

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR AND PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

THE AUTHORS

ANURAG HAZARIKA, B.Com (Hons.), BBA, B.Muse, M.Com, MBA (HR), PGDCA, PGDRD is currently pursuing his Ph.D from the University of Science and Technology, Meghalaya, India. He also served as Guest Faculty of Tezpur Law College, Tezpur, Assam and also as a teaching faculty of Krishna Kanta Handique State Open University of Tezpur college study centre for the last four years. His academic work consists of numerous research based and published papers in both National and International seminars. His contribution in research has reached till Duke University of North Carolina, USA where he was invited as speaker to speak about the demographic scenario and the problem of illegal migrants of Assam in India. He has also been the keynote speaker for Barcelona International Model United Nations (BIMUN), Spain on the issue of environmental laws and sustainability with special reference to the protection preservation and conservation of the endangered flora and fauna of India with special emphasis on the one horned rhinos of Assam from which he holds an honorary diploma from the conference. Besides this, he has also been invited as speaker for many other national and International Model United Nations conferences as well. Besides being a youth motivator and Entrepreneurship Trainer, he is associated with many international NGOs as Ambassador from India of late and is honoured to serve as the chairperson of the Board of Trustees of a reputed NGO based in Africa as well and is also serving as International member of the advisory board of a several and NGOs based in Africa in which he provides advisory services in different problem formulation and execution of different programs, cultural diplomacy relations and Cross Cultural Connectivity issues. He has also been an associate editor of three other research based journals namely-LIMELIGHT, ANUSAMDHYA, INSIGHT, GENDER CRUX and a member of the editorial board of a research book based in Hyderabad, India and also has Co-Authored four textbooks-Banking Law, Company Law, Principles of Management and Business Communication with three more books coming up ahead. He has also been serving as Guest Faculty of Management and Commerce disciplines via distance mode for two universities based in Africa currently.

CHRISTIAN ATOGHO, Business and Management Consultant Cameroon. Describe by many as a blessing to the nation, is a young and talented business and management consultant who has established a reputation for providing insight into how organizations start, develop and harvest their ventures. He is neither an optimist nor pessimist but a possibilist who believes that no matter where you live or your background, the only people who will thrive in the future are those who think like an entrepreneur. He is the founding president of Impact Business Group and the program coordinator of Rising Entrepreneurs Academy. He is also the bestselling author of several books with over 15 publications to his name, making him Cameroon's most decorated business writer and one of Africa's best.

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR AND PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

—Your Two in One Masterpiece

**ANURAG HAZARIKA
AND
CHRISTIAN ATOGHO**



BALAJI PUBLICATIONS

MEERUT-250001 (U.P.)

**ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR AND
PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT**
—Your Two in One Masterpiece

© Author

First Edition 2021

ISBN 978-93-91661-02-1

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronics, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the author and Publisher.

Published by:

BALAJI PUBLICATION

Head Office:

39G, 2BHK, Godwin City, New Godwin Hotel
Near Baghpat Bypass, Meerut-250001 (U.P.)

Branch Office:

23/623, Gali No. 6, Gurana Road
Pathankot, Baraut (Baghpat)
U.P.-250611

Ph.: 09811864351, 08433295480
E-mail: balajibooks2010@gmail.com
balaji.book2010rediffmail.com

Printed in : **India**

PREFACE

Human beings have variety of needs, that can't be satisfied by their individual efforts alone. They need to perform numerous activities to satisfy their wants. Hence organizations are formed to cater to the need of the society. Individuals join organization and contribute their part for the well- being of the society.

Organizational behaviour is the study of the many factors that have an impact on how individuals and groups respond to and act in organizations and how organizations manage their environments. Although many people assume that understanding human behavior in organizations is intuitive, many commonly held beliefs about behavior in organizations, such as the idea that a “happy worker is a productive worker,” are either entirely false or true only in specific situations. The study of organizational behavior provides a set of tools—concepts and theories—that help people understand, analyze and describe what goes on in organizations and why. How do the characteristics of individuals, groups, work situations and the organization itself affect how members feel about their organization?

The ability to use the tools of organizational behaviour to understand behaviour in organizations is one reason for studying this subject. A second reason is to learn how to apply these concepts, theories and techniques to improve behavior in organizations so that individuals, groups and organizations can achieve their goals. Managers are challenged to find new ways to motivate and coordinate employees to ensure that their goals are aligned with organizational goals.

With regards to Personality, No two individuals are similar.

Every individual has his own characteristic way of behaving, responding to emotions, perceiving things and looking at the world. You might like going out for parties but your friend might prefer staying back at home reading his/her favourite book. It is really not necessary that if you like partying around, your friend will also like the same. Here comes the role of personality.

What an individual sees in his childhood days and most importantly his/her growing days form his personality. How an individual is raised plays an important role in shaping his/her personality.

Personality is nothing but the aggregate conglomeration of memories and incidents in an individual's entire life span. Environmental factors, family background, financial conditions, genetic factors, situations and circumstances also contribute to an individual's personality.

In a layman's language, how we behave in our day to day lives reflects our personality. How an individual behaves depends on his family background, upbringing, social status and so on. An individual with a troubled childhood would not open up easily. He/she would always hesitate to open his heart in front of others. Some kind of fear would always be there within him. An individual who never had any major problems in life would be an extrovert and would never have issues interacting and socializing with others. You really can't blame an individual for not being an extrovert. It is essential to check his/her background or past life. It is quite possible that as a child, he was not allowed to go out of his home, play and freak out with friends. These individuals start believing that their home is their only world and they are not safe outside. Such a mindset soon becomes their personality.

Personality is what makes a person a unique person, and it is recognizable soon after birth. A child's personality has several components: temperament, environment, and character. Temperament is the set of genetically determined traits that determine the child's approach to the world and how the child learns about the world. There are no genes that specify personality traits, but some genes do control the

development of the nervous system, which in turn controls behaviour.

This two in one book offers a highly readable and very concise introduction to organizational behavior and personality development that tells the lay person everything they need to know. It also provides a wealth of insights from the author's vast experience as a teacher and practitioner in the field. This beautifully written book is destined to become a classic. Please enjoy the read as much I enjoyed bringing it to you.

**ANURAG HAZARIKA
AND
CHRISTIAN ATOGHO**

CONTENTS

<i>Preface</i>	v
<i>List of Figures</i>	xv
1. INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOUR (OB)	1
1.1 Definition of Organizational Behaviour	2
1.2 Historical Evolution of OB as a Discipline Behaviour	3
1.3 Objectives of Organizational Behaviour	12
1.4 Scope Organizational Behaviour	12
1.5 Nature of Organizational Behaviour	13
1.6 Contributing Fields to Organizational Behaviour	15
1.7 Understanding the Main Principles of Organization Behaviour	16
1.8 Levels of Organizational Behaviour	19
1.9 Models of Organizational Behaviour	19
1.10 Organizational Components that Need to be Managed	23
1.11 Challenges and Opportunities for Organizational Behaviour	26
1.12 Methods for Mo-difying and Integrating Organizational Behaviour	28
2. LEADERSHIP	31
2.1 Qualities that Make Good Leaders	32
2.2 Leadership Styles	36

2.2.1 Authoritarian vs. Democratic Leadership	36
2.2.2 Transactional Leadership	38
2.2.3 Transformational Leadership	39
2.2.4 The Servant Leader	42
2.2.5 The Charismatic Leader	42
2.2.6 Situational Leadership	43
2.3 Leadership Models and Theories	44
2.4 Leadership Strategy	49
2.5 Power and Leadership	50
2.6 Importance of Leadership	55
3. MOTIVATION	57
3.1 Theories of Motivation	58
3.2 Motivation Incentives	70
3.3 Importance of Motivation	73
4. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE	75
4.1 Concept of Organisational Culture	75
4.2 Role of Culture	76
4.3 Developing Organisational Culture	76
4.4 Types of Organisational Culture	77
4.5 Strategic and Cultural Values	78
4.6 Cultural Change	79
4.6.1 Cultural Change Programme	80
4.7 Corporate Culture	81
4.8 Work Culture	84
5. CHANGE MANAGEMENT	89
5.1 Why Organizations Need to Change	90
5.2 Types of Organization Change	91
5.3 Organizational Change Factors	91
5.4 The Four Principles of Change Management	93

5.5 Change Resistance	95
5.5.1 Overcoming Resistance to Change	97
5.6 Kotter's 8-Step Change Model	98
6. ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT	105
6.1 Goals of Organisational Development	107
6.2 Nature of Organisational Development	109
6.3 Organizational Development Process	112
6.4 The Importance of Organizational Development	114
7. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE	117
7.1 Introduction	117
7.2 Definition of Emotional Intelligence (ei)	118
7.3 Theories of Multiple Intelligences	119
7.4 Models of Emotional Intelligence	120
7.4.1 The Ability-based Model	120
7.4.2 The Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence	121
7.4.3 Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence	122
7.5 Importance of Emotional Intelligence	123
7.5.1 Positive Impact on Business	124
7.5.2 Negative Impact on Business	126
8. PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT	127
8.1 Personality Traits	128
8.2 Personality Characteristics	130
8.3 Determinants of Personality	132
8.4 Stages of Personality Development	136
8.5 Theories of Personality	141
9. THE CONCEPT OF ATTITUDE	155
9.1 Characteristics of Attitude	155
9.2 Components of Attitude	156
9.3 Factors Influencing Attitude	157

9.4	Types of Attitudes	159
9.5	Functions of Attitude	160
9.6	Attitude Formation	162
9.7	Importance of Attitude in Organisational Behaviour	163
9.8	Barriers to Change Attitudes	164
9.9	Ways of Changing Attitude	165
9.10	Attitudes and Beliefs	166
9.11	Attitudes vs. Behaviour	166
10.	UNDERSTANDING VALUES	167
10.1	Characteristics of Value	168
10.2	Importance of Values	169
10.3	Sources of Values	170
10.4	Values and Beliefs	171
10.5	Values in Workplace	172
10.6	Values and Attitudes	172
11.	PERCEPTION AND DECISION-MAKING	175
11.1	Importance of Perception	176
11.2	Factors Affecting Perception	177
11.3	Perceptual Process	179
11.4	Errors in Perception	181
11.5	Why Perception Vary	184
11.6	Decision-Making	184
11.7	Factors Influencing Decision-Making	189
11.8	Limitations of Decision-Making	190
11.9	Ethics in Decision-Making	192
11.10	Individual Decision-Making Styles	193
12.	THE CONCEPT OF LEARNING	195
12.1	Components of Learning	196
12.2	Determinants of Learning	197
12.3	Principles of Learning	198

<i>Contents</i>	xiii
12.4 The Learning Process	202
12.5 Types of Learning	203
12.6 Methods of Learning	205
12.7 Evaluation of Learning	207
12.8 Theories of Learning	210
12.9 Principles of Reinforcement	214
12.10 Barriers to Learning	218
12.11 Overcoming the Barriers of Learning	220
13. THE NOTION OF GROUPS	223
13.1 Characteristics of Groups	223
14. TIME MANAGEMENT	263
14.1 Time Management and Interruptions	265
14.1.1 Managing Interruptions	267
14.2 Time Management and Procrastination	269
14.3 Time Management and Scheduling	270
15. STRESS AND STRESS MANAGEMENT	273
15.1 Definition of Stress	274
15.2 Sources of Stress (Stressors)	275
15.3 Types of Stress	277
15.4 Stress Management and Coping	282
15.5 Stress Management Techniques	283
16. SUCCESS AND PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT	287
16.1 Steps for Achieving Success in Life	288
16.2 Understanding the Concept of Personal Development	294
16.2.1 Personal Development Categories	294
16.2.2 Personal Development Plan	296
16.2.3 Writing a Personal Development Plan	296
16.3 Steps to Succeed as a New Manager	299
<i>Bibliography</i>	305
<i>Index</i>	307

LIST OF FIGURES

2.1	Transformational Leadership Components	40
2.2	Leadership Theory Transitions	49
3.1	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	60
3.2	Demonstrates Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation	62
3.3	Summary of Expectancy Theory	62

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOUR (OB)

An organization is a collection of people who work together to achieve a wide variety of goals, both goals of the various individuals in the organization and goals of the organization as a whole. Organizations exist to provide goods and services that people want. These goods and services are the products of the behaviours of workers.

