

Definition of Learning

Learning is a relatively permanent change in the behavior or attitude of a person over time. For example when a child learns to read they are able to retain this knowledge and behavior for the rest of their lives.

-CHRISTINE CHIN SANG

I think that learning is acquiring any skill that enriches your life. It doesn't have to be taught out of a book or by a teacher, rather you may acquire it through your own exploration, through sharing or by instruction from anyone, not necessarily a "teacher".

- ANGELA SINGLE

The acquisition of new responses to various stimuli

-Eric Blackburn

Learning is the accumulating of experiences and the consequential growth and new understanding of the world around us.

-KRISTI McGRATH

Learning is the individual growth of person as a result of cooperative interaction with others. It is the advancement of understanding that enables the learner to function better in their environment, improve and adapt behaviors, create and maintain healthy relationships, and achieve personal success.

-LAUREN ZUCH

Learning is the expansion of what one may already know or perceive. It is the accumulation of knowledge but more importantly the application of this knowledge. If one cannot use newly acquired information for his/her own

practical use or benefit than it is doubtful that he/she is engaged in the learning process.

-SARA KASPER

Learning is a change in behavior.

--REBECCA PANGBORN

Learning is a process. It is not static. A person never stops acquiring new information. It keeps a person's mind active and aware but also conscious to the world around them.

-VERONICA IACOBAZZO

Learning is a lifelong process of gaining and using information presented to us. The ability to learn is endless, as long as the desire is present. Learning is only successful when the information gained is used and understood.

-THOMAS CORRELL

Learning is the accruing of knowledge that collectively drives behavior development and external interaction.

-ABBY SHUBERT

Learning is reflection upon experience. It is making connections and finding patterns. It is the consequences of being involved in some valued activity in a culture, and as such it is a byproduct of participation in cultural activity, not the direct product of some study of facts about the world. So I always think in terms of activities in which the participant will value the use of language, and in which literacy abilities will increase as a consequence of being involved in the activity. We have traditions of learning, one of which is called school. But the main consequence of school activities is learning

how to do school, not learning the content knowledge. A few get both because they find a way to get into activities in which the content knowledge is a byproduct of participating in the activities, but most get stuck in just following or resisting the procedures of school.

-Jamie Myers

A change that occurs in response to thinking or other sensual stimuli.

-SCOTT MILLER

Scott: This one gets points for short and sweet. Is learning by doing...or by having done to you covered under the stimuli part?

-MICHELE GRIFFIN

Learning is the process by which one acquires, ingests, and stores or accepts information. Our experiences with learned information compose our bodies of knowledge. Learning is a process unique to each individual. Some learn quickly, scanning the information and mastering the concept or skill seemingly effortlessly. Others stumble while processing information, taking longer to grasp the concept or requiring numerous exposures over a sustained period of time. Some individuals store the information they've learned indefinitely, cementing it in their memories. Others find that the information they've learned slips away rapidly. Some learn best through text, others through practice, and some through hearing. Learning styles are as unique and varied as our personalities. Learning is a lifelong endeavor. As long as one remains engaged in life, learning does not cease.

KATHLEEN DUDLEY-PERRY

Learning is a stance taken by an individual that allows for the acquisition of information, attitudes, and practices, through observation, seeking previous knowledge, searching out guides, and looking within as well as without.

-MICHELE GRIFFIN

Learning is a process within the human personality; the changes are placed in the form of increased quality and quantity.

According to **Hilhard Bower**, "Learning is associated with changes in a person's behavior to something situation caused by repeated experiences in that situation, where changes in behavior cannot be explained or basic innate response tendencies, maturation."

According to **Gagne**, "Learning occurs when something together with the content of the stimulus situation affects the students' memories so that his actions (his performance) before he changed from time to time through situation after situation he had experienced earlier."

Learning is a relatively settled any change in behavior that occur as a result of training or experience. - **Morgan**

Wetherington believes learning is a change in personality self-described as a new pattern of reactions in the form of skills, attitudes, habits, intelligence or an understanding.

Ngalm Purwanto, Provides for the definition study of several elements:

- a. Learning is a change in behavior in which the changes that can lead to better behavior, but it is likely to lead to more bad behavior.
- b. Learning is a change that occurs through training or experience in the sense of the changes caused by growth or as a result of learning dianggap not like the changes that happen to a baby.

- c. Learning is a relatively steady change, should be the end of a long enough period of time.
- d. Learning is a change in behavior related to various aspects of personality, both physically and psychologically as: a change in understanding, solving a problem, thinking, skills, abilities, habits and attitudes.

Features of Learning

Learning is expected to bring about more or less permanent change in the learner's behavior. This change may range from the acquisition of a relatively simple skill, item of information to the mastery of complicated mechanical performance and application of difficult and abstract reading material, change in response or behavior is caused partly or wholly by experience. It includes behavior change in the emotional sphere, refers to the acquisition of symbolic knowledge or motor skills. It however does not include physiological changes like fatigue, temporary sensory resistance and hunger.

Learning should enable us to make the least use of the things in the world around us. For example, one has to learn the art of living harmoniously with others by learning how to establish good relations with his fellows. Learning not limited to the school alone. It being earlier and continues even after the school days.

Yoakman and Simpson have described the following nine important characteristics of learning.

(1) Learning is growth

The individual grows as he lives. This growth implies i both physical as well as mental development of the learner. The individual gains experiences

through various activities. These are all sources of learning. The individual grows through living and learning. Thus growth and learning are inter-related and even synonymous.

(2) Learning is adjustment

Learning enables the individual to adjust himself properly, with the new situations. The individual faces new problems and new situations throughout his life and learning helps him to solve the problems encountered by him. That is why; many psychologists describe learning as "a process of progressive adjustment to the ever changing conditions which one encounters." The society in which we live is so complex and so dynamic that any one type of adjustment will not be suitable for all or many situations and problems. It is through learning that one could achieve the ability to adjust adequately to all situations of life.

(3) Learning is purposeful

All kinds of learning is goal-oriented. The individual acts with some purpose. He learns through activities. He gets himself interested when he is aware of his objectives to be realized through these activities. Therefore all learning is purposive in nature.

(4) Learning is experience

The individual learns through experiences. Human life is fall of experiences. All these experiences provide new knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes. Learning is not mere acquisition of the knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is also the reorganization of experiences or the synthesis of the old experiences with the new.

(5) Learning is intelligent

Mere cramming without proper understanding does not make learning. Thus meaningless efforts do not produce permanent results. Any work done mechanically cannot yield satisfactory learning outcomes. Learning therefore must be intelligent.

(6) Learning is active

Learning is given more importance than teaching. It implies self-activity of the learning. Without adequate motivation he cannot work whole-heartedly and motivation is therefore at the root of self-activity. Learning by doing is thus an important principle of education, and the basis of all progressive methods of education like the Project, the Dalton, the Montessori and Basic system.

(7) Learning is both individual and social

Although learning is an individual activity, it is social also. Individual mind is consciously or unconsciously affected by the group activities. Individual is influenced by his peers, friends, relatives' parents and classmates and learns their ideas, feelings and attitudes in some way or others. The social agencies like family, church, markets, and clubs exert immense, influence on the individual minds. As such, learning becomes both individual as well as social.

(8) Learning is-the product of the environment

The individual lives in interaction of the society. Particularly, environment plays an important part in the growth and development of the individual. The physical, social, intellectual and emotional development of the child is molded and remolded by the objects and individuals in his environment. Therefore, emphasized that child's environment should be made free from unhealthy and vicious matters to make it more effective for learning.

(9) Learning affects the conduct of the learner

Learning is called the modification of behavior. It affects the learner's behavior and conduct. Every learning experience brings about changes in the mental structure of the learner. Therefore attempts are made to provide such learning experiences which can mould the desired conduct and habits in the learners.

THEORIES OF LEARNING

There are four theories which explain how learning occurs. They are

1. Classical conditioning
2. Operant conditioning
3. Cognitive theory
4. Social learning theory

Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is based on the premise that a physical event termed a stimulus that initially does not elicit a particular response gradually acquires the capacity to elicit that response as a result of repeated pairing with a stimulus that elicits a reaction. Learning of this type is quite common and seems to play an important role in such reactions as strong fears, taste aversions, some aspects of sexual behavior and even racial or ethnic prejudice.

Despite the theoretical possibility of the widespread applicability of classical conditioning, most theorists agree that it represents only a very small part of total human learning. Skinner, in particular, felt that classical conditioning explains only respondent (reflexive) behaviors. These are the involuntary

responses that are elicited by a stimulus. Skinner felt that the more complex human behaviors cannot be explained by classical conditioning alone. He felt that most human behavior affects, or operates on, the environment. The latter type of behavior is learnt through operant conditioning. In an organizational setting we can see classical conditioning operating. For example, at one manufacturing plant, every time the top executives from the head office would make a visit, the plant management would clean up the administrative offices and wash the windows. Eventually, employees would turn on their best behavior and look prim and proper whenever the windows were cleaned even in those occasions when the cleaning was not paired with visit from the top brass. People had learnt to associate the cleaning of the windows with the visit from the head office. The first model, classical conditioning, was initially identified by Pavlov in the salivation reflex of dogs. Salivation is an innate reflex, or unconditioned response, to the presentation of food, an unconditioned stimulus. Pavlov showed that dogs could be conditioned to salivate merely to the sound of a buzzer (a conditioned stimulus), after it was sounded a number of times in conjunction with the presentation of food. Learning is said to occur because salivation has been conditioned to a new stimulus that did not elicit it initially. The pairing of food with the buzzer acts to reinforce the buzzer as the prominent stimulus.

Operant Conditioning (Voluntary Behavior)

Operant conditioning also called instrumental conditioning refers to the process that our behavior produces certain consequences are. If our actions have pleasant effects, then we will be more likely to repeat them in the future. If, however, our actions have unpleasant effects, we are less likely to repeat them in the future. Thus, according to this theory, behavior is the

function of its consequences. The famous Skinner box demonstrated operant conditioning by placing a rat in a box in which the pressing of a small bar produces food. Skinner showed that the rat eventually teaches to press the bar regularly to obtain food. Besides reinforcement, punishment produces avoidance behavior, which appears to weaken learning but not curtail it. In both types of conditioning, stimulus generalization occurs; i.e., the conditioned response may be elicited by stimuli similar to the original conditioned stimulus but not used in the original training. Stimulus generalization has enormous practical importance, because it allows for the application of learned behaviors across different contexts. Behavior modification is a type of treatment resulting from these stimulus/response models of learning. It operates under the assumption that if behavior can be learned, it can also be unlearned. Operant conditioning emphasizes voluntary behaviors. Researchers call them “operant behavior” because they operate on the environment they make the environment respond in ways that we want. Operant conditioning has a great impact on human learning. It also explains much of organizational behavior. For example, it might be said employees work eight hours a day, six days a week, in order to feed, clothe and shelter themselves and their families. Working is instrumental only in obtaining food, clothing and shelter. Some significant insights can be gained directly from this kind of analysis. The consequences of organizational behavior can change the environmental situation and greatly affect subsequently employee behaviors. Managers can analyze consequences of organizational behavior to help accomplish the goals of prediction and control.

Cognitive theory of learning

Contemporary perspective about learning is that it is a cognitive process. Cognitive process assumes that people are conscious, active participants in how they learn. Cognitive theory of learning assumes that the organism learns the meaning of various objects and event and learned responses depending on the meaning assigned to stimuli. Wolfgang Köhler showed that a protracted process of trial-and-error may be replaced by a sudden understanding that grasps the interrelationships of a problem. This process, called insight, is more akin to piecing together a puzzle than responding to a stimulus. Edward Tolman (1930) found that unrewarded rats learned the layout of a maze, yet this was not apparent until they were later rewarded with food. Tolman called this latent learning, and it has been suggested that the rats developed cognitive maps of the maze that they were able to apply immediately when a reward was offered. The cognitive theory of learning is relevant in the contemporary managerial practices. Many motivation theories center on the concept of cognition. Expectations, attributions and locus of control are all cognitive concepts requiring attention while motivating employees.

Social learning theory

Also called observational learning, social learning theory, emphasizes the ability of an individual to learn by observing others. The important models may include parents, teachers, peers, motion pictures, TV artists, bosses and others. An individual acquires new knowledge by observing what happens to his or her model. This is popularly known as vicarious learning. A learner acquires tacit knowledge and skills through vicarious learning. Social learning has considerable relevance in organizational behavior. A great deal of what is learned about how to behave in organizations can be explained as the result of the process of observational learning. A new hire acquires job

skills by observing what an experienced employee does. Observational learning also occurs in a very informal, unarticulated manner. For instance, people who experience the norms and traditions of their organizations and who subsequently incorporate these into their own behavior may be recognized as having learned through observation. Social learning is also valuable because it enhances the self-efficacy of the learner. Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief that he or she has the ability, motivation and situational contingencies to complete a task successfully. People strong in self-efficacy have a 'can do' attitude towards a specific task and, more generally, with other challenges in life. Social learning increases self-efficacy because people gain greater self-confidence after observing someone else do it than if they are simply told what to do. Managers can shape employee behavior by systematically reinforcing each successive step that moves the individual closer to the desired response. If an employee, for example, who has been chronically a half-hour late for work comes in only twenty minutes late, the boss can reinforce that improvement.

Factors Affecting Learning

Some of the important factors which may affect the learning process are as follows:

It has been found out that the pupil's difficulty in learning may be due to many factors within the child himself.

1. Intellectual factor:

The term refers to the individual mental level. Success in school is generally closely related to level of the intellect. Pupils with low intelligence often

encounter serious difficulty in mastering schoolwork. Sometimes pupils do not learn because of special intellectual disabilities.

A low score in one subject and his scores in other subjects indicate the possible presence of a special deficiency. Psychology reveals to use that an individual possess different kinds to intelligence. Knowledge of the nature of the pupil's intellect is of considerable value in the guidance and the diagnosis of disability.

The native capacity of the individual is of prime importance in determining the effectiveness of the, learning process.

2. Learning factors:

Factors owing to lack of mastery of what has been taught, faulty methods of work or study, and narrowness of experimental background may affect the learning process of any pupil. If the school proceeds too rapidly and does not constantly check up on the extent to which the pupil is mastering what is being taught, the pupil accumulates a number of deficiencies that interfere with successful progress.

In arithmetic, for instance, knowledge of basic addition is essential to successful work in multiplication. Weakness in addition will contribute directly to the deficiency in multiplication. Likewise, failure in history may be due to low reading ability or weakness in English.

Similarly, because of faulty instruction, the pupil may have learned inefficient methods of study. Many other kinds of difficulty which are directly related to learning factors may interfere with progress.

3. Physical factors:

Under this group are included such factors as health, physical development, nutrition, visual and physical defects, and glandular abnormality. It is generally recognized that ill health retards physical and motor development, and malnutrition interferes with learning and physical growth.

Children suffering from visual, auditory, and other physical defects are seriously handicapped in developing skills such as reading and spelling. It has been demonstrated that various glands of internal secretion, such as the thyroid and pituitary glands, affect behavior. The health of the learner will likely affect his ability to learn and his power to concentrate.

4. Mental factors:

Attitude falls under mental factors attitudes are made up of organic and kinesthetic elements. They are not to be confused with emotions that are characterized by internal visceral disturbances. Attitudes are more or less of definite sort. They play a large part in the mental organization and general behavior of the individual.

Attitudes are also important in the development of personality. Among these attitudes are interest, cheerfulness, affection, prejudice, -open mindedness, and loyalty. Attitudes exercise a stimulating effect upon the rate of learning and teaching and upon the progress in school.

The efficiency of the work from day to day and the rapidity with which it is achieved are influenced by the attitude of the learner. A favorable mental attitude facilitates learning. The factor of interest is very closely related in nature to that of symbolic drive and reward.

5. Emotional and social factors:

Personal factors, such as instincts and emotions, and social factors, such as cooperation and rivalry, are directly related to a complex psychology of motivation. It is a recognized fact that the various responses of the individual to various kinds of stimuli are determined by a wide variety of tendencies. Some of these innate tendencies are constructive and others are harmful. For some reason a pupil may have developed a dislike for some subject because he may fail to see its value, or may lack foundation. This dislike results in a bad emotional state.

Some pupils are in a continuing state of unhappiness because of their fear of being victims of the disapproval of their teachers and classmates. This is an unwholesome attitude and affects the learning process to a considerable degree. This is oftentimes the result of bad training. Social discontent springs from the knowledge or delusion that one is below others in welfare.

6. Teacher's Personality:

The teacher as an individual personality is an important element in the learning environment or in the failures and success of the learner. The way in which his personality interacts with the personalities of the pupils being taught helps to determine the kind of behavior which emerges from the learning situation.

The supreme value of a teacher is not in the regular performance of routine duties, but in his power to lead and to inspire his pupils through the influence of his moral personality and example. Strictly speaking, personality is made up of all the factors that make the individual what he is, the complex pattern of characteristics that distinguishes him from the others of his kind. Personality is the product of many integrating forces.

In other words, an individual's personality is a composite of his physical appearance, his mental capacity, his emotional behavior, and his attitudes towards others. Effective teaching and learning are the results of an integrated personality of the teacher.

Generally speaking, pupils do not like a grouchy teacher who cannot control his temper before the class. It is impossible for a teacher with a temper to create enthusiasm and to radiate light and sunshine to those about him. Pupils love a happy, sympathetic, enthusiastic, and cheerful teacher. Effective teaching and learning are the results of love for the pupils, sympathy for their interests, tolerance, and a definite capacity for understanding.

7. Environmental factor:

Physical conditions needed for learning is under environmental factor. One of the factors that affect the efficiency of learning is the condition in which learning takes place. This includes the classrooms, textbooks, equipment, school supplies, and other instructional materials.

In the school and at the home, the conditions for learning must be favorable and adequate if teaching is to produce the desired results. It cannot be denied that the type and quality of instructional materials and equipment play an important part in the instructional efficiency of the school.

It is difficult to do a good job of teaching in a poor type of building and without adequate equipment and instructional materials. A school building or a classroom has no merit when built without due regard to its educational objectives and functions.

Principles of Learning

Educational psychologists and pedagogues have identified several principles of learning, also referred to as laws of learning, which seem generally applicable to the learning process. These principles have been discovered, tested, and used in practical situations.

Readiness: Readiness implies a degree of concentration and eagerness. Individuals learn best when they are physically, mentally, and emotionally ready to learn, and do not learn well if they see no reason for learning. Getting students ready to learn, creating interest by showing the value of the subject matter, and providing continuous mental or physical challenge, is usually the instructor's responsibility. If students have a strong purpose, a clear objective, and a definite reason for learning something, they make more progress than if they lack motivation. In other words, when students are ready to learn, they meet the instructor at least halfway, simplifying the instructor's job.

Since learning is an active process, students must have adequate rest, health, and physical ability. Basic needs of students must be satisfied before they are ready or capable of learning. Students who are exhausted or in ill health cannot learn much. If they are distracted by outside responsibilities, interests, or worries, have overcrowded schedules, or other unresolved issues, students may have little interest in learning. For example, we may identify the situation of an academic examination of a school, in which the cause of securing good marks in various subjects leads to mentally and emotionally readiness of students to do more hard labour in acquiring knowledge.

Exercise: The principle of exercise states that those things most often repeated are best remembered. It is the basis of drill and practice. It has been proven that students learn best and retain information longer when they have

meaningful practice and repetition. The key here is that the practice must be meaningful. It is clear that practice leads to improvement only when it is followed by positive feedback.

The human memory is fallible. The mind can rarely retain, evaluate, and apply new concepts or practices after a single exposure. Students do not learn complex tasks in a single session. They learn by applying what they have been told and shown. Every time practice occurs, learning continues. These include student recall, review and summary and manual drill and physical applications. All of these serve to create learning habits. The instructor must repeat important items of subject matter at reasonable intervals, and provide opportunities for students to practice while making sure that this process is directed toward a goal. But in some or many cases, there is no need for regular practice if the skill is acquired once. For instance if we have learnt cycling once, we will not forget the knowledge or skill even if we aren't exercising it for a long time.

Effect: The principle of effect is based on the emotional reaction of the student. It has a direct relationship to motivation. The principle of effect is that learning is strengthened when accompanied by a pleasant or satisfying feeling, and that learning is weakened when associated with an unpleasant feeling. The student will strive to continue doing what provides a pleasant effect to continue learning. Positive reinforcement is more apt to lead to success and motivate the learner, so the instructor should recognize and commend improvement. Whatever the learning situation, it should contain elements that affect the students positively and give them a feeling of satisfaction. Therefore, instructors should be cautious about using punishment in the classroom.

One of the important obligations of the instructor is to set up the learning situation in such a manner that each trainee will be able to see evidence of progress and achieve some degree of success. Experiences that produce feelings of defeat, frustration, anger, confusion, or futility are unpleasant for the student. If, for example, an instructor attempts to teach advanced concepts on the initial engagement, the student is likely to feel inferior and be frustrated. Impressing upon students the difficulty of a task to be learned can make the teaching task difficult. Usually it is better to tell students that a problem or task, although difficult, is within their capability to understand or perform. Every learning experience does not have to be entirely successful, nor does the student have to master each lesson completely. However, every learning experience should contain elements that leave the student with some good feelings. A student's chance of success is definitely increased if the learning experience is a pleasant one.

Primacy: Primacy, the state of being first, often creates a strong, almost unshakable, impression. Things learned first create a strong impression in the mind that is difficult to erase. For the instructor, this means that what is taught must be right the first time. For the student, it means that learning must be right. "Unteaching" wrong first impressions is harder than teaching them right the first time. If, for example, a student learns a faulty technique, the instructor will have a difficult task correcting bad habits and "reteaching" correct ones.

The student's first experience should be positive, functional, and lay the foundation for all that is to follow. What the student learns must be procedurally correct and applied the very first time. The instructor must present subject matter in a logical order, step by step, making sure the students have already learned the preceding step. If the task is learned in

isolation, is not initially applied to the overall performance, or if it must be relearned, the process can be confusing and time consuming. Preparing and following a lesson plan facilitates delivery of the subject matter correctly the first time.

Intensity: The more intense the material taught, the more likely it will be retained. A sharp, clear, vivid, dramatic, or exciting learning experience teaches more than a routine or boring experience. The principle of intensity implies that a student will learn more from the real thing than from a substitute. For example, a student can get more understanding and appreciation of a movie by watching it than by reading the script. Likewise, a student is likely to gain greater understanding of tasks by performing them rather than merely reading about them. The more immediate and dramatic the learning is to a real situation, the more impressive the learning is upon the student. Real world applications that integrate procedures and tasks that students are capable of learning will make a vivid impression on them.

In contrast to practical instruction, the classroom imposes limitations on the amount of realism that can be brought into teaching. The instructor needs to use imagination in approaching reality as closely as possible. Classroom instruction can benefit from a wide variety of instructional aids, to improve realism, motivate learning, and challenge students. Instructors should emphasize important points of instruction with gestures, showmanship, and voice. Demonstrations, skits, and role playing do much to increase the learning experience of students. Examples, analogies, and personal experiences also make learning come to life. Instructors should make full use of the senses (hearing, sight, touch, taste, smell, balance, rhythm, depth perception, and others).

Freedom: The principle of freedom states that things freely learned are best learned. Conversely, the further a student is coerced, the more difficult is for him to learn, assimilate and implement what is learned. Compulsion and coercion are antithetical to personal growth. The greater the freedom enjoyed by individuals within a society, the greater the intellectual and moral advancement enjoyed by society as a whole.

Since learning is an active process, students must have freedom: freedom of choice, freedom of action, freedom to bear the results of action these are the three great freedoms that constitute personal responsibility. If no freedom is granted, students may have little interest in learning.

Requirement: The law of requirement states that "**we must have something to obtain or do something.**" It can be ability, skill, instrument or anything that may help us to learn or gain something. A starting point or root is needed; for example, if you want to draw a person, you need to have the materials with which to draw, and you must know how to draw a point, a line, and a figure and so on until you reach your goal, which is to draw a person.

Behavior Modification

Modern behaviorists lay great emphasis on operant conditioning for molding behaviour of individuals and motivating them. Behaviour modification, popularly known as OB MOD makes use of various reinforcements to influence the behaviour of individuals. OB Mod is derived and developed from the work of B.F. Skinner. This technique helps the managers in

modifying or eliminating undesirable behaviour and replacing it with behaviour that is more compatible with goal attainment.

Behavior modification is the traditional term for the use of empirically demonstrated behavior change techniques to increase or decrease the frequency of behaviors, such as altering an individual's behaviors and reactions to stimuli through positive and negative reinforcement of adaptive behavior and/or the reduction.

According to Stephen P. Robbins, "OB Mod is a programme where managers identify performance related employee behaviours and then implement an intervention strategy to strengthen desirable behaviour and weaken undesirable behaviours."

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, "OB Mod is the systematic reinforcement of desirable work behaviour and the non reinforcement or punishment of unwanted work behaviour. It includes four basic reinforcement strategies. Positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction"

Behavior modification is based on methodological behaviorism, which refers to limiting behavior-change procedures to behaviors that are observable in particular, superimposing consequences, such as increasing or decreasing the frequency of behaviors and altering an individual's behaviors through positive and negative.

