluded that leaders behaviour can be categorised into two dimensions viz., initiating structure and consideration.

Initiating Structure:

Initiating structure refresh to the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his/her role and those subordinates in the search for goal attainment. The

leader's behaviour include job/work design, work relationships, assigning the work groups and individual workers, establishing the work standards, performances, goals, indicate the groups and individuals to achieve the goals, meet the benchmarks/standards and deadlines.

Consideration:

Consideration is the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationship that is that are characterised by mutual trust, respect for subordinate's ideas and regard for their feelings. He/she has concern for followers' comfort, well being, status and satisfaction.

A leader who attempts to solve the personal problems of his subordinates and help them is friendly and, approachable. He treats all his subordinates as equals'. Such a leader is viewed as high in consideration. The research establishment that high consideration leads to high performance of subordinates and vice-versa.

Mr. R.K Nair of a Poona based company is high in considerations. He empowers the people and emphasises on friendliness. Mr. Nair improved the productivity of his company significantly compared to the competing firms.

University of Michigan Studies

Survey Research Centre of University of Michigan conducted leadership studies in the late 1940s. The objective of the study were to find behavioural characteristics of leaders that appeared to be related that appeared to be related to measures of performance effectiveness.

The Michigan group concluded that there are two dimensions of leadership behaviour viz., employee-oriented and production-oriented. Employee-oriented leaders emphasise inter-personal relations whereas production-oriented leaders emphasis technical or task aspects of the job. The goal of both employee-oriented and production-oriented leaders is to accomplish and get the things done by the group members.

Michigan Studies also concluded that employee-oriented leadership result in high productivity and higher job satisfaction, And *Vice-Versa* is true in case of production-oriented leadership. Hence, the Michigan studies favoured employee-oriented leadership to achieve the goals of both higher productivity and higher job satisfaction.

Scandinavian Studies

The researchers in Finland and Sweden felt that the Ohio and Michigan studies were conducted during 1940s and 1960s when the world economics were more or less stable. Therefore, these studies may not be applicable when The world economics are developing. According to them, the leaders should exhibit development-oriented behaviour in a developing world. These leaders value innovation or creation, seek new and challenging ideas, experimentation, generate and implement change.

In fact, Ohio studies used developmental items in their research. But they were not received any attention at that time. Hence, the Scandinavian studies were conducted by including the third dimension i.e., development orientation for the effective leadership. The preliminary results of the Scandinavian studies show that the leaders of 1990s support development oriented behaviour. Leaders who demonstrate development-oriented behaviour, developed more competent and satisfied subordinate.

Continuous Theory of Leadership

Lewin, Lippitti and White suggested a continuous theory of leadership which identified three basic styles of leadership, i.e., autocrat, democrat and laissez-faire.

Robert McMurree suggested the benevolent autocrat between autocrat and democrat leadership. Bank managers in India used to adopt autocratic style before 1969. *But, this style proved to be ineffective after 1969 in view of new values, expectations, desires, culture etc. Inducted in banks with the massive entrance of new employees with massive branch expansion. However, the bank managers feel that even the democratic style has not proved effective, leading to indiscipline in most situations. In view of this it is suggested that the bank managers may adopt a benevolent autocratic style.*

Likert's Four System

Rensis Likert suggests that managers operate under four different systems. In system-1, the leader behaves like an exploitative authoritative way and exploits the subordinates, In system-2, leader takes a paternalistic approach and in system-3, he uses democratic approach, where he consults subordinates in decision-making. In system-4, the leader allows his subordinates to participate in decision-making process and the decisions are taken by the leader and subordinates (Table 5.1).

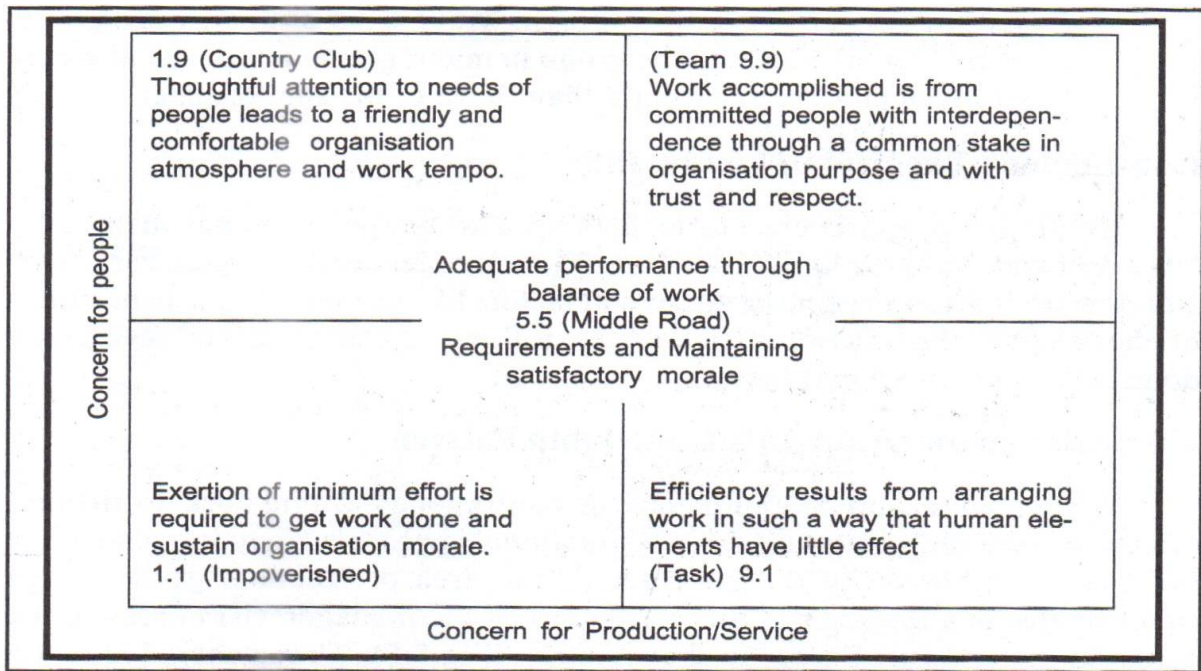
Managerial Grid

Industrial psychologists Blake and Mouton developed the managerial grid basing on the Ohio State Study. The managerial grid identifies a range of management behaviour based on the different ways how production/service-oriented and employee-oriented styles interact with each other. Different styles of leadership are shown in fig.5.4.

The style 1-1 is impoverished management-low concern for both people and production. This style is also called *laissez faire* management. Style 1-9 management is country-club management-high concern for employees, but low concern for production. Style 9-1 management is task or authoritarian-oriented-high concern for production and low concern for employees. Style 5-5 is middle-of-the-road-management-and intermediate amount of concern for both production and employees. Style 9-9 management is team or democratic management- a high concern for both production and employees. Blake and

Table 5.1: Likert's Four System Construct

	System 1 <i>(Exploitative Authoritative)</i>	System 2 <i>(Benevolent Authoritative)</i>	System 3 <i>(Consultative)</i>	System 4 <i>(Participative Group)</i>
Characteristic				
Trust in Subordinates	None	Condescending	Substantial	Complete
Motivation Accomplished by	Fear and Threats	Rewards and Punishment	Rewards, Punishment, Involvement	Group Participation Involvement
Communication Interpersonal	Very Limited Very Limited	Limited Limited	Fairly Widespread Moderate Amount	Widespread Extensive
Interaction				
Decision-making	Centralised	Mostly Centralised	Broad Participation Allowed	Dispersed
Goal Setting	Centralised	Mostly Centralised	Some Participation Allowed	Participation Allowed
Control	Centralised	Mostly Centralised	Moderate Delegation	Extensive Delegation
Informal Organisation	Always Developed And in Opposition To the Organisation	Usually Developed and Partially in Opposition to the Organisation	May be Developed and May Support or Oppose the Organisation	Informal Organisation Is the Same as the Formal Organisation



Mouton strongly argue that the 9-9 management style is the most effective type of leadership style. Hence, it is felt that the management may adopt 9-9 style for effective goal attainment.

Leader Participation Model

Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton developed a leader-participation model. Leader-participation is a leadership theory that provides a set of rules to determine the form and amount of participative decision-making in different situations. This model is a normative and its provides a sequential set of rules that should be followed for determining the form and amount of participation desirable in a decision-making as determined by different situations.

This model assumes that any of five behaviours may be feasible in a given situations. These five behaviour are:

- (i) **Autocratic I:** Leader solves the problem or make a decision by himself using whatever fact you have at hand.
- (ii) **Autocratic II:** Leader obtains the necessary information from subordinates and decides on the solution to the problem by himself. He may or may not tell the subordinates about the nature of the situation. He seeks only relevant facts from them, but not their advice or counsel.

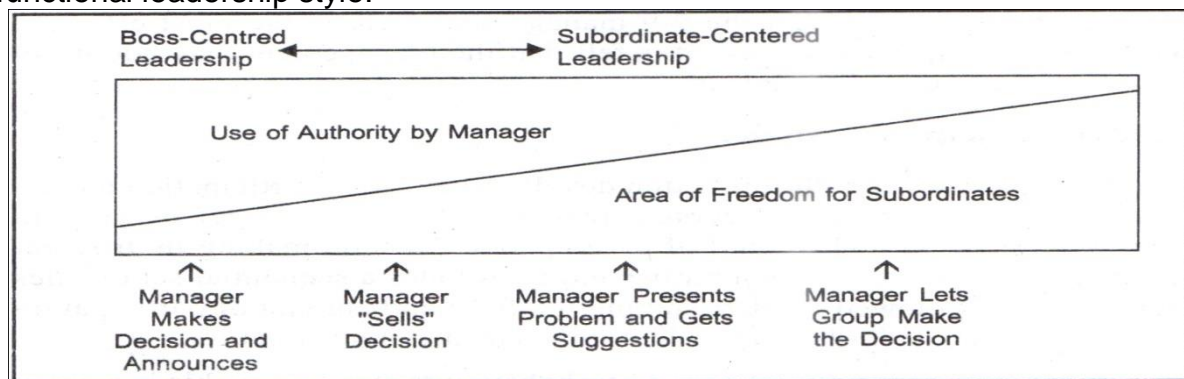
- (iii) **Consultative I:** Leader shares the problem with relevant subordinates one-on-one getting their ideas and suggestions. However, leader make the final decision.
- (iv) **Consultative II:** Leader shares the problem with his subordinates as a group, collectively obtaining their ideas and suggestions. The he makes the decision that may or may not reflect the subordinates influence.
- (v) **Group:** Leader shares the problem with his subordinates as a group. Leader's goal is to help the group in making a decision. His ideas are not given any greater weight than those of his subordinates.

Contingency Theories of Leadership

Contingency approaches to leadership take the position that there is no “one best way” to lead in all situations. Effective leadership styles vary from situation to situation depending on several factors like personality predispositions of the leaders, the characteristics of the followers, the nature of task being done and other situational factors.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Leadership Pattern

Tannenbaum and Schmidt used a contingency framework to discuss effective leadership patterns taking a situational approach. They suggested that the use of authority by the manager or the area of freedom given to the subordinates is a function of the: (i) Forces of the manager, (ii) Forces in the subordinates; and (iii) Forces in the situation (Fig 5.5). They concluded that a successful leader is one who can accurately assess the forces that determine what behaviours would be most appropriate in any given situation and is able to be flexible enough to adopt the most functional leadership style.