Organizational behavior is the study of the many factors that have an impact on how individuals and groups respond to and act in organizations and how organizations manage their environments. Although many people assume that understanding human behavior in organizations is intuitive, many commonly held beliefs about behavior in organizations, such as the idea that a “happy worker is a productive worker,” are either entirely false or true only in specific situations. The study of organizational behavior provides a set of tools—concepts and theories—that help people understand, analyze and describe what goes on in organizations and why. How do the characteristics of individuals, groups, work situations and the organization itself affect how members feel about their organization?

The ability to use the tools of organizational behaviour to understand behaviour in organizations is one reason for

studying this subject. A second reason is to learn how to apply these concepts, theories and techniques to improve behavior in organizations so that individuals, groups and organizations can achieve their goals. Managers are challenged to find new ways to motivate and coordinate employees to ensure that their goals are aligned with organizational goals.

1.1 DEFINITION OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR (O.B.)

Organizational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and organizational structure have on behaviour within the organization, for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving an organizational effectiveness.

The above definition has three main elements; **first** organizational behaviour is an investigative study of individuals and groups, **second**, the impact of organizational structure on human behaviour and the **third**, the application of knowledge to achieve organizational effectiveness. These factors are interactive in nature and the impact of such behaviour is applied to various systems so that the goals are achieved. The nature of study of organizational behaviour is investigative to establish cause and effect relationship.

OB involves integration of studies undertaken relating to behavioural sciences like psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, social psychology and political science. Therefore, organizational behaviour is a comprehensive field of study in which individual, group and organizational structure is studied in relation to organizational growth and organizational culture, in an environment where impact of modern technology is great. The aim of the study is to ensure that the human behaviour contributes towards growth of the organization and greater efficiency is achieved.

Organizational behaviour can also be defined as – “**the study and application of knowledge about human behaviour related to other elements of an organization such as structure, technology and social systems** (LM Prasad). Stephen P Robins defines “**Organizational**

behaviour as a systematic study of the actions and attitudes that people exhibit within organizations.”

It has been observed that we generally form our opinion based on the symptoms of an issue and do not really go to the root cause of the happening. Science of organizational behaviour is applied in nature. Disciplines like psychology, anthropology and political science have contributed in terms of various studies and theories to the field of organizational behaviour. A leader should be able to communicate with his subordinate and keep them in picture as to the happenings in the organization. People promote organizational culture for mutual benefit. Politics is often used to create conflict with the aim of enlarging self-power base to the detrimental of organizational growth. Politics, in Indian context has made inroads based on religion, caste system in the decision-making process which has led to formation of informal groups in the organization that often exploit the organization for fulfillment of personal goals at the cost of organizational goals. Conflict and manipulating power bases need to be handled in an appropriate manner to modify human behaviour and stimulate various individuals towards achieving higher productivity. Power dynamics plays a significant role in organization situations in different environment.

1.2 HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF OB AS A DISCIPLINE BEHAVIOUR

A large number of people have contributed to the growth of OB as a discipline. The most important ones have been described below:

A. Early Theorists

Adam Smith's discussions in the Wealth of nations published in 1776 stated that organizations and society would reap from the division of labor. He concluded that division of labor increased productivity by raising each worker's skill and dexterity, by saving time otherwise lost in changing tasks. The development of assembly line production process in the early 20th century was obviously stimulated by the economic advantages of work specialization (arising out of division of labor) as stated in the work of Smith.

The other significant work which influenced this philosophy was that of the work of **Charles Babbage** in 1832 titled *On the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures*. He added the following to Smith's list of advantages that can be accrued from division of labour:

1. It reduces the time needed to learn a job
2. Reduced wastage of material during the learning process
3. Allowed attainment of increased skill levels
4. Careful match of people's skills and physical abilities with specific tasks

Thus in the writings of these writers the benefits of division of labor were being highlighted where the maximum emphasis was on raising productivity and minimizing wastage of resources and time. Very little consideration was given towards the human elements in the workplace.

B. The Classical Era

We see this trend to continue in what is called as the classical era which covers the period between 1900 to mid 1930s. The first general theories of management began to evolve and the main contributors during this era were Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol, Max Weber, Mary parker Follet and Chester Barnard.

Frederick Taylor's main emphasis was on finding one best way of doing each job. He stressed on selecting the right people for the job, train them to do it precisely in one best way. He favored wage plans to motivate the workers. His scientific principles of management stressed the following principles:

1. Shift all responsibility for the organization of work from the worker to the manager; managers should do all the thinking relating to the planning and design of work, leaving the workers with the task of implementation.
2. Use scientific methods to determine the most efficient way of doing work; assign the worker's task accordingly, specifying the precise way in which the work is to be done.

3. Select the best person to perform the job thus designed.
4. Train the worker to do the work efficiently.
5. Monitor worker performances to ensure that appropriate work procedures are followed and that appropriate results are achieved.

Taylor was one of the first to attempt to systematically analyze human behavior at work. He insisted the use of time-and-motion study as a means of standardizing work activities. His scientific approach called for detailed observation and measurement of even the most routine work, to find the optimum mode of performance.

The results were dramatic, with productivity increasing significantly. With passing time, new organizational functions like personnel and quality control were created. Of course, in breaking down each task to its smallest unit to find what Taylor called „the one best way to do each job, the effect was to remove human variability. Hence he lay the ground for the mass production techniques that dominated management thinking in the first half of the twentieth century.

Henri Fayol, a mining engineer and manager by profession, defined the nature and working patterns of the twentieth-century organization in his book, *General and Industrial Management*, published in 1916. In it, he laid down what he called 14 principles of management. This theory is also called the Administrative Theory. The principles of the theory are:

1. **Division of work:** Tasks should be divided up with employees specializing in a limited set of tasks so that expertise is developed and productivity increased.
2. **Authority and responsibility:** Authority is the right to give orders and entails enforcing them with rewards and penalties; authority should be matched with corresponding responsibility.
3. **Discipline:** This is essential for the smooth running of business and is dependent on good leadership, clear and fair arguments, and the judicious application of penalties.

4. **Unity of command:** For any action whatsoever, an employee should receive orders from one superior only; otherwise authority, discipline, order, and stability are threatened.
5. **Unity of direction:** A group of activities concerned with a single objective should be co-coordinated by a single plan under one head.
6. **Subordination of individual interest to general interest:** Individual or group goals must not be allowed to override those of the business.
7. **Remuneration of personnel:** This may be achieved by various methods but it should be fair, encourage effort, and not lead to overpayment.
8. **Centralization:** The extent to which orders should be issued only from the top of the organization is a problem which should take into account its characteristics, such as size and the capabilities of the personnel.
9. **Scalar chain (line of authority):** Communications should normally flow up and down the line of authority running from the top to the bottom of the organization, but sideways communication between those of equivalent rank in different departments can be desirable so long as superiors are kept informed.
10. **Order:** Both materials and personnel must always be in their proper place; people must be suited to their posts so there must be careful organization of work and selection of personnel.
11. **Equity:** Personnel must be treated with kindness and justice.
12. **Stability of tenure of personnel:** Rapid turnover of personnel should be avoided because of the time required for the development of expertise.
13. **Initiative:** All employees should be encouraged to exercise initiative within limits imposed by the requirements of authority and discipline.
14. **Esprit de corps:** Efforts must be made to promote

harmony within the organization and prevent dissension and divisiveness.

The management functions, that Fayol stated, consisted of planning, organizing, commanding, co-coordinating and controlling. Many practicing managers, even today, list these functions as the core of their activities. Fayol was also one of the first people to characterize a commercial organization's activities into its basic components.

He suggested that organizations could be sub-divided into six main areas of activity:

1. Technical
2. Commercial
3. Financial
4. Security
5. Accounting
6. Management.

In defining the core principles governing how organizations worked and the contribution of management to that process, Fayol laid down a blueprint that has shaped organization thinking for almost a century.

Max Weber developed a theory based on authority relations and was the pioneer in looking at management and OB from a structural viewpoint. His theory is also known as bureaucratic theory in management. He described ideal types of organization and called it a bureaucracy. This was a system marked by division of labor, a clearly defined hierarchy, detailed rules and regulations and impersonal relationships. He wanted this ideal types construct to be taken as a basis for creating organizations in real world. The detailed features of Weber's ideal bureaucratic structure are as follows:

1. Jurisdictional areas are clearly specified, activities are distributed as official duties (unlike traditional form where duties delegated by leader and changed at any time).
2. Organization follows hierarchical principle — subordinates follow orders or superiors, but have right

of appeal (in contrast to more diffuse structure in traditional authority).

3. Intention, abstract rules govern decisions and actions. Rules are stable, exhaustive, and can be learned. Decisions are recorded in permanent files (in traditional forms few explicit rules or written records).
4. Means of production or administration belong to office. Personal property separated from office property.
5. Officials are selected on basis of technical qualifications, appointed not elected, and compensated by salary.
6. Employment by the organization is a career. The official is a full-time employee and looks forward to a life-long career. After a trial period they get tenure of position and are protected from arbitrary dismissal.

C. The Human Relations Movement

Since the industrialists of the early decades of the twentieth century followed Taylor's lead and put the emphasis on efficiency. One of the early pioneers of a view that actually people were central to the world of business was Mary Parker Follett. With this started the beginning of what may be termed as the Human relations Movement as contributor to the field of OB.