Behavior modification refers to the techniques used to try and decrease or increase a particular type of behavior or reaction. This might sound very technical, but it's used very frequently by all of us. Parents use this to teach their children right from wrong. Therapists use it to promote healthy behaviors in their patients. Animal trainers use it to develop obedience

between a pet and its owner. We even use it in our relationships with friends and significant others. Our responses to them teach them what we like and what we don't.

Techniques of Behavior Modification

The purpose behind behavior modification is not to understand why or how a particular behavior started. Instead, it only focuses on changing the behavior, and there are various different methods used to accomplish it.

- Positive reinforcement
- Negative reinforcement
- Punishment
- Flooding
- Systematic desensitization
- Aversion therapy
- Extinction

Positive reinforcement is pairing a positive stimulus to a behavior. A good example of this is when teachers reward their students for getting a good grade with stickers. Positive reinforcement is also often used in training dogs. Pairing a click with a good behavior, then rewarding with a treat, is positive reinforcement.

Negative reinforcement is the opposite and is the pairing of a behavior to the removal of a negative stimulus. A child that throws a tantrum because he or she doesn't want to eat vegetables and has his or her vegetables taken away would be a good example.

Punishment is designed to weaken behaviors by pairing an unpleasant stimulus to a behavior. Receiving a detention for bad behavior is a good example of a punishment.

Flooding involves exposing people to fear-invoking objects or situations intensely and rapidly. Forcing someone with a fear of snakes to hold one for 10 minutes would be an example of flooding.

Systematic desensitization is also used to treat phobias and involves teaching a client to remain calm while focusing on these fears. For example, someone with an intense fear of bridges might start by looking a photo of a bridge, then thinking about standing on a bridge, and eventually walking over a real bridge.

Aversion (distaste) therapy is the pairing of an unpleasant stimulus to an unwanted behavior in order to eliminate that behavior. Some people bite their finger nails, and in order to stop this behavior, there's a clear substance you can paint on your finger nails that makes them taste awful. Painting your nails with it helps stop the behavior of biting nails.

Extinction (destruction) is the removal of all reinforcement that might be associated with a behavior. This is a powerful tool and works well, especially with young children.

Steps in OB Modification

Fred Luthans and R. Kreitner developed and used OB Mod to represent a behavioural approach to the management of human resources for performance improvement.

These steps are discussed as follows:

Identification: The first step in the OB Mod is identification of performance related behaviours. First of all the behaviour should be identified as desirable or undesirable from the point of view of the organisation. Then in the next stage, critical behaviours, that have significant impact on the employees' performance, should be given due attention. The critical behaviours can be identified through discussions with the particular employee and his immediate superior as both are closely intimated with the job behaviours.

Some of the critical behaviours which affect job performance are absenteeism or attendance, tardiness or promptness, complaints or constructive criticism, listening to or not listening to the instructions, etc. If such behaviours are modified, good results could be expected. Due attention should be given to the critical behaviour because they get repeated again and again.

Measurement: After the critical behaviours of the employees have been identified, the next step for the manager is to measure the frequency of the critical behaviour over time. The measurement can be done by observation and by extraction of information from records. If the frequency is within the acceptable limit, it will require no action, but if it exceeds the acceptable limit, it will need immediate attention. The measurement of behaviour will also help the managers in determining the success in changing the employees' behaviour.

Analysis: At the next step, the managers will have to do a functional analysis of the behaviour that requires modification. This analysis will determine what circumstances lead to a particular type of behaviour, what are the consequences of such behaviour etc. Contingent consequences of behaviour should be identified because these consequences have impact on

subsequent behaviour. Moreover, some contingent consequences appear to be affecting the critical behaviour on the surface only, the functional analysis should try to find out the competing contingencies for every behaviour also.

Intervention: Once the critical behaviours have been identified and the circumstances which cause such behaviours have been determined, the next step will be to develop an effective intervention strategy. There are several strategies that can be used at this stage. These include positive or negative reinforcement, extinction or punishment.

The use of a particular strategy will depend upon the type of situation faced. After developing and implementing a particular strategy, the frequency of resulting behaviour is measured. If a behaviour change has occurred in the right direction, the manager will select a reinforcement schedule that will maintain the desired behaviour.

Evaluation: The last stage in OB Mod is the evaluation whether the intervention strategies are working properly or not. The basic purpose of OB Mod is to bring change in undesirable behaviours so as to improve performance. Evaluation will reveal whether the undesirable behaviours have been substituted by desirable behaviour or not. If there has been a change in behaviour, whether it is permanent or just temporary.

Further, the evaluation will also show whether there is improvement in the performance or not. If there is a positive change, it suggests that the interventions are successful. However, if the change is not significant, it may call for adoption of alternate and more appropriate strategies.

Criticism of OB Modification:

OB Mod has been applied in many organisations and has actually benefitted organisations also. Still some people criticise it on the grounds that it is unethical and manipulative in character and so it should not be used by the managers to regulate the behaviour of others.

The main objections raised against OB Mod are as follows:

1. The basic criticism against OB Mod is that Skinner's operant conditioning principles were developed after a series of experiments with white rats. The critics suggest that this technique is applied rat morphism and tends to equate human beings with rats, but organisations are more complex than Skinner's boxes.
2. Operant conditioning techniques ignore the individuality of person and constitute a threat to the concept of personal autonomy. These techniques are employed by managers to manipulate and control the human beings into another person's concept of ideal person.
3. OB Mod techniques restrict freedom of choice of behaviour. This works against the basic concept of creativity and innovation; which are required for successful working of the organisations.
4. OB Mod is based on the assumption that individual behaviour is a function or is controlled by his environment and that forces internal to the individual have little effect on operant behaviour. However, empirical evidence suggests that operant behaviour is also a function of certain cognitive and affective variables residing in the individual. It does not take care of people's perception, beliefs, needs and expectations.
5. OB Mod is an exercise in over simplification. It cannot be considered as an innovative and new technique of management. It is just a new name

given to the old concepts. In past, many techniques of behaviour modification have been in practice.

6. The idea of changing employees' behaviour through reinforcement under OB Mod is in conformity with the traditional thinking that people need to be directed to get the work done. In the modern world, where the people are enlightened, and self motivated, this view cannot be accepted.
7. External awards under OB Mod amounts to bribery as some rewards are presented when the person shows the behaviour according to the wishes of the changing agent. OB Mod ignores the internal causes of behaviour. It ignores the fact that intrinsic pleasure of job is more important to some employees.
8. OB Mod is also criticized on the ground that managers are forced to psychoanalyse the workers and tie performance to rewards continuously. Quite often, it is too difficult to measure the complex behaviour most employees engage in. It may be more difficult to teach reinforcement principles to lower level managers and design reward system that help creativity and are not manipulative.
9. Behaviour modifications have been applied primarily with groups such as younger students in schools, delinquents in institutions, patients with behavioural disorders etc. However, organisational settings are different than laboratory settings and therefore, behaviour modifications cannot be applied in organisational settings, as applicable to laboratories.

In spite of the criticisms levied against OB Mod, it has been increasingly used in business organisations. It is being utilized as a practical tool for shaping, improving and motivating behaviour of organisational members. OB Mod should not be treated as a technique to be applied indiscriminately

as panacea for all organisational behavioural problems. Rather the management should keep in mind its shortcomings and to apply it within the context of its limitations and shortcomings.

Unit III: Perception

Meaning and Concept

- Perception means perceiving, i.e., giving meaning to the environment around us. It can be defined as a process which involves seeing, receiving, selecting, organising, interpreting and giving meaning to the environment.
- The act or faculty of perceiving, or apprehending by means of the senses or of the mind; cognition; understanding.
- Immediate or intuitive recognition or appreciation, as of moral, psychological, or aesthetic qualities; insight; intuition; discernment: an artist of rare perception.
- The result or product of perceiving, as distinguished from the act of perceiving; percept.
- **Psychology.** a single unified awareness derived from sensory processes while a stimulus is present.
- **Law.** The taking into possession of rents, crops, profits, etc.
- A belief or opinion often held by many people and based on how things seem
- The process by which people translate sensory impressions into a coherent and unified view of the world around them. Though necessarily based on incomplete and unverified (or unreliable) information, perception is equated with reality for most practical purposes and guides human behavior in general.
- The act or faculty of perceiving, or apprehending by means of the senses or of the mind; cognition; understanding. Immediate or intuitive recognition or appreciation, as of moral, psychological, or aesthetic qualities; insight; intuition; discernment: an artist of rare perception.

- Perception is an intellectual process of transforming sensory stimuli to meaningful information. It is the process of interpreting something that we see or hear in our mind and use it later to judge and give a verdict on a situation, person, group etc.
- According to **Joseph Reitz**, “Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment, seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling. The study of these perpetual processes shows that their functioning is affected by three classes of variables, the objects or events being perceived, the environment in which perception occurs and the individual doing the perceiving.”
- According to **Stephen P Robbins**, Perception is a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. The term originated from a Latin word ‘percepio’ meaning receiving, collecting, action of taking possession, apprehension with the mind or senses.

Nature of Perception

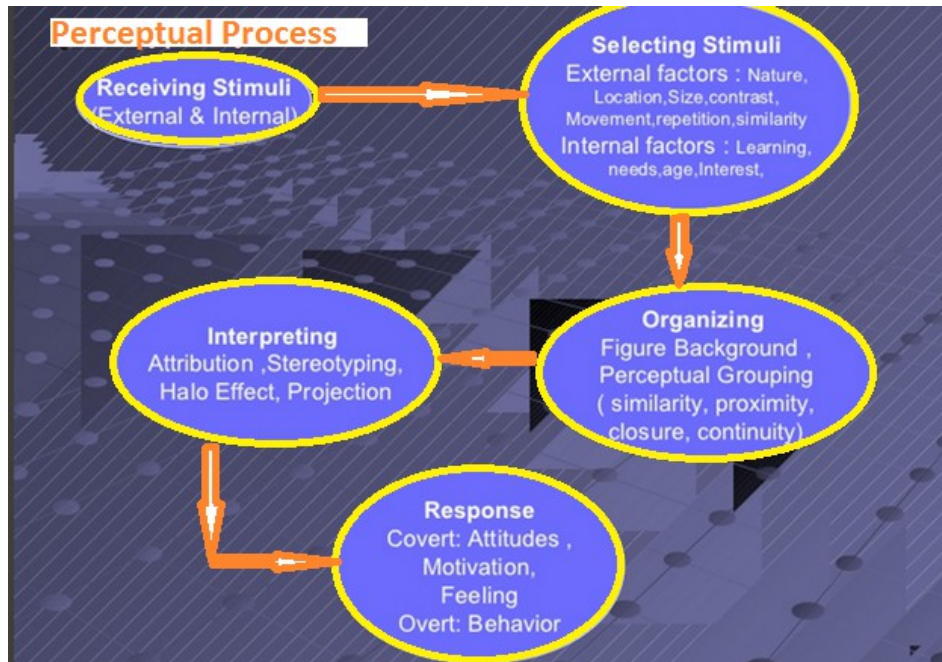
Interpretation of sensory data: Sensation involves detecting the presence of a stimulus whereas perception involves understanding what the stimulus means. For example, when we see something, the visual stimulus is the light energy reflected from the external world and the eye becomes the sensor. This visual image of the external thing becomes perception when it is interpreted in the visual cortex of the brain. Thus, visual perception refers to interpreting the image of the external world projected on the retina of the eye and constructing a model of the three dimensional world.

Physiological and psychological Determination: Perception is determined by both physiological and psychological characteristics of the human being whereas sensation is conceived with only the physiological features. Thus, perception is not just what one sees with the eyes it is a much more complex

process by which an individual selectively absorbs or assimilates the stimuli in the environment, cognitively organizes the perceived information in a specific fashion and then interprets the information to make an assessment about what is going on in one's environment.

Perception is a subjective process, therefore, different people may perceive the same environment differently based on what particular aspects of the situation they choose to selectively absorb, how they organize this information and the manner in which they interpret it to obtain a grasp of the situation.

Perceptual Process



Perception is a process of receiving, selecting, organising, interpreting, checking and reacting to stimuli. This is like an input-through put-output process in which the stimuli can be considered as 'inputs' transformation of

'input' through selection, organization and interpretation as 'through puts' and the ultimate behaviour/action as 'output'. The whole perceptual process can be presented as follows:

➤ Information attention and selection.

- Selective screening.
 - Lets in only a tiny proportion all the information that bombards a person.
- Two types of selective screening.
 - Controlled processing.
 - Screening without perceiver's conscious awareness.

➤ Organization of information.

- Schemas (Preliminary Plan).
 - Cognitive frameworks that represent organized knowledge about a given concept or stimulus developed through experience.
- Types of schemas.
 - Self schemas.
 - Person schemas.
 - Script schemas.
 - Person-in-situation schemas.

➤ Information interpretation.

- Uncovering the reasons behind the ways stimuli are grouped.

- People may interpret the same information differently or make different attributions about information.

➤ **Information retrieval.**

- Attention and selection, organization, and interpretation are part of memory.
- Information stored in memory must be retrieved in order to be used.

➤ **Response to the perceptual process.**

- Thoughts.
- Feelings.
- Actions.

Factors Influencing Perception

External Factors

Size: Bigger size attracts the attention of the perceiver

Intensity: A loud sound, strong odor or bright light is noticed more as compared to a soft sound, weak odor or dimlight.

Repetition: A repeated external stimulus is more attention getting than a single one. Advertisers use this principle.

Novelty and Familiarity: A novel or a familiar external situation can serve as attention getter.

Contrast: It is a kind of uniqueness which can be used for attention getting. Letters of bold types, persons dressed differently than others, etc., get more attention.

Motion: A moving object draws more attention as compared to a stationary object. Advertisers use this principle.

Internal Factors

Self-concept: The way a person views the world depends a great deal on the concept or image he has about himself. The concept plays an internal role in perceptual selectivity.

Beliefs: A person's beliefs have profound influence on his perception. Thus, a fact is conceived not on what it is but what a person believes it to be.

Expectations: These affect what a person perceives. A technical manager may expect ignorance about the technical features of a product from non-technical people.

Inner Needs: The need is a feeling of tension or discomfort, when one thinks he is missing something. People with different needs experience different stimuli. According to Freud, wishful thinking is the means by which the Id attempts to achieve tension reduction.

Response Disposition: It refers to a person's tendency to perceive familiar stimuli rather than unfamiliar ones.

Response Salience: It is the set of disposition which are determined not by the familiarity of the stimulus situations, but by the person's own cognitive predispositions. Thus, a particular problem may be viewed as a marketing problem by marketing personnel, a control problem by accounting people and human relations problem by personnel people.

Perceptual Defense

It refers to the screening of those elements which create conflict and threatening situation in people.

- Denying the existence or importance of conflicting information.

- Distorting the new information to match the old one.
- Acknowledging the new information but treating it as a non-representation exception. The factors that influence perception may be broadly divided into three categories:
 - Factors that reside in the 'Perceiver' (i.e., attitude, motives, interests, past experiences and personality, expectations)
 - Factors of the 'situation' and-factors connected with the 'Target'.
 - Factors that determine the preferred location of a brand on each of the relevant dimension in perceptive mapping.

Managerial applications/importance of perception

- (1) **Interpersonal Working Relationship:** Organizations are intended to bring about integrated behaviour. Managers require efforts to perceive correctly. Misperceptions lead to strained relations and may even result in open conflict among people.
- (2) **Selection of Employees:** Managers are subject to many of the perceptual problems when they make the selection decisions. New employees have to be selected with correct perception.
- (3) **Performance Appraisal:** The appraisal of a subordinate's performance is highly affected by the accuracy of a manager's perceptions.
- (4) **Impression Management:** It is very important for an individual to manage or to control what others perceive about the individual. Identification of social image and self-concept are some relevant factors that contribute to impression management. Perception helps managers to identify the competent persons.

- (5) The principle of closure, the principle of continuity, the proximity principle and the similarity principle etc., are highly useful to promote healthy organizational behaviour.

Perceptual Distortions

Perceptual distortion is a position where the person does not perceive the thing, particularly the person, as it may be. This is affected because of several factors, which taint our judgements about other people and situations. Common perceptual distortions include:

- Stereotypes or prototypes.
- Halo effects.
- Selective perception.
- Projection.
- Contrast effects.
- Self-fulfilling prophecy.

Stereotypes or prototypes

- Combines information based on the category or class to which a person, situation, or object belongs.
- Strong impact at the organization stage.
- Individual differences are obscured.

Halo effects

- Occur when one attribute of a person or situation is used to develop an overall impression of the individual or situation.
- Likely to occur in the organization stage.

- Individual differences are covered.
- Important in the performance appraisal process.

The term halo effect was first used in 1920. The halo error is very similar to stereotyping except that in stereotyping the person is perceived according to a single category, whereas under the halo effect, the person is perceived on the basis of one trait or event. Halo effect is more reflected in performance appraisal where the distortion exists because the rate is influenced by ratee's one or two outstanding good (or bad) performances and he evaluates the entire performance accordingly. **Bruner and Tagiuri** note three conditions where the Halo effect is more marked:

- (1) When the traits to be perceived are unclear in the behavioural expressions.
- (2) When the traits are not frequently used by the perceiver.
- (3) When the traits have moral implications.
- (4) Perception is very important in understanding the human behaviour.
- (5) If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behaviour in the changed circumstances by understanding their present perception of the environment.
- (6) With the help of perceptions, the needs of various people can be determined, because people's perception is influenced by their needs.
- (7) Perception is very important for the manager who wants to avoid making errors when dealing with people and events in the work setting.

Halo effect refers to the tendency of judging people on the basis of a single trait which may be good or bad, favorable or unfavorable. It is a very common type of error committed by the managers while evaluating the subordinates.

Selective perception

- The tendency to single out those aspects of a situation, person, or object that are consistent with one's needs, values, or attitudes.
- Strongest impact is at the attention stage.
- Perception checking with other persons can help counter the adverse impact of selective perception.

Projection

- The assignment of one's personal attributes to other individuals.
- Especially likely to occur in interpretation stage.
- Projection can be controlled through a high degree of self-awareness and empathy.

Contrast effects

- Occur when an individual is compared to other people on the same characteristics on which the others rank higher or lower.

Self-fulfilling forecast

- The tendency to create or find in another situation or individual that which one expected to find.
- Also called the "Pygmalion (Superior) effect."
- Can have either positive or negative outcomes.
- Managers should adopt positive and optimistic approaches to people at work.

Barriers to Perceptual Accuracy

1. **Selective Perception:** Selectivity tends to be biased by an individual's attitudes, interests and background, than by the stimulus itself. It works as a short cut in judging other people.
2. **Attribution:** It refers to how people explain the cause of another's as their own behaviour. There are two types of attributions that people make: personal dispositions and situational attributions. There is a general tendency among the individuals to attribute their own behaviour to situational factors but explain the behaviour of others by personal dispositions. Perceptual distortion occurs because of attributions due to two reasons: (1) Fundamental attribution error and (2) Self-serving bias.
3. **Stereotyping:** It means judging someone on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs. Some example of common stereotypes are that Americans are materialistic Japanese are nationalistic and Germans are industrious. Generalisation based upon stereotyping makes assimilation easier since it permits to maintain consistency. But the danger lies in incorrect stereotyping.
4. **Projection:** When one's own personal attributes are assigned to others, then projection takes place. If you yourself are honest and trustworthy you take it for granted that other people are equally honest and trustworthy. It is not so always.
5. **Perceptual Set:** It means previously held beliefs about an object's influence on individual perception of similar objects. For example, a manager may have developed the general belief that workers are lazy. His subsequent perception will be influenced by this set, when he meets a group of workers.
6. **Implicit Personality Theory:** In judging and making inferences about others, an individual's perceptions are influenced by his belief that certain human traits are associated with one another. For example, the trait

honesty is associated with hard working. All hard working people are perceived to be honest.

7. **Expectancy:** Expectancy is a tendency to perceive people, objects or events on the basis of what we expected them to be in the first place. This aspect is also known as "Self Fulfilling Prophecy".
8. **Perceptual Maps:** Derive the components or characteristics an individual uses in comparing similar objects and provide a score for each object on each characteristic. Perceptual mapping encompasses a variety of mathematical approaches designed to place or describe consumers' perception of brands or other objects on one or a series of 'spatial maps' such that the relationship between can be easily seen.

Attribution Theory

Attribution Theory basically looks at how people make sense of their world; what cause and effect inferences they make about the behaviors of others and of themselves. **Heider** states that there is a strong need in individuals to understand transient events by attributing them to the actor's disposition or to stable characteristics of the environment.

The purpose behind making attributions is to achieve cognitive control over one's environment by explaining and understanding the causes behind behaviors and environmental occurrences. Making attributions gives order and predictability to our lives; helps us to cope. Imagine what it would be like if you felt that you had no control over the world.

- Attribution theory aids in perceptual interpretation by focusing on how people attempt to:
 - Understand the causes of a certain event.
 - Assess responsibility for the outcomes of the event.

- Evaluate the personal qualities of the people involved in the event.
- Internal versus external attributions of causes of behavior.
 - Internal causes are under the individual's control.
 - External causes are within the person's environment.
- Factors influencing internal and external attributions.
 - Distinctiveness - consistency of a person's behavior across situations.
 - Consensus - likelihood of others responding in a similar way.
 - Consistency - whether an individual responds the same way across time.
- Fundamental attribution error.
 - Applies to the evaluation of someone else's behavior.
 - Attributing success to the influence of situational factors.
 - Attributing failure to the influence of personal factors.
- Self-serving bias.
 - Applies to the evaluation of our own behavior.
 - Attributing success to the influence of personal factors.
 - Attributing failure to the influence of situational factors.
- Attributions across cultures.
 - The fundamental attribution error and self-serving bias operate differently in different cultures.

Attribution Error

An attribution is an explanation for the cause of something. People make attributions in order to explain why the world works the way it does and to learn from their experiences.

The fundamental attribution error is our tendency to explain someone's behavior based on internal factors, such as personality or disposition, and to underestimate the influence that external factors, such as situational influences, have on another person's behavior.

In social psychology, the fundamental attribution error, also known as the correspondence bias or attribution effect, is the tendency for people to place an undue emphasis on internal characteristics (personality) to explain someone else's behavior in a given situation rather than considering the situation's external.

Attribution Biases and Errors

People are susceptible to bias and error when making attributions about themselves and others. A few common such biases include the fundamental attribution error, the self-serving bias, the actor-observer bias, and the just-world hypothesis.

Fundamental Attribution Error

According to social psychologists, people tend to overemphasize internal factors as explanations for the behavior of other people and do the opposite when explaining our own behavior. That is to say, we tend to assume that the behavior of another person is due to a trait of that person, underestimating the role of context. For example, when a student fails to turn in his or her homework, a teacher may assume the student is lazy rather than attributing the behavior to external contextual factors such as having a particularly busy schedule that week. This perspective is called the fundamental attribution error and may result from our attempt to simplify the processing of complex information.

The fundamental attribution error is so powerful that people often overlook even obvious situational influences on behavior. This can contribute to prejudice and stereotyping and lead to conflict.

Self-Serving Bias

Self-serving bias is the tendency of individuals to make internal attributions when their actions have a positive outcome but external attributions when their actions have a negative outcome. This bias lets us continue to see ourselves in a favorable light and protects our self-esteem; we take credit for our successes and pin our failures on other factors. For example, if an individual gets promoted, he may attribute it to his performance; if he fails to get the promotion, he may attribute it to his supervisor possibly having a grudge against him.

Actor-Observer Bias

The actor-observer bias explains the phenomenon of attributing other people's behavior to internal factors while attributing our own behavior to external or situational forces, also known as the fundamental attribution. When we are actors of behavior, we have more information about the situation to help us form an explanation, but when we are merely observers, we have less information; therefore, we tend to default to the assumption that others' actions are based on internal factors rather than the situation.

Just-World Hypothesis

One consequence of Westerners' tendency to provide internal explanations for others' behavior is victim-blaming. When bad things happen to people, others tend to assume that those people somehow are responsible for their own fate. A common view in the United States is the just-world hypothesis, which is the belief that people getting the outcomes they deserve. In order to maintain the belief that the world is a fair place, people tend to think that good people experience positive outcomes and bad people experience negative outcomes.

This worldview allows us to feel that the world is predictable and that we have some control over our life outcomes.

Cultural Factors

Research shows that culture affects how people make attributions. Individualist cultures value personal goals and independence. Collectivist cultures see individuals as members of a group and tend to value conformity, mutual support, and interdependence. People from individualist cultures are more inclined to make the fundamental attribution error and demonstrate self-serving bias than people from collectivist cultures. This is thought to be because individualists tend to attribute behavior to internal factors (the individual), while collectivists tend to attribute behavior to external factors.

Unit: IX**Communication****Meaning of Communication**

The word communication is derived from the word “communis” which means to inform or tell information. Communication is the process of transformation of information from one person to another. It is a process of exchanging opinions ideas, feelings, information, views and other fast between or among two or more people. It involves the systematic and continuous process of telling, listening and understanding. Communication skill means conveying the message to others and understanding the message from others. Business communication is a bridge of passing information between the management and the employees.

Communication is a process of increased community or sharing between participants on the basis of sending and sharing message.

-Denis Mc Quail

Communication is the achievement of very similar or parallel message in the person initiating a message and those receiving it.