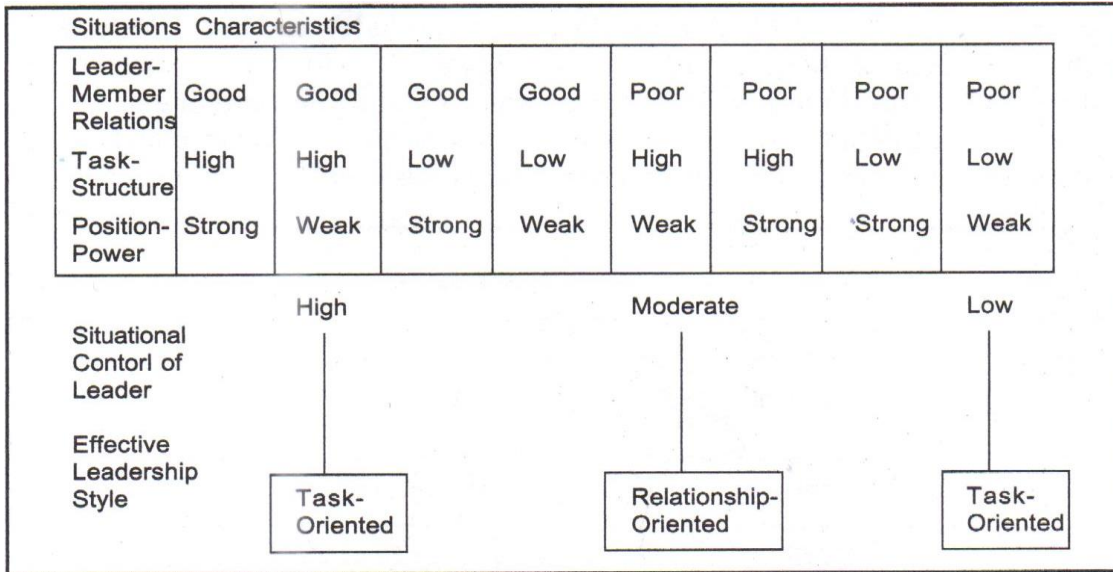


Fiedler's Contingency Theory

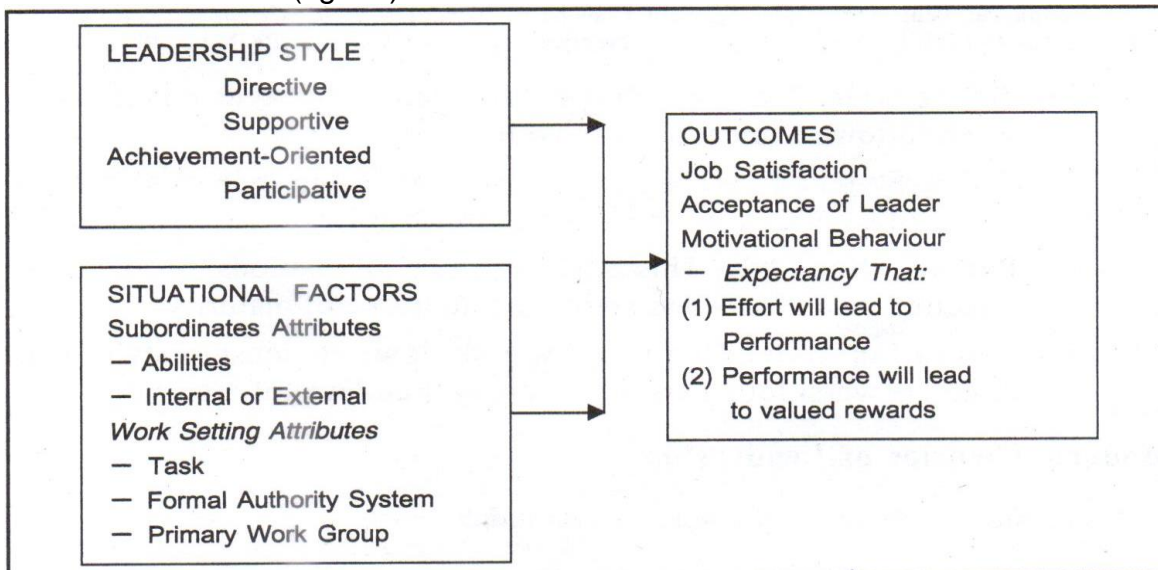
Fiedler developed a model to predict work group effectiveness by taking into consideration the ‘fit’ or match among- (i) The leader's style (task/relationship-oriented); (ii) The leader-member relations; (iii) Task-structure; and (iv) The position power of the leader (fig 5.6). Certain combinations of the last three factors are considered to be situations where the leader finds himself/herself to be in either a high degree of control or low control over the situation one finds oneself in.

Path Goal Theory of Leadership

This theory of leadership is developed by Martin Evans and Robert House using contingency approach based on the expectancy theory of motivation. This

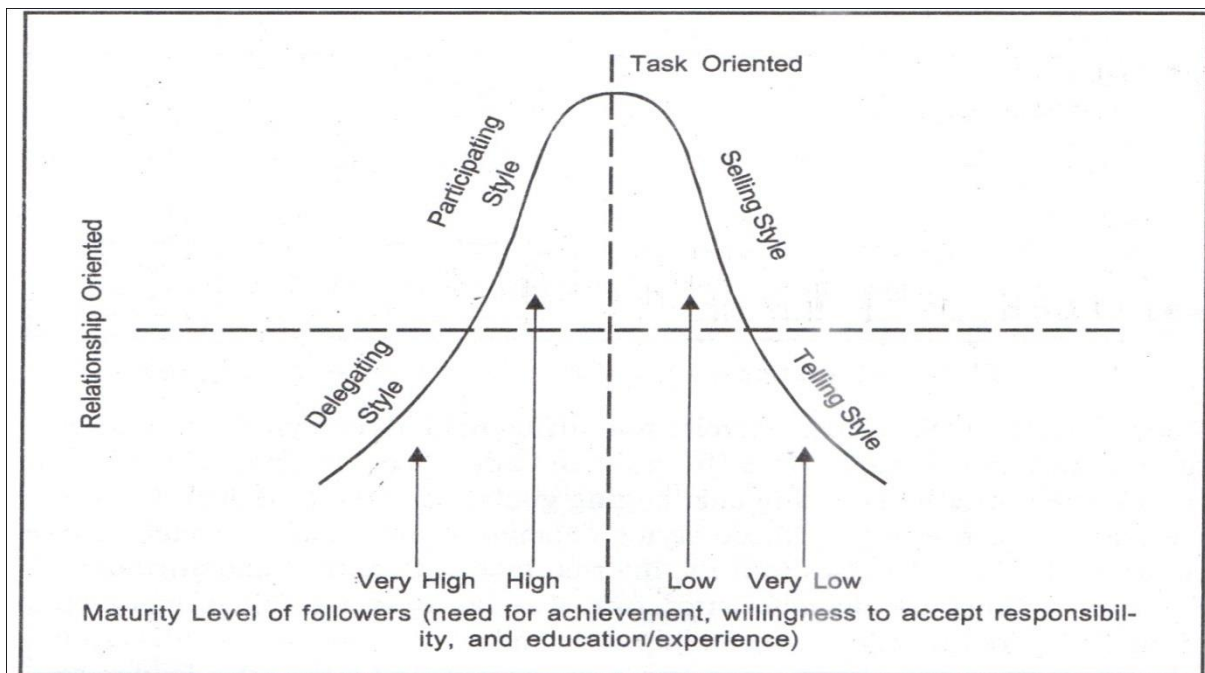


Theory states that leaders can exercise four different kinds of styles, viz., directive (giving directions), supportive (friendly and approachable), participative and achievement-oriented (setting challenging goals) leadership. It also states that the leader can use any of these styles depending on situational factors like subordinate characteristics (ability, internal locus of control) and attributes in the work-setting (task characteristics, formal authority system and primary work groups). A good fit between leadership style and situational factors will result in job satisfaction of subordinates and they accept and value the leader as a dispenser and will engage in motivated behaviour (fig.5.7).



Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle (or) Situational Approach

It is an extension of the managerial grid approach. Hersey and Blanchard's approach identifies two major styles, viz., task styles and relationship style. Hersey and Blanchard incorporate the maturity of the followers into their model taking the lead from some of Fiedler's work on situational variables. The level of maturity is defined by these criteria, viz., degree of achievement motivation, willingness to take on responsibility and amount of education and/or experience. The key for leadership effectiveness in this model (fig. 5.8) is to match up the situation with the appropriate style. The four style are:



- (i) **Telling Style:** This is a high task, low relationship style. It is effective when followers are at a very low level of maturity.
- (ii) **Selling Style:** This is a high task, high relationship style. It is effective when followers are on the low side of maturity.
- (iii) **Participating Style:** This is a low task high relationship style. It is effective when followers are on the high side of maturity.
- (iv) **Delegating Style:** This is a low task, low relationship style. It is effective when followers are at a very high level of maturity.

Modern Theories of Leadership

The modern theories of leadership include:

- Charismatic leadership theory
- Transformational leadership theory

Charismatic Leadership Theory

According to House, the characters of the charismatic leaders include:

Self-confidence, confidence in subordinates, high expectations for subordinates, ideological vision, and use of personal example. The characters of the followers of the charismatic leader include: identification with the leader's mission, exhibit Extreme loyalty to and confidence in leader, emulate the leader's values. Behaviours and derive self-esteem from their relationship with the leader.

Mahatma Gandhi's characters of self-confidence ideological vision and personal example made him as a charismatic leader. Mr. Dheerubhai Ambani's character of self confidence, Mr. Ramalinga Raju's (of Satyam Computer's) character of confidence in subordinates and high expectation for subordinates made them charismatic leaders. These characters of Ramalinga Raju resulted in performance of the followers beyond the expectations. Similarly, Mr. Kurjan's ideological vision resulted in the success of 'white revolution'. Dr. N.T. Rama Rao's unconventional behaviour made him Chief Minister of Andhra Pradesh.