Follet believed that organizations should be based on a group ethic rather than on individualism. The manager's work was to harmonize and coordinate group efforts. Managers and workers need to look at each other as partners. Therefore managers should rely more on workers expertise and knowledge than on formal authority of their position to lead their subordinates. Thus in her writing one can trace the importance of motivation and group togetherness, so much required in modern day organizational situations.

Another major influence in the human relations movement came from the work of **Chester Barnard**. Barnard viewed organizations as consisting of people who have interacting social relationships. Barnard viewed organizational success in terms of fostering cooperation from various stakeholders such as, employees and others like customers, investors, suppliers

and other external constituencies. Thus irrespective of excellent production systems, Barnard emphasized the need for boundary spanning activities and development of skills and motivation of employees for organizational effectiveness and success.

Elton Mayo is known as the founder of the Human Relations Movement, and is known for his research including the Hawthorne Studies, and his book *The Social Problems of an Industrialized Civilization* (1933). In the 1920s Elton Mayo, a professor of Industrial Management at Harvard Business School, and his protégé Fritz J. Roethlisberger led a landmark study of worker behavior at Western Electric, the manufacturing arm of AT&T. **Fritz Roethlisberger** and **W.J. Dickson** were the first to publish comprehensive findings of the Hawthorne experiments in 1937 and authored *Management and the Worker* in 1939, a comprehensive statement of the research and findings. Roethlisberger was a lead researcher in the Hawthorne project and a leader in the Human Relations movement. Dickson was Chief of Employee Relations Research Department at the Hawthorne plant and an instrumental contributor to the project the research he conducted under the Hawthorne Studies of the 1930s showed the significance of groups in affecting the behavior of individuals at work. He carried out a number of investigations to look at ways of improving productivity, for example changing lighting conditions in the workplace.

His findings were that work satisfaction depended to a large extent on the informal social pattern of the workgroup. Where ever norms of cooperation and higher output were established it was due to a feeling of importance. Physical conditions or financial incentives had little motivational value. People will form workgroups and this can be used by management to benefit the organization.

Summary of Mayo's Beliefs

Individual workers cannot be treated in isolation, but must be seen as members of a group. Monetary incentives and good working condition are less important to the individual than the need to belong to a group. Informal or unofficial groups formed

at work have a strong influence on the behavior of those workers in a group. Managers must be aware of these 'social needs' and cater for them to ensure that employees collaborate with the official organization rather than work against it.

Another contributor whose work revolutionized thinking about workplaces was **Dale Carnegie**. His book -How to Win Friends and Influence people is a classic which is referred by management experts even today. His main theme centered on the idea that the way to success was through winning the cooperation of people. He advised:

1. To make others feel important through a sincere appreciation of their efforts
2. Seek to make a good impression
3. Win people to your way of thinking by letting others do the talking, being sympathetic and never telling others that they are wrong
4. Change people by praising their good traits and giving chance to others to save their face

The next contributor who influenced the human aspects of management in workplace was **Abraham Maslow**. Maslow proposed the need hierarchy theory (physiological, safety, social esteem and self-actualization needs) and stated that each step in the hierarchy must be satisfied before the next can be activated and once a need was substantially satisfied, it no longer motivated an individual. Self-actualization was the ultimate goal of human existence. Managers who accepted this hierarchy theory attempted to alter the organization and management practices to reduce barriers to employees self-actualization.

Douglas McGregor was another contributor to the human relations movement. He formulated two sets of assumptions – Theory X and Theory Y about human nature. Theory X posited a negative view of people stating that this category have little ambition, dislike work, want to avoid responsibility and need to be closely directed at workplace. Theory Y category on the other hand proposed a positive view of people stating that they can exercise self direction, assume

responsibility and considered work as a natural activity. McGregor personally believed that Theory Y described best the nature of people at work and therefore form the basis of all management practices in organizations. Managers should give freedom to their subordinates in order to unleash their full creative and productive potential.

D. Behavioral Science Theorists

These theorists engaged in objective research of human behavior in organizations. Some of the major theorists who contributed to the growth of OB as a discipline are briefly given below.

B. F. Skinner: His research on conditioning (classical and operant) and behavior modification influenced the design of organization training programs and reward systems. Behavior is a function of consequence according to Skinner and he stated that people engage in a desired behavior only if they are rewarded for it and less likely to be repeated if an individual is not rewarded or punished for it.

David McClelland: His work has helped organizations to match people with jobs and in redesigning jobs for high achievers in order to maximize their motivation potential. For example, people who have undergone achievement training in India, have been found to work longer hours, initiate more new business ventures, made greater investments in productive assets than those who did not undergo such training.

Fred Fiedler: Work in the field of leadership has contributed immensely to the growth of OB as a discipline. His work on the subject is important since it emphasized the situational aspects of leadership and attempted to develop a comprehensive theory of leadership behavior.

Fredrick Herzberg: His primary interest was in finding out answer to the question: what do individuals want from their jobs? He concluded from his study that people preferred jobs that provided opportunities for recognition, achievement, responsibility and growth. Only providing the hygiene factors were insufficient to motivate people in work places. This work

is significant to OB as it has helped in enriching jobs and the quality of work life in modern organizations.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- To analyze different perspective and potentialities to create and develop the ethical values in an organization,
- To analyze the potentialities towards the ways and means to conduct and organize the systems, methods and approaches for organization development in an organization,
- To analyze the potentialities to develop process, methods and approaches of formal and informal patterns of organization and society,
- To analyze how to make perspective methods and process of effective communication to formulate ethical norms in an organization,
- To analyze various aspects and factors affecting the group cohesiveness,
- To analyze ways and means of developing different ethical aspects for group dynamism.

1.4 SCOPE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational Behaviour covers the following:

- Impact of personality on performance
- Employee motivation
- Leadership
- How to create effective teams and groups
- Study of different organizational structures
- Individual behavior, attitude and learning
- Perception
- Design and development of effective organization
- Job design
- Impact of culture on organizational behavior
- Management of change
- Management of conflict and stress

- Organizational development
- Organizational culture
- Transactional analysis
- Group behaviour, power and politics
- Job design
- Study of emotions

Organizations are composed of number of individuals working independently or collectively in teams, and number of such teams makes a department and number of such departments makes an organization. It is a formal structure and all departments have to function in a coordinated manner to achieve the organizational objective.

It is therefore important for all employees to possess a positive attitude towards work. They need to function in congenial atmosphere and accomplish assigned goals. It is also important for managers to develop an appropriate work culture. Use of authority, delegation of certain powers to subordinates, division of labour, efficient communication.

1.5 NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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

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

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

2. An Interdisciplinary Approach

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

3. An Applied Science

The very nature of O.B. is applied. What O.B. basically does is the application of various researches to solve the organizational problems related to human behaviour. The basic line of difference between pure science and O.B. is that while the former concentrates on fundamental researches, the latter concentrates on applied researches. O.B. involves both applied research and its application in organizational analysis. Hence, O.B. can be called both science as well as art.

4. A Normative Science

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

5. A Humanistic and Optimistic Approach

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

6. A Total System Approach

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

1.6 CONTRIBUTING FIELDS TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **Psychology:** Psychology is an applied science, which attempts to explain human behaviour in a particular situation and predicts actions of individuals. Psychologists have been able to modify individual behaviour largely with the help of various studies. It has contributed towards various theories on learning, motivation, personality, training and development, theories on individual decision-making, leadership, job satisfaction, performance appraisal, attitude, ego state, job design, work stress and conflict management. Studies of these theories can improve personal skills, bring change in attitude and develop positive approach to organizational systems. Various psychological tests are conducted in the organizations for selection of employees, measuring personality attributes and aptitude. Various other dimensions of human personality are also measured. These instruments are scientific in nature and have been finalized after a great deal of research. Field of psychology continues to explore new areas applicable to the field of organizational behaviour. Contribution of psychology has enriched the organizational behaviour field.
- **Sociology:** Science of Sociology studies the impact of culture on group behaviour and has contributed to a large extent to the field of group-dynamics, roles that individual plays in the organization, communication, norms, status, power, conflict management, formal organization theory, group processes and group decision-making.
- **Political science:** Political science has contributed to the field of Organizational behaviour. Stability of government at national level is one major factor for promotion of international business, financial investments, expansion and employment. Various government rules and regulations play a very decisive role in growth of the organization. All organizations

have to abide by the rules of the government of the day.

- **Social psychology:** Working organizations are formal assembly of people who are assigned specific jobs and play a vital role in formulating human behaviour. It is a subject where concept of psychology and sociology are blend to achieve better human behaviour in organization. The field has contributed to manage change, group decision-making, communication and ability of people in the organization, to maintain social norms.
- **Anthropology:** It is a field of study relating to human activities in various cultural and environmental frameworks. It understands difference in behaviour based on value system of different cultures of various countries. The study is more relevant to organizational behaviour today due to globalization, mergers and acquisitions of various industries. The advent of the 21st century has created a situation wherein cross-cultural people will have to work in one particular industry. Managers will have to deal with individuals and groups belonging to different ethnic cultures and exercise adequate control or even channelize behaviour in the desired direction by appropriately manipulating various cultural factors. Organization behaviour has used the studies on comparative attitudes and cross-cultural transactions. Environment studies conducted by the field of anthropology aims to understand organizational human behaviour so that acquisitions and mergers are smooth. Organizations are bound by its culture that is formed by human beings.

1.7 UNDERSTANDING THE MAIN PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOUR

Applying the knowledge of organizational behaviour in management is to make management more purposeful and practical. Management is managing the activities of people. When dealing with an individual, it is of vital importance to understand the individual and his behaviour.

Knowledge of OB for a manager in modern organization enables him to be more effective. Therefore, the relation between management and OB should be understood by every manager.

Organisational behaviour is based mainly on two principles:

- Nature of the people, and
- Nature of the organization.

1. Nature of the People

In this, we have to know the:

(i) Individual Differences

Every individual is different from the other in respect of intelligence, habit, nature, attitude, etc. This individual difference is the outcome of his psychological aspects. Organisational behaviour is a part of psychology.

An individual with psychological differences will show the same in his behavioural pattern in an organization. Management (Manager) has to behave differently with different persons. This knowledge is provided to management by the study of OB.

(ii) Whole Person

An individual is a whole person with physical and psychological aspects. Therefore, we cannot deal with a person by part. For example, an employee working in an organization has a lot of personal problems worrying him. It is not possible for him to perform the work by keeping away these problems at home and work efficiently with his physical capability alone.

No one can separate the physical and psychological aspects and deal with the individual. Hence, the knowledge of OB and management has to be integrated and the problem of an individual probed to find out remedial action to solve it considering the individual as a whole person. Solving the problem will become quite easy, if the relation between OB and management is well-understood by the manager.

(iii) Caused Behaviour

This is a reaction in an individual due to some needs and wants, which he has to satisfy. These may be financial or non-financial. This caused behaviour has to be regulated by proper motivation. Hence the management and OB have to work together to understand the exact nature of the need of an individual to be satisfied and the desired incentive to be provided to the individual so as to help satisfy his needs.