-De Flaur and Denis

Communication can be defined as the establishment of a common understanding as a transferable of meaning from is person to another, as the stimulation of common symbols in various minds through symbol interaction or as the creation of message in other through stimulus response activities.

-Merill Lee & Fried Landert

Communications is the person of sending information and understanding from one person to another.

-Haimans

Communication is laws of force through which person create and message social realities.

-Narula

The term communication is held to involve some kind of transfer of information from one person to another to a group of other people.

-Berger

Communication is sum of all acts that acts that a person does to make his or her message understand by another person mind.

-Allen

Communication is interaction by means of mutually recognize signals.

-Hartley

Communication is defined as the transmission or exchange of information or ideas or feelings by means of sounds, signs & symbols.

-Neal & Brown

Communication is the act of transmitting information.

-Ambler

Communication is the person of sharing meaning or link to rest of humanity.

-Gamble and Gamble

Characteristics of Communication

Effective business communication follows a number of guidelines to ensure the right information is getting to the right people at the right time. Effective business communication follows a number of guidelines to ensure the right information is getting to the right people at the right time.

Effective business communication is critical in today's workforce-more than ever before. Business communicators have a variety of tools to choose from and must use those tools carefully and with consideration of their audience and their intended communication goals. Effective business communicators will find that their efforts pay off in better relationships and business success.

1. **Segmented:** Even in small organizations, it is wrong to assume that all employees will have the same needs, interests and desires when it comes to business communication. Effective business communication is segmented to meet the needs of specific audiences. Employees working in an administrative setting, for instance, will have different needs-and different access to information--than employees working in a manufacturing environment.
2. **Specific:** General business communication doesn't meet the needs of anyone. Effective business communication is specific. The more specific communication is, the more it meets the needs of its audience.
3. **Simple language:** The language used in the communication should be simple and understandable.
4. **Clearness:** The communicator should be clear in his mind about the objective of his communication. There should not be any ambiguity in communication.
5. **Adequacy of information:** It should contain adequate information and should be complete in all respect; otherwise it will not serve the purpose of communication.
6. **Proper medium of communication:** The communicator should select the proper media of communication by considering such factors as the nature of communication, urgency of communication, distance between communicator and recipient of communication etc.
7. **Courtesy:** Politeness is, of course, one of the important attributes of good business communication. A polite language should be used in communication. It helps improve business relations.
8. **Accurate:** When information is inaccurate it loses its credibility. The sender of the information also loses credibility. Effective business communication is accurate in terms of the content conveyed and in terms of simple things that include grammar, spelling and punctuation.
9. **Timely:** Employees need to know what is going on in their organizations--and in the external environment--that impacts them. Today technology-driven environment makes it more challenging than ever before for businesses to communicate with employees in a timely manner, but it is critical for effectiveness business communication.
10. **Frequent:** It cannot be assumed that a message has gotten across if it is sent just one time. Effective business communication occurs frequently to ensure that it has been received by all employees. Employees leave, new employees join the company and employees transfer from one role to another, requiring new and updated information.
11. **Multi-Channel:** Effective business communication needs to be sent through a broad variety of channels to ensure that it is received by employees in different settings. Businesses, fortunately, have a variety of channels to choose from--from the traditional (print, bulletin boards, meetings) to the new-technology (email, blogs, social media sites).

12. **Face-to-Face:** Face-to-face communication is still the most effective and should be used whenever possible and practical. Of course, in very large organizations this can be challenging, but even then, alternatives may include videoconferencing or the use of webinars.
13. **Two-Way:** Employees need the opportunity to share their feedback, opinions and thoughts with managers and employers. Effective business communication offers the opportunity for two-way communication to benefit employees and employers.

Function of Communication

The term communication is freely used by everyone in modern society, including members of the general public, scholars and management practitioners. Communication is defined as the interaction, giving and taking of information, sending and receiving of messages through verbal and non verbal means.

Functions of communication vary as one must determine the function of the communication. Known as the primary function and in certain circumstances the situation or position may have one, two or three other secondary functions. For example, informing, controlling, persuading and co-coordinating.

Inform functions: An organization needs a vast amount of information to function and operate a business. The top management would require timely and accurate information for the various departments to make effective decisions.

Control functions: The management of any organization will always have plans with long, medium or long term objectives for the months and years ahead. To achieve these objectives, the daily & monthly activities must proceed as planned in order to achieve the objectives for the period.

Persuading functions: Persuasion usually involves the 'selling' of an idea, product or services to a person or group. Persuasive words or actions, there is a better chance of the person or group accepting. It will result in voluntary compliance.

Co-coordinating functions: Every employee plays a part in controlling inputs, outputs, job scope and head count has to be well-coordinated.

In Any form of communication, there is a sender and receiver of the message. The question of whether the message is sent and how the message is received is of vital importance in communication. Communication is successful only when the receiver receives the intended message of the sender.

SENDER ---> ENDCODING ---> MESSAGE ---> DECODE ---> RECEIVER ---> FEEDBACK

The above is the communication process which has to be repeated until both parties finish expressing themselves. First, the sender has an idea then he/she transforms the idea into a message. After which he/she transmits the message and he receiver gets the message. The receiver then interprets the message (decoding) which in turn reacts and sends feedback to the sender.

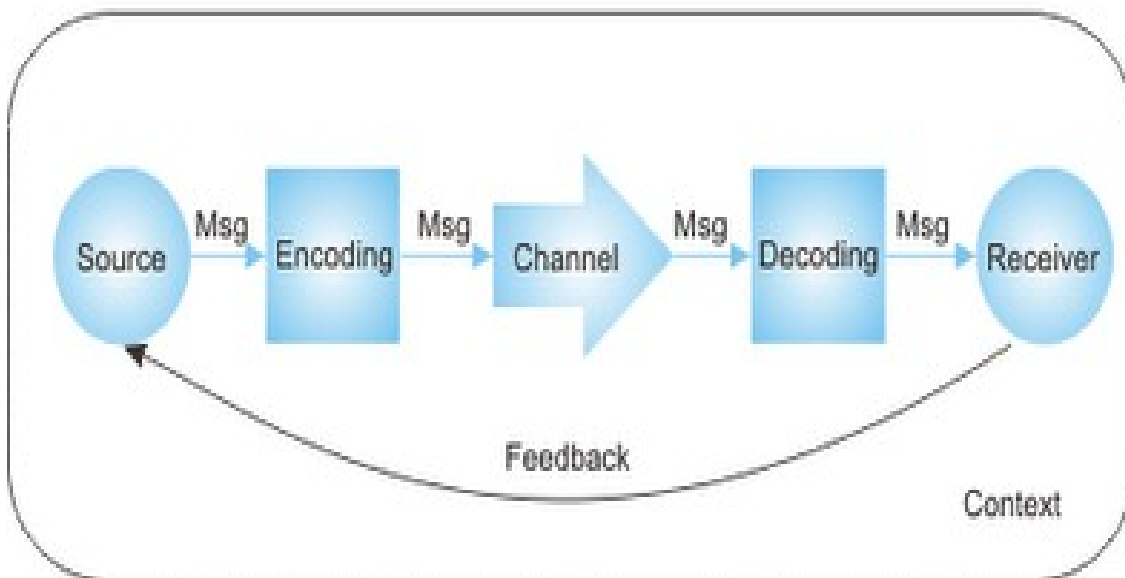
Process of communication

1. **Source or sender:** – the first step in the communication process is source or sender. The source is also called communicator. Communication begins when someone has some idea, information, view, feeling to transmit. The communicator may be a person, group or an organization. When the communicator intends to communicate to somebody communicator prepares the message
2. **Encoding:** – the idea or feeling the sender has to be translated into some language or symbols. This process is called encoding. The sender must choose appropriate words, symbols, pictures etc to

express his/her idea... While selecting the symbols, the sender has to pay attention about the receiver understanding the message.

3. **Message or medium:** – the medium is simply the pathway for transmission of the message. Some medium must be selected. This channel is chosen by the sender. They can be formal or informal. Examples are face to face, email, letters, and fax. Telephone etc
4. **Decoding to the receiver:** – the receiver assigns some meaning to the symbol transmitted by the source, so the receiver interprets the message and the process is known as decoding. It is not an easy task because words have different meaning for different people. Problems of communication breakdown frequently.
5. **Feedback:** – this is the final phase. Feedback is the reaction of the receiver. The receiver has to confirm whether or not the message has been received or not. It is only taken in two-way communication.
6. **Noise:** – it is interference with the normal flow of information. It disturbs the communication system. No matter how well designed is the communication system; if noise exists the message received is different from message sent. Example: – noise of machines, vehicles, loud voice etc.

The Communications Process



Types of Communication

Communication is a process that involves exchange of information, thoughts, ideas and emotions. Communication is a process that involves a sender who encodes and sends the message, which is then carried via the communication channel to the receiver where the receiver decodes the message, processes the information and sends an appropriate reply via the same communication channel.

Communication can occur via various processes and methods and depending on the channel used and the style of communication there can be various types of communication.

A. Communication Based on Channels

Based on the channels used for communicating, the process of communication can be broadly classified as verbal communication and non-verbal communication. Verbal communication includes written and oral communication whereas the non-verbal communication includes body language, facial expressions and visuals diagrams or pictures used for communication.

Verbal Communication: Verbal communication is further divided into written and oral communication. The oral communication refers to the spoken words in the communication process. Oral communication can either be face-to-face communication or a conversation over the phone or on the voice chat over the Internet. Spoken conversations or dialogs are influenced by voice modulation, pitch, volume and even the speed and clarity of speaking. The other type of verbal communication is written communication. Written communication can be either via snail mail, or email. The effectiveness of written communication depends on the style of writing, vocabulary used, grammar, clarity and precision of language.

Nonverbal Communication: Non-verbal communication includes the overall body language of the person who is speaking, which will include the body posture, the hand gestures, and overall body movements. The facial expressions also play a major role while communication since the expressions on a person's face say a lot about his/her mood. On the other hand gestures like a handshake, a smile or a hug can independently convey emotions. Non verbal communication can also be in the form of pictorial representations, signboards, or even photographs, sketches and paintings.

B. Communication Based on Style and Purpose

Based on the style of communication, there can be two broad categories of communication, which are formal and informal communication that have their own set of characteristic features.

Formal Communication: Formal communication includes all the instances where communication has to occur in a set formal format. Typically this can include all sorts of business communication or corporate communication. The style of communication in this form is very formal and official. Official conferences, meetings and written memos and corporate letters are used for communication. Formal communication can also occur between two strangers when they meet for the first time. Hence formal communication is straightforward, official and always precise and has a stringent and rigid tone to it.

Informal Communication: Informal communication includes instances of free unrestrained communication between people who share a casual rapport with each other. Informal communication requires two people to have a similar wavelength and hence occurs between friends and family. Informal communication does not have any rigid rules and guidelines. Informal conversations need not necessarily have boundaries of time, place or even subjects for that matter since we all know that friendly chats with our loved ones can simply go on and on.

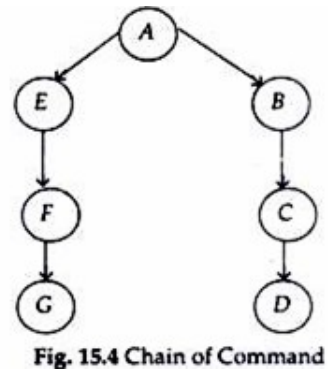
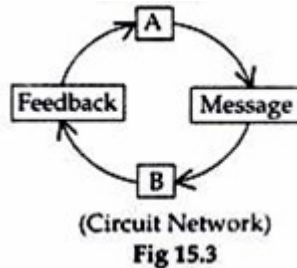
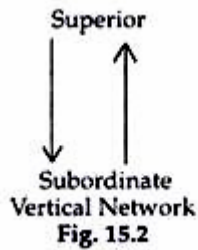
Communication Networks

Communication networks based on serial data transmission are the platform of up-to-date automation systems. Whether this is office automation or automation of manufacturing or process plants, the task remains always the same, exchanging data between different devices or participants within a system.

Communication networks may affect the group's completion of the assigned task on time, the position of the de facto leader in the group, or they may affect the group members' satisfaction from occupying certain positions in the network. Although these findings are based on laboratory experiments, they have important implications for the dynamics of communication in formal organizations.

Networks are another aspect of direction and flow of communication. Bavelas has shown that communication patterns, or networks, influence groups in several important ways. The most frequently followed networks are the following:

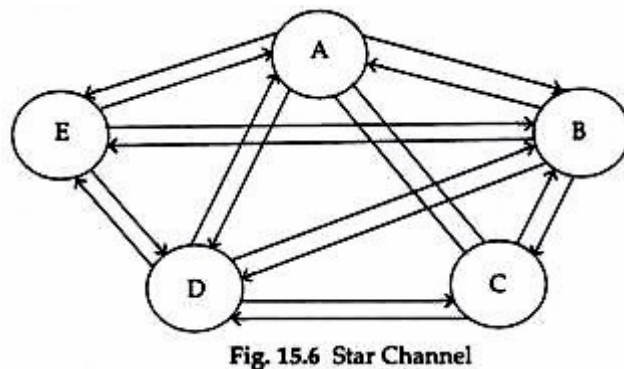
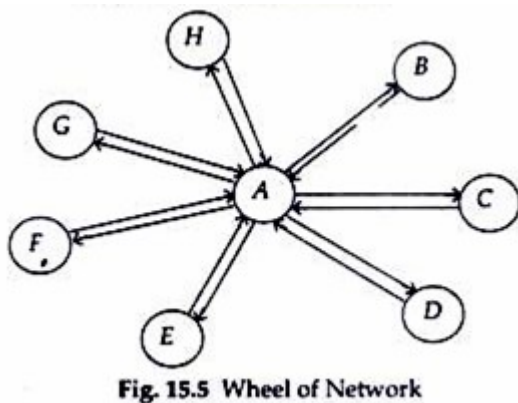
1. Vertical Network: The vertical network is usually between the superior and subordinate and vice versa. It is two-way communication. The immediate feedback is possible in this type of communication network. It is formal network. Vertical Network



2. Circuit Network: Under this network two persons communicate with each other. Say Mr. 'A' sends message to Mr. 'B'. After receiving message Mr. 'B' communicates the feedback message to Mr. 'A'. So communication takes the form of a circuit. Therefore it is known as circuit network. It is similar to vertical network but in circuit network 'A' and 'B' are not necessarily superior and subordinates.

3. Chain Network: This network of communication follows the organisational hierarchy and chain of command. All subordinates receive commands or instructions from their superior. B, C, D and E, F, G is the subordinates to A in the organisational hierarchy and receives commands from 'A' which follows the way shown in the diagram.

4. Wheel Network: Here all subordinates receive commands from one superior. This is highly centralized type of communication network where each subordinate receives commands or instructions from a single authority or superior 'A' and wants the immediate feedback.



5. Star Network: Under star communication network all members of the group communicate with each other and exchange information. This network is a must for group communication or where teamwork is involved. This network channel of communication is open to all members of the group. The members communicate with each other without hesitation.

The effectiveness of the above networks of communication channels depend upon their users i.e. the managers at all levels, their subordinates and other members of the organisation and above all the seriousness with which all these human resources make use of the facilities provided to them by the organisation to accomplish its objectives.

Barriers to effective communication

A. Physical barriers

Internal structure of the organization and layout of office machines and equipments creates physical barriers in communication

- a. **Distance:** – communication is found obstructed in long distance. Like communication between America and Nepal.
- b. **Noise:** – it is from external sources and affects the communication process. Noise negatively affects the accuracy
- c. **Physical arrangement:** – the physical arrangement of organizational sources like men, money, material and machine obstruct the communication process.

B. Semantic barriers

The use of difficult and multiple uses of languages, words, figures, and symbols create semantic barriers.

- a. **Language:** – we can find some words having different meaning. As meaning sent by the sender can be quite different from the meaning understood by the receiver. Long and complex sentences creates problem in communication process.
- b. **Jargons:** – technical or unfamiliar language creates barriers to communication that may be drawn from the literature. So message should be simple and condensed as far as possible so that no confusion creation will be there to the receiver.

C. Organizational barriers

It is raised from the organizational goals, regulations, structure and culture.

- a. **Poor planning:** – it refers to the designing, encoding, channel selection and conflicting signals in the organization.
- b. **Structure complexities:** - difficult organizational structure barrier for free flow of information. Appropriate communication process must be used.
- c. **Status differences:** – it creates barrier for communication. Superior provides information to the subordinate about plans and policies. Different information is provided by different subordinates who create barrier in communication.
- d. **Organizational distance:** - distance between sender and receiver also creates barriers to effective communication.
- e. **Information overload:** – if superior provides too much information to the subordinate in short period receiver suffers from information overload which creates barriers to effective communication.
- f. **Timing:** – communication can be obstructed if not done on time. If the information is not provided in time it creates barriers to effective communication.

D. Psychological barriers

It is the barriers to effective communication created from the lack of interest of the people from whom the communication is meant. People do not pay attention to the communication which are not interesting to them and which do not fulfill their want.

- a. **Perception:** – it is the process of accepting and interpreting the information by the receiver. People receive things differently for a various number of reasons.
- b. **Filtering:** – Communication some time filters the negative information to make it more favorable to the receiver. In this process, knowingly or unknowingly some valuable information may be disposed.
- c. **Distrust:** – superior provides information or message to the subordinates to their own view, ideas and opinion which create obstruction in communication.
- d. **Emotions:** – emotion also creates barriers to effective communication like anger, het, mistrust, jealousy etc.
- e. **Viewpoint:** – it also creates barriers to effective communication. If the receiver doesn't clear the message and ignore without hearing, the message may create obstructions.
- f. **Defensiveness:** – if the receiver receives the message as threat and interprets that message in the same way, it creates barriers to effective communication.

Techniques for Improving Communication in an Organization

Managers spend 50 percent to 80 percent of their time engaging in some form of communication, according to Work911.com. This amplifies the need for managers as well as small business owners with employees to become effective communicators. To aid you in your quest to improve communications within your organization, a few techniques may be of help.

1. **Assess Communication Level:** Solicit feedback from your employees by asking them how well you communicate with them and if they have ideas for improving communication. Something as simple as one-on-one weekly meeting with your employees can help open the lines of communication.
2. **Communicate Directly:** If you need to communicate something important to one of your employees, be sure to deliver the message yourself instead of relying on a third party. For example, if you're displeased with an action of an employee or need to give him specific direction on how to complete an assignment, delivering the information yourself will eliminate misunderstandings and allow the employee the opportunity to ask questions.
3. **Spell It Out:** Don't assume that just because you know something that the whole organization also knows or has the same understanding. For example, if you offer special pricing to a top customer and neglect to inform the salesperson who handles the account, it could prove to be an embarrassing situation for the salesperson that discovers the information from the customer instead of you.
4. **Create Job Descriptions:** Just because your business may not be a large corporation doesn't mean you don't need to provide written job descriptions. A written job description eliminates ambiguity by clarifying the responsibilities and expectations for each member of your organization. It can also improve communications between employees by eliminating the "I thought you were supposed to do that" syndrome.

5. **Require Status Reports:** As a small business owner or manager, you don't always have the time to keep tabs on the daily activities of your employees. By requiring them to provide you with a weekly written status report, you can determine what they accomplished during the week as well as what they have planned for the following week. This gives you a basis for discussion during your weekly one-on-one meetings as well as helps you monitor their progress on any uncompleted projects.

Issues in Communication

Organizational communication is one of the fastest growing of academic disciplines. The importance of communications for corporate life is now widely recognized, and research publications in this field have mushroomed in the past few years. There is considerable evidence to show that companies with effective communication strategies are successful, while those with poor internal communications tend to flounder. However, a gap still remains between the triangular strands of the day-to-day practice of organizations, management theory, and communications research. For example, most managers intuitively know that a motivated workforce is important if they are to achieve their goals. Yet many organizations enthusiastically embrace practices that reduce the loyalty, commitment and motivation of their staff. From our experience of teaching, researching and consulting, we felt that more could be done to address these problems, and bring together the strands of management theory, communications research and management practice.

1. Technology and Communication:

Emerging technologies have led to major changes in organisational communication processes. Telephone remains the major communication device among people in developed nations, but cellular phones are fast replacing the non-cellular phones in most parts of the world. Distributed computer technology is growing in use. People within an organisation have started communicating directly on a computer network. Satellites and fiber optics allow high speed connections among networks at any of an organization's locations. An organisation with global operations can move all forms of information quickly to distant places.

Personal computers are being increasingly used as medium of communication. When personal computers have modems and fax devices, people in an organisation can quickly communicate with each other. Satellite and fibre optics will let them transmit any media such as text, numeric data, and graphic images, audio and video images. By communicating with their personal computers, people in different countries can lessen the effect of time zone differences.

Video conferencing allows face to face communication over almost any distance. People in a video conference can see each other, speak to each other, show graphic images and send documents by fax. Such systems are a substitute for travelling to different sites for meetings. New technology also allows desktop video conferencing. A small camera mounted on a computer monitor sends the video image to the receiving computer.

The other party has the same configuration, making two way video and audio interactions possible. A window opens on each person's computer screen letting them see each other. Other parts of the screen can show the text of a report the two parties are revising or graphics for an upcoming joint business presentation.

Multimedia personal computers are another revolutionary change in the field of communication. Such computers feature scanners, sound boards, business presentation Software, CD-ROMS and for advanced users, animation Software. Business presentations can now offer full colour three dimensional graphics, photographs, video images, background sound and text.

Properly designed, such presentations can have dramatic effects on an audience. The overhead projector with black and white slides will give way to a multimedia business presentation controlled by a personal computer and the presenter. Such presentations are making large audience communications not only possible but dramatic as well.

2. Men Women Communications:

For long, men have been enjoying dominating positions in organisations. But now the women have started enjoying equal share and positions in the organisations. Now-a-days when educated women have started demanding proper positions, complex problems have surfaced. A proper communication system can reduce such tensions. Improper communication destroys the atmosphere whereas polite communication develops a good atmosphere. Communication removes the doubts and bridges the gap between men and women. This is possible if mutual understanding is developed between the two.

3. Communication and Political Environment of an Organisation:

An unhealthy communication process can be created by the political environment in an organisation. The term 'political' in an organisation refers to groups formed on the basis of caste, creed or colour. Such groups are not desirable for a unified growth of communication. The desirable form of communication in such a case is, that polity should encourage effective communication as people are sensitive to others feelings.

A polite and sympathetic atmosphere can lead to effective communication. Soft words should be used to convey hard meanings, but in case that is not possible, the management has to resort to other means to convey the message in a clear and accurate form.

4. Cross Cultural Communication:

Cross Cultural Communication creates problems to an effective communication. The issues of cross cultural communication go beyond the spoken and written language of another culture. The barriers are caused by semantic differences, word connotation, differences of tone and perception. Non verbal communication has different meanings in different countries.

Orientations to time and the meaning of time differ widely among cultures. The cross cultural difference can be reduced to a great degree if the differences are realized by the senders and receivers. Emphasis should be more on description rather than interpretation and the interpretation should never be taken as final rather as developing.

5. Ethical Issues in Communication:

An organization's communication process plays an important role in presenting an ethical image to people inside and outside the organisation. An ethical issue centers on how much an organisation should disclose to employees, suppliers and the community in which it operates.

Employees want information about planned layouts, transfers wants other large changes that could disrupt people's lives. The Customers want to know about the safety of the products, the level of errors in the services and the results of testing programmes. The suppliers need to know about the basis of choice, contracting process and the basis of commitment to a particular supplier.

A growing ethical issue surrounds communication privacy in organisations. Do the employees have right to private communications in the work setting that cannot be revealed to anyone without their consent? The ethical issue will grow in future as more employees using personal computers become part of the computer networks in organisations. Existing Software lets both network managers and senior managers read employees' voice mail, e-mail and other computer files. Is it ethical to do so or not? Is a major issue before the organisation.

Unit VII

Groups and Teams in Organizations

Meaning and Definition of Group

- a number of people or things that are together or in the same place
- a number of people who are connected by some shared activity, interest, or quality
- a number of things that are related in some way
- a set of people who meet or do something together because they share the same purpose or ideas

A Group is a collection of individuals who have regular contact and frequent interaction, mutual influence, common feeling of camaraderie, and who work together to achieve a common set of goals.

Every organization is a group unto itself. A group refers to two or more people who share a common meaning and evaluation of themselves and come together to achieve common goals. In other words, a group is a collection of people who interact with one another; accept rights and obligations as members and who share a common identity.

Characteristics of a Group:

- a) Two or more persons (if it is one person, it is not a group)
- b) Formal social structure (the rules of the game are defined)
- c) Common fate (they will swim together)
- d) Common goals (the destiny is the same and emotionally connected)
- e) Face-to-face interaction (they will talk with each other)
- f) Interdependence (each one is complimentary to the other)

- g) Self-definition as group members (what one is who belongs to the group)
- h) Recognition by others (yes, you belong to the group).

Process/Stages of Group Development/Evolution

Group Development is a dynamic process. How do groups evolve? There is a process of five stages through which groups pass through. The process includes the five stages: forming, storming, forming, performing, and adjourning.

Forming: The first stage in the life of a group is concerned with forming a group. This stage is characterized by members seeking either a work assignment (in a formal group) or other benefit, like status, affiliation, power, etc. (in an informal group). Members at this stage either engage in busy type of activity or show apathy.