Exhibit 5.3: Behavioural Components of Charismatic and Non-charismatic Leaders

	<i>Non-charismatic Leader</i>	<i>Charismatic Leader</i>
<i>Relation to Status Quo</i>	Essentially agrees with status quo and strives to maintain it	Essentially opposed to status quo and strives to change it
<i>Future Goal</i>	Goal not too discrepant from status quo	Idealized vision which is highly discrepant from Status quo
<i>Likableness</i>	Shared perspective makes him/her likable	Shared perspective and idealized vision makes him/her a likable and honorable hero worthy of identification and imitation
<i>Trustworthiness</i>	Disinterested advocacy in persuasion attempts	Disinterested advocacy by incurring great personal Risk and cost
<i>Expertise</i>	Expert in using available means to achieve goals within the framework of the existing order	Expert in using unconventional means to transcend the existing order
<i>Behaviour</i>	Conventional, conforming to existing norms	Unconventional or counternormative
<i>Environmental Sensitivity</i>	Low need for environmental sensitivity to maintain status quo	High need for environmental sensitivity for changing the status quo
<i>Articulation</i>	Weak articulation of goals and motivation to lead	Strong articulation of future vision and motivation to lead
<i>Power Base</i>	Position power and personal power (based on reward, expertise, and liking for a friend who is a similar other)	Personal power (based on expertise, respect, and admiration for a unique hero)
<i>Leader-Follower</i>	Egalitarian, consensus seeking, or directive. nudges or orders people to share his/her views	Elitist, entrepreneur, and exemplary. transforms people to the radical changes advocated

Charismatic leaders, thus, lure and motivate the subordinates towards performance beyond expectations, innovations creations, and create the work culture among the followers. Charismatic leaders tend to be portrayed as wonderful heroes. However there can also be unethical characters associated with these leaders. Behavioural components of charismatic and non-charismatic leaders are presented in Exhibit 5.3.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Mr. Nair of Roorkela Steel Plant of SAIL, Mr. G. Subba Rao of Andhra Pradesh Paper Mills Limited, and Mr. Krishna Kumar of Tata Tea and Prof. M. Rama Mohana Rao of Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore transformed their organisations from loss-making/less performed into highly profit making/highly performed companies/organisations. Mr. Anji Reddy of Dr. Reddy Labs made his company as one of the leading Pharmaceutical companies with R & D base.

Transformational leadership theory conceptualises such developments.

Two types of political leadership viz., transactional and transformational are identified. Transactional leadership involves an exchange relationship between leaders and followers. Whereas transformational leadership is based on leader's shifting the values, beliefs and needs of the followers. Exhibit 5.3 presents the characteristics of transactional and transformational leaders.

The characteristics of transformational leaders include:

- Identify themselves as change agents
- Courageous
- Believe in people
- Value-driven
- Lifelong learners
- Have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty.
- Visionaries.

Outstanding Leaders

Qualities or approaches practiced by the outstanding leaders include:

- Vision: Formulation of ideological vision in consultation with the followers.
- Passion and self-sacrifice: Display a passion for their vision. They sacrifice their self in the interest of their vision.
- Confidence, Determination and Persistence: Display high degree of faith and confidence in them in achieving the vision. They also have determination and persistence towards the achievement of the vision.
- Image Building: Build the image of themselves among the followers as competent credible and trustworthy.
- Role Modelling: Act as the role models to their followers.
- External Representation: Act as external representation and spoke person for their organisation.
- Expectations and Confidence in followers: Set high expectations from the followers and have strong confidence in their abilities and commitment.
- Frame Alignment: Engage in frame alignment. They make followers interest, values and beliefs congruent and complementary with those of their activities, goals and ideology.
- Inspirational Communication: Often communicate their messages in an inspirational manner using vivid stories, slogans, symbols and ceremonies.
- Selective Motive Arousal: They identify the appropriate motivational factors to motivate the followers for the successful achievement of vision and mission.

Leadership Skills

The skills of the effective leaders include:

1. Personal Skills

Personal skills include developing awareness, managing stress and solving problems creatively.

- Developing Self-Awareness include:
 - Determining values and priorities
 - Identifying cognitive style

- Assessing attitude towards change
- Managing Stress includes
 - Coping with stressors
 - Managing time
 - Delegating
- Solving Problems Creatively includes:
 - Using the rational approach
 - Using the creative approach
 - Fostering innovation in others

2. Interpersonal Skills include:

Gaining power and influence, communicating, motivating and conflict management.

- Gaining Power and Influence include:
 - Gaining power
 - Exercising influence
 - Empowering others
- Communicating includes:
 - Informing and listening
 - Coaching and Counselling
- Motivating includes:
 - Diagnosing poor performance
 - Creating a motivating environment
 - Rewarding accomplishments.
- Conflict Management includes:
 - Diagnosing the conflicts
 - Finding causes
 - Developing and selecting the best strategies
 - Resolving the confrontations.

Leadership lessons from Mount Everest

Michael Useem 19 draws the leadership lessons from Mount Everest. The Himalayas are one of nature's most demanding classrooms. Himalayas can teach us four important principles about taking charge of our followers and our own egos.

Lesson One: Leaders should be led by the group needs. The followers need open work places because, open work places invite valuable interaction between people, its privacy that helps knowledge workers reach their peak state of performance.

When leaders truly serve and subordinate their private welfare to that of all others, their authority often becomes unquestionable.

Lesson Two: Interaction can sometimes be the most difficult-but it is the wisest action.

Lesson Three: If your words do not stick, you have not spoken. When leaders make their strategic intent abundantly clear, other know what to do without requiring myriad further instructions.

Lesson Four: Leading upwards can feel wrong when it is right.

5.7 COMMUNICATION – MEANING

Simply, an act of conveying intended information and understanding from one person to another is called as communication. The term communication is derived from the Latin word “**Communis**” which means to share. Effective communication is when the message conveyed by the sender is understood by the receiver in exactly the same way as it was intended. Communication is a two-way process by which all forms of informations are transferred from one person to the other. So, for communication to take place, there must be some information to be conveyed and there must be two or more persons-one to deliver the message and the other to receive it. Communication is said to be perfect only when the receiver understands it in the sense the sender expected him to understand.

Dale S. Beach defines communication as “the transfer of information and understanding from person to person.

According to McFarland, communication is, “a process of meaningful interaction among human beings. More specifically it is the process by which meanings are perceived and understandings are reached among human beings.

Scott and others define communication as “a process involving the transmission and accurate replication of ideas reinforced by feedback purporting to stimulate actions to accomplish organisational goals.

Purposes of Communication

The purpose of communication in human resources management include:

- Communication is needed to exchange the ideas, options, information etc. With the colleagues, superiors, subordinates, customers, public etc.
- Communication is needed for designing jobs and human resources planning.
- Employee orientation and socialisation programmes become possible mostly through communication.
- Recruitment and selection functions are performed through communication by persuading the prospective employees to apply for a job, knowing the skills and knowledge of the prospective employees.
- Employee’s performance is evaluated by getting information, opinions and ratings from the superiors, subordinates and employers.
- Almost all the process of training and executive development are carried out through the communication process. Infact, most of the training and development are done through teaching and learning processes.
- Employees ventilate their grievances to their superiors through communication. Superiors also redress the employee grievances and deal with the disciplinary cases through communication.
- Collective bargaining process is mostly carried out through communication process of exchanging the demands, offering proposals and counter proposals etc.
- Participative management is successful through effective communication process.

5.8 IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is important in the organisation for three reasons.

First, all the functions of management such as planning, organising, leading and controlling involve the act of communication without which they cannot be performed at all. Secondly, managers devote a major portion of their time to the activity of communication. Third, interpersonal relations and group relations are maintained and developed only through the system of communication.

Also communication is essential to integrate and coordinate the activities of the people in the organisation. In the absence of communication, no individual worker can appreciate the overall objectives of an organisation, and there is a possibility that people in the same organisation will work towards different goals instead of a common goal.

Communication is also significant as it performs various actions like:

- (i) It acts as a basis for action;
- (ii) It facilitates planning;
- (iii) It helps in decision-making;
- (iv) It acts as a means of coordination;
- (v) It improves relationship among peers, superior and subordinate and
- (vi) It improves motivation and morale.

Fundamentals of Communication

Though all of us use the word communication quite often, none of us are precisely clear of its meaning and its nature. Since the effectiveness of a manager's strategies pertaining to management largely depends on communication, it is important that he knows the fundamentals of communication. 'Needless to say that this knowledge helps him to improve his communication.'

Words do not have meaning in themselves. Though a word represents a thing, an action or a feeling, the meaning of words actually depends on the way they are interpreted. Words mean different things to different people. 'Different people may interpret the same word in different ways when their background, education and the culture etc. are different. Perceptions of people may differ from the reality.' If two people experience the same phenomenon, we cannot take it for granted that they have felt or perceived it in the same way because a person's perception does not depend only on the physical and social environment but also depends on his background, attitudes, prior knowledge and experiences accumulated since birth. An optimist may say half the cup is full while a pessimist says that half the cup is empty.

Sometimes, the emotional state of a person also affects understanding. For this reason, the manager may also have to learn the emotional state of a person before he communicates. This will help the manager to express his ideas in such a way that the true meaning is understood by the receiver.

Facts must be distinguished from opinions. A careful speaker always distinguishes opinions from facts. "We must analyse, study, investigate and collect statistics to arrive at facts." While expressing opinions, one has to use the expression 'It seems to me', 'I think', 'Suppose', etc.

Communication is said to be complete when the receiver has understood it in the same sense the sender has conveyed it. It is up to the sender to find out whether the receiver has understood the true meaning of the message. So, a constant feedback becomes an essential component of the communication process.

Functions of Communication

No organisation can function without communication. It is an ever present activity among participants in the organisation. Communication in the organisation performs mainly the following functions:

- (1) Information and knowledge are transmitted from one person to another;
- (2) People are motivated and directed only with the help of communication;
- (3) People's attitude and beliefs are moulded and their behaviour is influenced positively with the help of communication and
- (4) It also performs the functions of entertainment and the maintenance of social relations among them. Scott and Mitchell summarised the functions of communication as shown in Exhibit 5.4.

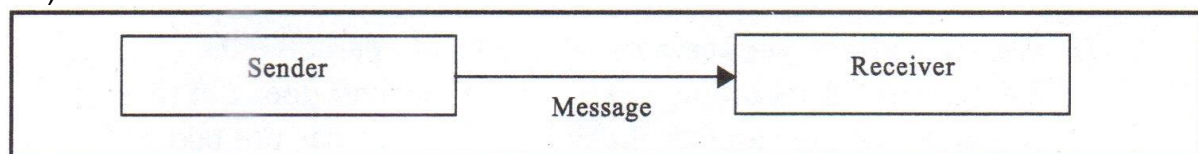
Exhibit 5.4: Functions of Communication		
<i>Function</i>	<i>Orientation</i>	<i>Objectives Sought</i>
1. Emotive	Feeling	Increasing Acceptance of the organizational tasks.
2. Motivation	Influence	Seeking commitment to organizational objectives.
3. Information	Technological	Providing data necessary to rational decisions.
4. Control	Structure	Clarifying duties, authority, accountability.

Since the manager continuously interacts with other people in the organisation, his job mainly involves communication and to do this better, he is required to be skilful in speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Now, we shall study how communication takes place.