(iv) Human Dignity

People in an organization have some strong beliefs and possess certain value systems of their own. Let it be a manager or a worker; each possesses the dignity of his position and role in the organization. An individual, who possesses a strong value system may not compromise it simply, as such he has to be given the deserving value and recognition. Related approach of OB and management will be of great help in such a situation.

2. Nature of Organization:

Nature of organization has two aspects:

(i) Social System

Organisational activities are controlled by social and psychological norms. People have psychological needs and motives, at the same time; they are bound to shoulder social responsibility, according to their role in the organization.

The behaviour of people in an organization is normally governed by the group and by individual's desire. One can find the above two types of norms operating. Due to proper interaction of these norms, organizational activities become cordial and efficient.

(ii) Mutual Interests

These always bring cooperation and confidence among people. It is the source of sound organizational behaviour. People and organization are interdependent like OB and management. People need organization for livelihood on the other hand; the organization needs people for achieving its

goals. So the relation between OB and management can bring all round progress, if both have amiable relationship between them.

1.8 LEVELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

OB can be studied at various levels within an organization, and each level has a unique set of roles, responsibilities, and goals. The following points discuss the three levels briefly:

- 1. Individual Level** – Deals with the concepts at the individual level. Examples of individual-level concepts are perception, personality, learning, motivation, and attitude.
- 2. Group Level** – Deals with the concepts at the group level. Examples of group-level concepts are team, conflict, leadership, power, and politics. Group-level concepts may include how groups are formed, how to make effective teams, how individually and collectively the group activities can be improved, how to motivate employees, and which type of group would be suitable for a particular assignment.
- 3. Organizational Level** – Deals with the concepts at the organizational level. Examples of organizational-level concepts are change management and organizational culture. Other topics discussed at organizational level include the concept of organization, different organizational models, and organizational change along with its impact and implementation. The working conditions and stress management are also discussed at the organizational level.

1.9 MODELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

1. The Autocratic Model

The basis of this model is power with a managerial orientation of authority. The employees in turn are oriented towards obedience and dependence on the boss. The employee need that is met is subsistence. The performance result is minimal.

In case of an autocratic model, the managerial orientation

is doctoral. The managers exercise their commands over employees. The managers give orders and the employees have to obey the orders. Thus, the employees' orientation towards the managers/bosses is obedience. Under autocratic conditions, employees give higher performance either because of their achievement drive or their personal liking to the boss or because of some other factor.

Evidences such as the industrial civilization of the United States and organizational crises do suggest that the autocratic model produced results. However, its principal weakness is its high human cost. The combination of emerging knowledge about the needs of the employees and ever changing societal values and norms suggested managers to adopt alternative and better ways to manage people at work. This gave genesis to the second type of models or organizational behaviour.

2. The Custodial Model

The basis of this model is economic resources with a managerial orientation of money. The employees in turn are oriented towards security and benefits and dependence on the organization. The employee need that is met is security. The performance result is passive cooperation.

While studying the employees, the managers realized and recognized that although the employees managed under autocratic style do not talk back to their boss they certainly think back about the system. Such employees filled with frustration and aggressions vent them on their co-workers, families and neighbors. This made the managers think how to develop better employee satisfaction and security. It was realized that this can be done by dispelling employees' insecurities, frustration and aggression. This called for introduction of welfare programmers to satisfy security needs of employees. Provision for an onsite day-care centre for quality child care is an example of welfare programme meant for employees. Welfare programmes lead to employee dependence on the organization. Stating more accurately, employees having dependence on organization may not afford to quit even there seem greener pastures around. The welfare programmes for employees started by the Indira Gandhi

National Open University (IGNOU), New Delhi are worth citing in this context, IGNOU, in the beginning provided its employees facilities like house-lease facility, subsidized transport facility, day-time child care centre in the campus, etc. These made employees dependent on IGNOU which, in turn, became custodian of its employees.

The basis of this model is partnership with a managerial orientation of teamwork. The employees in turn are oriented towards responsible behavior and self-discipline.

Although the custodian approach brings security and satisfaction, it suffers from certain flaws also. Employees produce anywhere near their capacities. They are also not motivated to increase their capacities of which they are capable. Though the employees are satisfied, still they do not feel motivated or fulfilled in their work they do. This is in conformity with the research finding that the happy employees are not necessarily most productive employees. Consequently managers and researchers started to address yet another question. "Is there better approach/way to manage people?" The quest for a better way provided a foundation for evolution to the supportive type of model of organizational behaviour.

3. The Supportive Model

The basis of this model is leadership with a managerial orientation of support. The employees in turn are oriented towards job performance and participation. The employee need that is met is status and recognition. The performance result is awakened drives.

The supportive model is founded on leadership, not on money or authority. In fact, it is the managerial leadership style that provides an atmosphere to help employees grow and accomplish their tasks successfully. The managers recognize that the workers are not by nature passive and disinterested to organizational needs, but they are made so by an inappropriate leadership style. The managers believe that given due and appropriate changes, the workers become ready to share responsibility, develop a drive to contribute their mite and improve themselves. Thus, under supportive

approach, the management's orientation is to support the employee's job performance for meeting both organizational and individual goals.

However, the supportive model of organizational behaviour is found more useful and effective in developed nations and less effective in developing nations like ours because of employee's more awakening in the former and less one in the latter nations.

4. The Collegial Model

The collegial model is an extension of the supportive model. As the literal meaning of the word 'college' means a group of persons having the common purpose, the collegial model relates to a team work/concept. The basic foundation of the collegial model lies on management's building a feeling of partnership with employee. Under collegial approach, employees feel needed and useful. They consider managers as joint contributors to organizational success rather than as bosses.

Its greatest benefit is that the employee becomes self-discipline. Feeling responsible backed by self-discipline creates a feeling of team work just like what the members of a football team feel. The research studies report that compared to traditional management model, the more open, participative, collegial managerial approach produced improved results in situations where it is appropriate.

Although there are four separate models, almost no organization operates exclusively in one. There will usually be a predominate one, with one or more areas overlapping in the other models.

The first model, autocratic, had its roots in the industrial revolution. The managers of this type of organization operate out of McGregor's Theory X. The next three models begin to build on McGregor's Theory Y. They have each evolved over a period of time and there is no one "best" model. The collegial model should not be thought as the last or best model, but the beginning of a new model or paradigm.

1.10 ORGANIZATIONAL COMPONENTS THAT NEED TO BE MANAGED

1. People

People are the main component of any organization that has to be managed. Every individual has a personal goal to be achieved. Organizations must identify the need spectrum of individuals and take suitable steps for its fulfillment to enable them to perform effectively so that they complete their allotted task in time. Relationship between the workers, with subordinates and superiors should be established based on full understanding and complete faith based on mutual trust so that it is easy to communicate and understand each other's views. Work teams and Groups play a vital role in the organization. Individual may have to keep his personal interest aside if it conflicts with team or group goals. It is the team goals, accomplishment of which contributes towards achieving organizational goals. Apart from managing internal workforce, it is also important to manage customers who are the end persons using organization's products or services. Utmost interest of stakeholders, government, employees, social groups and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) must be kept in mind as they play a dominant role in the society. Apart from the above, adequate consideration should also be given to competitors, regulatory agencies, labour force, suppliers and resource persons.

2. Structure

There are two types of organizations, formal and informal. Informal organizations do not have a specified structure. Formal organizations are built based upon the objective set for it. Organizational structure in such organization is hierarchical in nature, with people at each level having their own objectives, which contributes towards fulfillment of overall organizational objectives. In such organization, people at lower levels report to higher level managers. The tier system has the principle of unity of command inbuilt in it. The organization structure may depend upon the size, number of products/ services produced, skill and experience of the employees, managerial staff and geographical location of the organization.

An organization may have several levels and pyramid like organizational structure or flat structure. The efficiency of the organization will depend upon the free flow of the information, efficient communication system prevailing in the organization, well-defined authority and responsibility supported by detailed policies, rules and regulations. The organization must have well laid out systems, which are understood by workers, supervisors and managers. The leader must keep open mind while dealing with subordinates and exercise full control over various systems, levels and ensure planned productivity and achieve high level of job satisfaction.

3. Technology

Managing technology is an important job of any management. It is an important element of any unit. Selection of technology, procurement, installation, operation and maintenance is important and no compromise should be made in procuring latest or advanced technology. Various systems and sub-systems should support technology that exists in an organization. Based on the technology, an organization should formulate job structure and resultant procurement of human resource so that they are complimentary to each other. Adequate attention is also be paid to service industry. For example an appropriate drill, procedures are installed in hospital industry to ensure that the patients' record is maintained properly. On line operations of all systems relating to admission record, past treatment, drugs, availability of beds, schedule of operations maintained so that the level of patients satisfaction is raised. In minimum number of days, maximum numbers of patients should be treated. Various processes required to regulate these functions form the important part of service industry.

4. Jobs

Job is an assignment assigned to an individual. It encompasses various tasks within it. For example, Personnel manager wants to fill up twelve vacancies in production department within three months. Job will have various tasks inbuilt in it like designing of job specification, selection of media, advertising vacancies, scheduling of selection and recruiting

process. Manager, therefore have to manage various tasks to accomplish a particular job. This may form a part of managerial functions. Adequate delegation, supervision, application of various control techniques makes the job simpler for the manager. Introduction of computers have made managerial functions simpler, as required information is available for decision-making.

5. Processes

Management of processes and its inter-dependence is very crucial to high productivity and higher job satisfaction. What is important for a manager is to ensure high morale of the work force. To ensure this, he must identify various managerial dictums. Select appropriate subordinates to carry out a job based on aptitude, personality traits, mental build up and attitude. He should also involve himself and lead subordinates by personal example. In defense services, it is the quality of leadership that motivates troops to achieve near impossible task where everything appears to be going wrong. Various role models assist leaders in identifying as to which process, method or approach would be suitable to mould subordinates in suitable frame that may be required by any organization. Nothing motivates workers better if you give them their entitlements in full and train them to take up higher jobs. By doing so, manager must develop and build an organizational culture that will bind employees to a common cultural bond. During day-to-day functions, managers must be transparent and maintain a high degree of value system and display ethical behaviour. There are no short cuts to this and will pay rich dividends in times to come.