Storming: The next stage in this group is marked by the formation of dyads and triads. Members seek out familiar or similar individuals and begin a deeper sharing of self. Continued attention to the subgroup creates a differentiation in the group and tensions across the dyads / triads may appear. Pairing is a common phenomenon. There will be conflict about controlling the group.

Norming: The third stage of group development is marked by a more serious concern about task performance. The dyads/triads begin to open up and seek out other members in the group. Efforts are made to establish various norms for task performance.

Members begin to take greater responsibility for their own group and relationship while the authority figure becomes relaxed. Once this stage is complete, a clear picture will emerge about hierarchy of leadership. The norming stage is over with the solidification of the group structure and a sense of group identity and camaraderie.

Performing: This is a stage of a fully functional group where members see themselves as a group and get involved in the task. Each person makes a contribution and the authority figure is also seen as a part of the group. Group norms are followed and collective pressure is exerted to ensure the Process of Group effectiveness of the group.

The group may redefine its goals Development in the light of information from the outside environment and show an autonomous will to pursue those goals. The long-term viability of the group is established and nurtured.

Adjourning: In the case of temporary groups, like project team, task force, or any other such group, which have a limited task at hand, also have a fifth stage, This is known as adjourning.

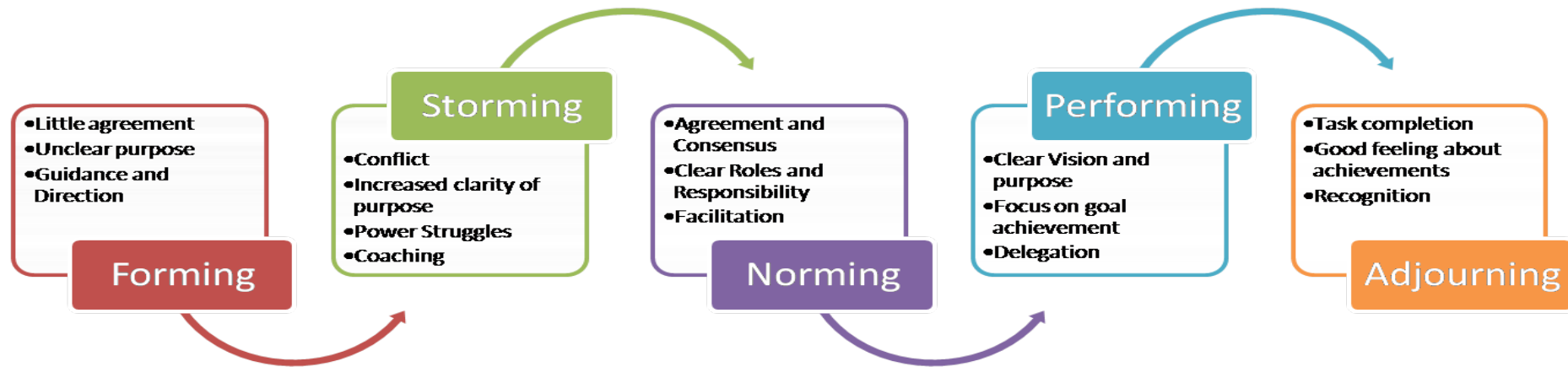
The group decides to disband. Some members may feel happy over the performance, and some may be unhappy over the stoppage of meeting with group members. Adjourning may also be referred to as mourning, i.e. mourning the adjournment of the group.

Group Dynamics

The word dynamics means ‘force’. Group dynamics means the study of forces within a group. The social process by which people interact with each other in small groups can be called group dynamism. A group has certain common objectives and goals and members are bound together with certain values and culture.

In organizational development, group dynamics refers to the understanding of behaviour of people in groups that are trying to solve a problem or making a decision. A good manager can act as a facilitator and assist the group in accompanying its objectives and arrive at correct decisions. Because people gather in groups for reasons other than task accomplishment, group process occurs in other types of groups such as personal growth groups (e.g., encounter groups, study groups, prayer groups). In such cases, an individual with expertise in group process can be helpful in the role of facilitator.

Group dynamics deals with the attitudes and behavioral patterns of a group. Group dynamics concern how groups are formed, what is their structure and which processes are followed in their functioning. Thus, it is concerned with the interactions and forces operating between groups.



Group dynamics is relevant to groups of all kinds both formal and informal. In an organizational setting, the term groups are a very common and the study of groups and group dynamics is an important area of study.

Group dynamics is a system of behaviours and psychological processes occurring within a social group (intra-group dynamics), or between social groups (intergroup dynamics).

Importance of Group Dynamism

1. The group can influence the thinking of its members. The members are always influenced by the interactions of other members in the group.
2. A group with a good leader performs better as compared to a group with weak leader.
3. The group can give the effect of synergy, that is, if the group consists of positive thinkers then its output is more than the double every time.

4. Group dynamism can give job satisfaction to the members.
5. The group can also bring team spirit among the members.
6. Even the attitude, perceptions, and ideas of members depend on group dynamism. For example, the negative thinkers can be converted to positive thinkers with the help of the facilitator.
7. If the group works as a cohesive group, the cooperation and convergence can result in maximization of productivity.
8. Lastly, group dynamism can reduce the labour unrest and labour turnover due to emotional attachment among the group members.

Types of Groups

One way to classify the groups is by way of formality – formal and informal. While formal groups are established by an organization to achieve its goals, informal groups merge spontaneously. Formal groups may take the form of command groups, task groups, and functional groups.

Formal Group

1. **Command Groups:** Command groups are specified by the organizational chart and often consist of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to that supervisor. An example of a command group is a market research firm CEO and the research associates under him.
2. **Task Groups:** Task groups consist of people who work together to achieve a common task. Members are brought together to accomplish a narrow range of goals within a specified time period. Task groups are also commonly referred to as task forces. The organization appoints members and assigns the goals and tasks to be accomplished. Examples of assigned tasks are the development of a new product, the improvement of a production process, or designing the syllabus under semester system.

Other common task groups are ad hoc committees, project groups, and standing committees. Ad hoc committees are temporary groups created to resolve a specific complaint or develop a process are normally disbanded after the group completes the assigned task.

3. **Functional Groups:** A functional group is created by the organization to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional groups remain in existence after achievement of current goals and objectives. Examples of functional groups would be a marketing department, a customer service department, or an accounting department. In contrast to formal groups, informal groups are formed naturally and in response to the common interests and shared values of individuals. They are created for purposes other than the accomplishment of organizational goals and do not have a specified time frame. Informal groups are not appointed by the organization and members can invite others to join from time to time.

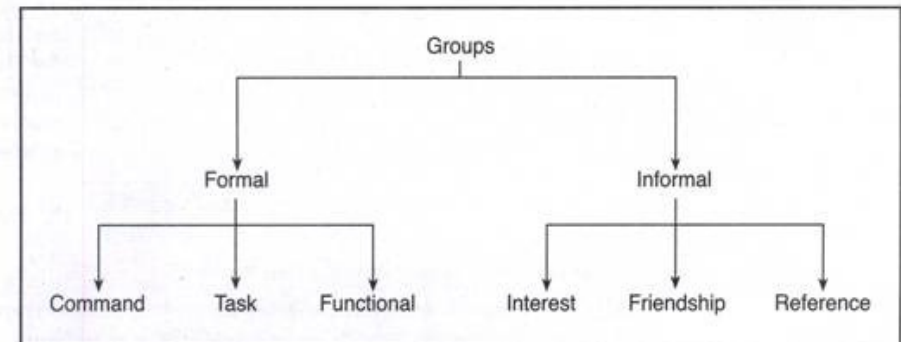


Figure 12.2 : Types of Groups

Informal Group

Informal groups can have a strong influence in organizations that can either be positive or negative. For example, employees who form an informal group can either discuss how to improve a production process or how to

create shortcuts that jeopardize quality. Informal groups can take the form of interest groups, friendship groups, or reference groups.

1. **Interest Group:** Interest groups usually continue over time and may last longer than general informal groups. Members of interest groups may not be part of the same organizational department but they are bound together by some other common interest.

The goals and objectives of group interests are specific to each group and may not be related to organizational goals and objectives. An example of an interest group would be students who come together to form a study group for a specific class.

2. **Friendship Groups:** Friendship groups are formed by members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values, or other common bonds. Members enjoy each other's company and often meet after work to participate in these activities. For example, a group of employees who form a friendship group may have a yoga group, a Rajasthani association in Delhi, or a kitty party lunch once a month.
3. **Reference Groups:** A reference group is a type of group that people use to evaluate themselves. The main objectives of reference groups are to seek social validation and social comparison. Social validation allows individuals to justify their attitudes and values while social comparison helps individuals evaluate their own actions by comparing themselves to others. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behavior. Such groups are formed voluntarily. Family, friends, and religious affiliations are strong reference groups for most individuals.

Informal Group

In every organisation along with formal groups there exist informal groups which emerge naturally due to the response and common interests of the members who can easily identify with the goals or independent activities of the informal groups.

Sometimes the efforts may be driven by a common goal that may compliment or work against the goals of the formal group. An informal group can be defined as a group that evolves spontaneously, not shown in the organization's structure, with the objective of fulfilling personal and social need of its members.

Characteristics of Informal Groups

1. **Creation:** It is not created by the organisation but springs up spontaneously.
2. **Satisfaction of Needs:** The needs which cannot be satisfied within the framework of formal organisation, like social and psychological needs of people, such people create informal groups.
3. **Voluntary Membership:** Nobody is compelled to join an informal organization.
4. **Multi-Group Membership:** A member of an informal group can be a member of more than one informal group to pursue different interests.
5. **Systems and Processes:** Members of such groups follow their own norms, leadership, communication, etc. to remain cohesive. The communication channels are referred to as 'Grapevine'. Grapevine i.e., informal channel runs very fast to spread the information across the organization.
6. **Leadership:** Every informal group has a leader, selected by the group, and who is capable of helping to realize their goals. The moment it is realized that the leader is incapable, (s) he is replaced with a new leader.

Dynamics of informal Groups

Informal groups almost always arise if opportunities exist. If management prescribes production norms that the group considers unfair, the group's recourse is to adopt less demanding norms and to use its ingenuity to discover ways in which it can sabotage management's imposed standards.

Thus they counteract the tendency of the organization to get more output from the workers.

Informal groups have a powerful influence on the effectiveness of an organization. But the informal group's role is not limited to resistance. The impact of the informal group upon the larger formal group depends on the norms that the informal group sets. So the informal group can make the formal organization more effective, too.

A norm is an implied agreement among the group's membership regarding how members in the group should behave. From the perspective of the formal group, norms generally fall into three categories—positive, negative, and neutral.' In other words, norms support, obstruct, or have no effect on the aims of the larger organization. The norm is of the group members own choice, and is not one imposed upon them, There is a big motivational difference between being told what to do and being anxious to do it.

Reasons for the Emergence of Informal Groups

1. People working together may come together.
2. People with similar values, beliefs, attitudes, and interests often feel attraction to come together.
3. Need satisfaction – to belong, to associate, etc.
4. Removal of monotony of routine tasks – to get rid of monotony and psychological fatigue, job-related boredom and frustration provides an opportunity to behave in a natural and relaxed manner.
5. Promotion of other interests and pursuit of goals – People join Rotary or Lions Club to expand their contacts which may help them to satisfy their personal goals.

Benefits of Informal Groups

The benefits of an informal group are as follows:

1. Blending with formal group allows people to work for the formal organisation.
2. Informal work group lightens the workload for the formal manager.
3. Brings satisfaction and stability to the organisation as a whole.
4. Provides a useful channel of communication.
5. Encourages managers to plan and act more carefully.

Limitations of Informal Groups

The limitations are as follows:

1. Resistance to Change because they do not want to deviate from existing norms and learn new ways.
2. Informal group provides most fertile ground for Rumour Mongering because of maliciousness, lack of proper communication systems and processes and ambiguous circumstances.
3. Since a member of an informal group is also a member of a formal group, at times it creates role conflict.
4. Creativity of group member(s) is restricted because of strong pressure for conformity applied by the group.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A GROUP AND TEAM

GROUP

- Strong, clearly focused.
- Individual accountability.
- The group's purpose is the same as the broader organizational mission.
- Individual work products.
- Runs efficient meetings.
- Measures performance indirectly by its influence on others.
- Discusses, decides, and delegates.

TEAM

- Shared leadership roles.
- Individual and mutual accountability.
- Specific team purpose that the team delivers.
- Collective work products.
- Encourages open-ended discussions, active problem solving meetings.
- Measures its effectiveness direct by collective work products.
- Discusses, decides, & does real work together.

Meaning and definition of Team

A team is a small group of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable. Although student teams may not satisfy all the requirements of this definition, the degree to which they do often determines their effectiveness.

When individuals with a common interest, goal, attitude, need and perception come together, a team is formed. Individuals need to come and work together to form a team for the accomplishment of complicated tasks. In a team, all team members contribute equally and strive hard to achieve the team's objective which should be predefined.

Features of a good team

Teams work together to accomplish a common goal. Teams can be formed anywhere, anytime whenever the task is little difficult and complicated. Let us understand the various types of teams in detail.

In any organization, no one works alone. Every employee is a part of a team and works in close coordination with the team members to perform his level best and in turn benefit the organization. The team members should complement each other and come to each other's need whenever required.

1. **Trust:** Trust is born when members meet each other as equal and respected companions. Trust greatly affects the atmosphere of a group. When members can trust each other, work proceeds and everyone in the group dares to openly express their ideas and opinions.
2. **Commitment:** A group will commit to study if the goals for the work are clear, understandable, and important to all members. Commitment

will be reinforced if a group can participate in setting goals. When members commit to achieve their common goals, they will work hard for it.

3. **Creativity:** Uncertainty and creative chaos make it possible to question things. Questions may be found which might lead to understanding and new knowledge, in the best situation. When there is an open atmosphere in a group, members can openly express even impossible ideas which may lead to excellent innovations.
4. **Power of cooperation:** Cooperation is one resource which is valuable to learn to utilize. Often people can produce more together than alone because cooperation encourages people to make extra efforts. When members offer encouragement and help each other, they will also be able to overcome difficult situations. A group will succeed when everyone tries their best.
5. **Difference as a resource:** Difference is wealth. When members appreciate each other they can understand different strengths and use them for the common good. Different opinions bring with them new points of view and make it possible to observe things in many ways. Different points of view and conflicts are often useful because members must argue for their opinions thoroughly.
6. **Tutor/teacher as a resource:** A tutor/teacher gets a group started and helps it at the beginning. S/he gives a push to the group. A tutor/teacher offers support in problem situations, guides members to self-regulation, and tries to get members to exert more effort. The kind of tutoring a

group needs and wants depends on the group. A tutor/teacher listens and observes to determine the kind of action a group expects of him/her.

Types of Teams

Teams are a part of business. They make things, accomplish tasks, provide services, offer advice and seek to meet other goals. While people have used teams to come together and accomplish tasks since we were hunters and gatherers, the concept is always evolving. And, today, more and more companies are incorporating teams—of a variety of sizes and types—into their workflows.

It's a good idea for any business leader to understand the types of teams and the distinctions among them. Different ways to break teams into categories exist, but the following are a few common ways to think about them.

Functional Teams: These types of teams, also called functional teams, perform specific functions in an organization. They include members from the same department or work area who meets regularly. A manager holds the primary responsibility, with subordinates reporting to this person. Often, these are permanent.

Cross-Functional Teams: Workers across functions, or specialties, of the organization make up these types of teams. People with separate areas of expertise work together; they are usually at about the same hierarchical level and can often make decisions without management. Often, these are temporary.

Leadership Teams: Management takes a strategic role in guiding business decisions. They are made up of leaders from varied departments. The goals of leadership teams are generally aligned with the mission and vision of the company.

Self-Directed Teams: Also called self-managed teams, these groups operate without managers, and no one is in a position of authority. They are designed

to give employees a feeling of empowerment and ownership of the job. Research has shown that employees in self-managed teams have higher job satisfaction, increased self-esteem, and grow more on the job, but these teams aren't without their drawback.

Virtual Teams: These are comprised of members who are not located in the same physical place; they may be in different cities, states, or even separate countries. They use technology and specific skills to achieve a common goal. They tend to be more tasks and project oriented and less about social interaction.

Quality Circles: These individuals seek to become aware of, analyze and address problems within the workflow of the organization. Overall, they hope to improve performance and make management aware of any issues. This idea originated in Japan by large firms striving for quality. Usually, these are made up of three to 12 people who do similar work.

Task Forces: These teams are experts generally a cross-section of people joined together to solve a well-defined and temporary assignment. They have a sense of autonomy and don't need to constantly consult superiors to get things done.

Team processes..... (Consult Book)

Unit VII

Groups and Teams in Organizations

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- a set of people who meet or do something together because they share the same purpose or ideas

A Group is a collection of individuals who have regular contact and frequent interaction, mutual influence, common feeling of camaraderie, and who work together to achieve a common set of goals.

Every organization is a group unto itself. A group refers to two or more people who share a common meaning and evaluation of themselves and come together to achieve common goals. In other words, a group is a collection of people who interact with one another; accept rights and obligations as members and who share a common identity.

Characteristics of a Group:

- a) Two or more persons (if it is one person, it is not a group)
- b) Formal social structure (the rules of the game are defined)
- c) Common fate (they will swim together)
- d) Common goals (the destiny is the same and emotionally connected)
- e) Face-to-face interaction (they will talk with each other)
- f) Interdependence (each one is complimentary to the other)

- g) Self-definition as group members (what one is who belongs to the group)
- h) Recognition by others (yes, you belong to the group).

Process/Stages of Group Development/Evolution

Group Development is a dynamic process. How do groups evolve? There is a process of five stages through which groups pass through. The process includes the five stages: forming, storming, forming, performing, and adjourning.

Forming: The first stage in the life of a group is concerned with forming a group. This stage is characterized by members seeking either a work assignment (in a formal group) or other benefit, like status, affiliation, power, etc. (in an informal group). Members at this stage either engage in busy type of activity or show apathy.

Storming: The next stage in this group is marked by the formation of dyads and triads. Members seek out familiar or similar individuals and begin a deeper sharing of self. Continued attention to the subgroup creates a differentiation in the group and tensions across the dyads / triads may appear. Pairing is a common phenomenon. There will be conflict about controlling the group.

Norming: The third stage of group development is marked by a more serious concern about task performance. The dyads/triads begin to open up and seek out other members in the group. Efforts are made to establish various norms for task performance.

Members begin to take greater responsibility for their own group and relationship while the authority figure becomes relaxed. Once this stage is complete, a clear picture will emerge about hierarchy of leadership. The norming stage is over with the solidification of the group structure and a sense of group identity and camaraderie.

Performing: This is a stage of a fully functional group where members see themselves as a group and get involved in the task. Each person makes a contribution and the authority figure is also seen as a part of the group. Group norms are followed and collective pressure is exerted to ensure the Process of Group effectiveness of the group.

The group may redefine its goals Development in the light of information from the outside environment and show an autonomous will to pursue those goals. The long-term viability of the group is established and nurtured.

Adjourning: In the case of temporary groups, like project team, task force, or any other such group, which have a limited task at hand, also have a fifth stage, This is known as adjourning.

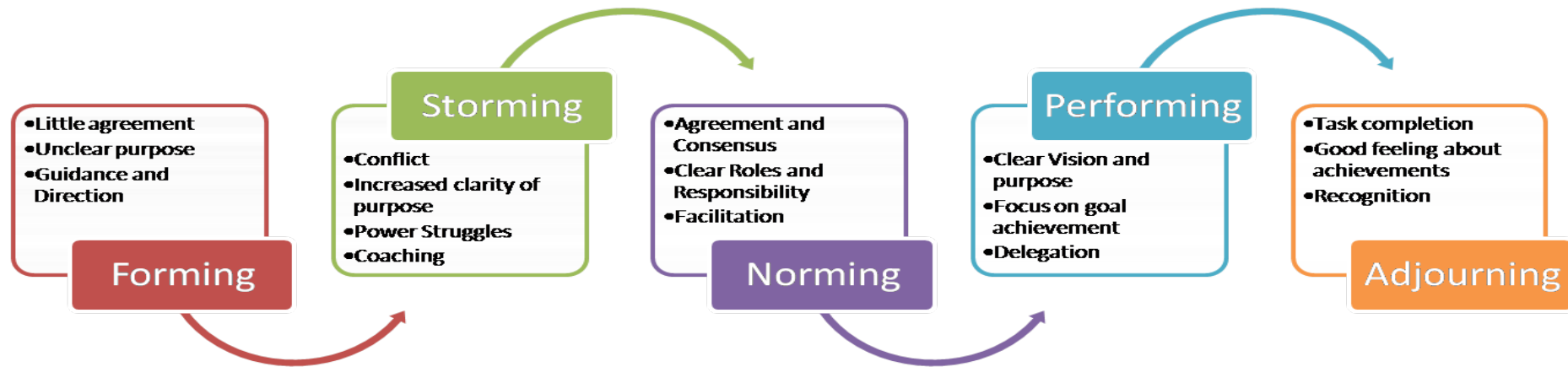
The group decides to disband. Some members may feel happy over the performance, and some may be unhappy over the stoppage of meeting with group members. Adjourning may also be referred to as mourning, i.e. mourning the adjournment of the group.

Group Dynamics

The word dynamics means ‘force’. Group dynamics means the study of forces within a group. The social process by which people interact with each other in small groups can be called group dynamism. A group has certain common objectives and goals and members are bound together with certain values and culture.

In organizational development, group dynamics refers to the understanding of behaviour of people in groups that are trying to solve a problem or making a decision. A good manager can act as a facilitator and assist the group in accompanying its objectives and arrive at correct decisions. Because people gather in groups for reasons other than task accomplishment, group process occurs in other types of groups such as personal growth groups (e.g., encounter groups, study groups, prayer groups). In such cases, an individual with expertise in group process can be helpful in the role of facilitator.

Group dynamics deals with the attitudes and behavioral patterns of a group. Group dynamics concern how groups are formed, what is their structure and which processes are followed in their functioning. Thus, it is concerned with the interactions and forces operating between groups.



Group dynamics is relevant to groups of all kinds both formal and informal. In an organizational setting, the term groups are a very common and the study of groups and group dynamics is an important area of study.

Group dynamics is a system of behaviours and psychological processes occurring within a social group (intra-group dynamics), or between social groups (intergroup dynamics).

Importance of Group Dynamism

1. The group can influence the thinking of its members. The members are always influenced by the interactions of other members in the group.
2. A group with a good leader performs better as compared to a group with weak leader.
3. The group can give the effect of synergy, that is, if the group consists of positive thinkers then its output is more than the double every time.

4. Group dynamism can give job satisfaction to the members.
5. The group can also bring team spirit among the members.
6. Even the attitude, perceptions, and ideas of members depend on group dynamism. For example, the negative thinkers can be converted to positive thinkers with the help of the facilitator.
7. If the group works as a cohesive group, the cooperation and convergence can result in maximization of productivity.
8. Lastly, group dynamism can reduce the labour unrest and labour turnover due to emotional attachment among the group members.

Types of Groups

One way to classify the groups is by way of formality – formal and informal. While formal groups are established by an organization to achieve its goals, informal groups merge spontaneously. Formal groups may take the form of command groups, task groups, and functional groups.

Formal Group

1. **Command Groups:** Command groups are specified by the organizational chart and often consist of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to that supervisor. An example of a command group is a market research firm CEO and the research associates under him.
2. **Task Groups:** Task groups consist of people who work together to achieve a common task. Members are brought together to accomplish a narrow range of goals within a specified time period. Task groups are also commonly referred to as task forces. The organization appoints members and assigns the goals and tasks to be accomplished. Examples of assigned tasks are the development of a new product, the improvement of a production process, or designing the syllabus under semester system.

Other common task groups are ad hoc committees, project groups, and standing committees. Ad hoc committees are temporary groups created to resolve a specific complaint or develop a process are normally disbanded after the group completes the assigned task.

3. **Functional Groups:** A functional group is created by the organization to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional groups remain in existence after achievement of current goals and objectives. Examples of functional groups would be a marketing department, a customer service department, or an accounting department. In contrast to formal groups, informal groups are formed naturally and in response to the common interests and shared values of individuals. They are created for purposes other than the accomplishment of organizational goals and do not have a specified time frame. Informal groups are not appointed by the organization and members can invite others to join from time to time.

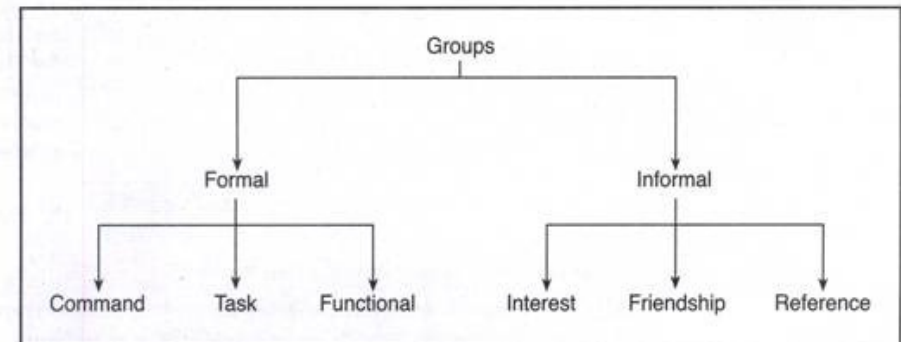


Figure 12.2 : Types of Groups

Informal Group

Informal groups can have a strong influence in organizations that can either be positive or negative. For example, employees who form an informal group can either discuss how to improve a production process or how to

create shortcuts that jeopardize quality. Informal groups can take the form of interest groups, friendship groups, or reference groups.