5.9 COMMUNICATION PROCESS

To express the process of communication in the simplest manner, (see Fig. 5.9)



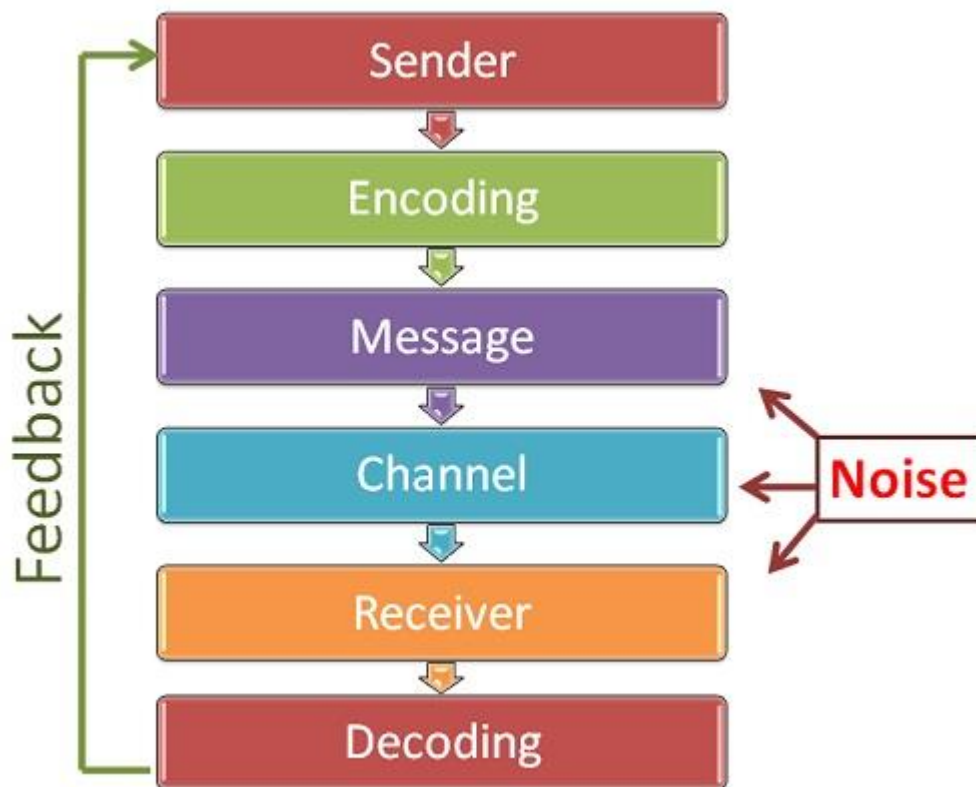
The above model is too simple and it contains only three essential elements of communication by which we mean that in the absence of these, there cannot be any communication. For the communication process to be complete, it must have the three elements.

The communication is fact is a more complex process that involves the following components (Fig. 5.10).

It can be seen from the above figure that there are seven basic elements of communication. Let us examine each component.

The communication is a dynamic process that begins with the conceptualizing of ideas by the sender who then transmits the message through a channel to the receiver, who in turn gives the feedback in the form of some message or signal within the given time frame. Thus, there are Seven major elements of communication process:

Fig. 5.10 :process of communication



1. **Sender:** The sender or the communicator is the person who initiates the conversation and has conceptualized the idea that he intends to convey it to others.
2. **Encoding:** The sender begins with the encoding process wherein he uses certain words or non-verbal methods such as symbols, signs, body gestures, etc. to translate the information into a message. The sender's knowledge, skills, perception, background, competencies, etc. has a great impact on the success of the message.
3. **Message:** Once the encoding is finished, the sender gets the message that he intends to convey. The message can be written, oral, symbolic or non-verbal such as body gestures, silence, sighs, sounds, etc. or any other signal that triggers the response of a receiver.
4. **Communication Channel:** The Sender chooses the medium through which he wants to convey his message to the recipient. It must be selected carefully in order to make the message effective and correctly interpreted by the recipient. The choice of medium depends on the interpersonal relationships between the sender and the receiver and also on the urgency of the message being sent. Oral, virtual, written, sound, gesture, etc. are some of the commonly used communication mediums.
5. **Receiver:** The receiver is the person for whom the message is intended or targeted. He tries to comprehend it in the best possible manner such that the communication objective is attained. The degree to which the receiver decodes the message depends on his knowledge of the subject matter, experience, trust and relationship with the sender.
6. **Decoding:** Here, the receiver interprets the sender's message and tries to understand it in the best possible manner. An effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the message in exactly the same way as it was intended by the sender.

7. **Feedback:** The Feedback is the final step of the process that ensures the receiver has received the message and interpreted it correctly as it was intended by the sender. It increases the effectiveness of the communication as it permits the sender to know the efficacy of his message. The response of the receiver can be verbal or non-verbal.

MIS and information technology created wonders in organisational communication. Now, we shall study the role of MIS and IT in organisational communication.

Management Information System (MIS) and Information Technology

Management information system is a formal method of making available to the management accurate and timely information necessary to facilitate the decision-making process and enable the organisation's planning, control and operational functions to be carried out effectively. Management information systems do not have to be computerised. But the number of computer based information systems has grown exponentially during the past two decades.

An information system is a set of organised procedure which when executed, provides information to support decision-making. Communication through computers and electronic media play a vital role in management information systems. Telecommunications revolution has brought significant changes in the communication modes and channels.

Telecommunication

Telecommunications is closely related to the management information system. Computers and telecommunications closely interact with each other and make the communication fast, direct and cheap. This revolution resulted in telecommuting. Telecommuting refers to home-cum-offices. It does mean performing office through local-area-network or Internet.

The important modes of telecommunication include: e-mail, video-conferencing, local area-network, interact and internet (see Box5.2). these modes resulted in efficient organisational communication.

Box 5.2: Intranet Makes Inroads

The purpose of the intranet is for employees in different parts of a company to share information. For example, at Ford Motors, an Intranet links engineering and design centres in the United States, Europe, and Asia; it was used to help design the new Taurus, which Ford introduced in 1996. At VISA International, intranets provide member banks with instant customer data, fraud alerts and information on marketing issues; previously this information had only been available in huge quarterly manuals.

The use of Intranets arose because many companies found that although project teams in various parts of the world were making progress in research, testing, product development, marketing promotions and other areas, each team seemed to be reinventing everything for itself each time it did a project. They needed a way to share their work with other divisions so they would not make the same mistakes, which was increasing development times and slowing down a company's response to the market. They are finding that a series of intranets within the company allows instant information sharing across organisational units. Use of intranet slashes development times and gives the company a chance to respond to important market segments.

In one example of intranet use, Exxon Chemical Company needed a computer software tool to help it blend typical off-the-shelf software with its custom software throughout its operations. It had spent months looking for help and expected development to take up to eighteen months. A French computer service company, CAP Gemini Sogeti, explained the problem over its intranet to its seventeen thousand software engineers. Within fortyeight hours, CAP Gemini had the solution, which they implemented in three weeks to solve Exxon's problem. CAP Gemini reports that their project time has been cut in half and that bids are presented faster because the intranet keeps designers from repeating the same work on different projects.

Information technology brought revolutionary changes in the communication process and media through Electronic Mail (E-mail). E-mail has become the common method of communication not only the general society but also in the corporate world. Computers are connected either by the telephone line or by fibre optic cable for the purpose of e-mail and internet, E-mail provides flexibility, fastness and convenience in communicating even with a large number of employees. Many organisations find it easy to send circulars to the employees through e-mail. In fact, e-mail is used for sending applications, organising interview call letters in the employment process. But e-mail causes privacy problems (See Exhibit 5.5) Hence; companies formulate their own communication policy. Exhibit 5.6 presents a model employee communication policy.

Exhibit 5.5: A Model Employee Communication Policy

Because many organisations do not have explicit policies about communication, employees do not know what levels of privacy they can expect. The following points represent what many experts consider the basic features of a good electronic privacy communication policy:

- Employees are entitled to reasonable expectations of personal privacy on the job.
- Employees know what electronic surveillance tools are used, and how management uses the collected data.
- Management uses electronic monitoring or searches data files, network communications, or electronic mail to the minimum extent possible. Continuous monitoring is not permitted.
- Employees participate in decisions about how and when electronic monitoring or searches take place.
- Data are gathered and used only for clearly defined work-related purposes.
- Management will not engage in secret monitoring or searches, except when credible evidence of criminal activity or other serious wrong doing comes to light.
- Monitoring data will not be the sole factor in evaluating employee performance.
- Employees can inspect, challenge and correct electronic records kept on their activities or files captured through electronic means.
- Records no longer relevant to the purposes for which they were collected will be destroyed.
- Monitoring data that identify individual employees will not be released to any third party, except to comply with legal requirements.
- Employees or prospective employees cannot waive privacy rights and
- Managers who violate these privacy principles are subject to discipline or termination.

Methods of Communication

People communicate through different methods like oral, written and non-verbal methods. Now, we shall study them.

Oral Communication

Oral communication is also called verbal communication. It is considered to be the earliest common medium of communication. Speech is widely adapted tool in oral communication. Human relations is the fundamental element in this communication (See Box 5.3).

Box 5.3: Oral Communication in Satyam Computers

Mr.Raju, the Managing Director of Satyam Computers, communicated the routine issues of the communication orally to the first level managers. Infact, he encourages the first level managers also to communicate orally with him in order to avoid the delay in flow of information.

Principles of effective oral communication include: clarity of the message, brevity of the message, choosing precise and most appropriate words, sequence of the message, avoiding use of jargons etc.

Techniques of oral communication include: maintenance of a friendly atmosphere, using personal greetings, showing appreciation and personal interest, opening of speech with a smile, making the listeners feel important showing empathy towards listeners using appropriate language, appropriate personal appearance, taking care to see that actions won't contradict words, use of aids, using sense of humour etc.

Advantages Oral Communication

Advantages of oral communication are:

- It saves time and cost;
- It is effective media;

- Easy to understand the message due to the possibility of two-way communication;
- Effectiveness of communication can be measured immediately;
- It can be used in emergency situations;
- It involves accuracy and speed;
- Various mechanical devices can be used and
- Proper control and supervision.

Disadvantage of Oral Communication

Despite these advantages, oral communication suffers from various disadvantages. These are:

- It can be disturbed by noise;
- Secrecy and confidentiality can't be completely maintained;
- Involvement of problem of language;
- Problem of technical and mechanical devices;
- Problem of record and evidence and
- Sometimes it is costly.

Written Communication

The primary important category of communication is written communication. The process of communication involves sending messages by written words. It covers all kinds of subject-matters like notices, memos, minutes, prospectus etc.

Box 5.4: Written Communication in Super Speciality Hospitals Ltd.

The doctors and administrators of Super Speciality Hospitals Ltd. prefer reports, memos and other forms of written communication in order to have accuracy of information and data.

Essentials

The essentials of written communications include:

- Unity of writing the message. It implies a condition of being one;
- Coherence. It is most essential for good communication. Clear communication in simple sentences helps the reader to understand;
- Emphasis on a particular aspect;
- Clarity: of written message is most important. The message should be correctly planned and expressed;
- Complete message with comprehensive coverage of subjective matter,
- Avoiding jargons;
- Conciseness;
- Brevity;
- Accuracy; and
- Strength

Objectives

The objectives of written communication include:

- To provide the facility for further reference;
- To have a record of evidence;
- To measure the progress;
- To provide necessary information on earlier activities and decisions;
- To reduce mistakes and errors based on the earlier records;
- To provide information for effective decision-making;
- To improve organisational efficiency and
- To meet the legal requirements.