6. External Environment

What we have so far discussed is various components of an organization that should be managed properly. External environment also plays an important role in managing the points discussed above. When we talk about managing people in the organization, what we have to study and manage is the influence of culture and its impact on the individual. A manager should examine as to how he is going to come up with the changes. Study of external environment is very wide and

encompasses economic, cultural, social, government rules and regulations, legal aspects, political climate, demographics and its impact. If one scans the external environment that is prevailing in Indian context, one will find that individuals are racing to catch up the upper class as it relates to standards of living, material possession, higher education, attempt to copy western culture, food habits, dressing pattern and the like. Beauty parlors, pubs and cyber cafes around each corner are an ample evidence of the impact of external environment. This trend has an impact on what products or services are on priority in the society and indicates the behaviour of an individual. If the above factors are evaluated appropriately, a manager will be able to examine and predict human behaviour in the organization. It is therefore important to evaluate market situation, competitors, and availability of raw material, technology, availability of skilled, semi-skilled and non-skilled personnel. In addition, evaluate prevailing culture and how individuals are likely to respond to the call of the organization. Some factors like government rules, and political stability keep changing, the organizations must cater for such contingencies. Manager must therefore keep in mind the internal and external factors and make the best amalgam and work to achieve organizational effectiveness.

1.11 CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The significance of studying OB is increasing day-by-day due to dynamic business environment. Now-a-days, numerous changes are taking place in the global, industrial, and organizational setups. These changes have brought numerous challenges for OB. Some of these challenges include:

1. Globalization

Globalization implies that no organization can work effectively in isolation and has to comply with the global factors that have an impact on it. Globalization poses numerous challenges in front of an organization. At the individual level, an employee may require to work on foreign assignments or collaborate with people from different cultures. At the group level, problems may arise in decision-making procedures and while working

in teams that include people from different cultural backgrounds. At the organizational level, problems may arise in case of mergers or acquisitions due to vast cultural differences.

2. Management of Workforce Diversity

This refers to the need of numerous conflicts resolution techniques and problem- solving approaches to deal with diverse workforce. It is difficult to manage the employees belonging to different cultural backgrounds, due to differences in their values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. A proper management of workforce diversity can have numerous positive results, such as the availability of fresh ideas and talents.

3. Improvement in Quality and Productivity

This refers to matching the desired levels of quality and productivity with the ever-changing demands. Management guru Tom Peter says, “Almost all quality improvement comes via simplification of design, manufacturing, layout, processes, and procedures.” Now-a-days, a number of programs, such as process reengineering and quality management are being implemented to bring improvement in productivity.

4. Improvement in People Skills

This implies that, it is the necessity of time to improve and upgrade the skills of employees from time to time. The change in business, political, and technological environment makes it important to train and develop the employees according to new trends. The technical and interpersonal skills of employees need constant improvement.

5. Incorporation of Innovation

This implies that it is necessary to incorporate change in rules, regulations, processes and procedures of an organization to suit the current standards. It is easy to formulate the strategies for change in an organization, but difficult to implement it due to the employee resistance. If the resistance of employees is overcome then the positive changes can be brought in the organization to enhance the productivity level.

6. Incorporation of Work-Life Balance

This indicates that the demanding work schedules and challenging jobs tend to upset the personal and social life of employees at times. Work-life balance can be achieved by implementing the concepts, such as work from home and flexible work-timings.

7. Improving Ethical Behaviour

The complexity of business operations is forcing workforce to face ethical dilemmas, where they are required to define right and wrong conduct in order to complete their assigned activities. The ground rules governing the constituents of good ethical behaviour has not been clearly defined. Blurring out of differentiation between right things from wrong behaviour becomes a dent in an organization.

The managers must evolve code of ethics to guide employees through ethical dilemmas. Organizing workshops, seminars, training programs help improving behavior of employees.

It is the duty of every individual to keep the climate within an organization healthy in terms of ethics and principals and maintain minimal degree of ambiguity.

1.12 METHODS FOR MODIFYING AND INTEGRATING ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

1. Managerial Style

Under Theory X and Theory Y as pointed out by McGregor, we have almost diametrically opposite assumptions about organizational behaviour. Managerial leadership style indicates the overall pattern of manager's behaviour while trying to fulfill managerial responsibilities. It also suggests the manner in which the superior-subordinate relationship is carried out. Leadership style influences productivity and employee satisfaction.

It may give special emphasis either on production or on employee satisfaction. Occasionally, managerial style may give equal emphasis to both and try to achieve high production as well as high employee satisfaction. Production-centered

approach increases productivity at the expense of the human organization.

The employee-centered managerial style depends on the social motivation to- achieve organizational goals and in the long run can ensure continued high rate of productivity. At present, democratic and participative leadership is employed to achieve higher productivity without sacrificing human values in industry.

2. Positive Behaviour Reinforcement

Management rewards constructive behaviour and tries to eliminate undesirable employee behaviour and activities. Rewards reinforce positive behaviour because people tend to repeat pleasurable (rewarding) actions. Performance feedback itself can be a reward because it satisfies a human need of knowing how one is doing and where one stands.

Employee behaviour which leads to failure will be corrected. Successful behaviours are rewarded. Thus organizational behaviour can be modified by a planned programme of positive behaviour reinforcement through reward systems.

3. Job Enrichment

A better job can often create better attitudes and greater willingness to cooperate and perform duties with enthusiasm and zeal. A better job can also offer greater employee satisfaction and provide ample opportunity for growth.

A job must be challenging and meaningful, job enlargement and enrichment can create most favourable employee behaviour and action which can also integrate the objectives of individuals and the organization. Job enrichment provides duties which are meaningful, enjoyable and satisfying.

Acute division of labour, extensive specialization and routinisation of jobs and tasks created dehumanized and mechanical organization structure. Modern trend is in favour of job enlargement, job rotation and job enrichment to motivate employee behaviour in order to attain the organizational goals without sacrificing employee satisfaction and welfare.

4. Organizational Development

A fourth method for modifying and integrating organizational behaviour is organizational development. In its complete sense, organizational development (OD) allows for the humanization of the formal organization by minimizing the obstacles to organizational effectiveness, setting members work on the problems identified, and giving feedback on the development of skills found necessary or important- all under the guidance of a trained behavioural scientist.

The emphasis is on interpersonal skills, conflict resolution and the creating of mutual trust and openness. OD develops a cooperative interpersonal climate and the development of a community of purpose or common interest.

Open communication and concentration on overall goals are the two main OD purposes. OD provides the ways and means by which members in an organization may work together with trust and openness and' without unhealthy competition and conflict.

LEADERSHIP

The term leadership is a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined. As a consequence, it carries extraneous connotations that create ambiguity of meaning. Additional confusion is caused by the use of other imprecise terms such as power, authority, management, administration, control, and supervision to describe similar phenomena.

We talk about leaders and leadership nearly every day in the business world, but have you ever tried to actually define leadership? It can be much harder than you may think, but taking the time to define leadership and what makes a leader is crucial to building a cohesive culture and developing future leaders.

As part of the research for my new book, : ***“Lead well or be led out”***, I interviewed more than 50 CEOs around the world and asked them each to define leadership. Many people struggled or had to pause to think because it’s a word we use so frequently without really defining. We take the concept of leadership for granted and assume that we all know what leadership is and what a great leader looks like.

Every leader has their own personal definition of leadership, which influences how they lead and the culture and direction of their company. The definition of leadership can also change as the leaders themselves change. With new

leaders come new approaches to leadership, which impacts overall culture and employees. As such, Leadership can therefore be defined as ***“the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization.”***

Leadership captures the essentials of being able and prepared to inspire others. Effective leadership is based upon ideas—both original and borrowed—that is effectively communicated to others in a way that engages them enough to act as the leader wants them to act.

A leader inspires others to act while simultaneously directing the way that they act. They must be personable enough for others to follow their orders, and they must have the critical thinking skills to know the best way to use the resources at an organization's disposal.

Who is a Leader?

There have been countless people through history that led people but were inhumane and destructive. Does that still make them leaders? In my mind, a leader is someone who does more than just lead people. They have to be driven by the right motivation and make a positive impact on the people around them.

A leader is a person who influences a group of people towards the achievement of a goal. In other words, a leader is someone who can see how things can be improved and who rallies people to move toward that better vision. Leaders can work toward making their vision a reality while putting people first. Just being able to motivate people isn't enough — leaders need to be empathetic and connect with people to be successful.

2.1 QUALITIES THAT MAKE GOOD LEADERS

Everybody defines leadership differently but I really like the way John C Maxwell defines leadership, ***“A leader is one who knows the way, goes the way, and shows the way.”*** Irrespective of how you define a leader, he or she can prove to be a difference maker between success and failure. A good leader has a futuristic vision and knows how to turn his ideas

into real-world success stories. In this chapter, we take an in-depth look at some of the important leadership qualities that separate good leaders from a bad one.

1. Honesty and Integrity

The 34th President of United States, Dwight. D. Eisenhower once said, ***“The supreme quality of leadership is unquestionably integrity. Without it, no real success is possible, no matter whether it is on a section gang, a football field, in an army, or in an office.”*** Honesty and integrity are two important ingredients which make a good leader. How can you expect your followers to be honest when you lack these qualities yourself? Leaders succeed when they stick to their values and core beliefs and without ethics, this will not be possible.

2. Confidence

To be an effective leader, you should be confident enough to ensure that other follow your commands. If you are unsure about your own decisions and qualities, then your subordinates will never follow you. As a leader, you have to be oozing with confidence, show some swagger and assertiveness to gain the respect of your subordinates. This does not mean that you should be overconfident, but you should at least reflect the degree of confidence required to ensure that your followers trust you as a leader.

3. Inspire Others

Probably the most difficult job for a leader is to persuade others to follow. It can only be possible if you inspire your followers by setting a good example. When the going gets tough, they look up to you and see how you react to the situation. If you handle it well, they will follow you. As a leader, should think positive and this positive approach should be visible through your actions. Stay calm under pressure and keep the motivation level up. As John Quincy Adams puts it, ***“If your actions inspire others to dream more, learn more, do more and become more, you are a leader.”*** If you are successful in inspiring your subordinates, you can easily overcome any current and future challenge easily.

4. Commitment and Passion

Your teams look up to you and if you want them to give their all, you will have to be passionate about it too. When your teammates see you getting your hands dirty, they will also give their best shot. It will also help you to gain the respect of your subordinates and infuse new energy in your team members, which helps them to perform better. If they feel that you are not fully committed or lacks passion, then it would be an uphill task for the leader to motivate your followers to achieve the goal.

5. Good Communicator

Until you clearly communicate your vision to your team and tell them the strategy to achieve the goal, it will be very difficult for you to get the results you want. Simply put, if you are unable to communicate your message effectively to your team, you can never be a good leader. A good communicator can be a good leader. Words have the power to motivate people and make them do the unthinkable. If you use them effectively, you can also achieve better results.

6. Decision-Making Capabilities

Apart from having a futuristic vision, a leader should have the ability to take the right decision at the right time. Decisions taken by leaders have a profound impact on masses. A leader should think long and hard before taking a decision but once the decision is taken, stand by it. Although, most leaders take decisions on their own, but it is highly recommended that you consult key stakeholders before taking a decision. After all, they are the ones who will benefit or suffer from your decisions.