1. **Interest Group:** Interest groups usually continue over time and may last longer than general informal groups. Members of interest groups may not be part of the same organizational department but they are bound together by some other common interest.

The goals and objectives of group interests are specific to each group and may not be related to organizational goals and objectives. An example of an interest group would be students who come together to form a study group for a specific class.

2. **Friendship Groups:** Friendship groups are formed by members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values, or other common bonds. Members enjoy each other's company and often meet after work to participate in these activities. For example, a group of employees who form a friendship group may have a yoga group, a Rajasthani association in Delhi, or a kitty party lunch once a month.
3. **Reference Groups:** A reference group is a type of group that people use to evaluate themselves. The main objectives of reference groups are to seek social validation and social comparison. Social validation allows individuals to justify their attitudes and values while social comparison helps individuals evaluate their own actions by comparing themselves to others. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behavior. Such groups are formed voluntarily. Family, friends, and religious affiliations are strong reference groups for most individuals.

Informal Group

In every organisation along with formal groups there exist informal groups which emerge naturally due to the response and common interests of the members who can easily identify with the goals or independent activities of the informal groups.

Sometimes the efforts may be driven by a common goal that may compliment or work against the goals of the formal group. An informal group can be defined as a group that evolves spontaneously, not shown in the organization's structure, with the objective of fulfilling personal and social need of its members.

Characteristics of Informal Groups

1. **Creation:** It is not created by the organisation but springs up spontaneously.
2. **Satisfaction of Needs:** The needs which cannot be satisfied within the framework of formal organisation, like social and psychological needs of people, such people create informal groups.
3. **Voluntary Membership:** Nobody is compelled to join an informal organization.
4. **Multi-Group Membership:** A member of an informal group can be a member of more than one informal group to pursue different interests.
5. **Systems and Processes:** Members of such groups follow their own norms, leadership, communication, etc. to remain cohesive. The communication channels are referred to as 'Grapevine'. Grapevine i.e., informal channel runs very fast to spread the information across the organization.
6. **Leadership:** Every informal group has a leader, selected by the group, and who is capable of helping to realize their goals. The moment it is realized that the leader is incapable, (s) he is replaced with a new leader.

Dynamics of informal Groups

Informal groups almost always arise if opportunities exist. If management prescribes production norms that the group considers unfair, the group's recourse is to adopt less demanding norms and to use its ingenuity to discover ways in which it can sabotage management's imposed standards.

Thus they counteract the tendency of the organization to get more output from the workers.

Informal groups have a powerful influence on the effectiveness of an organization. But the informal group's role is not limited to resistance. The impact of the informal group upon the larger formal group depends on the norms that the informal group sets. So the informal group can make the formal organization more effective, too.

A norm is an implied agreement among the group's membership regarding how members in the group should behave. From the perspective of the formal group, norms generally fall into three categories-positive, negative, and neutral.' In other words, norms support, obstruct, or have no effect on the aims of the larger organization. The norm is of the group members own choice, and is not one imposed upon them, There is a big motivational difference between being told what to do and being anxious to do it.

Reasons for the Emergence of Informal Groups

1. People working together may come together.
2. People with similar values, beliefs, attitudes, and interests often feel attraction to come together.
3. Need satisfaction – to belong, to associate, etc.
4. Removal of monotony of routine tasks – to get rid of monotony and psychological fatigue, job-related boredom and frustration provides an opportunity to behave in a natural and relaxed manner.
5. Promotion of other interests and pursuit of goals – People join Rotary or Lions Club to expand their contacts which may help them to satisfy their personal goals.

Benefits of Informal Groups

The benefits of an informal group are as follows:

1. Blending with formal group allows people to work for the formal organisation.
2. Informal work group lightens the workload for the formal manager.
3. Brings satisfaction and stability to the organisation as a whole.
4. Provides a useful channel of communication.
5. Encourages managers to plan and act more carefully.

Limitations of Informal Groups

The limitations are as follows:

1. Resistance to Change because they do not want to deviate from existing norms and learn new ways.
2. Informal group provides most fertile ground for Rumour Mongering because of maliciousness, lack of proper communication systems and processes and ambiguous circumstances.
3. Since a member of an informal group is also a member of a formal group, at times it creates role conflict.
4. Creativity of group member(s) is restricted because of strong pressure for conformity applied by the group.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A GROUP AND TEAM

GROUP

- Strong, clearly focused.
- Individual accountability.
- The group's purpose is the same as the broader organizational mission.
- Individual work products.
- Runs efficient meetings.
- Measures performance indirectly by its influence on others.
- Discusses, decides, and delegates.

TEAM

- Shared leadership roles.
- Individual and mutual accountability.
- Specific team purpose that the team delivers.
- Collective work products.
- Encourages open-ended discussions, active problem solving meetings.
- Measures its effectiveness direct by collective work products.
- Discusses, decides, & does real work together.

Meaning and definition of Team

A team is a small group of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable. Although student teams may not satisfy all the requirements of this definition, the degree to which they do often determines their effectiveness.

When individuals with a common interest, goal, attitude, need and perception come together, a team is formed. Individuals need to come and work together to form a team for the accomplishment of complicated tasks. In a team, all team members contribute equally and strive hard to achieve the team's objective which should be predefined.

Features of a good team

Teams work together to accomplish a common goal. Teams can be formed anywhere, anytime whenever the task is little difficult and complicated. Let us understand the various types of teams in detail.

In any organization, no one works alone. Every employee is a part of a team and works in close coordination with the team members to perform his level best and in turn benefit the organization. The team members should complement each other and come to each other's need whenever required.

1. **Trust:** Trust is born when members meet each other as equal and respected companions. Trust greatly affects the atmosphere of a group. When members can trust each other, work proceeds and everyone in the group dares to openly express their ideas and opinions.
2. **Commitment:** A group will commit to study if the goals for the work are clear, understandable, and important to all members. Commitment

will be reinforced if a group can participate in setting goals. When members commit to achieve their common goals, they will work hard for it.

3. **Creativity:** Uncertainty and creative chaos make it possible to question things. Questions may be found which might lead to understanding and new knowledge, in the best situation. When there is an open atmosphere in a group, members can openly express even impossible ideas which may lead to excellent innovations.
4. **Power of cooperation:** Cooperation is one resource which is valuable to learn to utilize. Often people can produce more together than alone because cooperation encourages people to make extra efforts. When members offer encouragement and help each other, they will also be able to overcome difficult situations. A group will succeed when everyone tries their best.
5. **Difference as a resource:** Difference is wealth. When members appreciate each other they can understand different strengths and use them for the common good. Different opinions bring with them new points of view and make it possible to observe things in many ways. Different points of view and conflicts are often useful because members must argue for their opinions thoroughly.
6. **Tutor/teacher as a resource:** A tutor/teacher gets a group started and helps it at the beginning. S/he gives a push to the group. A tutor/teacher offers support in problem situations, guides members to self-regulation, and tries to get members to exert more effort. The kind of tutoring a

group needs and wants depends on the group. A tutor/teacher listens and observes to determine the kind of action a group expects of him/her.

Types of Teams

Teams are a part of business. They make things, accomplish tasks, provide services, offer advice and seek to meet other goals. While people have used teams to come together and accomplish tasks since we were hunters and gatherers, the concept is always evolving. And, today, more and more companies are incorporating teams—of a variety of sizes and types—into their workflows.

It's a good idea for any business leader to understand the types of teams and the distinctions among them. Different ways to break teams into categories exist, but the following are a few common ways to think about them.

Functional Teams: These types of teams, also called functional teams, perform specific functions in an organization. They include members from the same department or work area who meets regularly. A manager holds the primary responsibility, with subordinates reporting to this person. Often, these are permanent.

Cross-Functional Teams: Workers across functions, or specialties, of the organization make up these types of teams. People with separate areas of expertise work together; they are usually at about the same hierarchical level and can often make decisions without management. Often, these are temporary.

Leadership Teams: Management takes a strategic role in guiding business decisions. They are made up of leaders from varied departments. The goals of leadership teams are generally aligned with the mission and vision of the company.

Self-Directed Teams: Also called self-managed teams, these groups operate without managers, and no one is in a position of authority. They are designed

to give employees a feeling of empowerment and ownership of the job. Research has shown that employees in self-managed teams have higher job satisfaction, increased self-esteem, and grow more on the job, but these teams aren't without their drawback.

Virtual Teams: These are comprised of members who are not located in the same physical place; they may be in different cities, states, or even separate countries. They use technology and specific skills to achieve a common goal. They tend to be more tasks and project oriented and less about social interaction.

Quality Circles: These individuals seek to become aware of, analyze and address problems within the workflow of the organization. Overall, they hope to improve performance and make management aware of any issues. This idea originated in Japan by large firms striving for quality. Usually, these are made up of three to 12 people who do similar work.

Task Forces: These teams are experts generally a cross-section of people joined together to solve a well-defined and temporary assignment. They have a sense of autonomy and don't need to constantly consult superiors to get things done.

Team processes..... (Consult Book)

Unit: Five

Personality

A. Meaning and Definition

Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations. The word "personality" originates from the Latin persona, which means mask.

The quality or condition of being a person, the totality of qualities and traits, as of character or behavior, that is peculiar to a specific person. The pattern of collective character, behavioral, temperamental, emotional, and mental traits of a person is called personality.

1. The complex of all the attributes--behavioral, temperamental, emotional and mental--that characterize a unique individual; "their different reactions reflected their very different personalities"; "it is his/her nature to help others"
2. The sum total of the physical, mental, emotional, and social characteristics of an individual.
3. The sum total of all the behavioural and mental characteristics by means of which an individual is recognized as being unique
4. The distinctive character of a person that makes him socially attractive: a salesman needs a lot of personality.
5. A well-known person in a certain field, such as sport or entertainment
6. A remarkable person: the old fellow is a real personality.
7. The quality of being a unique person
8. The distinctive atmosphere of a place or situation

9. (Often plural) a personal remark

G.W. Allport defines personality as "A person's pattern of habits, attitudes, and traits which determine his adjustment to his environment."

Eysenck defines that "personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character temperament, interact and physique which determines his unique adjustment to the environment.

Morton prince defines personality as "Sum total of all, the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites and instincts of the individual and the acquired disposition and tendencies.

Munn defined personality as "the most characteristic integration of an individual structure, modes of behaviour, interest attitudes and abilities and aptitudes, especially from the point of adjustment in social situations".

According to **Robert E. Park and Earnest W. Burgess**, personality is "the sum and organisation of those traits which determine the role of the individual in the group."

Herbert A. Bloch defined it as "the characteristic organisation of the individual's habits, attitudes, values, emotional characteristics..... which imparts consistency to the behaviour of the individual."

According to **Arnold W. Green**, "personality is the sum of a person's values (the objects of his striving, such as ideas, prestige, power and sex) plus his non- physical traits (his habitual ways of acting and reacting)."

According to **Linton**, personality embraces the total "organised aggregate of psychological processes and status pertaining to the individual."

Personality, as we understand it, says **MacIver**, "is all that an individual is and has experienced so far as this "all" can be comprehended as unity."

According to **Lundberg and others**, “The term personality refers to the habits, attitudes, and other social traits that are characteristic of a given individual’s behaviour.”

By personality **Ogburn** means “the integration of the socio psychological behaviour of the human being, represented by habits of action and feeling, attitudes and opinions.”

Davis regards personality “a psychic phenomenon which is neither organic nor social but an emergent from a combination of the two.”

According to **Anderson and Parker**, “Personality is the totality of habits, attitudes, and traits that result from socialization and characterizes us in our relationships with others.”

According to **N.L. Munn**, “Personality may be defined as the most characteristic integration of an individual’s structure modes of behaviour, interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and aptitudes.”

According to **Morton Prince**, “Personality is the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses tendencies and instincts of the individual, and the acquired disposition and tendencies acquired by experience.”

According to **Young**, “Personality is the totality of behaviour of an individual with a given tendency system interacting with a sequence of situations.”

Lawrence A. Pewin has given a working definition of personality in these words, “Personality represents those structural and dynamic properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristic responses to situations.”

Characteristics of Personality

New comb has discussed personality in the light of certain characteristics and traits. These characteristics and traits are as follows:

1. **Personality is something which is unique in each individual:** Personality refers to internal as well as external qualities, some of which are quite general. But it is unique to each individual. It is not possible for any other individual to reproduce or imitate the qualities of the personality of the individual.
2. **Personality refers particularly to persistent qualities of an individual:** Every individual has certain feeling as well as other permanent traits and qualities. Personality is mainly composed of the persistent or permanent qualities that exhibit themselves in form of social behaviour and attempt to make adjustment with the environment.
3. **Personality represents a dynamic orientation of organism to environment:** Personality represents the process of learning. It takes place in reference to the environment. We do not acquire all the traits of personality all at once.
4. **Personality is greatly influenced by social interactions:** Personality is not an individual quality. It is a result of social- interaction. In other words, it means that when we come in contact with other members of the society, we acquire certain qualities while we exhibit certain others. All these come to form personality.
5. **Personality represents a unique organisation of persistent dynamic and social predisposition:** In personality various qualities are not put together. They are, in fact, integrated into one. This integration is nothing but a result of organisation which may be different from man to man. The behaviour of a person directed to one particular individual may differ from the behaviour of another person. That is why; we put the condition of

suitable environment. This suitability is concerned with individual specificity.

To sum up we would say that:

- a) Personality is not related to bodily structure alone. It includes both structure and dynamics
- b) Personality is an inseparable unit.
- c) Personality is neither good nor bad.
- d) Personality is not a mysterious phenomenon.
- e) Every personality is unique.
- f) Personality refers to persistent qualities of the individual. It expresses consistency and regularity.
- g) Personality is acquired.
- h) Personality is influenced by social interaction. It is defined in terms of behaviour.

B. Personality traits and characteristics

There are many ways to measure personality, but psychologists have mostly given up on trying dividing humanity neatly into types. Instead, they focus on personality traits.

The Big Five are the ingredients that make up each individual's personality. A person might have a hurry of openness, a lot of conscientiousness, an average amount of extraversion, plenty of agreeableness and almost no neuroticism at all. Or someone could be disagreeable, neurotic, introverted, conscientious and hardly open at all. Here's what each trait entails:

Openness

Openness is shorthand for "openness to experience." People who are high in openness enjoy adventure. They're curious and appreciate art, imagination and new things. The motto of the open individual might be "Variety is the spice of life."

People low in openness is just the opposite. They prefer to fasten to their habits, avoid new experiences and probably aren't the most adventurous eaters. Changing personality is usually considered a tough process, but openness is a personality trait that's been shown to be subject to change in adulthood.

Conscientiousness (Carefulness)

People who are conscientious are organized and have a strong sense of duty. They're dependable, disciplined and achievement-focused. People lows in conscientiousness are more natural and relaxed. They may tend toward carelessness. Conscientiousness is a helpful trait to have, as it has been linked to achievement in school and on the job.

Extraversion/Introversion

Extraversion versus introversion is possibly the most recognizable personality trait of the Big Five. The more of an extravert someone is, the more of a social butterfly they are. Extraverts are chatty, sociable and draw energy from crowds. They tend to be assertive and cheerful in their social interactions.

Introverts, on the other hand, need plenty of alone time, perhaps because their brains process social interaction differently. Introversion is often confused with shyness, but the two aren't the same. Shyness implies a fear of social interactions or an inability to function socially. Introverts can be perfectly charming at parties they just prefer solo or small-group activities.

Agreeableness

Agreeableness measures the extent of a person's warmth and kindness. The more agreeable someone is, the more likely they are to be trusting, helpful and compassionate. Disagreeable people are cold and suspicious of others, and they're less likely to cooperate.

Men who are high in agreeableness are judged to be better dancers by women, suggesting that body movement can signal personality. Conscientiousness also makes for good dancers. But in the workplace, disagreeable men actually earn more than agreeable guys. Disagreeable women didn't show the same salary advantage, suggesting that a no-nonsense demeanor is uniquely beneficial to men.

Neuroticism (Mental)

Neuroticism is a long-term tendency to be in a negative emotional state. People with neuroticism tend to have more depressed moods they suffer from feelings of guilt, envy, anger and anxiety, more frequently and more severely than other individuals. Neuroticism is the state of being neurotic.

An individual with neuroticism is typically self-conscious and shy. There is a tendency to internalize phobias and other neuroses, such as panic disorders, aggression, negativity, and depression. Neuroses (singular: neurosis) refers to a mental disorder involving distress, but not hallucinations nor delusions they are not outside socially acceptable norms. The individual is still in touch with reality.

In contrast, people who are low in neuroticism tend to be emotionally stable and even-keeled. Unsurprisingly, neuroticism is linked with plenty of bad health outcomes. Neurotic people die younger than the emotionally stable, possibly because they turn to tobacco and alcohol to ease their nerves.

Other Positive Traits of Personality

Attitude – The capacity to stay optimistic and positive. The quality for career success is “Championship Thinking.”

Enthusiastic – The possession of intense and eager interest in a subject or cause. It is an energy that often inspires others.

Ethical – The quality of having and living by a code of sound moral principles.

Goal Focused – The ability to have clarity on the objectives that you strive for in your personal and professional life.

Listener – The capacity to suspend your own agenda and deliberately and empathically allow others to be heard.

Networked – A well developed circle of influence of interconnected positive relationships.

Persistent – The ability to endure in the face of adversity. It is a patient and relenting effort to achieve despite difficulties.

Self-Aware – The understanding and knowledge of who you are including your skills, values, interests, behaviors and character.

Self-Confident – The firm belief in your abilities. Seek professional help if this is an area of weakness – it will be worth it.

Self-Discipline – The ability to control and restrain impulses. Energy then can be focused and channeled toward your ambitions.

Negative Personality Traits

Arrogant– (unpleasantly proud and behaving as if you are more important than, or know more than, other people).

Rudeness – (not polite; offensive or embarrassing)

Domineering – (inclined to rule arbitrarily or despotically; overbearing; tyrannical: domineering parents).

Dishonesty – (not honest)

Temperamental – (describes someone whose mood tends to change very suddenly)

Conceited – (Holding a high opinion of yourself)

Unreliable – (cannot be relied or depended upon)

Dependent – (relying on someone or something else for aid, support, etc).

Pessimism – (the tendency to see, anticipate, or emphasize only bad or undesirable outcomes, results, conditions, problems, etc)

Condescending – (showing or implying a usually patronizing descent from dignity or superiority).

C. Determinants of personality (Factors Affecting Personality)

Personality, in the field of organizational behavior, is the aggregate of a person's feelings, thinking, behaviors and responses to different situations and people. Every person has a different personality and there are a lot of factors which contribute to that personality. We call them the 'determinants of personality' or the 'factors of personality'.

A. Biological Factors

Heredity:

- It refers to physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent.

- It plays an important part in determining an individual's personality.
- Heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structures of the genes, which are located in the chromosomes.
- Recent research studies shows that young children lend strong support to the power of heredity and finding shows that some personality traits may be built into the same genetic code that affects factors like height and hair color.

Brain:

- Brain is the second biological approach to determine personality.
- It plays an important role in determining personality.
- Electrical Stimulation of the Brain (ESB) and Split brain psychology results indicates that a better understanding of human personality and behavior might come from a closer study of the brain.
- The definite areas of the human brain are associated with pain and pleasure. Research study shows that these things are true.

Biofeedback:

- It is third biological approach to determine personality.
- Physiologists and psychologists felt that biological functions like brainwave patterns, gastric and hormonal secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control. Recent research shows that these functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback techniques.

- For this purpose, individual can learn the internal rhythms of a particular body process through electronic signals that are feedback from equipment which is wired to body.
- In this process, the person can learn to control the body process through questions.
- It is one of the interesting topics to do future research work in personality.

Physical Features:

- It is third biological approach to determine personality.
- It is vital ingredient of the personality, it focus an individual person's external appearance which also determined the personality.
- Physical features like tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white. These physical features will be influenced the personal effect on others and also affect self concept of individual.
- Recent research studies shows that definitely this features influence to individual personality in an organization.
- In totally, heredity would be fixed at birth and no amount of experience can be altering them through creation of suitable environment. Apart from this, personality characteristics are not completely dictated by heredity. There are other factors also influenced to determining personality.

B. Cultural Factors

"Each culture expects, and trains, its members to behave in 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 reinforce and hence learned". -**Paul H Mussen**

- Cultural factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality.
- It refers to traditional practice, customs, procedure, norms and rules and regulation followed by the society.
- It significantly influence to individual behavior compare to biological factors.
- Cultural factors determine attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition, cooperation, positive thinking, team spirit, and a host of the human being and discharge his/her duties towards valuable responsibilities to society.
- Western culture influence to Indian society. It is best example of the cultural factors also determine the personality.

C. Family Factors

- Family factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality.
- Family consists of husband and wife and their children's.
- Family role is very important for nurturing and personality development of their children.
- Family will be guided, supervised, take care of all family members, cooperation, coordination and cooperation in work and also explained the role and responsibilities towards the family, society and real life.
- Family either directly or indirectly influence to person for development of individual personality.

D. Social Factors

- Social factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality.
- It involves the reorganization of individual's in an organization or society.
- It refers to acquiring of wide range of personality by acquiring and absorbed by themselves in the society or an organization.
- Socialization process is starting from home and extending to work environment in an organization or society.
- It focuses on good relationships, cooperation, coordination and interaction among the members in the society or an organization or a family.
- In totally, environment factors consist of cultural factors, family factors, and social factors.

E. Situational Factors

- Situational factors also influence to determine of personality.
- Situational factors are very important to change the individual behavior in a different circumstance at different situations, it also influence to personality of individual person.
- In general term, personality is stable and consistent and it does change in different situations.

The Interaction of Personality and Situational Factors are outlined:

- Strong situational pressures
- Personality may not predict behavior
- Example: enforcement of rules
- Weak Situational pressures
- Personality may predict behavior

- Example: Customer sales representative

- A strong situation can overwhelm the effects of individual personalities by providing strong cues for appropriate behavior.

F. Psychological Factors

- These include our motives, acquired interests, our attitudes, our will and character, our intellectual capacities such as intelligence i.e., the abilities to perceive, to observe, to imagine, to think and to reason
- These factors determine our reactions in various situations and thus affect our personality, growth and direction. An individual with a considerable amount of will power will be able to make decisions more quickly than others.
- Thus, we see that hereditary, environmental and psychological factors contribute towards the development of personality.

D. Linking an individual's personality and values to the workplace (Consult Book.....)

E. Major personality attributes influencing OB

1. Authoritarianism:

Authoritarianism as a concept was developed by the psychologist **Adorno** during World War II to measure susceptibility to autocratic, fascistic or antidemocratic appeals. After that the concept was extended to the human personality. Authoritarians tend to place high moral value on their beliefs and are strongly oriented towards conformity of rules and regulations. They naturally prefer stable and structured work environments which are governed by clean rules and procedures. According to **Adorno**, "This concept refers to a belief that there should be status and power differences among people in organisations."

Further, they believe obedience and respect for authority and blind acceptance of authority. These people are generally conservatives concerned with toughness and power, are close minded and generally less educated. But because of their belief in acceptance of authority they make good followers, work better under directive supervision and are more productive within authoritarian organisational structure.

2. Bureaucratic Personality:

The personality of a bureaucratic person is based upon respect for organisational rules and regulations. He is different from an authoritarian person in respect that his acceptance of authority is not total and blind. A person who is bureaucratic in nature values subordination, conformity to rules, impersonal and formal relationships. These people become better supervisors when the type of work is routine, repetitive and proceduralised because these people are not innovative, they do not like taking risks and feel more at ease in following established directions.

3. Machiavellianism:

This personality trait of Machiavellianism also known as Mach is named after **Niccolo Machiavelli**, who wrote in the 16th century on how to gain and use power.

The characteristics of high MACH employers are as follows:

- a. A Mach man is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance and believes that ends can justify means.
- b. A high Mach man manipulates more, wins more, are persuaded less and persuade others more than the low machs.
- c. High Mach people flourish when they interact face to face with others rather than indirectly.

- d. These people are successful when the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations.
- e. High Mach man has high self confidence and high self esteem. They are cool and calculating and have no hesitation using others or taking advantage of others in order to serve their own goals.
- f. They are not easily swayed by a sense of friendship, trust or loyalty. They are especially successful in exploiting structured situations and vulnerable people.

We cannot conclude that whether high machs make good employees or not. The answer will depend upon the type of the job and whether moral and ethical values are considered in evaluating the performance of a person.

4. Introversion and Extroversion:

These two terms are generally associated with the interpersonal behaviour of an individual and his sociability. Extroverts are gregarious and sociable individuals while introverts are shy, quiet and retiring. It has been observed that introverts and extroverts people have different career orientations and require different organisational environment to maximize performance. Extroverts are more suitable for positions that require considerable interaction with others that is why managerial positions are dominated by extroverts.