Advantages

The advantages of written communication are:

- Influence of self-interest and attitude is minimum;
- Written communication is more reliable and one can trust it;
- Written communication does not suffer from the danger of being destroyed;
- It is the best method of communication when the sender and the receiver of the message are located geographically far off;
- It has capacity of being stored;
- It is suitable for lengthy matters to be communicated;
- It is useful where documentary work is involved;
- It will not carry rumour or gossip and
- This method is useful when secrecy or confidentiality of matters is involved.

Disadvantages

However, written communication suffers from some limitations. These limitations include: confusion and misinterpretation, absence of personal touch, absence of two-way communication, absence of grapevine, slow movement, absence of scope for interaction, absence of immediate feedback etc.

Non-Verbal Communication

“Acts speak louder than words.”

We summon a bearer in a restaurant with a signal of the hand. We blink our eyes when we do not understand what the other person is talking about. We raise our left eyebrow indicating our surprise and disbelief. All these actions are nothing but non-verbal communication. Communication can never be complete and effective without non-verbal communication (see Exhibit 5.3).

Exhibit 5.6: Hand Gestures Mean Different Things in Different Countries

The A-OK Sign



In the United States, this is just a friendly Sign for "All right" or "Good going." In Australia and Islamic countries, it is equivalent to what generations of high school students know as "flipping the bird."

"V" for Victory Sign



In many parts of the world, this means "victory" or "peace." In England, if the palm and fingers face inward, it means "Up yours!" especially if executed with an upward jerk of the fingers.

The "Hook'em Horns" Sign



This sign encourages University of Texas athletes, and it's a good luck gesture in Brazil and Venezuela. In parts of Africa it is a curse. In Italy, it is signalling to another that "your spouse is being unfaithful."

Finger-Beckoning Sign



This sign means "come here" in the United States. In Malaysia, it is used only for calling animals. In Indonesia and Australia, it is used for beckoning "ladies of the night."

Even before verbal communication was established, communication was non-verbal. Communication is most-effective when the non-verbal communication exists along with that of verbal. Visual aids are always considered better than audio aids.

Apart from body language, non-verbal communication also includes mode of dressing, physical distance maintained etc. These body movements are labelled as 'kinesics,' which include gestures, facial configurations and other movements.

It is very important for the manager to observe the communication expressed through Kinesics apart from being attentive to verbal communication. For example, a good salesman can watch the spark of acceptance from the eyes of a customer, at a particular rate of product and can stick on to it.

It is also important to observe the emotional state of the other person which is expressed through facial expressions. If he is looking at his wristwatch very often, it does mean that he is in a hurry and anxious to end the meeting soon. An accountant may outwardly accept to work after office hours to meet the over lead but his impatience would be obvious in his face. In such situations, it is wise to depend upon non-verbal communication, because the person who is in a hurry cannot concentrate on what you are talking and as such communication is not effective.

Physical distance maintained is also important in assessing the other person's attitude. But this again changes from place to place depending upon their culture norms. For example, what is 'business like' distance in some European countries would be viewed as 'intimate' in many parts of North America."

Improving Non-Verbal Effectiveness

The managers, who read the non-verbal cues and behave accordingly in social situations, would become efficient and successful in communicating with the people. These managers have high emotional intelligence. Non-verbal communication can be improved through the following means:

1. Look at what is happening in the situation.

2. Consider the discrepancies between the non-verbal behaviour and verbal statements. Non-verbal signals are correct rather than verbal statements when there is discrepancy between them and
3. Watch for subtleties in the non-verbal behaviour. The real smile can be easily differentiated from a fake smile.

Cultural differences must be recognized in non-verbal communication. The cultural differences are influenced by sex, community, region, age etc. Employees in L & T Cement Factory respect the trade union leader who is a politician rather than their boss. People in Italy and Eritrea generally shake their hands with everyone. Japanese respect the elders. North Indians touch the feet of the elders as a mark of respect. Punctuality in Spain is taken seriously only when attending a bull fight.

Communication channels and network play vital role in making the communication effective. Now, we shall study them.

Communication Channels

Information must flow faster than ever before in modern organisation. Even a dismal stoppage on fast-moving operation time can be very costly. What is more important is providing more, relevant and faster information. Managers need information to carry out managerial functions and activities effectively. There is no universally applicable communication system. But individual managers have to tailor their own system depending on their needs.

Communication flows through various channels. These channels include vertical, i.e., downward and upward, horizontal and diagonal or cross-wise. Traditionally, downward, downward communication was emphasised. But later it is realized that upward communication is also equally important.

Vertical Communication

Vertical communication includes downward communication and upward communication.

Downward Communication

Downward communication flows from higher level to lower level in the organisational hierarchy. This type of flow is an essential character of an authoritarian atmosphere. Thus, downward flow of information is from superior to subordinates.

The basic purpose of communications are:

- To provide specific task directive or instructions;
- To provide information about task relationship;
- To provide information about an organisation`s missions, objectives, policies, procedures, programmes etc.;
- To provide feedback about subordinates` performance;
- To let the people know the pride of being relatively well informed.

The advantages of downward communication are:

- It helps to inform the employee about policies; objectives etc.;
- To execute and implement various programmes;
- It facilitates to improve quality of response.

The disadvantages of downward communication are:

- It causes delay and time consuming process;
- It is only a one way process;
- There is no provision for feedback;
- It provides for rigid communication network and
- There is no scope for subordinates to express their views.

Media used for Downward Communication

The organisational culture pertaining to its structure, lines of command and communication has changed dramatically after the globalisation and privatisation of business. The traditional style of downward communication has been changed significantly. The traditional downward communication include, print and oral media. The written media include letters, annuals, handbooks, house magazines, notice-board items, reports, posters, orders and the like.

The oral media in downward communication include face-to-face orders, instruction, telephonic order, speeches, meeting, closed-circuit television programmes and the like.

The shift organizational culture reduced the gap between or among the organizational hierarchies. Consequently, downward communication has been acquiring the characteristics of informal communication for the purpose of free flow of information. Further, the development in telecommunication increased the effectiveness of downward communication. These developments include video-conferences, local Area Network (LAN), Wide-Area Network (WAN), fax, telephone and the like.

Upward Communication

Upward communication flows from lower level to upper level in organizational hierarchy. This flow is often hindered by managers in the chain particularly in case of unfavorable information (See Box 5.6)

Box 5.6: Upward communication at L&T Cement Works, Tadipatri

Mr. Ramana Rao, Human Resources Manager, L&T Cement Works, Tadipatri, encourages the subordinates to ventilate their grievances and lodge their complaints through upward communication. Further, he encourages upward communication for expressing views and ideas by the employees in meetings and for decision-making.

Upward communication is necessary to offer suggestions to lodge complaints, ventilate grievances, to response to counselling, opinion survey, exit interviews, to discuss in meeting and participate in decision-making (See Exhibit 5.7).

Exhibit 5.7: Obtaining Employee Feedback: Some Useful Techniques

<i>TECHNIQUE</i>	<i>DESCRIPTION</i>
Employee surveys	Questionnaires assessing workers' attitudes and opinions about key areas of organisational functioning, especially when results are shared with the workforce.
Suggestion systems	Formal mechanisms through which employees can submit ideas for improving things in organisations (often by putting a note in a suggestion box); good ideas are implemented and the people who submitted them are rewarded.
Corporate hotlines	Telephone numbers-employees may call to ask questions about important organisational matters; useful in addressing workers' concerns before they become too serious.
Brown bag meetings	Session in which subordinates and superiors meet informally over breakfast or lunch to discuss organisational matters.
Skip-level meetings	Meetings between subordinates and superiors two or more levels above them in the organisational hierarchy.

The techniques summarized in exhibit 5.7 are designed to improve organisational functioning by providing top management with information about the attitudes and ideas of the workforce. They are used to promote the upward flow of information.

Managers should encourage upward communication with a view to :

- Create receptiveness of communication;
- Create a feeling of belongingness through a shared meaning;
- Evaluate communication and
- Demonstrate a concern for the ideas and views of lower level employees.

Advantages of upward communication include:

- It provides scope for two- way communication ;
- Possibility for immediate feedback and
- To provide scope for employee satisfaction.

Methods of Improving the Effectiveness of Upward Communication

As stated earlier, the globalization and privatization of business brought significant change in the communication culture due to server competition. Top management initiates and encourages upward communication for the operational and organizational efficiency. Managements use the following methods to improve the effectiveness of upward communication.

- (i) **Managing by walking Around:** Managers under this style of leadership do not confine their office to their chambers. Instead, they walk around and meet all their subordinates at the work place of the latter. They discuss various issues relating to the job, organisation and employee. The subordinates freely express views, share their ideas. Offer their suggestions and ventilate their problems as the subordinate is in his place of work and

the boss comes down there. Many managers started using this style as it has been improving upward communication.

- (ii) **The Open door Policy:** The open-door policy does mean that the managers would invite and encourage the subordinates to meet them always and communicate with them on various jobs, organisational and individual related issues freely. When the managers say that 'my doors are always open to you' they mean that others can have unlimited access to the former. This policy also improves upward communication.
- (iii) **The Ombudsman Position:** The ombudsman position is largely held by the senior people in the organisation who are about to retire. These senior people offer suggestions and advice to the junior employees reading career and personal issues. These senior people offer suggestions based on their experience and expertise. The ombudsman plays a figure-head role and a well – wishers role. Therefore, he encourages upward communication through the open-door policy.

An Empowerment Strategy: Empowerment involves imparting power to the subordinates by providing them information, knowledge, expertise and special skills in addition to delegating authority. Managers empower their employees with a view to equip the latter with necessary power to make appropriate decisions in the right time by avoiding the unnecessary procedures and formalities. This, in turn, help to carry out the job most efficiently. Infact, subordinates communicate upward freely in the empowerment situation as they are regarded as knowledgeable and expert employees.

(v) **Participative Management:** Participative style of management involves the employees in information sharing, arguments, proposals and counter proposals, development of alternative decisions and selection of the best decision. This entire process enables and enhances upward communication. Employees in participative decision-making are more satisfied and motivated as they are allowed to communicate freely.

(vi) **Counselling, Attitude Surveys and Exit Interview:** Human resources Management department conducts employee and career counselling sessions to encourage the employee to communicate his feelings freely. Further, managements conduct attitude surveys through questionnaires which solicit employee's view. Similarly, exit interviews also solicit employee's reaction to the policies and practices of management. Thus, counselling, attitude surveys and exit interviews facilitate upward communication.

(vii) **The Grievance Procedure:** If employees are not satisfied with the action of their superiors, they can communicate their dissatisfaction beyond their immediate superior and seek redressal of the grievance. This process allows employees to communicate upward.

(viii) **E-mail:** Sending message through e-mail to any one has become the order of communication today. Employees who were reluctant to speak to their bosses face-to-face and to speak on phone can use e-mail freely. Therefore, use of e-mail encourages upward communication.

Problem of Upward and Downward Communication

Downward communication keeps reducing as it is modified and filtered at each level. Superiors always think of what should be passed down to subordinates and passed on only that which they feel can be passed down. Upward communication also undergoes all this as middle managers believe that it is part of their job to decide what information should go up and how much. For these reasons, vertical communication is often incomplete.