7. Accountability

When it comes to accountability, you need to follow the approach highlighted by Arnold H Glasow when he said, ***“A good leader takes little more than his share of the blame and little less than his share of the credit.”*** Make sure that every one of your subordinates is accountable for what they are doing. If they do well, give them a pat on the back but if

they struggle, make them realize their mistakes and work together to improve. Holding them accountable for their actions will create a sense of responsibility among your subordinates and they will go about the business more seriously.

8. Delegation and Empowerment

You cannot do everything, right. It is important for a leader to focus on key responsibilities while leaving the rest to others. By that, I mean empowering your followers and delegating tasks to them. If you continue to micromanage your subordinates, it will develop a lack of trust and more importantly, you will not be able to focus on important matters, as you should be. Delegate tasks to your subordinates and see how they perform. Provide them with all the resources and support they need to achieve the objective and give them a chance to bear the responsibility.

9. Creativity and Innovation

In order to get ahead in today's fast-paced world, a leader must be creative and innovative at the same time. Creative thinking and constant innovation is what makes you and your team stand out from the crowd. Think out of the box to come up with unique ideas and turn those ideas and goals into reality.

10. Empathy

Last but certainly not the least, is empathy. Leaders should develop empathy with their followers. Unfortunately, most leaders follow a dictatorial style and neglect empathy altogether. Due to this, they fail to make a closer connection with their followers. Understanding the problems of your followers and feeling their pain is the first step to become an effective leader. Even that is not enough until you work hard and provide your followers with the suitable solution to their problems.

To join the elite club of good leaders, you must have all these qualities but if you lack some of these qualities, then you might struggle to make the mark in the world of leadership. You will have to set a good example for others to follow. That is where your commitment, passion, empathy, honesty and

integrity come into play. Good communication skills and decision-making capabilities also play a vital role in success and failure of a leader. Lastly, innovation and creative thinking, as well as the futuristic vision, are a couple of leadership qualities that make up good leaders.

2.2 LEADERSHIP STYLES

A leadership style refers to a leader's characteristic behaviors when directing, motivating, guiding, and managing groups of people. Great leaders can inspire political movements and social change. They can also motivate others to perform, create, and innovate.

As you start to consider some of the people who you think of as great leaders, you can immediately see that there are often vast differences in how each person leads. Fortunately, researchers have developed different theories and frameworks that allow us to better identify and understand these different leadership styles.

2.2.1 Authoritarian vs. Democratic Leadership

The two ends of the spectrum of leadership style range from a focus on implementing specific tasks to a focus on the dynamics of human relationships. Leaders who focus primarily on getting specific tasks accomplished can be described as authoritarian; others who stress the development of interpersonal relationships may be viewed as democratic leaders.

Authoritarian leaders, also known as autocratic leaders, provide clear expectations for what needs to be done, when it should be done, and how it should be done. This style of leadership is strongly focused on both commands by the leader and control of the followers. There is also a clear division between the leader and the members. Authoritarian leaders make decisions independently, with little or no input from the rest of the group.

The authoritarian leader is all about “control” and managing the completion of tasks. Authoritarian leaders often approach situations with the attitude that other people are innately unwilling to get involved and are basically unreliable.

They tend to use their power to dominate their followers. In the authoritarian style, most (if not all) policies are determined by the leader. Decision-making for the authoritarian leader is usually autocratic, which means no input from others until after the decision is made. This often results in the lack of creative solutions to problems, which can ultimately hurt the performance of the organization.

Authoritarian leadership is very effective in those situations in which people have a high level of trust in the organization, when the task is straightforward, when a decision needs to be made quickly, and/or when the leader is given responsibility for directing action. A danger in authoritarian leadership is the tendency toward negative motivation: using threats, coercion, and other non-reinforcing means to achieve results. This can create a culture of crisis in the organization, with the leader as either oppressor or rescuer or both.

As situations in an organization become more complex, it becomes increasingly difficult for leaders to achieve their goals by using formal authority alone. If we as adults are paying attention, we learn that control isn't a sustainable and effective way to approach working with other people. Leaders are expected to find ways of obtaining the highest level of productivity from those they lead, and using control is likely to have the opposite effect of that which is desired. They increasingly need to build alliances with those on whom they are ultimately dependent, otherwise employees lose their motivation to excel and may even quit to find a more favorable work environment.

The democratic or participative leaders on the other hand, encourage group members to participate, but retain the final say in the decision-making process. Group members feel engaged in the process and are more motivated and creative. Democratic leaders tend to make followers feel like they are an important part of the team, which helps foster commitment to the goals of the group.

The democratic style of leadership, therefore, tends to be more participative; policies evolve from group discussion and from a group decision-making process. By sharing decision-making and other responsibilities, the group is more likely to

make full use of all the potential of its members, and individual self-esteem tends to increase. Furthermore, the more that members participate in making the decisions that affect them, have a clear picture of the goals of the group, and have a recognized part to play in helping the group reach those goals, the higher will be the group's cohesion and commitment to the process. However, when everything is a matter of group discussion and decision, not much room for leadership is left.

Historically, effective leadership has incorporated elements of both styles. Observers must be cautious not to misread or stereotype a leader's style. The most effective leader adopts the style most productive in a given situation. For instance, if the situation calls for quick decisions and fast mobilization of resources, a more authoritarian style may be called for and appreciated by followers. However, even authoritarianism that is appropriate to the situation is unlikely to be successful if an atmosphere of group participation has not been previously developed using more democratic means.

2.2.2 Transactional Leadership

Transactional Leadership style assumes that people are motivated primarily by reward and punishment. This style is much related to the autocratic style discussed earlier. The belief is that employees perform their best when the chain of command is definite and clear, and that reward or punishment is contingent upon performance. They should be happy to hand over all authority and responsibility to a leader, which is the opposite thinking of an empowered employee. The focus of the transactional leader is on maintaining the status quo, and the primary goal of the followers is to obey the instructions and commands of the leader.

The transactional leader is more a manager than a leader, and is highly focused on getting tasks accomplished, providing very clear direction, and overseeing productivity in detail. He or she tends to think inside the box when solving organizational problems. The concern is with the work process, rather than with forward-thinking ideas. Rules, procedures, and standards are essential to the transactional leader. This type of leader tends to carefully monitor and micro-manage a subordinate's work, making corrections throughout the

process. When a subordinate fails to meet expectations, the next step is often a penalty or punishment.

A major downside of the transactional style is that it does not consider other potential factors that may influence outcomes and therefore affect leadership effectiveness. For example, if clear behavioral or outcome expectations are expressed by top leadership, but the reward for achieving them is not considered adequate, staff leaders may not be motivated to work hard to make these outcomes happen.

The strictly transactional leader is unable to embody qualities like empowerment and development of employees, whereas the transformational leader that is discussed in the next section will realize certain situations call for a transactional style of leadership. The main difference between the two styles, however, is that the relationship between transactional leaders and employees is centered on goals and rewards, such as increases in pay and moving up in an organization. For strictly transactional organizations, the overall outcome is simply a “prescription for mediocrity.”

2.2.3 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership grows out of the assumption that people will follow a leader who inspires and motivates them. In this leadership style, the leader motivates and inspires by developing a compelling vision, selling that vision, and focusing on developing relationships with followers as a teacher, mentor, and coach.

A transformational leader is the result of significant and continuous learning and relationship building. He or she engages subordinates by spending a great deal of time building trust and demonstrating a high level of personal integrity. The ultimate goal is to “transform” the goals, vision, and sense of purpose of the followers, molding them into a cohesive team. This leadership style tends to help motivate followers to be loyal and dedicated workers, with the goal also of helping every member of the group be successful.

This type or style of leadership often focuses on the “big picture” and on concern for people and their individual needs.

Four main components (the four “I’s”) the transformational leader strives to achieve are:

Idealized Influence: A transformational leader’s behavior becomes a role model for employees through exemplary behavior that instills pride and trust among followers. Because followers trust and respect the leader, they try to emulate this individual and personally adopt his or her ideals.

Inspirational Motivation: A transformational leader usually has a sense of team spirit, enthusiasm, passion, and optimism. This type of leader helps employees dedicate themselves to the organization’s vision. Certainly, leaders can’t motivate followers, but they can provide an inspiration for achievement.

Intellectual Stimulation: A transformational leader must question old assumptions, cast existing problems in a new light, encourage creativity and innovation, and look at more effective ways to make decisions. In this leadership style, a leader solicits ideas, and nurtures and develops people who think independently and who value learning.



Fig. 2.1: Transformational Leadership Components

Individualized Consideration: A transformational leader pays attention to the needs of individuals, and seeks to develop followers by supporting, mentoring, and coaching employees to reach their full potential.⁵¹ A concern exists to keep lines of communication open so that followers feel free to share ideas in this supportive environment. This type of leader also makes a strong effort to recognize followers for their unique contributions.

These four components are essential when it comes to transforming an organization and empowering employees. The transformational leader has to be quick to adapt to changes within an organization. In fact, the purpose of effective leadership is to create positive change. Along with this, he or she dedicates time and effort into translating the organization's vision and mission to each employee for purposes of motivation, inspiration, and unifying the organization as a whole. Becoming a transformational leader is an *evolutionary* process.

A considerable literature base can be found about Transformational Leadership, and most data indicate that it tends to predict positive outcomes for organizations in terms of things like performance and desired organizational behavior. One of the potential problems with Transformational Leadership is that enthusiasm can easily be mistaken for

The Difference between Transactional and Transformational Leaders	
<i>Transactional Leadership</i>	<i>Transformational Leadership</i>
Leadership is responsive	Leadership is proactive
Works within the organizational culture	Works to change the organizational culture by implementing new ideas
Makes employees achieve desired organizational outcomes through rewards and punishment	Encourages and empowers employees to achieve the organization's desired outcomes by appealing to higher ideals and values
Tries to motivate followers by appealing to their own self-interest	Encourages followers to transcend their own interests for those of the organization or team

competency. While it is true that great things have been achieved through enthusiastic leadership, it is also true that many passionate leaders have led their followers into a bad place. Just because someone *believes* they are right, it does not mean they *are* right.

2.2.4 The Servant Leader

Servant Leadership represents a philosophy in which leaders focus on increased service to others rather than on increasing their own power. The goal is to enhance the growth of individuals in the organization and increase teamwork and personal involvement. The best test of the Servant-Leadership philosophy is whether or not those served by the organization and the organization's staff grow as persons. In other words, servant leaders are givers, not takers.

The concept of a servant leader is certainly not new. In the New Testament of the Bible, we have this statement from Jesus: *You know that those who are considered rulers over the Gentiles lord it over them, and their great ones exercise authority over them. Yet it shall not be so among you; but whoever desires to become great among you shall be your servant. And whoever of you desires to be first shall be slave of all. For even the Son of Man did not come to be served, but to serve, and to give His life a ransom for many.* (Mark 10:42-45).