Thus, we can say that to be an extrovert is a managerial trait to be a successful manager. On the other hand, introvert people are more inclined to excel at tasks that require thought and analytical skill. An extreme introvert works best alone in a quiet office without external interruption or influence.

5. Problem Solving Style:

Individuals have their own style of solving their problems and making their decisions and this style of their affects their personality in certain ways. There are four problem solving styles based upon **Don Hellriegel, John W. Slocum and Richard W. Woodman** “organisational behaviour”.

These styles are:

- a. **Sensation Feeling Style:** The people who have the sensation feeling style are dependable, friendly, and social and they approach facts with human concerns. These people are pragmatic, methodical and like jobs which involve human contract and public relations. Some suitable areas of jobs for these people are teaching, customer relations, social workers and marketing.
- b. **Sensation Thinking Style:** People with sensation thinking style are practical, logical, decisive and sensitive to details. These people prefer bureaucratic type organisations. They are not highly suitable for jobs requiring interpersonal relations. But these people are more skilled in technical jobs e.g. production, accounting, engineering and computers.
- c. **Intuition Feeling style:** The persons with intuition feeling style are enthusiastic, people oriented, charismatic and helpful. The professions which are suited to this style are public relations, advertising, politics and personnel.
- d. **Intuition Thinking Style:** These people are very creative, energetic, and ingenious and like jobs which are challenging in terms of design and analysis such as system design, law, research and development, top management and so on.

6. Achievement Orientation:

Achievement orientation or a high need to achieve is a personality trait which varies among different types of people and can be used to predict certain behaviour. The people with very high achievement orientation strive to do

things in a better way. They want to feel that their success or failure is due to their own actions. These people do not like to perform easy tasks where there is no challenge or tasks with very high amount of risk as the failure rate is more.

These people like to do the acts with moderate difficulties, so that they can have a sense of achievement also and on the other hand the failure rate is also not very high. Or in other words, achievers will like to do the jobs where the outcome is directly attributed to their efforts and chances of success are so-so. The high achievers will do better in sports, management and sales where there is moderate difficulty, rapid performance feedback and direct relationship between effort and reward.

7. Locus of Control:

A PERSON'S PERCEPTION OF THE SOURCE OF HIS OR HER FATE IS TERMED LOCUS OF CONTROL.

Locus of control refers to an individual's belief that events are either within one's control (Internal Locus of Control) or are determined by forces beyond one's control. Some people believe that they are the masters of their own fate. Other people see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that whatever happens to them in their lives is due to their luck or fate. The first type is labeled as internals and the latter has been called externals.

A large amount of research has consistently shown the following characteristics of the internals and externals.

Internal Locus of Control:

- (i) A person with a strong internal locus of control has more control over his own behavior. He believes that he controls events concerning his own life and his internal traits determine what happens in a given situation. He believes that he is the master of his own destiny.

- (ii) These people are more active in seeking more information to make decisions. They are better at retaining the information and are less satisfied with the amount of information they possess.
- (iii) Internals are more active socially.
- (iv) Internals prefer skill achievement outcomes.
- (v) Internals are more likely to use personally persuasive rewards and power bases and less likely to use coercion.
- (vi) These people are more independent and less susceptible to influence of others.
- (vii) The internals prefer participative management.
- (viii) Research has shown that internally oriented people hold jobs of higher Status, advance more rapidly in their careers.
- (ix) Internals take more responsibility for their health and have better health habits. As a result their incidents of sickness and of absenteeism are lower.

External Locus of Control:

- (i) People who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting and are less involved on jobs than are internals. They generally prefer directive management.
- (ii) Unlike the internals, these people prefer chance oriented awards.
- (iii) A person with a strong 'external locus of control' feels that outside forces are affecting the events in his life and he is at the mercy of destiny, chance or other people. He believes that everything will happen by the will of God and nothing or nobody can stop it. External locus of control refer

- (iv) Unlike, the internals, the externals are more interested in job security and not in advancement of careers.
- (v) Whereas the internals prefer intrinsic rewards e.g. feeling of and he is at the mercy of achievement, externals are more interested in extrinsic awards, destiny, chance or other people. From the above mentioned traits of internals and controls it can be concluded that internals would be better on sophisticated tasks, which include most managerial and professional jobs or any other jobs which require complex information processing and learning. In addition, they are suited to jobs requiring initiative and independence of action. As against this, externals would do well on jobs that are well structured and routine and in which success depends heavily on coupling with the directions given by others.

8. Self Esteem:

“Self Esteem refers to the feeling of like or dislike for oneself.” “Self Esteem is the degree of respect a person has for himself.” This trait varies from person to person as people differ in the degree to which they like or dislike each other. The research on self esteem offers some interesting insights into organisation behaviour.

A few of the research findings about self esteem are:

- (i) Self esteem is directly related to the expectations for success. High self esteem people believe that they possess the ability they need to succeed at work.
- (ii) Individuals with high self esteem will take more risks in job selection. They are more likely to choose unconventional jobs than people with low self esteem.
- (iii) People with low self esteem are more susceptible to external influence than are those with high self esteems. Low esteems are dependent on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. As a result they are more

likely to seek approval from others and more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviours of those they respect than are the high esteem.

- (iv) In managerial positions, the low esteems tend to be concerned with pleasing others and, therefore, less likely to take unpopular stands than are high esteems.
- (v) High esteems are more satisfied with their job than the low esteems.
- (vi) High self esteem people are very friendly, affectionate, find it easy to form interpersonal attachments and find good in other people. Low self esteem people are usually critical of others, are generally depressed and blame others for their own failures.
- (vii) High esteem people are high performers while low esteem people contribute to poor performance which in turn reinforces low self esteem.

9. Self Monitoring:

“Self monitoring is a personality trait that measures an individual’s ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external situational factors”. Self monitoring is a personality trait which has recently received attention. The research on self monitoring is in infancy, so predictions must be guarded.

However, prime evidence suggests the following points:

- (i) As self monitoring refers to the individual’s ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external factors, individuals with high self monitoring can show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external, situational factors.
- (ii) High self monitors can behave differently in different situations. They are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public, personal and private selves. Low self monitors cannot deviate (Divert) their behaviour. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitudes

in every situation; hence, there is high behavioural consistency between who they are and what they do.

- (iii) The high self monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behaviour of others and are more capable of conforming than are low self monitors.
- (iv) We can also hypothesize that high self monitors will be more successful in managerial positions where individuals are required to play multiple and even contradictory roles. The high self monitor is capable of putting different faces for different audiences.

10. Risk Taking:

The propensity of people to assume risks or avoid risks varies from person to person depending upon the willingness of the people to take chances. This human trait will affect the decision making capability of a manager. This individual personality trait will determine how long will it take a person to take a decision or how much information will be needed before he takes a decision.

Some people are very conscious in nature, while the others are impulsive. An impulsive person is a high risk taking manager; he will make rapid decisions and use less information in making their choices than a very conscious and low risk taking manager. But the research shows that the decision accuracy is generally the same in both the groups.

Research has concluded that managers in organisations are risk averse, but still there are individual differences on this point. Some jobs specifically demand high risk taking persons e.g. the job of a broker in a brokerage firm. Because in this job for effective performance rapid decisions are required. On the other hand, some jobs are such where risk taking may prove a major obstacle e.g. the job of an accountant who performs auditing activities. This job should be filled by, someone, with low risk taking trait.

11. ‘Type A’ and ‘Type B’ Personality:

People who are impatient, aggressive and highly competitive are termed as 'Type A' personality. But those who are easy going, laid back and non-competitive are termed as 'Type B' personality. Type 'A' people tend to be very productive as they work very hard. Their negative side is that they are very impatient, good team players, more irritable and have poor judgment. Type 'B' people do better on complex tasks involving judgment and accuracy rather than speed and hard work.

Despite Type 'A's hard work, the Type 'B' people are the ones who appear to make it to the top. Great sales persons are usually Type A's while senior executives are generally Type B's. The reason is that promotions in corporate and professional organisations usually go to those "who are wise rather than to those who are merely hasty, to those who are tactful, rather than to those who are hostile and to those who are creative rather than to those who are merely agile in competitive stride."

12. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI):

The personality theory proposed by Carl Jung identified the way people preferred to perceive their environment. Almost Twenty years later, Briggs and Myers developed the Myers – Briggs type indicator (MBTI) a personality test that measured each of the traits in Carl Jung's model. MBTI is in-fact, one of the most widely used personality tests. It is used by many organisations to select people for a particular position.

It measures how people focus their attention (extrovert or introvert), collect information (sensing or intuition), process the same (thinking or feeling) and finally direct themselves to the other world (judging or perceiving) MBTI then combines the four classifications into 16 personality types.

The alphabet (E) denotes extrovert, (I) stands for introvert, (S) for sensing, (N) for intuition, (T) for thinking, (F) is feeling, (J) judging and (P) perceiving. For example if we say marketing people tend to be ESTJ, this

means that they are extrovert, sensing, thinking and judging types. MBTI as a test of personality type is so popular, that many organisations encourage their employees to reveal their four letter type so that others in the organisation can better understand their personality.

From the above mentioned personality traits, it becomes very clear that understanding of personality is of immense help in the selection of right lands of people for different jobs. Analysis of an individual's personality will reveals his strong and weak points. A person may be unfit for one job but may be fit for another because job requirements may be different, Understanding the personality will also help in designing the training programmes for the personnel in the organisation.

Personality helps the managers in understanding why do workers behave as they do and what incentive schemes are to be designed to motivate the workers. Further, personality has a great influence on work performance, particularly, in a job with high human relations content, where most of the working day is spent interacting with other people.

Personality is the major determinant of the person holding the key job. Each man's personality reveals itself in the way he works with his superior, his subordinates and other people. As a result, when one person on a job changes, everyone has to adjust to a whole series of changes in the way the work is accomplished. All this will affect the individual performance as well as the organisational performance.

F. Application of personality traits and characteristics at work place (Consult Book.....)

Unit Six

Motivation

Meaning of Motivation

The word Motivation derives from the Latin word "Movere". The Latin word "Movere" means "To move", "To drive" or "To drive forward"

Motivation is an inspiration that helps to use the employees' knowledge and skill for the growth and development of the organization. It is an act of persuading the people who work in the organization. It is defined as the psychological process that helps to increase the will to do work. It is the process of inspiring people from which the people can use their ability. It is an important function of management. The employees who are engaged in the organization must be motivated. Without motivation, their ability and skill can't be used properly. Every employee has the capacity to do work. It is the process that helps the employee to explore their talent.

Motivation is such a process which is used to inspire, increase stamina and work ability by mental satisfaction among the employees or workers to their work or job in an organization. In brief, Motivation is something which inspires one to work self-intentionally.

"The concept of motivation is mainly psychological. It relates to those factors or forces operating with the individual employee or subordinate which impel him to act or not to act in certain ways."

–**Delton e. McFarland**

Glueck said about Motivation as "Motivation is the inner state that energizes channels and sustains human behavior."

In **Encyclopedia of Management** "Motivation refers to the degree of readiness of an organism to pursue some designed goal and implies the determination of the nature and locus of forces inducing the degree of readiness."

Joe Kelly defined Motivation as "Motivation is a process whereby needs instigate behavior directed towards the goals that can satisfy those needs."

- "Motivation is an ongoing process" (Goudas, Biddle, & Fox).
- "Motivation is defined as a cognitive process" (Osborn, Irwin, Skogsberg, & Feltz).
- "Motivation is a desire for change" (Hong, Cheng, Hwang, Lee, & Chang).
- "Motivation is a desire to do something" (Kim, & Lee).
- "Motivation is an abstract concept" (Sass).
- "Motivation is dependent upon the individual and the situation" (Strombeck, & Wakefield).
- "Motivation is dependent on the fulfillment of fundamental, innate psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy" (Thijs)
- "Motivation is an action" (Potter, & Ware).
- "Motivation is an inner drive" (Locke & Baum).
- "Motivation is level of effort" (Pew).

- "Motivation is dependent on 3 psychological processes: arousal, direction and intensity" (Curral, L., & Marques-Quinteiro).
- "Motivation is defined by two processes" (Koob, & Le Moal).
- "Motivation is what causes behavior" (Fejes).

Features of Motivation

Motivation can be defined as the driving force behind our actions, fuelled by our desire for something. It is that internal strength that gets us to move, and give 100% to whatever goal or end we desire or plan to achieve. From a manager's point of view motivation is the process to energize, direct and sustain your subordinates' efforts to attain the goals.

1. **Motivation is a Psychological Concept:** Motivation has to come from within each individual. There are two desiring factors in motivation-(a) Fundamental needs, such as food, clothes and shelter and (b) Ego-satisfaction including self-esteem, recognition from others, opportunities for achievements, self-development and self actualization which act as powerful though unconscious, motivator of behaviour. Inner motivation can be more decisive for behaviour than any external influence.
2. **Motivation affects the Whole Individual, not part of Him /Her:** A person's basic needs determine to a great extent what he will try to do at any given time. All these needs are inter-related because each individual is an integrated organised whole.
3. **Motivation is never an Unending Process:** Man is a social animal. As a social animal he has innumerable wants which induce him to work. If one basic need is adequately satisfied for a given individual it loses

power as a motivator and does into determine his current behaviour but at the same time others needs continue to emerge.

Wants are innumerable and cannot be satisfied at one time. It is an unending process so the process of motivation is also unending to induce the person to satisfy his innumerable wants. The importance of motivation is to keep it alive and not to let it dwindle.

4. **Non-fulfillment of Basic Needs Makes a Man Sick:** If anybody fails in trying to meet a need which he feels is essential for him, he becomes to some extent mentally ill and such frustrated man cannot be motivated any further until his essential need is satisfied.
5. **Goals are Motivators:** Goals and motives are inseparable. Man works to achieve the goals. As soon as the goal is achieved he would be no longer interested in work. Therefore, it is very essential for the management to know his goal to push him to work.
6. **The Self-concept as a Unifying Force:** According to Geller-man unifying forces run through each individual's history. Unifying force means the drive to activate his/her image of him-herself. The outline of a person's self image is fairly well checked in early childhood and thereafter does not act ordinarily change. Thus, two things that individual is always trying to do are (a) to act like the person; he thinks he is, and (b) to get what he thinks, he can.
7. **Motivation is a complex phenomenon:** Motivation being an internal feeling cannot be observed directly. Since motives themselves are dynamic, it further adds to complexity.
8. **Motivation is different from Satisfaction, Inspiration, and Manipulation:** Motivation refers to the drive and efforts to satisfy a

want or goal, whereas satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when a want is satisfied. In contrast, inspiration is bringing about a change in the thinking pattern. On the other hand Manipulation is getting the things done from others in a predetermined manner.

Motivation Theories

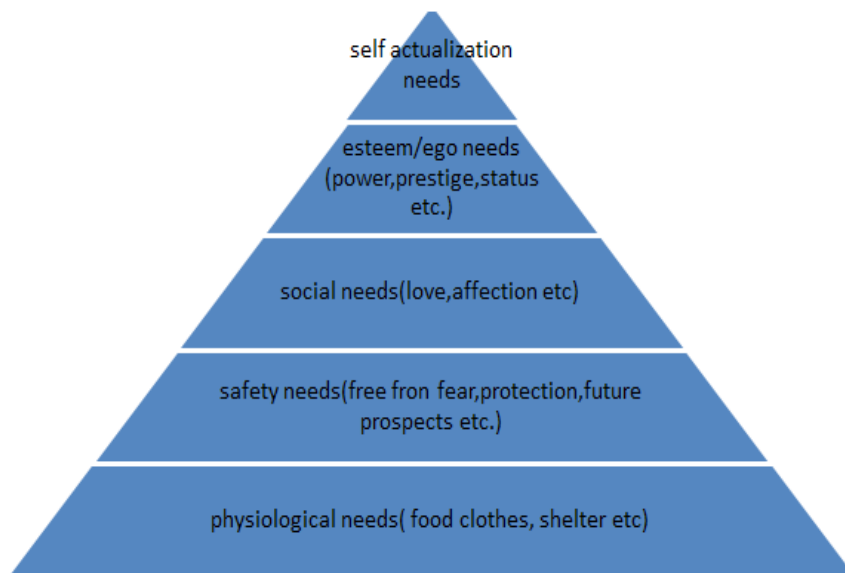
Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

All human behavior is directed towards fulfilling their needs. Abraham Maslow's needs hierarchy theory is based upon the needs of human beings. According to this theory, each and every people have certain needs. In response to that need, s/he is motivated to do work. Human needs have hierarchy. That's why to motivate any people to work. The need of that person should be fulfilled according to hierarchy because as one need of that person is satisfied, another need will be created respectively. The needs have been classified in a hierarchy as follows:

1. **Physiological needs:** These needs are fundamental or basic need of human being such as food, water, clothes, shelter etc. Without these needs human being cannot survive. Therefore, these needs are necessary to operate the human life. In organization, the manager can provide the adequate lighting, comfortable temperatures and ventilation etc to motivate the employees at first. These are the lowest order needs and assume top priority
2. **Safety/ security needs:** An individual wants to be free from the fear of losing job, food, shelter etc which is known as safety or security needs. It is second important need because after fulfilling physiological need

people want the safety and security needs. These needs may be job security, old age provision, pension plans, insurance, security from risk etc

3. **Social needs:** It is the third hierarchy of needs which comes after fulfilling safety or security needs. Man is social in nature. Therefore, human beings always want to live in society or group which loves him/her the most. These needs include love, affection, friendship, social acceptance etc. So a manager can initiate participation of the employees as part of association to motivate the people.
4. **Esteem/ego needs:** After fulfilling the social needs of people, they now want esteem needs by which they can have some special and unique place or status for him/her. They want to be prestigious and respected which is known as esteem or ego need. It is the second last need of Maslow's need hierarchy theory. This need includes self confident, self respect, prestige, power, status, job title etc. So s/he wants to be strong and want to have immense power from which s/he can get self satisfaction. A manager can provide the attractive job position to employees to fulfill esteem or ego needs.
5. **Self-actualization needs:** Maslow said that self actualization is the last and highest need in his hierarchy. After all needs are fulfilled especially including esteem/ego needs they now want or desire to help others. It is maximization of one's potential. This need people want to be satisfied in their desire. It includes challenging jobs, creativity, risk bearing capacity etc.



Motivation Hygiene Theory

The two-factor theory (also known as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and dual-factor theory) states that there are certain factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction.

The Two Factor Theory has had a considerable amount of practical and as well as theoretical influences. In fact, from a practical perspective, the influence of Herzberg's motivation theory can be seen at every organizational level as well as within every department. From a theoretical perspective, Herzberg's motivation theory can be perceived as having similarities to Maslow's Theory of Need with the exception that for Herzberg's theory, the needs aren't placed in a progressive continuum,

rather they are divided into two independent factors. In fact, Herzberg would argue that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction since different stimuli are involved in generating each of those emotional states, reinforcing the fact that they are not on the same continuum. As a result, these states must be measured on different scales.

The Two-Factor Theory includes two types of factors that affect how motivated or satisfied an employee is at work. These are comprised of hygiene factors and motivator factors.

Hygiene Factors

Hygiene factors are those that need to be addressed by a business in such a way that they would not result to the employee's unpleasant experiences and feelings at work. The satisfaction of hygiene factors motivates employees in their work.

Motivator Factors

Motivator factors emerge from the need of an individual to achieve personal growth. Job satisfaction results from the presence of motivator factors. Moreover, effective motivator factors do not only lead to job satisfaction, but also to better performance at work.

The two-factor theory of motivation can be used to analyze any evidence of de-motivated employees at work. Applying Herzberg's model, these evidences may include a low level of productivity, poor quality of production and/or service, poor employee-employer relationships, strikes and industrial disputes concerning pay and/or working condition complaints. Following a thorough assessment on the hygiene factors of the business and the motivator factors concerning employees at work,

Herzberg suggested that the business' management to apply three methods in which work can be rearranged:

- Job Enlargement
- Job Rotation
- Job Enrichment

Hygiene Factors	Motivators Factors
Company Policy and Administration	Achievement
Supervision	Recognition
Interpersonal Relations	Growth Possibilities
Salary	Career Advancement
Status	Level of Responsibility
Job Security	The Job Itself
Personal Life	
Working conditions	

The Two Factor Theory or Herzberg's Theory of Motivation is still to this day, holding to the test of time. However, through its existence there have been many critiques. In 1968, Herzberg indicated that there were 16 other studies from various parts of the world that use different population samples that are supportive of his original findings.

Among the criticism of the theory, the list below is representative of the most cited ones:

- The Two Factor Theory assumes that happy employees produce more.

- What motivates one individual might be a de-motivator for another individual.
- Doesn't account for individual personality traits that could provide a different response to a motivator or hygiene factor.

Pros and Cons of Two Factor Theory

Pros (+^{VE})

- The theory is supported with considerable empirical data and is included in other research that is supportive of the original hypothesis.
- Recognizes the fact that motivation comes from within the individual as opposed to any external factors.
- The Two Factor Theory Provides practical solutions for organizations.

Cons (-^{VE})

- Research methodology is criticized.
- Doesn't consider individual personalities with regards to motivating or hygiene factors.
- Doesn't provide a motivational value for each motivator.

Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X' and 'Theory Y' are theories of human motivation and management created and developed by Douglas McGregor at the MIT Sloan School of Management in the 1960s. These theories describe two contrasting models of workforce motivation in human resource

management, organizational behavior, organizational communication and organizational development. According to the Theory X and Theory Y there are two types of employees that managers may encounter in the workplace. These models are used to prepare tactics and protocols on how to deal with employees to maximize production and profit.

Douglas McGregor proposed two theories about employee motivation based on two very different sets of assumptions that managers hold towards workers. Learn more about the assumptions and validity of McGregor's employee motivation theories and take a quiz to test your knowledge.

What motivates you to do a great job when you go to work? Do you care about the goals of the organization that you work for or do you focus more on getting a regular paycheck to bring home? Douglas McGregor studied these questions and proposed two different views of employee motivation in his 1960 book *The Human Side of Enterprise*. These views are known as Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X

According to this theory, type X individuals are inherently lazy and unhappy with their jobs. They dislike work and attempt to avoid it. Therefore, an authoritarian management style is required to ensure fulfillment of the individuals' objectives. These workers need close supervision with comprehensive systems of control and a hierarchical structure is needed with tight controls at every level. According to this theory, employees will show little ambition without an enticing incentive program, and will avoid responsibility. According to Dr. Kumi Mark, if organizational goals are to be met, 'Theory X' managers must rely heavily on the threat of punishment to gain employee compliance. The 'Theory X'

manager believes that all actions can be traced, and the responsible individual needs a direct reward or a reprimand according to the action's outcomes. This managerial style is more effective when used to motivate a workforce that is not inherently motivated to perform. It is usually exercised in professions where promotion is infrequent, unlikely or even impossible and where workers perform repetitive tasks. One major flaw of this management style is that it limits employee potential and discourages creative thinking.

Theory X is based on a pessimistic view of employee motivation and behavior. Theory X assumes that employees:

- Dislike work
- Are not ambitious
- Want to avoid responsibility
- Dislike change
- Are self-centered

Managers who hold these assumptions believe that employees can only be motivated by money, promotions, and job security. Such managers are likely to use more of a command and control approach with their employees. Employees will cooperate if they feel their basic needs for income and security will be met.

Theory Y

'Theory Y' managers assume employees can be ambitious, self-motivated and exercise self-control. Employees enjoy their mental and physical work duties and for them, work is as natural as play. They possess creative

problem solving abilities, but their talents are underused in most organizations. 'Theory Y' managers believe that given the proper conditions, employees will learn to seek out and accept responsibility, exercise self-control and self-direction in accomplishing their objectives. A 'Theory Y' manager believes that, given the right conditions, most people will want to do well at work. They believe that the satisfaction of doing a good job is a strong motivation. Many people interpret 'Theory Y' as a positive set of beliefs about workers. A close reading of 'The Human Side of Enterprise' reveals that McGregor simply argues for managers to be open to a more positive view of workers and the possibilities that this creates. He thinks that 'Theory Y' managers are more likely than 'Theory X' managers to develop a climate of trust with employees required for employee development. This would include managers communicating openly with subordinates, minimizing the tension in superior-subordinate relationships, creating a comfortable environment in which subordinates can develop and use their abilities. This environment would include sharing of decision-making so that subordinates have a say in decisions that influence them.

Theory Y is based on an optimistic view of employee motivation and behavior. Theory Y assumes that employees:

- Enjoy work that is meaningful
- Are willing to take on responsibility
- Are willing to work for organizational goals or causes they believe in
- Are capable of creativity, ingenuity, and self-direction

Managers who hold these assumptions believe that employees are motivated not just by material needs, but also by higher level needs such as

self-esteem and a sense of fulfillment. Since these are continuous needs throughout life, managers should address these needs when seeking to motivate employees. Giving employees more authority, broadening the scope of their jobs, and allowing them to have a say in decision-making can all motivate employees to work hard for the organization.