Horizontal Communication

Communication is said to be horizontal when place between two employees of the same level in the organisational hierarchy. For example, communication between production and marketing managers. Horizontal communication is essential because of the fact that the departments in an organisation are interdependent and coordination of their activities is necessary.

Horizontal communication is used to bring about task coordination among peers, to provide emotional and social support, to strengthen relationship among peers and to allow the flow of information faster.

Diagonal Communication

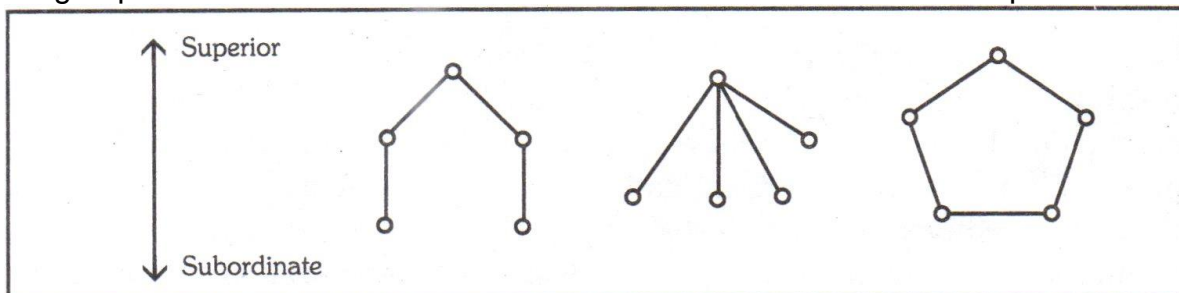
Diagonal or cross-wise communication is between two or more persons of various departments of an organisation. Diagonal communication allows the communicators to communicate the message exactly to the person to whom it is meant. For example, the quality controller sends the message to the sales executive in order to ascertain whether a high quality product moves in the particular market or no? It is diagonal communication. The quality controller needs not send the message through the production manager and marketing manager. This communication system violates the principle of unity of command. However, diagonal communication suits the conditions of competition where fastness is the order of the day.

Communication Network

Managers in organisations establish communication flow with others in different patterns in order to facilitate the flow of information from one point (or source) to all other points. These patterns of flow of information are called communication networks. There are innumerable ways or patterns of communication. There are a few frequently used networks.

Communication networks decline the channels by which information flows. These networks are classified into two.viz. Formal network and informal networks.

Formal networks are typically vertical (Fig 5.11), follow the authority chain and are limited to task-related communications. In contrast, the informal network usually known as grapevine-is free to move in direction, skip authority responsibility relationship levels-The likely purpose of informal network is to satisfy social needs of the group members with a view to motivate the members of task accomplishment.



Formal Network

There are three common small-group networks. These are chain, wheel and star (Fig.5.11). The chain rigidly follows the formal chain of command. In the wheel network, communication flow depends on the superior to act as the central point for all group communications. The star or all-channel network all group members actively communicate with each other. This type of network is essential for teamwork.

The effectiveness of each network depends on the dependent variables (Exhibit 5.8). For example, speed of communication is fast in wheel and star. Accuracy of information is high in chain and wheel networks. Dependency on leader is high in the wheel network. Members are highly satisfied in the star network. Distortion is high in chain network and low in star network. Work overload is moderate in chain and star networks and very high in the wheel network. Both chain/star networks is best for teamwork, which satisfies members as well as produces qualitative work. It is also clear that no single network will be the best for all occasions.

Exhibit 5.8: Effectiveness of Formal Networks			
<i>Criteria</i>	<i>Chain</i>	<i>Networks Wheel</i>	<i>Star/All Chain</i>
Speed	Moderate	Fast	Fast
Accuracy	High	High	Moderate
Efficiency of a leader	Moderate	High	None
Member satisfaction	Moderate	Low	High
Distortion	High	Moderate	Low
Overload	Moderate	Very high	Moderate

Informal Network

The informal network has three main characteristics, viz.

- It is not controlled by the management.
- Most employee perceive that they get reliable information through this technique and
- It is largely used to serve the self interests of the members. There are no clear patterns of flow of information in informal network. Information can flow in any direction in this network.

Inter-Personal Communication

The major emphasis in interpersonal communication is on transferring information from one person to another. The purpose of interpersonal communication is to effect behavioral change by incorporating psychological processes (perception, learning and motivation) and language. In addition, listening sensitivity and non-verbal communication are also included. Getting feedback and providing feed forward are most important in interpersonal communication. The importance of feedback cannot be over emphasized a effective interpersonal

communication highly depends on it. Both formal and informal networks should be used for effective feedback. It makes communication a two-way process.

Some characteristics of effective and ineffective feedback are summarized and shown in Exhibit 5.9. These characteristics are:

- (i) **Intention:** The intention of effective feedback is summarized performance.
- (ii) **Specificity:** Effective feedback is designed to provide with specific information to recipients.
- (iii) **Description:** Effective feedback is descriptive rather than evaluative.
- (iv) **Usefulness:** effective feedback provides employees with useful information to improve job performances.
- (v) **Timelines:** Effective feedback provides information in the right time.
- (vi) **Read lines:** Employees must be ready to receive information in order to make feedback effective.
- (vii) **Clarity:** The recipient must understand the information clearly and
- (viii) **Validity:** The information communication must be reliable and valid.

Exhibit 5.9: Characteristics of Feedback	
<i>Effective Feedback</i>	<i>Ineffective Feedback</i>
1. Intended to help the employee	1. Intended to be little the employee
2. Specific	2. General
3. Descriptive	3. Evaluative
4. Useful	4. Inappropriate
5. Timely	5. Untimely
6. Employer Readiness for feedback	6. Make the employee defensive
7. Clear	7. Not understandable
8. Valid	8. Inaccurate

Other Variables

In addition to feedback, other variables like trust, expectations, values status and compatibility influence interpersonal communication greatly. If the subordinate does not trust his boss, communication will be ineffective. Similarly, the other variables also contribute for ineffective communication. Interpersonal communication is the central subsystem of the organisational communications.

Listening

Listening is a very important aspect in the process of communication, but it is a very difficult task. Many people take their skills for granted and they confuse hearing with listening. Listening is different from hearing. Hearing is merely picking up sound whereas listening is making sense from what we hear. Hence listening requires playing attention, interpreting and remembering sound stimuli.

Active and Passive Listening

Effective listening must be active but not passive. In passive listening, the receiver just records the information. Active listening gets the receiver inside the sender of the information as the receiver understands the information from the point

of view of the sender. The receiver has to concentrate and fully understand the information in the process of receiving the information (see exhibit 5.10).

The four essential requirements of active listening are: (i) Intensity; (ii) Empathy; (iii) Acceptance; (iv) a willingness to take responsibility for completeness. Our brain is capable of handling a speaking rate of about four times the speed of the average speaker. It leaves a lot of time for idle mind. Hence, listeners have to summarise and process the information that they receive. Empathy requires the listener to get into the shoes in the speaker. It does not mean that the receiver should try to understand what the speaker wants to communicate. An active listener should demonstrate acceptance. Finally, the listener should do whatever is necessary to get the full intended meaning from the speaker's communication.

Exhibit 5.10: Principles of Effective Listening		
<i>Principle</i>	<i>Good Listener</i>	<i>Bad Listener</i>
1. Look for areas of interest	Seeks personal enlightenment and/or information, entertains new topics as potentially interesting.	Turns out dry subjects, narrowly defines what is interesting.
2. Overlook errors of delivery	Attends to meaning and content, ignores delivery errors while being sensitive to any message in them.	Ignores if delivery is poor, misses messages because of personal attributes of the communicator.
3. Postpone judgement	Avoids quick judgements, waits until comprehension of the core message is complete.	Quickly evaluates and passes judgement, inflexible regarding contrary messages.
4. Listen for ideas	Listens for ideas and themes. Identifies the main points.	Listens for facts and details.
5. Take notes	Takes careful notes and uses a variety of note taking or recording schemes depending on the speaker.	Takes incomplete note using one system.
6. Be actively responsive	Responds frequently with nods, "uhhuhs", etc., shows active body state, works at listening.	Passive demeanour, few or no responses, little energy output.
7. Resist distractions	Resists being distracted, longer concentration span, places loaded words in perspective.	Easily distracted, focusses on loaded or emotional words, short concentration span.
8. Challenge your mind	Uses difficult material to stimulate the mind, seeks to enlarge understanding.	Avoids difficult material, does not seek to broaden knowledge base.
9. Capitalise on mind speed	Uses listening time to summarise and anticipate the message, attends to implicit messages as well as explicit messages.	Daydreams with slow speakers, becomes preoccupied with other thoughts.
10. Assist and encourage the speaker	Asks for clarifying information or examples, uses reflecting phrases, helps to rephrase the idea.	Interrupts, asks trivial questions, makes distracting comments.

Developing effective/Active Listening Skills

The specific behaviour of effective active listener are:

- (i) **Make eye Contact:** The receiver should maintain eye contact with the sender during the process of receiving information.
- (ii) **Exhibit Affirmative Head Nods** and appropriate facial expressions.
- (iii) **Avoid distracting Actions or Gestures:** When listening, don't do any other work.

- (iv) **Ask questions:** Asking questions during the process of listening provides clarification, ensures understanding and assures the speaker that the receiver is listening.
- (v) **Paraphrase:** Paraphrase means restating what the speaker has said in the listener's own words.
- (vi) **Avoid interrupting** the speaker.
- (vii) **Don't over talk:** Allow the speaker to talk completely and speak only to the extent necessary.
- (viii) **Make smooth transitions** between the speaker and listener. Concentrate on what the speaker has to say rather than what you are going to say.

Organisational Communication

What all is true of interpersonal communication is also true of organisational communication. Here too the effective communication involves getting an accurate message from one person to another. However, there are certain factors that are unique to the organisation which influence the effectiveness of communication.

Raymond V. Leiskar has described four factors that influences the effectiveness of organisational communication.

1. The formal channels of communication.
2. The organisational authority structure.
3. Job specification and
4. Information Ownership.

Formal Communication

Communication effectiveness is influenced by formal channels in two ways. First, the formal channels cover the widening distance that usually occurs when the organisation develops and grow. Second, the formal channels inhibit the free flow of information between organisational levels, particularly in upward communication. For example, a worker communicates his problems to a foreman or supervisor rather than to the plant manager. It has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantage is that the managers are fed with the limited important information and the disadvantage is that sometimes the managers may not receive the information he should receive.

The authority structure in the organisation also influences the effectiveness of communication. The content and accuracy of information are also affected because of the differences in authority and status. For example, there cannot take place a frank conversation between a clerk and the company managing director, since the clerk's speech is always characterized by politeness and formality.

Job specialisation also affects the effectiveness of communication. Members belonging to the same work group use the same jargon and understand each other better, while communication between highly differentiated groups is likely to be a problem for both.