At the very heart of servant-leadership is the genuine desire to serve others for the common good. The goal of the servant leader is to help people, not just to make them happy. In servant-leadership, self-interest gives way to collective human development. What distinguishes servant-leaders from others is not the quality of the decisions they make, but how they exercise their responsibility and whom they consult in reaching these decisions.

2.2.5 The Charismatic Leader

People tend to think of leaders as people who influence others to follow by the power of their *charismatic personality*. We think, for example, of John F. Kennedy's press conferences or Martin Luther King's stirring speeches. The "charismatic"

leader is able to articulate a compelling vision that responds to the needs and aspirations of the followers. Through their relationship with the charismatic leader, the followers gain feelings of power and build their self-esteem.

Actually, leaders don't have charisma; followers give leaders charisma. People tend to ascribe charisma to a leader who appears to meet their ideals and their needs. Charismatic leadership relies on the twin effect of a leader's personality and a strong belief by followers that this special person is the one to lead them in their hour of need. Charisma can be based on anything from physical appearance to past actions and successes.

Charismatic leaders are generally very skilled communicators. They tend to be individuals who are both verbally eloquent, but also able to communicate to followers on a deep, emotional level. These charismatic leaders use effective communication with their followers to gain their trust, and then influence and persuade them to follow. Charismatic leaders also pay a great deal of attention to scanning and reading their environment, and are good at picking up the moods and concerns of both individuals and larger audiences. They then will try to hone their actions and words to suit the situation.

Charisma can also be a negative if the leader becomes self-centered and domineering. Charismatic leaders can fall into the trap of charming themselves, a result of the heady recognition they get from the followers. Furthermore, when an organization is no longer in the crisis that may have brought this leader forward, the leader may attempt to cling to power, which could drive other potential leaders away. When there is a lack of concern or responsiveness to followers and constituents, the charismatic leader can lose his/her luster.

2.2.6 Situational Leadership

As we have seen, many theories and techniques exist for determining the right leadership styles for individuals in an organization. It can be argued that the best type of leadership is determined by the specific situation, and that no one style of leadership is appropriate for all given workplace situations.

Effective leaders should be aware of where they are with a specific follower, and where that follower is in his/her own stage of leadership development. For example, giving staff too much or too little direction can have a negative impact on their performance and their development as leaders.

Therefore, identifying the leadership style for an organization should ideally take into careful consideration the specific task, the complexity of the organization, and qualifications of the employees. A variety of leadership styles may be needed to lead different groups, such as the employees, the Board of Directors, volunteer groups associated with the organization, etc. Furthermore, the use of a particular leadership style with a particular person can depend on the situation of that person at a particular time.

The various leadership styles that exist provide no guidance on the kind of leadership that leaders should offer; they merely reflect what kinds exist. A style tends to contain what a particular leader has learned from other leaders that served as role models, and this style is influenced strongly by this experience. The leadership style also is affected by the purpose or goal of the leaders. Another influence, which is often quite strong, is the particular personality of the leader and/or the personality or capability of the followers or group being led, and/or of the situation in which the leader is leading his or her people.

2.3 LEADERSHIP MODELS AND THEORIES

Considerable debate exists in the scientific community about the definitions of a “model” or “theory.” Suffice it to say for our purposes that a leadership model or theory contains ideas on how to lead effectively and/or become a better leader. Numerous theories and versions of theories on leadership exist. However, the general conclusion of leadership research is that leadership principles are timeless, while the models that examine those principles may change.

Regardless, it is useful to review some of the key theories in order to gain a clearer perspective on what constitutes leadership. Some, but certainly not all, of these key theories

are discussed in this chapter, including trait theory, behavior theory, and contingency or situational theory.

1. Leadership Trait Theory

One of the early approaches to understanding leadership was the identification of specific “traits” that leaders supposedly possessed. Leadership traits represent the personal characteristics that differentiate leaders from followers. In psychology, a trait is a stable characteristic that potentially lasts throughout one’s entire life. It is something that is relatively inflexible, which would make it difficult for managers to significantly change these traits among their employees (or individuals changing their spouse’s traits).

The focus on traits is found in the early research into leadership, which can be characterized as a search for “the great man.” Personal characteristics of exemplary leaders were emphasized in this research, and the implicit idea was that leaders are born rather than made. The focus was on identifying and measuring traits that distinguished leaders from non-leaders or effective from ineffective leaders. The hope existed that a profile of an “ideal” leader could be derived from the above that could serve as the basis for selection of future leaders. People with the “right” traits would become the best leaders.

But how do you identify the common traits of good leaders? That was one of the many questions surrounding the study of leadership—questions that led to further research. For one thing, it was found that coming up with an exact list set of leadership traits is difficult due to:

- **Culture.** What works in one part of the world does not necessarily work in other parts; e.g., a trait that works in Cameroon will be less successful in America; or a trait that works in the Far north region may fall flat in the Northwest.
- **Context.** Whatever trait is appropriate depends on the context in which one finds oneself. For example, taking a leadership role with a group of people one hardly knows vs. taking that role within an established organization.

Despite the questions surrounding the validity of leadership trait theory, it is reasonable to assume that certain personality traits are associated with leadership, while others are not. Research over the years reveals that effective leaders tend to share the following traits:

- **Intelligence** — the ability to integrate and interpret information.
- **Creativity** — innovative and original in their thinking
- **Self-confidence** — trust in themselves and confidence in their abilities.
- **Drive** — a high level of energy, initiative, and tenaciousness
- **Task-relevant knowledge** — know their business and what it takes to make it successful.
- **Credibility** – honest, trustworthy, predictable, and dependable.
- **Motivation** — enjoy influencing others to achieve shared goals.
- **Flexibility** — adapt to fit the needs of followers and demands of situations.

Trait-based theory, by implication, asserts that the best leaders are born to lead and that effective leadership and potential leaders are determined by a largely pre-destined and unchanging set of character traits. From a training and development standpoint, trait-based theory also implies that if a person does not possess the “right” leadership traits, then he or she will not be able to lead effectively, or, certainly, will not lead as well as a natural-born leader. Training and development can foster leadership ability to a degree, but what really matters in this concept is to possess the appropriate traits or personality profile. The ideas and implications of trait-based leadership theory dominated leadership thinking until the mid- 20th century.

The inability to obtain consistent results when repeating the leadership trait studies raised further questions. Why couldn't researchers scientifically replicate these results? Some researchers pointed to the inherent difficulty in

measuring a human personality trait. How do you effectively and consistently measure self-confidence or loyalty, for example? These unanswered questions and many more gave rise to other theories on leadership.

2. Leadership Behavior Theory

As the questions about how to measure traits continued to challenge trait theory, researchers began thinking about measuring behavior. While you can't easily measure confidence or loyalty in a person, they noted, you can define a behavior or a set of behaviors that seem to embody the trait. Researchers define behaviors as observable actions, which makes measuring them more scientifically valid than trying to measure a human personality trait.

Behavioral theory contains some very different assumptions from trait theory. Trait theory assumes that a leader is born with specific traits that make him or her a good leader. Behavioral theory, on the other hand, assumes that you can learn to become a good leader because you are not drawing on personality traits. Your actions, or what you do, define your leadership ability.

3. Contingency Theory or Situational Leadership Theory

According to contingency theory, what works for a leader in one situation may not work in another. This theory attempts to explain why a leader who is very successful in one situation may fail when in another new situation or when the situation changes.

While researchers have proposed several contingency theories, one of the most famous was developed originally by P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard. In 1982 these researchers developed what they termed situational leadership theory, which uses "styles" of leadership that align with the task-versus-people orientation. But this leadership theory holds that a leader's most appropriate action or behavior depends on the situation and on the followers. To an extent, the effectiveness of a leader depends on whether his or her followers accept or reject him/her, as well as on the extent to

which the follower have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. The key words are *acceptance* and *readiness*.

According to Hersey and Blanchard, the motivation and the abilities of various leaders will affect their decisions in a given situation. They group leaders into four styles of leadership: *delegating, supporting, coaching, and directing*. Their theory assumes that each of these leadership styles can be effective, depending on the development level of the individual or people you are leading. In this theory, then, how you lead is not a question merely of you and your skills and abilities; it also depends heavily on your followers' abilities and attitudes.

Good leaders, according to Hersey and Blanchard, must adapt their leadership styles to the "maturity" and willingness of their subordinates. This creates a new level of complexity for leaders: how thoroughly the willingness, motivation, and abilities of the followers are considered can decide how successfully they will be led. In this and in similar theories, the leader is not everything; the followers must be included in the equation.

Subordinates in an organization may be at various levels of their own development. Initially, they may need to simply be told what they need to do. At the initial stage of their development, they are likely to lack the specific skills required for the job at hand. If you want to rob employees of their pride of workmanship, ask them to do something they cannot do. Decision-making by employees who lack knowledge, skills, and dedication places the organization at significant risk.

At some point, employees may merely need to be shown what to do. As their learning level rises, employees should be given the opportunity to do a task on their own, regardless of some risk being present. As employees grow in confidence and capability, top management may only need to observe performance and reinforce the positive. Ultimately, in this model, the leader only needs to manage the consequences of the work of the subordinates. Employees are experienced at the job, and comfortable with their ability to do it well. They may even be more skilled at the task than the leader. In all,

leadership will be most effective if a leader can look at a situation, decide what style of leadership is needed by the group, and act accordingly.

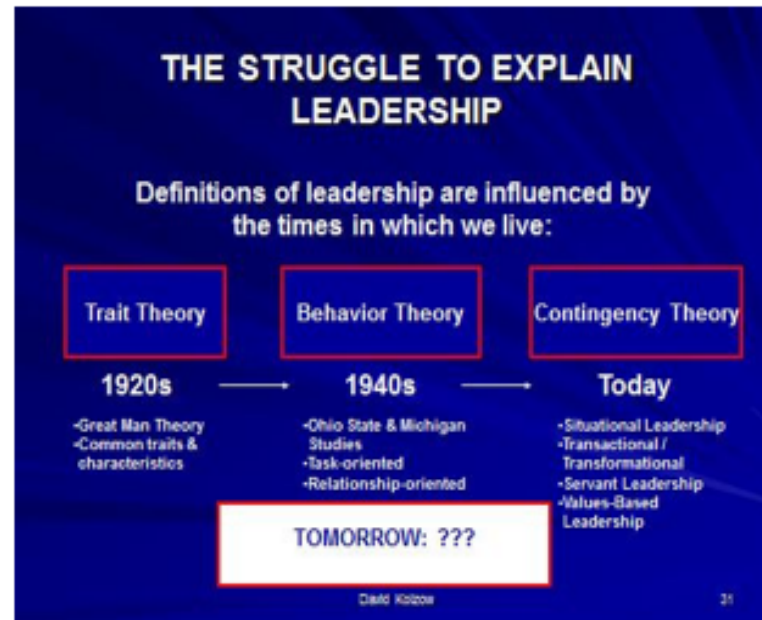


Fig. 2.2: Leadership Theory Transitions

2.4 LEADERSHIP STRATEGY

Without an effective leadership strategy, it is believed, that the organizational strategies do not work. Best players in a team do not guarantee success without a great coach, similarly, work teams may not function effectively if leaders do not follow an appropriate leadership strategy.