Theory Z - William Ouchi

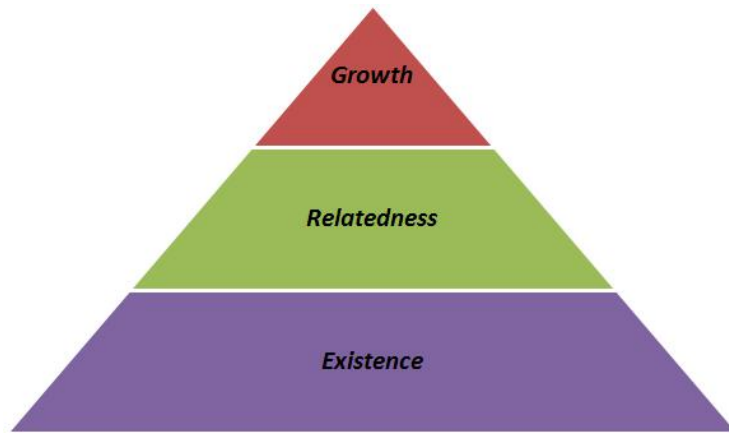
First things first - Theory Z is not a McGregor idea and as such is not McGregor's extension of his XY theory. Theory Z was developed by not by McGregor, but by William Ouchi, in his book 1981 'Theory Z: How American management can meet the Japanese Challenge'. William Ouchi is professor of management at UCLA, Los Angeles, and a board member of several large US organizations.

Theory Z is often referred to as the 'Japanese' management style, which is essentially what it is. It's interesting that Ouchi chose to name his model 'Theory Z', which apart from anything else tends to give the impression that it's a McGregor idea. One wonders if the idea was not considered strong enough to stand alone with a completely new name... Nevertheless, Theory Z essentially advocates a combination of all that's best about theory Y and modern Japanese management, which places a large amount of freedom and trusts with workers, and assumes that workers have a strong loyalty and interest in team-working and the organisation.

Theory Z also places more reliance on the attitude and responsibilities of the workers, whereas McGregor's XY theory is mainly focused on management and motivation from the manager's and organisation's perspective. There is no doubt that Ouchi's Theory Z model offers excellent ideas, albeit it lacking the simple elegance of McGregor's model,

which let's face it, thousands of organisations and managers around the world have still yet to embrace. For this reason, Theory Z may for some be like trying to manage the kitchen at the Ritz before mastering the ability to cook a decent fried breakfast.

ERG Theory of Motivation



To bring Maslow's need hierarchy theory of motivation in synchronization with empirical research, Clayton Alderfer redefined it in his own terms. His rework is called as ERG theory of motivation. He re-categorized Maslow's hierarchy of needs into three simpler and broader classes of needs:

Existence needs- These include need for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual's physiological and physical safety needs.

Relatedness needs- These include the aspiration individual's have for maintaining significant interpersonal relationships (be it with family, peers or superiors), getting public fame and recognition. Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs fall under this class of need.

Growth needs- These include need for self-development and personal growth and advancement. Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs fall under this category of need.

Difference between Maslow Need Hierarchy Theory and Alderfer's ERG Theory

ERG Theory states that at a given point of time, more than one need may be operational. ERG Theory also shows that if the fulfillment of a higher-level need is subdued, there is an increase in desire for satisfying a lower-level need.

According to Maslow, an individual remains at a particular need level until that need is satisfied. While according to ERG theory, if a higher-level need aggravates, an individual may revert to increase the satisfaction of a lower-level need. This is called frustration- regression aspect of ERG theory. For instance- when growth need aggravates, then an individual might be motivated to accomplish the relatedness need and if there are issues in accomplishing relatedness needs, then he might be motivated by the existence needs. Thus, frustration/aggravation can result in regression to a lower-level need.

While Maslow's need hierarchy theory is rigid as it assumes that the needs follow a specific and orderly hierarchy and unless a lower-level need is satisfied, an individual cannot proceed to the higher-level need; ERG Theory of motivation is very flexible as he perceived the needs as a range/variety rather than perceiving them as a hierarchy. According to Alderfer, an individual can work on growth needs even if his existence or relatedness needs remain unsatisfied. Thus, he gives explanation to the issue of "starving artist" who can struggle for growth even if he is hungry.

Implications of the ERG Theory

Managers must understand that an employee has various needs that must be satisfied at the same time. According to the ERG theory, if the manager concentrates solely on one need at a time, this will not effectively motivate the employee. Also, the frustration- regression aspect of ERG Theory has an added effect on workplace motivation. For instance- if an employee is not provided with growth and advancement opportunities in an organization, he might revert to the relatedness need such as socializing needs and to meet those socializing needs, if the environment or circumstances do not permit, he might revert to the need for money to fulfill those socializing needs. The sooner the manager realizes and discovers this, the more immediate steps they will take to fulfill those needs which are frustrated until such time that the employee can again pursue growth.

Achievement Need Theory

In McClelland's 1961 book named as "The Achieving Society", David McClelland identified three basic needs that people develop and acquire from their life experiences.

McClelland suggested other characteristics and attitudes of achievement-motivated people:

- Achievement is more important than material or financial reward.
- Achieving the aim or task gives greater personal satisfaction than receiving praise or recognition.
- Financial reward is regarded as a measurement of success, not an end in itself.

- Security is not prime motivator, nor is status.
- Feedback is essential, because it enables measurement of success, not for reasons of praise or recognition (the implication here is that feedback must be reliable, quantifiable and factual).
- Achievement-motivated people constantly seek improvements and ways of doing things better.
- Achievement-motivated people will logically favor jobs and responsibilities that naturally satisfy their needs, i.e. offer flexibility and opportunity to set and achieve goals, e.g., sales and business management, and entrepreneurial roles.

Needs for achievement

Needs for affiliation

Needs for power

- **Needs for achievement:** The people who have a high need for achievement seek achievement and try to attain challenging goals. There is a strong need for feedback as to achievement and progress, and a need for a sense of accomplishment. The people who have a high achievement need likes to take personal responsibility.

- **Needs for affiliation:** The person who has a high need for affiliation needs harmonious relationships with people and needs to be accepted by other people. (People-oriented rather than task-oriented).
- **Needs for power:** The person who has a need for power wants to direct and command other people. Most managers have a high need for power.

Although these categories of needs are not exclusive, generally individuals develop a dominant bias or emphasis towards one of the three needs. Entrepreneurs usually have high degree of achievement needs.

Vroom Expectancy Motivation Theory

Whereas Maslow and Herzberg look at the relationship between internal needs and the resulting effort expended to fulfill them, Vroom's expectancy theory separates effort (which arises from motivation), performance, and outcomes.

Vroom's expectancy theory assumes that behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain. Vroom realized that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. He stated that effort, performance and motivation are linked in a person's motivation. He uses the variables Expectancy, Instrumentality and Valence to account for this.

Expectancy is the belief that increased effort will lead to increased performance i.e. if I work harder than this will be better. This is affected by such things as:

- Having the right resources available (e.g. raw materials, time)

- Having the right skills to do the job
- Having the necessary support to get the job done (e.g. supervisor support, or correct information on the job)

Instrumentality is the belief that if you perform well that a valued outcome will be received. The degree which a first level outcome will lead to the second level outcomes, i.e. if I do a good job, there is something in it for me. This is affected by such things as:

- Clear understanding of the relationship between performance and outcomes – e.g. the rules of the reward 'game'
- Trust in the people who will take the decisions on who gets what outcome
- Transparency of the process that decides who gets what outcome

Valence is the importance that the individual places upon the expected outcome. For the valence to be positive, the person must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining it. For example, if someone is mainly motivated by money, he or she might not value offers of additional time off.

The three elements are important behind choosing one element over another because they are clearly defined: effort-performance expectancy (E>P expectancy) and performance-outcome expectancy (P>O expectancy).

E>P expectancy: our assessment of the probability that our efforts will lead to the required performance level.

P>O expectancy: our assessment of the probability that our successful performance will lead to certain outcomes.



Crucially, Vroom's expectancy theory works on perceptions – so even if an employer thinks they have provided everything appropriate for motivation, and even if this works with most people in that organization, it doesn't mean that someone won't perceive that it doesn't work for them.

At first glance expectancy theory would seem most applicable to a traditional-attitude work situation where how motivated the employee is depends on whether they want the reward on offer for doing a good job and whether they believe more effort will lead to that reward.

However, it could equally apply to any situation where someone does something because they expect a certain outcome. For example, I recycle paper because I think it's important to conserve resources and take a stand on environmental issues (valence); I think that the more effort I put into recycling the more paper I will recycle (expectancy); and I think that the more paper I recycle then less resources will be used (instrumentality).

Thus, Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation is not about self-interest in rewards but about the associations people make towards expected outcomes and the contribution they feel they can make towards those outcomes.

Application of Motivation Theories

The job of a manager in the workplace is to get things done through employees. To do this the manager should be able to motivate employees. But that's easier said than done! Motivation practice and theory are difficult subjects, touching on several disciplines.

In spite of enormous research, basic as well as applied, the subject of motivation is not clearly understood and more often than not poorly practiced. To understand motivation one must understand human nature itself. And there lies the problem!

Human nature can be very simple, yet very complex too. An understanding and appreciation of this is a prerequisite to effective employee motivation in the workplace and therefore effective management and leadership.

Why study and apply employee motivation principles?

Quite apart from the benefit and moral value of an philanthropic (Unselfish) approach to treating colleagues as human beings and respecting human dignity in all its forms, research and observations show that well motivated employees are more productive and creative. The inverse also holds true. The schematic below indicates the potential contribution the practical application of the principles this paper has on reducing work content in the organization.

Motivation is the key to performance improvement

There is an old saying you can take a horse to the water but you cannot force it to drink; it will drink only if it's thirsty - so with people. They will do what they want to do or otherwise motivated to do. Whether it is to excel on the workshop floor or in the 'ivory tower' they must be motivated or driven to it, either by themselves or through external stimulus.

Are they born with the self-motivation or drive? Yes and no. If no, they can be motivated, for motivation is a skill which can and must be learnt. This is essential for any business to survive and succeed.

Performance is considered to be a function of ability and motivation, thus:

- Job performance = f (ability, motivation)

Ability in turn depends on education, experience and training and its improvement is a slow and long process. On the other hand motivation can be improved quickly. There are many options and an uninitiated manager may not even know where to start. As a guideline, there are broadly seven strategies for motivation.

- Positive reinforcement / high expectations
- Effective discipline and punishment
- Treating people fairly
- Satisfying employees needs
- Setting work related goals
- Restructuring jobs
- Base rewards on job performance

These are the basic strategies, though the mix in the final 'recipe' will vary from workplace situation to situation. Essentially, there is a gap between an individual's actual state and some desired state and the manager tries to reduce this gap.

Motivation is, in effect, a means to reduce and manipulate this gap. It is inducing others in a specific way towards goals specifically stated by the motivator. Naturally, these goals as also the motivation system must conform to the corporate policy of the organization. The motivational system must be tailored to the situation and to the organization.

Motivation for Performance

Motivation is the combination of a person's desire and energy directed at achieving a goal. It is the cause of action. Influencing people's motivation means getting them to want to do what you know must be done.

Motivation can be intrinsic, such as satisfaction and feelings of achievement; or extrinsic, such as rewards, punishment, and goal obtainment. Not all people are motivated by the same thing and over time their motivations might change.

Since the industrial revolution and the theories of Fredrick Taylor, employers have tried countless ways to improve employee performance and drive motivation and moral. Company environments differ significantly. The nature of knowledge work has rendered much of Taylorism inadequate. Some organizations are driving employees through fierce competition while others strive to ensure a friendly, team-based atmosphere. No one can claim with total assurance that they've found a method for driving performance that works consistently.

Motivating your employees is a delicate and purposeful challenge that requires more than an annual review or drawing a few notes in someone's personnel file. Just like getting in shape or learning a new language, bolstering the motivation and performance levels of your employees won't happen overnight. Here are six ways you can improve performance and motivation in your workplace.

- 1. Make Expectations Clear:** Employees without goals will be naturally aimless. Provide them with clear achievable goals and make sure there are measurable standards in place to evaluate their performance. Victor Vroom's work on expectancy theory supports the concept that employees must know what action they are expected to take and that it will yield the desired performance. Your employees should understand what they are expected to do, how they are expected to do it, and how they will be judged on it.
- 2. Provide Continuous Feedback:** Immediate, continuous feedback lets an employee know that their actions affect the company. It's hard for you, and the employee, to remember specific incidents when employee performance review time rolls around. Goal-setting theory predicts (quite obviously) that employees are motivated by setting goals and by receiving continuous feedback on where they stand relative to those goals. More recent research shows just how motivating it can be when employees know they are making progress.

Always be specific in your feedback. For example, instead of telling an employee he, "did a great job," compliments him on the way he organized his presentation, the citations he used, or his public speaking style. He'll be more likely to apply these strengths to his next project if you point them out specifically.

- 3. Correct Privately:** Most people are not motivated by negative feedback, especially if they feel it's embarrassing. The only acceptable place to discuss an ongoing, performance-related issue or correcting a recent, specific error is in the employee's office or your own, with the door closed.

Don't think of correcting an employee's performance or behavior as punitive. Instead, consider it a learning opportunity for the employee. Keep an open mind, remember Deming's 85/15 rule, which suggests that a majority of performance problems are actually outside of an employee's control. If it is something the employee can change, it's up to you to present the issue in such a way that he feels he can correct the mistake.

- 4. Believe in Your Employees:** Whether you tell him so during an employee performance review, or in the break room, an employee whose boss constantly calls him worthless, or a screw-up will feel a lot of emotions. He will not, however, feel particularly motivated to improve his performance.

Present weakness or errors in the context of, "I know you can do better. You're smart and capable...and that's why I expect more from you." The perception of leaders' trust is a key component of transformational leadership.

Encourage your leadership team to take this same approach when you're trying to motivate your employees for a major event, "This is the most talented, hardest working group I've ever had, and that's why I know you can win this sales competition."

- 5. Praise Publicly:** Feeling under-appreciated encourages complacency – there’s a reason so many companies celebrate an Employee of the Month. People love praise; they thrive on it. Some research even suggested we’re willing to sacrifice incentive bonuses for public recognition. Make it a standard practice in your office to recognize positive people and trends within the business.

Announce publicly when one of your employees made a particularly outstanding presentation, sale, or other notable achievement. Tie an incentive to accolades, such as a bonus or a gift certificate. Praising your employees in front of others helps motivate their continued stellar performance.

- 6. Make Rewards Achievable:** Everyone is familiar with the annual bonus trip awarded to the top-performing employee. The problem is, such rewards usually go to one or two employees. This leaves the rest of your staff feeling like there’s not much point in working hard because the same few people always reap the rewards. Remember the other end of Vroom’s expectancy equation, which offers that individuals must also see the desired performance and linked reward as possible.

Set up a series of smaller rewards throughout the year to motivate ongoing performance excellence. For example, instead of an annual trip, award several three-day getaways for each quarter. Vary the basis for the awards. Top sales might be one category, but so can top research or most diligent. Recognize that several types of excellence motivate your employees to focus on additional areas of their performance.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined as an employee's attitude towards the job. It is not same as motivation; rather it is concerned with the attitude and internal state of an individual regarding a particular job. It could, be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, and hence, shaped or determined by pay, supervisory style, and age factors. If the existing job fails to provide psychological or physiological need of an individual, satisfaction from the job might be low.

Job satisfaction refers to how well a job provides fulfillment of a need or want, or how well it serves as a source or means of enjoyment

Job satisfaction is the degree to which individuals feel positively or negatively about their jobs.

E. A. Locke quoted as “Job Satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state from the appraisal of one's job or experience.”

Keith Davis stated as “Job satisfaction is a set of the favorable or unfavorable feelings with which employees view their work.”

Vroom said about job satisfaction as “Job satisfaction is generally considered to be an individual’s perceptual or emotional reaction to important parts of work.”

Benefits of Job Satisfaction

Research has concluded that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and performance of the employees. Thus, job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction is an important concern of the management. High job satisfaction may lead to improved productivity, decreased turnover, and improved attendance, reduced accidents, less job stress and less unionization. Job dissatisfaction produces low morale among workers and

low morale at work is highly undesirable. In examining the outcomes of job satisfaction, it is important to break down the analysis into a series of specific subtopics. The following subtopics explain the outcomes of job satisfaction:

1. Job Satisfaction and Productivity: Is there any positive relationship between satisfaction and productivity? This controversy has been there over a number of years. Although, majority of people believe that there is a positive relationship, but research evidence concludes that there is not strong relationship between these two. According to the research findings of VROOM conducted in 1964, the medium correlation between satisfaction and performance is only LAWLER and PORTER found that there is more evidence to suggest that job performance leads to job satisfaction and not the other way round. An employee who is a poor performer will get fewer rewards and will be less satisfied with his job experience.

However, the sayings that “A happy worker is a productive worker” are not always wrong. If people receive rewards which have both intrinsic and extrinsic value and they feel that their rewards are equitable, they will be satisfied and this will lead to greater job performance.

Moreover, research also includes that job satisfaction may not necessarily lead to improvement of individual performance but it does lead to departmental and organizational level improvement.

2. Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover: Unlike the relationship between satisfaction and performance, research has concluded a moderate relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. High employee turnover is a matter of concern for the management as it disrupts the normal operations and continuous replacement of

employees who leave the organization is costly and technically undesirable. Managerial concern is mostly for the turnover which arises because of job dissatisfaction. The employees, thus, try to keep the employees satisfied on their jobs to minimize the turnover. Though, high job satisfaction in itself cannot keep the turnover low but considerable job dissatisfaction will definitely increase the employee turnover.

The employee turnover is affected by certain other factors also, in addition to job satisfaction. Commitment to the organization is one such factor. Some employees, however dissatisfied they are with their jobs, they cannot imagine themselves working anywhere else. Another important factor is the better opportunities of employment. Even if the people are highly satisfied with their jobs, they are willing to leave if there are better opportunities available anywhere else. If no other opportunities are available, the employees will stay where they are, irrespective of dissatisfaction.

On the overall basis, we can say that there is an important role played by job satisfaction in employee turnover.

3. Job Satisfaction and Absenteeism: It has been conclusively proved that there is an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. When satisfaction is high, absenteeism is low and when satisfaction is low, absenteeism is high. Less satisfied employees are more likely to be absent from work due to avoidable reasons. This is known as voluntary absenteeism as against unavoidable absenteeism which is due to illness or other emergency reasons. Management must be concerned with voluntary absenteeism, because it is related to job satisfaction. Absenteeism can be modified by certain factors. Research

has found that people who believe that their work is important have lower absenteeism as compared to those who do not feel that way. Moreover, it is important to remember that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism (because of unavoidable absenteeism), but low job satisfaction will definitely bring about high absenteeism.

4. **Job Satisfaction and Union Activities:** It has been proved that satisfied employees are generally not interested in unions and they do not perceive them as necessary. Job satisfaction has proved to be the major cause of unionization. The employees join the unions because they feel that individually they are unable to influence changes which would eliminate the causes of job dissatisfaction. The level of union activities is related to the level of job dissatisfaction. Low level of dissatisfaction results in only grievances while higher levels of dissatisfaction will result in employee strikes.
5. **Job Satisfaction and Safety:** When people are dissatisfied with their jobs, company and supervisors, they are more prone to experience accidents. An underlying reason for this is that dissatisfaction takes one's attention away from the task at hand and leads directly to accidents. A satisfied worker will always be careful and attentive towards his job, and the chances of accidents will be less. Here, we are discussing about the avoidable accidents and not the unavoidable ones.
6. **Other effects of Job Satisfaction:** In addition, there are a number of other effects brought about by high job satisfaction. Highly satisfied employees tend to have better physical and mental health, learn the new job related tasks easily, and have less job stress and unrest. Such employees will become more co-operative such as helping coworkers,

helping customers etc. Such behavior will improve unit performance and organizational effectiveness.

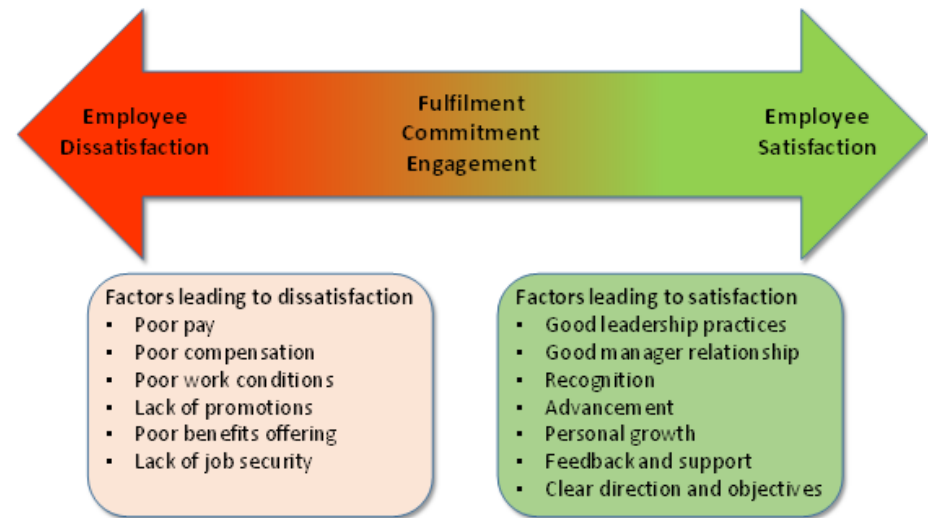
To conclude, we can say that job satisfaction results from the employee's perception that the job content and context actually provide what an employee values in the work situation. Organizationally speaking, high level of job satisfaction reflects a highly favorable organizational climate resulting in attracting and retaining better workers.

Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is influenced or affected by various factors which are as follows:

1. **Employee's Expectation about Job:** The expectation of reward from the job greatly influences job satisfaction. After performing the task what the individual is supposed to achieve determines the level of job satisfaction. The expected reward can be in term of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards.
2. **Reward and Punishment:** This factor is closely related with expectation of intrinsic and extrinsic reward. Under it, a better performer gets reward, whereas the worst performer gets punishment. Due to expectation of reward and fear of punishment, employees are motivated at work thereby leading to job satisfaction.
3. **Working Condition:** Working conditions include work load, necessary equipments, job complexities, work opportunities, health and safety, etc. These forces are directly related to the job satisfaction. Better working condition results higher job satisfaction and vice versa.

4. **Communication:** A properly and effectively designed communication network provides ample opportunity for providing/ transmitting various information relating to the job and its environment. Hence, it reduces potential frustration thereby increasing job satisfaction.
5. **Personal Ability:** Job satisfaction directly concerned with employee's ability, interest, attitude, skills, knowledge etc. Hence, highly capable person can perform the job effectively and efficiently which leads for greater job satisfaction.
6. **Work Groups:** Work group or work team is a collection of two or more individuals in order to achieve a common purpose. The nature of such work group affects the level of job satisfaction. If the individuals are closely interconnected with each other and directed toward a common end, the team performance will be enhanced. As a result, greater job satisfaction takes place.
7. **Supervision:** The frequency, nature and style of supervision also affect job satisfaction. When the supervision establishes supportive relationship with the team members, this will result in greater job satisfaction among the members/subordinates.



Unit VIII

Leadership

Meaning of Leadership

Leadership is a process by which an executive can direct, guide and influence the behavior and work of others towards accomplishment of specific goals in a given situation. Leadership is the ability of a manager to induce the subordinates to work with confidence and zeal.

Leadership is defined as personal quality of an individual that influence the behavior of followers. It is an important function of management. Leadership is an act of influencing people so that the followers follow the path of leader. The successful leader must lead to stimulate and inspire the followers to achieve organizational goals. In an organization the manager is a leader and other subordinates are followers. A manager cannot manage effectively unless he can lead his subordinates effectively. Hence a leader may or may not be a manager but a successful manager must be a leader.

Leadership is the potential to influence behaviour of others. It is also defined as the capacity to influence a group towards the realization of a goal. Leaders are required to develop future visions, and to motivate the organizational members to want to achieve the visions.

Leadership is about having a selfless heart and always being willing to reach out and lend a helping hand."

– Bob Reina

Leadership is having a vision, sharing that vision and inspiring others to support your vision while creating their own."

– Mindy Gibbins-Klein

“Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it towards goals.”

–Keith Davis

Wikipedia says that leadership is: “A process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task.”

“The process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective”.

- Akhil Shahani

Features of Leadership

Many leaders are competent, but few qualify as remarkable. If you want to join the ranks of the best of the best, make sure you embody all these qualities all the time. It isn't easy, but the rewards can be truly phenomenal.