Information ownership refresh to unique knowledge and information about their jobs possessed by the individuals. For many individuals, such information is a sort of power that helps them function more effectively than others. Most of the persons with such scales are often reluctant to share the information with others. Hence, open communication is not always possible in the organization.

Organizational communication may be formal or informal. Formal communication is an official support and sanction. Formal communication flows through the authority and responsibility channels of an organization which exist in order to; (i) Measure and control outputs; (ii) To coordinate complex activities in the system and relate the sub-systems to the total systems; (iii) To regulate response to external environment; (iv) Coordinate resource allocation and (v) Create a climate within which the organization can adjust its output as it receives and process feedback.

The advantages of formal communication includes: (i) Providing correct information; (ii) Having official support with authority; (iii) Uniformity in transmission and (iv) Handling of message efficiently. However, formal communication suffers from the drawbacks like; (a) Delay in sending information due to official channels; (b) Absence of immediate feedback; (c) Absence of interest to send and receive and (d) Lack of ability to communicate upward.

Organizational communication takes place in a variety of ways. It may flow vertically or horizontally. The vertical communication can be either downward or upward.

Managers, to-day realized that informal communication is more important and useful than formal communication. Why? We, now study informal communication to answer this question.

Informal Communication or Grapevine

The communication that arises not out of formal relation between people but out of informal or social relationship is called the grapevine or informal communication. The management has no absolute control over this type of communication as they neither created nor destroyed it. Communication need not flow through authority-responsibility relationship or channels of organization in informal communication. In informal communication, there are formal superior-subordinate relationships.

The informal communication does both good and bad to the organizations. The advantages of informal communication are : (i) It acts as a driving force to unite the workforce in cases of common matters; (ii) It saves time and energy as the information flows at a high speed; (iii) It has immediate response from the receiver; (iv) It provides the scope for creation of new ideas; (v) It satisfied the communication needs of various employees and (vi) It provides scope for immediate feedback.

Informal communication suffers from various drawbacks. They are: (i) Informal communication sometimes spread wrong information and rumours; (ii) It distorts information; (iii) Grapevine provides only inadequate information ;(iv) Information provide through grapevine has no formal authority and (v) It overlooks superiors.

According to Koontz and O'Donnel, "the most result when managers utilized informal organization to supplement the communication channels of the formal organization.

It should be remembered that it is a part of the manager's job to have a little control over this informal communication so that he can take the appropriate action to minimize the adverse effect of this channel.

Organizational Climate and Communication

Organizational climate is a very important in the context of communication. Organizational climate is the summary perception which people have about an organization. It is thus a global expression of what the organizations is:

Organization climate refresh to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations. The characteristics of organizational climate are:

- (i) **Individual Initiative:** The degree of responsibility, freedom and independence that individuals have.
- (ii) **Risk Tolerance:** The degree to which employees are encouraged to be aggressive, innovative and risk seeking.
- (iii) **Direction:** The degree to which the organization creates clear objectives and performance expectations.
- (iv) **Integration:** The degree to which units within the organization are encouraged to operate in a coordinated manner.
- (v) **Management Support:** The degree to which managers provide clear communication, assistance and support to their subordinates.
- (vi) **Control:** The number of rules and regulations and the amount of direct supervision
- (vii) **Identity:** The degree to which members identify which organization as a whole rather than with their particular work group or field of professional expertise.
- (viii) **Reward System:** The degree to which reward allocations are based on employee performance.
- (ix) **Conflict Tolerance:** The degree to which organizational to air conflicts and criticisms openly and
- (x) **Communication Patterns:** The degree to which organizational communications are restricted to the formal hierarchy of authority.

Thus, the dependence on formal communication denotes higher degree of organizational climate.

Communicating with the Employees

Both formal as well as informal communications channels are used to communicate with the employees. In addition to following written communication, oral and non-verbal communication should be relied upon. In addition to downward communication to communicate rules, procedures and programs of the organization to employees, employees should also be encouraged to communicate to their superiors.

In order to make use of teamwork, all channels of communication or star communication patterns should be encouraged. Interpersonal communication should encourage with a view to develop interpersonal relations. Employees should also be encouraged to develop effective and active listening skills.

Managers often fail to communicate due to the barriers involved in this process. Now, we shall study the barriers to communication.

5.10 BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

There are certain factors that impede the proper flow of communication. All those factors that adversely affect the effectiveness of communication may be called *barriers* to communication. The barriers of communication may be classified into:

External Barriers

External Barriers are usually in the following forms:

- (i) **Semantic Barriers:** These barriers arise at the stage of encoding or decoding in the process of communication. These barriers are often due to linguistic capacity of the sender and receiver.

Badly Expressed Message: If the message is not expressed clearly and precisely and when the right word is not used at the right place, it may not convey the proper meaning that the person has in mind.

- (ii) **Faulty Translations:** Managers are often required to translate the message into a form suitable to their superiors and subordinates. Unless one has good linguistic capacity, he cannot do this job well.
- (iii) **Specialist Language:** Technical personnel and other experts usually fall into the habit of using their own technical jargon which other outside their group fail to understand. This hinders the communication to a large extent.

Emotional or Psychological Barriers

The emotional or psychological state of a person also influences the communication. The following are some emotional or psychological barriers:

- (i) **Premature Evaluation:** People often jump to conclusion even before the message is completely communicated. This discourages the sender and may even give him a feeling of futility.
- (ii) **Existence of preconceived Notions.**
- (iii) **Inattention Due to Lack of Interest.**
- (iv) **Distrust in Communication:** If the receiver does not trust that sender for any reason, he does not pay the requires attention to the message and he does not believe in the message received.
- (v) **Fears:** (a) Fear of misinterpretation of message of by the receiver. (b) Fear of Distortion: sometimes the message of the sender is filtered when it reaches the receiver. This is also known as loss by transmission. (c) Fear of exposing oneself to criticism. (d) Information is held back deliberately by the sender with the feeling that some action will be taken against him if he expresses his opinion frankly. This is known as *fear of reprisal*.
- (vi) Poor retention by the receiver because of his inability.
- (vii) **Defensive Behaviour:** Employees have a tendency to become defensive when they feel they are being threatened. In such circumstances, they tend to stop listening to the sender`s message.

Organisational Barriers

Organisational policies, rules and regulations, status relationships also affect the effectiveness of communication. For example, a frank feedback cannot be expected from the subordinate because of the existing superior-subordinate relation.

Personal Barriers

Personal barriers can again be classified into two types: (i) Barriers in superiors and (ii) Barriers in subordinates.

- (i) **Barriers in Superiors (Barriers from Superiors)**

- (a) *Attitude of Superiors*: If the superior has an unfavourable attitude to the subordinate's act of giving message, adequate information cannot flow from the subordinate to the superior.
- (b) *Lack of Confidence in Subordinates*: The information from the subordinate does not interest the superior when he lacks confidence in him.
- (c) *Lack of Awareness of Importance of Communication*: The manager does not understand the communication with the subordinate if he doesn't know the importance of it.
- (d) *Insistence on proper Channel*: Superiors always insist on the subordinates giving the information through proper channel and this definitely discourages him to furnish the factual information.

(ii) Barriers in Subordinates (Barriers from Subordinates)

- (a) *Unwillingness to Communicate*: Subordinates are often reluctant to provide information for the fear that a piece of information may have adverse effect on the attitudes of the superiors.

Even if they provide information, they modify it in such a manner to protect their own interest.

- (b) *Lack of Proper Incentive*: If a novel suggestion made by a subordinate does not evoke any attention of the management, this experience will keep him away from conveying anything in future.

Despite these barriers, some managers communicate effectively? Hence, we shall study, the measures of effective communication.

5.11. STEPS FOR IMPROVING COMMUNICATION

The analysis of the communication process involves the following four elements: Communication can be made effective through the effective use of these elements.

(i)The Content: It calls for clear thinking about objective (must be definite), message (frank and sensible), wording (accurate, clear, convincing and untwistable) and presentation (planned, appropriate and effective).

(ii) The System must be clearly defined and recognized.

(iii) The Technique: It involves selection of the most appropriate technique. The techniques are oral, written, graphic and psychological.

(iv)The Media: The media of communication are personal contacts, meetings, conference, telephone talks, letters, reports, minutes, notices, handbooks, periodicals, schedules. Balance sheets, organisational charts, attitude, gestures, expression, inflexion etc.

A proper regard for content, system, technique and medium will help to communicate effectively. But there is no substitute for real basic elements of good communication viz. Honesty, sincerity, clear thought and simplicity.

Further, clear thinking is necessary primarily to all successful communication and decision- making. The mental process involved in clear thinking covers (a) collection of all relevant information; (b) Sorting out facts from opinions and inferences; (c) Checking the facts, opinions and inferences and (d) Evaluating the information and drawing conclusion from it.

Ten Commandments of Effective Communication

The American Management Association (AMA) suggested Ten Commandments for effective communication. They are:

- (i) Clarify ideas before attempting to communicate.
- (ii) Examine the process of communication.
- (iii) Understand the physical and human environment when communicating.
- (iv) In planning communication, consult with others to obtain their support as well as the facts.
- (v) Consider the content and the overtones of the message.
- (vi) Whenever possible, communicate something that helps or is valued by the receiver.
- (vii) Communication to be effective requires follow-up.
- (viii) Communicate messages that are of short-run and long-run importance.
- (ix) Actions must be congruent with communication and
- (x) Be a good listener.

5.12 TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

This is developed and popularized by Eric Berne through his book on *Games People Play* and Thomas Harris through his book *I'm OK, You're OK* respectively. Transactional analysis is the analysis of transactions between two or more persons. The major areas of transactional analysis can be explained through ego states, transactions and stroking.

Ego is a hypothetical construct and is used to help explain the complex dynamics of the human personality. Transactional Analysis uses three ego states viz., Child(C) Ego; Adult (A) Ego and Parent (P) ego.

Child ego (C): is the state in which the individual acts like an impulsive child. The characteristics of child ego include being submissive or insubordinate, emotional, joyful or rebellious. The child state is characterised by immature behaviour. For example, the Area Marketing Executive says to Chief Marketing Manager. "You know better," when he is asked to offer a suggestion. The ego of Laxman when his mothers along with Bharat and Shatrugna came to the forest in the Ramayana may be referred to as child ego.

Adult Ego (A): In the *Adult Ego*, an individual acts like a matured person. The characteristics of adult ego state include 'cool-headed,' rational behaviour, calculative, objectivity, fairness, gathering and analysing information, logical choice etc. Lord Rama collected all information from his mothers; Bharat and Satrugna when the latter came to the forest to explain the reasons led to disqualifying the former from being the king of Ayodhya. Then Lord Rama analysed the information collected and made a decision of most accepting the position based on analysis of information, consequences of all alternative solution etc. The ego state of Rama in this incident referred to '*Adult ego.*'

Parent Ego (P): In the *Parent Ego State*, individual acts like a dominating parent. The characteristics of the state include: protective, loving, controlling, nurturing, critical etc.

Transaction between Ego States: A number of transactions take place between two or more individuals. They are classified as complementary, crossed and ulterior transactions.

Complementary Transactions

If transaction are complementary, if the message sent or the behaviour exhibited by one person receives the appropriate and expected response from another person's ego state. Then, (See fig2.12). Conflict does not arise between the transacting people in complementary transactions.

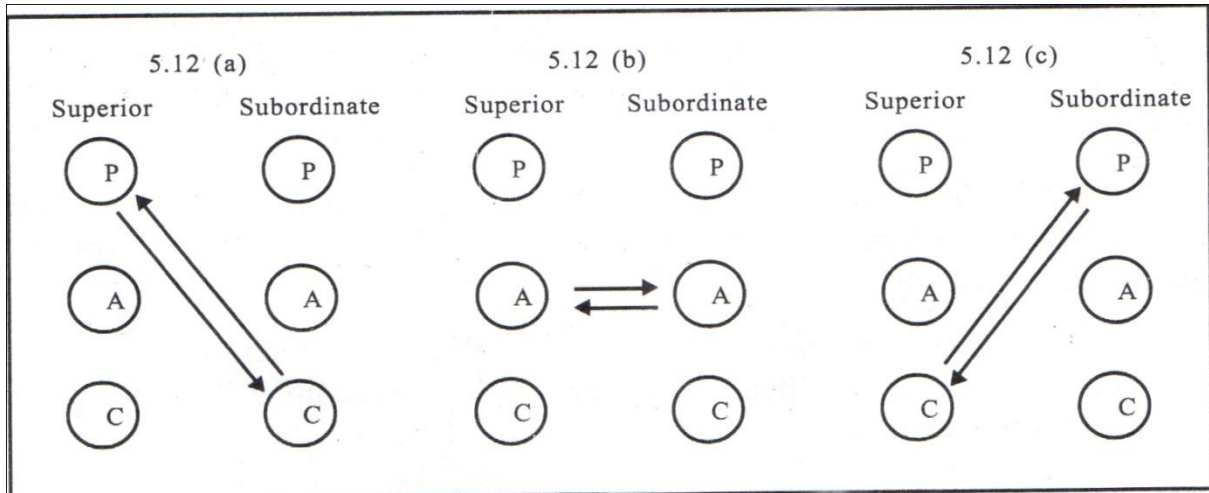
P-C Transaction: For example, Fig. 5.12 (a) the production supervisor tells the foreman to change the scheduling. The foreman obeyed the order. The production supervisor is in the parent ego state and the foreman is in the child ego state. This is a *parent to child transaction*. The transaction between the production supervisor and the foreman is called *complementary transaction*.

Though this is a complementary transaction, the foreman simply obeys the order of his boss without using his skills and knowledge. As such, this type of transaction does not allow the subordinates to grow. Further, the superior overestimates his competency and underutilises the human resources of his subordinates, which in turn leads to underutilisation of the organisation's human resources.

A-A Transaction: In fig 5.12(b) another incident, the Production Manager asked the Assistant Production Manager (APM) to suggest measures to reduce the cost of production. The APM analysed the data, identified the low cost sources and suggested measures to reduce the cost of production. This transaction is Adult to Adult transaction, which encourages both the parties to think rationally and allows them to use their human resources.

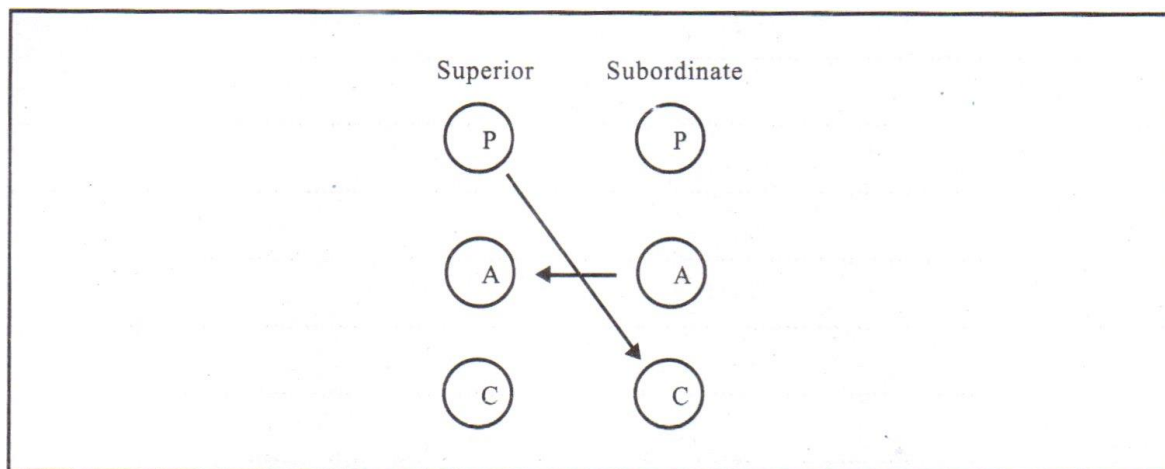
C-P Transaction: In Fig. 5.12 (c) Mr. Prakash is a clerk in Marketing department of Zuhari Cements, Yerraguntla a faction area in Andhra Pradesh and also the Secretary of the Employees' Union. Mr. Prakash is a follower of powerful local factionist. Employees' Union resorted even to the physical threats in solving their problems in the past. One day, he ordered the marketing manager to promote the marketing Executives as the Senior Marketing Executives. The Marketing

Manager had to accept the order due to the power of the trade union. Subordinate assumes parent ego while superior assumes child ego due to compulsion or physical threat. This is Child-Parent transaction. This transaction is also a complementary transaction, but is used by the powerful subordinates. These transactions also do not allow the employees to use their human resources.



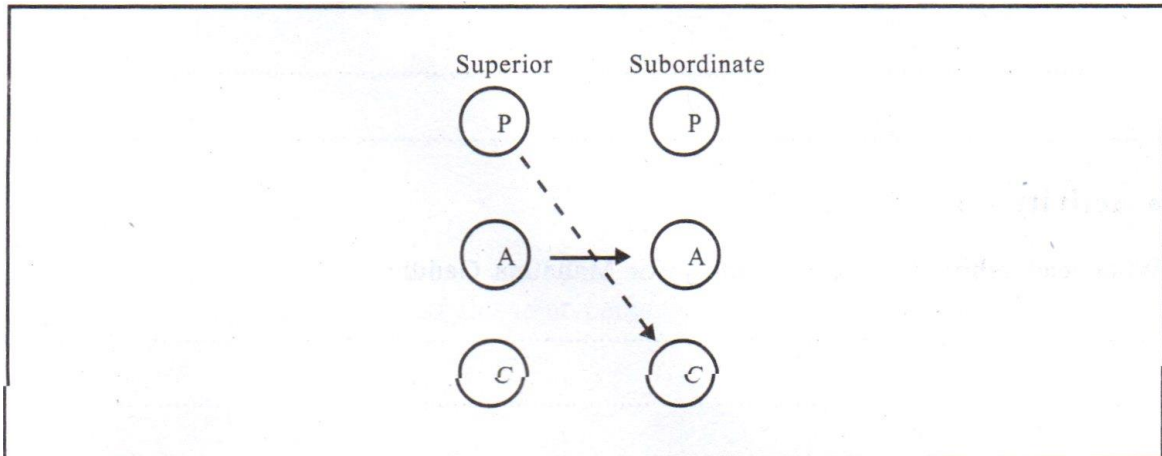
Crossed Transactions

Crossed transaction occurs when the message sent or the behaviour exhibited by one person's ego state is reacted to by an incompatible, unexpected ego state on the part of the other person (see Fig. 5.13). For example, a customer came to the bank branch after business hours to encash a cheque and the branch manager ordered the officer concerned to pay the money (transaction is parent ego to child ego), but the officer replied as: withdrawals are not allowed after business hours (transaction is adult ego to adult ego). Crossed transactions are the source of much interpersonal conflict. The consequences of this type of transaction hurt one's feelings and lead to frustration on the part of the parties and dysfunctional consequences to the organisation.



Ultior Transactions

The ulterior transactions involve at least two ego states on the part of a person. The individual may say one thing but mean quite another (see Fig. 5. 14). For example, branch manager says to an officer: Come to me if you can't balance the day book. But the branch manager really means is: "don't come to me with your troubles. Find an answer within yourself." These transactions are very complicated and result in interpersonal conflict. They damage the psychic of the two parties and interpersonal relations.



Stroking

Stroking is recognizing the presence of others. It may be positive, negative, sarcastic or mixed. Positive stroking develops interpersonal relations, whereas negative and mixed stroking damage interpersonal relations. But sarcastic stroking is highly dangerous to interpersonal relations.

" Activity -1

Write leadership styles and qualities of a leader whom you admire a lot

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Activity - 2

Discuss the leadership style of Ratan Tata

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Activity - 3

What leadership style do you apply for Mahatma Gandhi

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Activity-4

What of leadership styles would you like to follow, when you become a leader?

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Activity-5

Discuss the factors responsible for failure of communication in your own experience

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Activity- 6

Write an incident when a superior you know was in child ego and his/her subordinate was in parent ego. Also discuss the inter-personal conflicts that took place in such a situation.

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5.13 SUMMARY

It is widely debated since long back that whether the leader is born or made or born and made. There are differences between leader and manager as leaders have power also. Leadership theories include traditional theories viz., trait theory, group and exchange theory, behavioural theories viz., Ohio State Studies, Michigan Studies, Scandinavian Studies, Continuous theory, Likert's four systems, Managerial Grid and Leader-Participation Model, contingency/ Situational theories and Modern theories viz., Charismatic leadership theory, transactional Theory and Transformational Leadership theory.

Leadership styles include free-rein, strict autocrat, benevolent autocrat, participative and democratic. Inspirational, transactional and development styles are modern.

Communication is a process by which all forms of information are transferred from one person to another. Communication can be oral, written and non-verbal. Communication can be formal and informal. Informal communication is also called grapevine. Barriers to communication can be external, emotional, psychological, organisational and personal. Organizations should take steps to overcome barriers to make communication effective.

Transactional analysis deals with the transactions that take place between two persons from the point of view of different ego states like parent ego, adult ego and child ego. It also deals with the possible inter-personal conflicts and solutions to solve them.

5.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is leadership? State the differences between a leader and a manager.
2. Explain the theories of leadership.
3. Compare and contrast different behavioural theories of leadership.
4. Discuss different leadership styles.
5. What is communication? Why should we study communication specially?
6. Discuss the fundamentals and process of communication.
7. Comment on the contributions of MIS and information technology to the organisational communication.
8. Write the advantages and disadvantages of oral, written and non-verbal communication.
9. "Greater significance is attributed to the upward communication in team organisation structures." Critically comment.
10. "Modern managers prefer and encourage grapevine rather than formal communication." Comment.

11. What is listening? Explain the role of effective listening in the communication process.

12. Suggest the measures to make communication effective.

13. What is transactional analysis? Explain various kinds of transactions.

5.15 Further Readings: Biswal Pravakar and Rath Namita, 2012, Organizational Behaviour, 2nd Edition. Bhubaneswar: B.K. Publication

Robbins, Stephen P., 2003, Organizational Behaviour 10th Edition, New Delhi: PHI