1. **Awareness:** There is a difference between management and employees, bosses and workers. Leaders understand the nature of this difference and accept it; it informs their image, their actions, and their communication. They conduct themselves in a way that sets them apart from their employees--not in a manner that suggests they are better than others, but in a way that permits them to retain an objective perspective on everything that's going on in their organization.
2. **Decisiveness:** All leaders must make tough decisions. It goes with the job. They understand that in certain situations, difficult and timely decisions must be made in the best interests of the entire

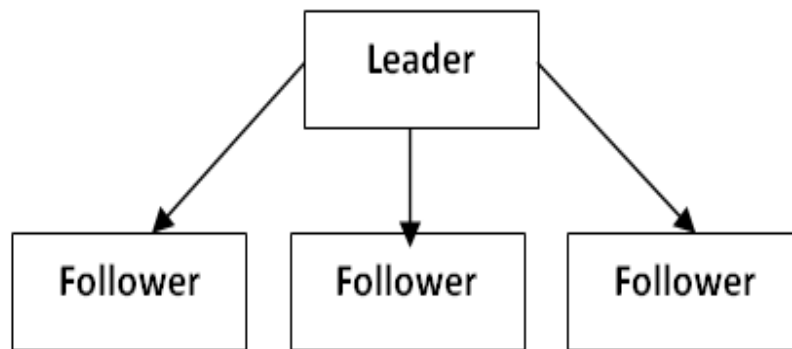
organization, decisions that require a firmness, authority, and finality that will not please everyone. Extraordinary leaders don't hesitate in such situations. They also know when not to act unilaterally but instead foster collaborative decision making.

3. **Empathy:** Extraordinary leaders praise in public and address problems in private, with a genuine concern. The best leaders guide employees through challenges, always on the lookout for solutions to foster the long-term success of the organization. Rather than making things personal when they encounter problems, or assigning blame to individuals, leaders look for constructive solutions and focus on moving forward.
4. **Accountability:** Extraordinary leaders take responsibility for everyone's performance, including their own. They follow up on all outstanding issues, check in on employees, and monitor the effectiveness of company policies and procedures. When things are going well, they praise. When problems arise, they identify them quickly, seek solutions, and get things back on track.
5. **Confidence:** Not only are the best leaders confident, but their confidence is contagious. Employees are naturally drawn to them, seek their advice, and feel more confident as a result. When challenged, they don't give in too easily, because they know their ideas, opinions, and strategies are well-informed and the result of much hard work. But when proven wrong, they take responsibility and quickly act to improve the situations within their authority.
6. **Optimism:** The very best leaders are a source of positive energy. They communicate easily. They are intrinsically helpful and genuinely concerned for other people's welfare. They always seem to have a solution, and always know what to say to inspire and reassure. They avoid personal criticism and pessimistic thinking, and look for ways to gain consensus and get people to work together efficiently and effectively as a team.
7. **Honesty:** Strong leaders treat people the way they want to be treated. They are extremely ethical and believe that honesty, effort, and reliability form the foundation of success. They embody these values so overtly that no employee doubts their integrity for a minute. They share information openly, and avoid spin control.
8. **Focus:** Extraordinary leaders plan ahead and they are supremely organized. They think through multiple scenarios and the possible impacts of their decisions, while considering viable alternatives and making plans and strategies--all targeted toward success. Once prepared, they establish strategies, processes, and routines so that high performance is tangible, easily defined, and monitored. They communicate their plans to key players and have contingency plans in the event that last-minute changes require a new direction (which they often do).
9. **Inspiration:** Put it all together, and what emerges is a picture of the truly inspiring leader: someone who communicates clearly, concisely, and often, and by doing so motivates everyone to give his or her best all the time. They challenge their people by setting high but attainable standards and expectations, and then giving them the support, tools, training, and latitude to pursue those goals and become the best employees they can possibly be.

Leadership style

Autocratic leadership style: when the authority and decision making power are concentrated to the leader is known as autocratic leadership style. There is no participation by subordinates. The leader takes full authority and assumes full responsibility. Planning, policies and other working procedures are predetermined by the leader alone. Convey the information about what to do and how to do. He never takes any advice and suggestions of other people. They structure the entire work situation in their own

way and expect the workers to follow their orders and tolerate no deviation from their order. They are just like tyrant rulers. The leader who believes and exercised the autocratic leadership style is known as autocratic leader.



Features:-

1. He/she makes his own decisions and he/she doesn't take any advice of others because he/she thinks he/she is only superior.
2. His/her position gives him/her personal authority and right to lead the members in any way he/she desires.
3. Reward and punishment is exercised by him/her very strictly. Autocratic leadership style believes on negative motivational tools.
4. An autocrat leader does not give full information to the members. There is only one way communication in order to maintain the position.
5. An autocratic leader describes each job in detail and imposes rigid work standard on his employees. It means the subordinates are compelled to certain work assigned for him.

Advantages:-

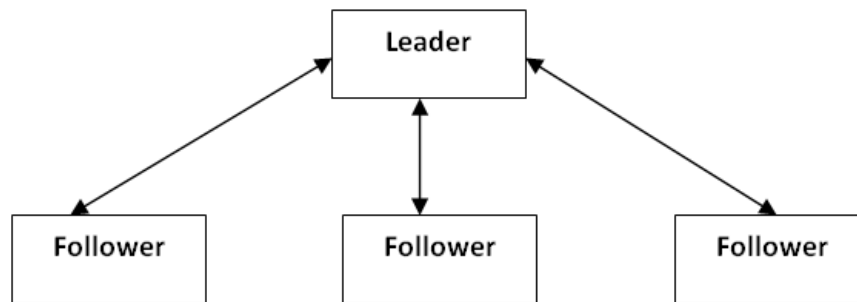
1. It is useful in emergency or in war,
2. When the workers are undisciplined and uneducated it gives the best results.
3. When the laborers are not organized, it is more effective.
4. There is no need of trained labor. It may be used for untrained workers.
5. It is a prompt process of decision making as the single person decides for the whole group.

Disadvantages:-

1. Subordinates are not involved in the process of decision making in autocratic leadership style
2. It doesn't emphasize on correct evaluation of employee's performance
3. The moral of employees is so low.
4. There is no chance of management development.
5. There is no chance of two-way communication.
6. Creative ideas and thinking cannot be used in autocratic leadership style.

7. The employees perform the work with negative motivation.

Democratic leadership style: When the authority and decision making power are decentralized to the subordinates is known as democratic leadership style. There is participation by subordinates. The leader delegates authority and provides responsibility even to the followers. Planning, policies and other working procedures are determined by the leader along with suggestions of the followers. He conveys the information about what to do and how to do just as a consultant. He takes advice and suggestions of other people. They structure the entire work situation in democratic way. They are just like democratic rulers. The leader who believes and exercised the democratic leadership style is known as democratic leader.



Features:-

1. A democratic leader delegates the responsibility as per the capability of the employee
2. There is participation of all subordinates in decision making
3. Human values are also given preference. The leader gives concerns for the followers
4. Democratic leader imposes flexible work standard, designs goals with freedom for the performance of work.
5. A democratic leader emphasizes in results than on action

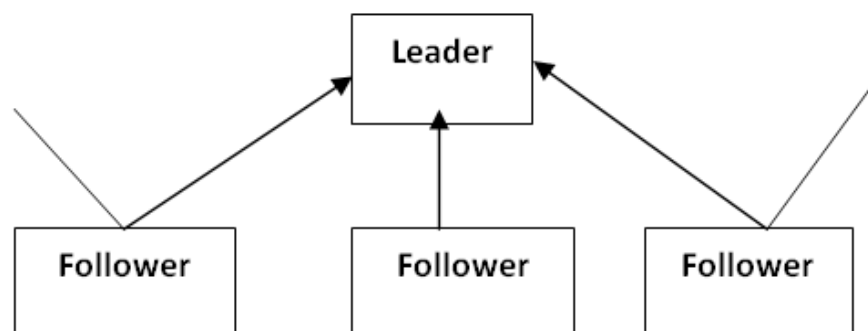
Advantages: -

1. Good cooperation among employees is made in democratic leadership style.
2. Employees are highly satisfied and their morale is increased
3. Human efforts are highly recognized
4. It helps in increasing in productivity.
5. Policies, planning and other working procedures become better because different kinds of logic ideas and creativity are mixed.
6. Subordinates have grown considerable freedom of action that helps to increase the personal growth and gets opportunity to utilize their capabilities

Disadvantages: -

1. It takes long time in decision making.
2. It is not suitable for untrained subordinates'
3. A leader may to be responsible in his style
4. It is not suitable when the followers are undisciplined and untrained

Free rein leadership style: when all the authority and responsibility are delegated to the subordinates is known as Free rein leadership style. The leader who believes on this style is known as free rein leader. The free rein leader doesn't use the power and leaves the power to the subordinates. He/she doesn't provide any contribution to make planning and policies. This type of leadership style is very useful when group members are intelligent and fully aware of their roles and responsibilities.



Features

1. Subordinates have complete freedom in decision making
2. The subordinates are self-directed, self-motivated and self-controlled
3. The role of free rein leader is to provide facilities, materials and information to the employees.
4. The leader doesn't interfere in making planning and policies

Advantages: –

1. The employees are satisfied in their job because they are free in decision making
2. The morale of employees is developed.
3. The employees are highly developed because there is maximum possibility for the development of workers.
4. The creativity and potentiality of subordinate are fully utilized.

Disadvantages:-

1. Leader contribution is ignored.
2. Sometime the subordinates are not self-directed.
3. Subordinates should not get the guidelines of the leader.

Effective leadership

An effective leader contains two components - the traits of a leader and the skills of efficiency. This is to say that there is a notable difference between a leader and an effective leader. To be a leader requires a strong personality and the ability to read people. An effective leader, however, combines these qualities along with smart business practices as well as intelligent crafting of infrastructure.

It has identified six key leadership effectiveness factors (LEFs) which are built into job expectations, performance expectations and our daily interactions with one another. The six leadership effectiveness factors are:

Establish Trust and Demonstrate Integrity

- Display authenticity and honesty in behavior
- Take a courageous and respectful stand on matters of principle
- Do what you say you will do
- Speak from evidence and experience rather than only opinion
- Safeguard sensitive information

Set Clear Direction

- Ensure clarity, simplicity and consistency in setting goals, initiatives, and strategies
- Enable individuals to see how their efforts directly relate to Kemps objectives
- Deploy the right people to the best opportunities
- Eliminate low payoff efforts
- Provide consistent, clear and compelling oral and written communication
- Involve and engage others appropriately and effectively in setting direction

Grow Relationships

- Actively listen and inquire for understanding of the issue and person
- Consistently demonstrate genuine respect and value for others
- See people as individuals rather than resources
- Take the initiative to clarify misunderstandings and repair damaged relationships
- Demonstrate value for constructive dissent and differing points of view
- Seek opportunities to build cross-functional relationships and networks
- Encourage open communication and inclusion in decisions/planning

Focus on Results

- Track progress toward objectives and hold others accountable for their results
- Exhibit great perseverance in removing or overcoming obstacles
- Effectively employ available resources to ensure success
- Use a systematic process to learn from and share success and failure
- Recognize achievements on a regular basis and celebrate successes
- Balance short-term and long term goals and align them with Kemps goals

Cultivate Capabilities

- Consistently and accurately assess the performance of others/self
- Provide/seek constructive feedback through coaching and mentoring
- Seek and provide assignments and experiences for career development
- Self-assess and develop personal capabilities to meet job challenges
- Identify, reposition, hire, orient and engage high performing employees
- Identify underperforming employees and work to improve or remove them

Promote Innovation

- Seek, encourage, reward and take action on new ideas and approaches
- Benchmark current practices against better methods
- Pursue the implications of changes that would affect the organization
- Welcome divergent perspectives and diverse views
- Seek out new ideas and better information

Leadership Theories

Just as management knowledge is supported by various theories, the leadership function of management too is authenticated by various theories. While the behavioural theories of leadership focused on discovering the constant relationship between leadership behaviours and the group performance, the contemporary theories emphasized the significance of situational factors (such as stress level, job structure, leader's intelligence, followers' traits, etc.) as well.

1. Trait Theory of Leadership

The trait model of leadership is based on the characteristics of many leaders - both successful and unsuccessful - and is used to predict leadership effectiveness. The resulting lists of traits are then compared to those of potential leaders to assess their likelihood of success or failure.

Scholars taking the trait approach attempted to identify physiological (appearance, height, and weight), demographic (age, education and socioeconomic background), personality, self-confidence, and aggressiveness), intellective (intelligence, decisiveness, judgment, and knowledge), task-related (achievement drive, initiative, and persistence), and social characteristics (sociability and cooperativeness) with leader emergence and leader effectiveness.

Successful leaders definitely have interests, abilities, and personality traits that are different from those of the less effective leaders. Through many researchers conducted in the last three decades of the 20th century, a set of core traits of successful leaders have been identified. These traits are not responsible solely to identify whether a person will be a successful leader or not, but they are essentially seen as preconditions that endow people with leadership potential.

Among the core traits identified are:

- **Achievement drive:** High level of effort, high levels of ambition, energy and initiative
- **Leadership motivation:** an intense desire to lead others to reach shared goals
- **Honesty and integrity:** trustworthy, reliable, and open
- **Self-confidence:** Belief in one's self, ideas, and ability
- **Cognitive ability:** Capable of exercising good judgment, strong analytical abilities, and conceptually skilled
- **Knowledge of business:** Knowledge of industry and other technical matters
- **Emotional Maturity:** well adjusted, does not suffer from severe psychological disorders.
- Others: charisma, creativity and flexibility

Strengths/Advantages of Trait Theory

- It is naturally pleasing theory.
- It is valid as lot of research has validated the foundation and basis of the theory.
- It serves as a yardstick against which the leadership traits of an individual can be assessed.
- It gives a detailed knowledge and understanding of the leader element in the leadership process.

Limitations of the Trait Theory

- There is bound to be some subjective judgment in determining who is regarded as a 'good' or 'successful' leader

- The list of possible traits tends to be very long. More than 100 different traits of successful leaders in various leadership positions have been identified. These descriptions are simply generalities.
- There is also a disagreement over which traits are the most important for an effective leader
- The model attempts to relate physical traits such as, height and weight, to effective leadership. Most of these factors relate to situational factors. For example, a minimum weight and height might be necessary to perform the tasks efficiently in a military leadership position. In business organizations, these are not the requirements to be an effective leader.
- The theory is very complex

Implications of Trait Theory

The trait theory gives constructive information about leadership. It can be applied by people at all levels in all types of organizations. Managers can utilize the information from the theory to evaluate their position in the organization and to assess how their position can be made stronger in the organization. They can get an in-depth understanding of their identity and the way they will affect others in the organization. This theory makes the manager aware of their strengths and weaknesses and thus they get an understanding of how they can develop their leadership qualities.

Conclusion

The traits approach gives rise to questions: whether leaders are born or made; and whether leadership is an art or science. However, these are not mutually exclusive alternatives. Leadership may be something of an art; it still requires the application of special skills and techniques. Even if there are certain inborn qualities that make one a good leader, these natural talents need encouragement and development. A person is not born with self-confidence. Self-confidence is developed, honesty and integrity are a matter of personal choice, motivation to lead comes from within the individual, and the knowledge of business can be acquired. While cognitive ability has its origin partly in genes, it still needs to be developed. None of these ingredients are acquired overnight.

2. Behavioural Theories (1940's - 1950's)

In reaction to the trait leadership theory, the behavioural theories are offering a new perspective, one that focuses on the behaviours of the leaders as opposed to their mental, physical or social characteristics. Thus, with the evolutions in psychometrics, notably the factor analysis, researchers were able to measure the cause and effects relationship of specific human behaviours from leaders. From this point forward anyone with the right conditioning could have access to the once before elite club of naturally gifted leaders. In other words, leaders are made not born.

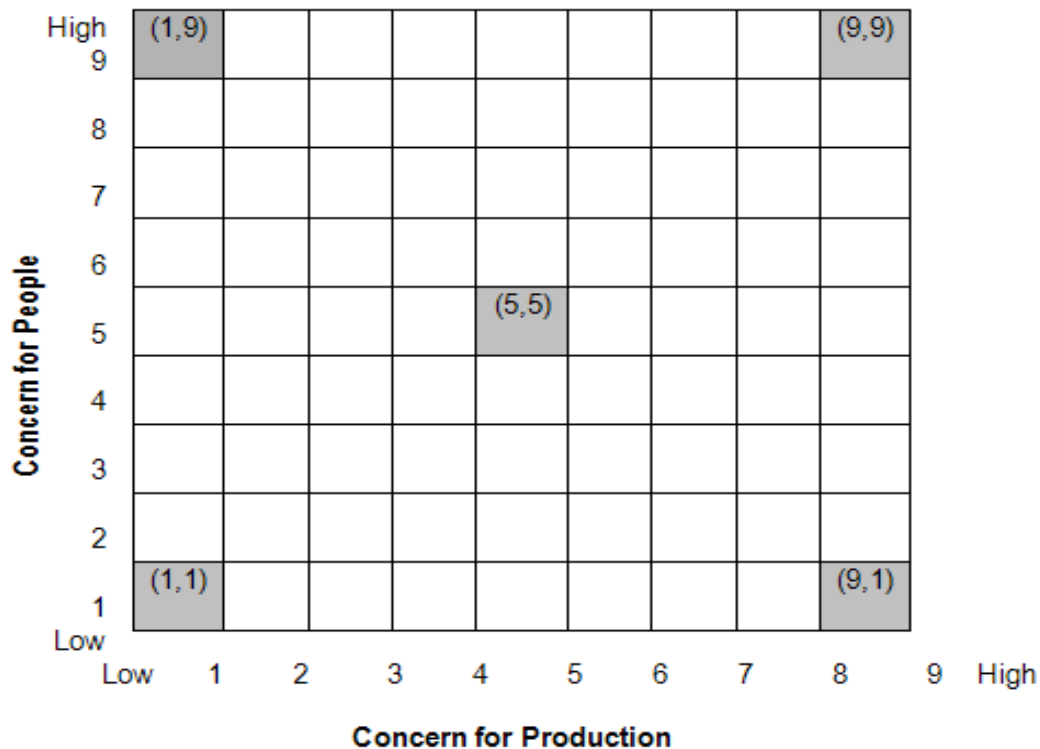
The behavioural theories first divided leaders in two categories. Those that were concerned with the tasks and those concerned with the people. Throughout the literature these are referred to as different names, but the essence are identical.

a) Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The treatment of task orientation and people orientation as two independent dimensions was a major step in leadership studies. Many of the leadership studies conducted in the 1950s at the University of Michigan and the Ohio State University focused on these two dimensions.

Building on the work of the researchers at these Universities, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1960s) proposed a graphic portrayal of leadership styles through a managerial grid (sometimes called leadership grid). The grid depicted two dimensions of leader behavior, concern for people (accommodating people's needs and giving them priority) on y-axis and concern for production (keeping tight schedules) on x-axis, with each dimension ranging from low (1) to high (9), thus creating 81 different positions in which the leader's style may fall.

Figure 1: Managerial Grid



The five resulting leadership styles are as follows:

Impoverished Management (1, 1): Managers with this approach are low on both the dimensions and exercise minimum effort to get the work done from subordinates. The leader has low concern for employee satisfaction and work deadlines and as a result disharmony and disorganization prevail within the organization. The leaders are termed ineffective wherein their action is merely aimed at preserving job and seniority.

Task management (9, 1): Also called dictatorial or perish style. Here leaders are more concerned about production and have less concern for people. The style is based on theory X of McGregor. The employees' needs are not taken care of and they are simply a means to an end. The leader believes that efficiency can result only through proper organization of work systems and through elimination of people wherever possible. Such a style can definitely increase the output of organization in short run but due to the strict policies and procedures, high labour turnover is inevitable.

Middle-of-the-Road (5, 5): This is basically a compromising style wherein the leader tries to maintain a balance between goals of company and the needs of people. The leader does not push the boundaries of achievement resulting in average performance for organization. Here neither employee nor production needs are fully met.

Country Club (1, 9): This is a collegial style characterized by low task and high people orientation where the leader gives thoughtful attention to the needs of people thus providing them with a friendly and comfortable environment. The leader feels that such a treatment with employees will lead to self-motivation and will find people working hard on their own. However, a low focus on tasks can hamper production and lead to questionable results.

Team Management (9, 9): Characterized by high people and task focus, the style is based on the theory Y of McGregor and has been termed as most effective style according to Blake and Mouton. The leader feels that empowerment, commitment, trust, and respect are the key elements in creating a team atmosphere which will automatically result in high employee satisfaction and production.

Advantages of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The Managerial or Leadership Grid is used to help managers analyze their own leadership styles through a technique known as grid training. This is done by administering a questionnaire that helps managers

identify how they stand with respect to their concern for production and people. The training is aimed at basically helping leaders reach to the ideal state of 9, 9.

Limitations of Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid

The model ignores the importance of internal and external limits, matter and scenario. Also, there are some more aspects of leadership that can be covered but are not.

Behavioral elements Grid theory breaks behavior down into seven key elements:

Element	Description
Initiative	Taking action, driving and supporting
Inquiry	Questioning, researching and verifying understanding
Advocacy	Expressing convictions and championing ideas
Decision making	Evaluating resources, choices and consequences
Conflict resolution	Confronting and resolving disagreements
Resilience	Dealing with problems, setbacks and failures
Critique	Delivering objective, candid feedback

b) Hersey Blanchard Model

According to this model, the leader has to match the leadership style according to the readiness of subordinates which moves in stage and has a cycle. Therefore, this theory is also known as the life-cycle theory of leadership.

The theory, developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, is based on the 'readiness' level of the people the leader is attempting to influence. Readiness is the extent to which followers have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. Ability is the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual possesses to do the job and is called job readiness. Willingness is the motivation and commitment required to accomplish a given task. The style of leadership depends on the level of readiness of the followers.

The readiness(R) is divided into a range of four levels which are:

- **R1 - low follower readiness** - refers to low ability and low willingness of followers i.e. those who are unable and insecure
- **R2 - low to moderate follower readiness** - refers to low ability and high willingness of followers i.e. those who are unable but confident
- **R3 - moderate to high follower readiness** - refers to high ability and low willingness of followers i.e. those who are able but insecure
- **R4 - high follower readiness** - refers to high ability and high willingness of followers i.e. those who are both able and confident

The direction is provided by the leader at the lower levels of readiness. Therefore, the decisions are leader directed. On the other hand, the direction is provided by the followers at the higher levels of readiness. Therefore, the decisions in this case are follower directed. When the followers move from low levels to high levels of readiness, the combinations of task and relationship behaviors appropriate to the situation begin to change.

For each of the four levels of readiness, the leadership style used may be a combination of task and relationship behavior.

Task behavior: Extent to which the leader spells out the duties and responsibilities of a follower which includes providing them direction, setting goals, and defining roles for them. Usually a one-way communication exists which is meant to provide the direction to the followers.

Relationship behavior: Extent to which the leader listens to the followers, and provides encouragement to them. Here, a two-way communication exists between the leader and the follower.

By combining the task and the relationship behavior, we arrive at the following four different styles of leadership which correspond with the different levels of readiness as shown in the Figure 1.

- **S1 - Telling:** This style is most appropriate for low follower readiness (R1). It emphasizes high task behavior and limited relationship behavior.
- **S2 - Selling:** This style is most appropriate for low to moderate follower readiness (R2). It emphasizes high amounts of both task and relationship behavior.
- **S3 - Participating:** This style is most appropriate for moderate to high follower readiness (R3). It emphasizes high amount of relationship behavior but low amount of task behavior.
- **S4 - Delegating:** This style is most appropriate for high follower readiness (R4). It emphasizes low levels of both task and relationship behavior.

3. Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fred E. Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership effectiveness was based on studies of a wide range of group effectiveness, and concentrated on the relationship between leadership and organizational performance. This is one of the earliest situation-contingent leadership theories given by Fiedler. According to him, if an organization attempts to achieve group effectiveness through leadership, then there is a need to assess the leader according to an underlying trait, assess the situation faced by the leader, and construct a proper match between the two.

Leader's trait

In order to assess the attitudes of the leader, Fiedler developed the 'least preferred co-worker' (LPC) scale in which the leaders are asked about the person with whom they least like to work. The scale is a questionnaire consisting of 16 items used to reflect a leader's underlying disposition toward others. The items in the LPC scale are pleasant / unpleasant, friendly / unfriendly, rejecting / accepting, unenthusiastic / enthusiastic, tense / relaxed, cold / warm, helpful / frustrating, cooperative / uncooperative, supportive / hostile, quarrelsome / harmonious, efficient / inefficient, gloomy / cheerful, distant / close, boring / interesting, self-assured / hesitant, open / guarded. Each item in the scale is given a single ranking of between one and eight points, with eight points indicating the most favorable rating.

(Friendly) 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 (Unfriendly)

Fiedler states that leaders with high LPC scores are relationship-oriented and the ones with low scores are task-oriented. The high LPC score leaders derived most satisfaction from interpersonal relationships and therefore evaluate their least preferred co-workers in fairly favorable terms. These leaders think about the task accomplishment only after the relationship need is well satisfied. On the other hand, the low LPC score leaders derived satisfaction from performance of the task and attainment of objectives and only after tasks have been accomplished, these leaders work on establishing good social and interpersonal relationships.

Situational factor

According to Fiedler, a leader's behavior is dependent upon the favorability of the leadership situation. Three factors work together to determine how favorable a situation is to a leader. These are:

Leader-member relations - The degree to which the leaders is trusted and liked by the group members, and the willingness of the group members to follow the leader's guidance

Task structure - The degree to which the group's task has been described as structured or unstructured, has been clearly defined and the extent to which it can be carried out by detailed instructions

Position power - The power of the leader by virtue of the organizational position and the degree to which the leader can exercise authority on group members in order to comply with and accept his direction and leadership.

With the help of these three variables, eight combinations of group-task situations were constructed by Fiedler. These combinations were used to identify the style of the leader.