Here are some tips while selecting leadership strategy / style:

- ✓ A leader must be aware of his / her personality traits and those of his team members / followers to understand which leadership style will be most effective.
- ✓ A leader may not adopt a consistent leadership all

through his / her career. Situational Leadership helps addressing varied needs / expectations of the followers as the leader adopts a strategy based on a situation he / she is in. In case a leader has a self-reliant team, he needs to be using a directive leadership style or lead from the front. He could instead delegate and provide inputs where necessary.

- ✓ Common mistakes made especially by a lot of new leaders make is to copy established / well known leaders. Remember, each situation is unique and so are the followers. A leadership style which may be suited to a well-known leader may not be appropriate for your team. Make no mistake here - do not try and imitate other leaders.
- ✓ A leader will never be afraid of trying new approach to solve a work problem or address a conflicting situation. It is quite a possibility that a leader adopts a style that is not by the book.
- ✓ A leader must keep enhancing his / her leadership skills. While on the job experience matters a lot, getting enrolled into leadership courses after detailed evaluation of the program and feedback of the participants will help implementing a leadership style more effectively.

It is often said that good leaders are born and not made; however, good leaders are those who are aware of their personality traits and also of their followers. They know which leadership style is to be adopted in a particular situation. Once this is done, there is a little challenge left for a leader to become a “good / great” leader.

2.5 POWER AND LEADERSHIP

Power has been defined as the ability to influence the actions of others, which means that leadership can be viewed as the effective use of power. Leaders are people who have and use power. While an individual may exert power without being a leader, an individual cannot be a leader without having some level of power.

In today's politically correct environment, organizational leaders tend to shy away from the "power" word, often preferring to talk about "empowerment?" Some people have a strong negative reaction when talking about power because that word often is associated with negative applications; for example, manipulation, abuse, or harassment.

However, "Power" is not necessarily a negative concept. Power, like conflict, exists in all human interactions and is not always bad. It is how power and conflict are used and managed that determines how they should be thought of. When power is used in an ethical and purposeful way, there is nothing evil about it. In that light, a dictionary definition of power is the ***"ability to act or produce an effect"***.

What a lot of research has discovered is that power is really just a capacity. It is the capacity to influence other people and the strength and courage to accomplish something. It turns out that power, when applied appropriately, is exactly what it takes to promote action and make positive change happen. Continuing this thought, power, as defined by Stephen Covey, *is the vital energy to make choices and decisions*. Without some measure of power, a manager or leader would find it difficult to manage the work of his or her subordinates, thereby negatively impacting the productivity of the organization.

Actually, it is the perception others hold about a leader's power that gives one the ability to achieve compliance or influence. If leaders are to increase their chances of successfully influencing the behavior of others, they must know how to communicate to others the power they actually possess, as well as to build upon the powers they are perceived to have.

It is helpful to understand the following different types of leadership power and how they affect change in the organization. They basically fall into two broad categories, namely, positional power and personal power.

Positional Power

Individuals able to persuade other individuals to perform a certain job because of their position in the organization are

considered to have *positional power*, which is sometimes known as *legitimate power*. However, this is not true leadership. Leadership is not an inherent right that comes with a position; it is a privilege that evolves through a process. Generally, mayors of a city, a county commissioner, the chief executive officer of an organization, or the chairman of the board are good examples of position power. However, being in these management positions does not necessarily equate to being a leader. Furthermore, the organization's size and culture often has a bearing on the amount of influence exerted by individuals holding these key management positions.

Position gives an individual the power to make significant changes in the organization, to hire and fire staff, and to allocate resources. These individuals often derive a significant share of their influence from the position they hold, and a certain level of credibility is associated with these positions. People who rely on their position often mistakenly believe that it is the responsibility of others to come to them for what they need and want. However, people follow individuals with position power because they have to and will usually do only what is required of them. When those in positions of power ask for extra effort or time on the job, they rarely get it. That is why good leaders understand that it is their responsibility to initiate a productive and positive relationship with their people.

Positional leaders rarely value involving others when they make decisions or initiate action. Instead, they rely on their position to get things done. Unfortunately, what might be potentially a good decision is less likely to come to pass if no process is put in place to help it gain acceptance.

Types of positional power

Coercive Power

Coercive power, which is a type of positional power, gains compliance through threats or punishment. Followers are afraid of what might happen to them if they don't do what they are asked to do. This type of power is often held by an individual with the ultimate authority to fire subordinates. While the mere threat of coercive power may be enough to obtain a reaction from employees, it is insufficient to produce the type

of significant and sustainable change that is sought from a transformational leader. Instead, coercive power often produces superficial commitment (“lip-service loyalty”) and even hidden defiance and resistance among individuals, which is the opposite of what is hoped for.

In organizations, the most appropriate use of coercion is to deter behaviour that is very detrimental, such as illegal activities, theft, violation of safety rules, reckless behaviour that endangers others, and direct disobedience of legitimate requests. Furthermore, a leader might prefer coercive power as the most effective and desirable strategy in a particular situation, but might not use it out of concern that others would strongly disapprove.

Resource and Reward Power

People have resource power, another type of positional power, when they have the responsibility to decide what resources are available to others in the organization, such as budget expenditures, technology assets, or staffing assignments. Even a person low in the organizational management hierarchy can often have a great deal of resource control. Thus a person in charge of the organization’s finances, who can influence the sanction of other employees’ expenditure budget, can exercise resource power over them. It is not surprising that many of the political battles in organizations are over control of its resources. Clearly, the manager or managers in an organization need to get things done, which means they need to mobilize resources. In order to mobilize resources, a manager needs some amount of power.

Additionally, when someone is in the position to reward others, it gives that individual power. People comply because doing so produces positive benefits. These rewards are not just financial; they can be anything that someone values. Frequently, sincere public recognition in the form of praise, awards, and ceremonies focusing on the person’s contributions and achievements are found to be very effective.

Personal or Relationship Power

Personal power is the extent to which followers respect, feel

good about, and are committed to their leader, and see their goals as being shared and satisfied by the goals of their leader. In other words, personal power is the extent to which people are willing to follow a leader.

Relationship, or personal, power does not come from title, rank, or position on the organizational chart; it is derived from who the leader is personally. The competencies of the leader and his/her relationship skills, such as the ability to communicate or be persuasive, play an important part in this power base.

When it is clear that a leader likes people he/she interacts with and treats them like they have value, that leader is more likely to have influence with them. This personal power is the outcome of the respect that people have for this individual. Over time, trust and respect can evolve, and the interaction becomes much more positive and the relationships are more sustainable.

All great leaders use their personal power to extend their influence, and to persuade, educate, encourage, and empower others. That's how great organizations build relationships, establish credibility, and create an organizational culture of change.

Types of personal power

Referent Power

Referent power which is a type of personal refers to individual power based on a high level of identification with, admiration of, or respect for the power holder. Celebrities, charismatic leaders, and other highly-respected people hold referent power. Those with referent power inside the organization are excellent candidates to become game-changing leaders because their influence and leadership are driven by the value and respect others have of them. Referent power explains why celebrities are paid millions of FCFA to endorse products or services in commercials.

Expert Power

Another type of personal power is *expert power*. This is found

in those who it is believed are able to help others with performing a certain task or job, or who possess a unique base of needed information. These leaders can have a positive impact on staff members when they believe, recognize, and respect the leader's expertise and track record.

When expert leaders have the welfare of the organization and its members in mind, they can be viewed as having a unique ability to see the organization more clearly and understand problems more accurately than anyone else in the organization. This type of power gains compliance based on the ability to dispense valued information. On the other hand, leaders may try to protect their elevated status by hiding the sources of their knowledge and making it difficult for others to access it.

However, just having the expertise is not enough. This expert must behave in a way that leads others in the organization to recognize and value that expertise. In addition, an effective leader's job is not to know everything but to recruit and work with people who know things that he or she does not.

The Use of Power

A leader must use power wisely and justly, or it can become a liability rather than an asset. It only takes one incompetent act to result in an immediate loss of power. Good leaders work to build their sources of power and use their powers to influence others in the organization so that goals can be met and visions achieved.

2.6 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

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

- 1. Initiates action:** Leader is a person who starts the work by communicating the policies and plans to the subordinates from where the work actually starts.
- 2. Motivation:** A leader proves to be playing an incentive role in the concern's working. He motivates

the employees with economic and non-economic rewards and thereby gets the work from the subordinates.

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

MOTIVATION

All organizations are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high levels of performance through people. This means giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership and, importantly, the work they do and the organization context within which they carry out that work. The aim is to develop motivation processes and a work environment that will help to ensure that individuals deliver results in accordance with the expectations of management.

Unfortunately, approaches to motivation are too often underpinned by simplistic assumptions about how it works. The process of motivation is much more complex than many people believe. People have different needs, establish different goals to satisfy those needs and take different actions to achieve those goals. It is wrong to assume that one approach to motivation fits all. That is why the assumptions under-lying belief in the virtues of performance-related pay as a means of providing a motivational incentive are simplistic. Motivational practices are most likely to function effectively if they are based on proper understanding of what is involved. This is what we will discover in this chapter.

What Is Motivation?

Motivation refers to an internally generated drive to achieve a goal or follow a particular course of action. Highly motivated

employees focus their efforts on achieving specific goals. It's the manager's job, therefore, to motivate employees—to get them to try to do the best job they can. Motivated employees call in sick less frequently, are more productive, and are less likely to convey bad attitudes to customers and co-workers. They also tend to stay in their jobs longer, reducing turnover and the cost of hiring and training employees. But what motivates employees to do well? How does a manager encourage employees to show up for work each day and do a good job? Paying them helps, but many other factors influence a person's desire (or lack of it) to excel in the workplace. What are these factors, are they the same for everybody, and do they change over time? To address these questions, we'll examine some of the most influential theories of motivation: hierarchy-of-needs theory, two-factor theory, expectancy theory, McGregor's X and Y theory and the Carrot and Stick Approach of Motivation

Before we begin our discussion of the various theories of motivation, it is important to establish the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Simply put, ***intrinsic motivation*** comes from within: the enjoyment of a task, the satisfaction of a job well done, and the desire to achieve are all sources of intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, ***extrinsic motivation*** comes about because of external factors such as a bonus or another form of reward. Avoiding punishment or a bad outcome can also be a source of extrinsic motivation; fear, it is said, can be a great motivator.

3.1 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

What makes employees willing to “go the extra mile” to provide excellent service, market a company's products effectively, or achieve the goals set for them?

Answering questions like this is of utmost importance to understand and manage the work behavior of our peers, subordinates, and even supervisors. As with many questions involving human beings, the answers are anything but simple. So let's begin examining some of the influential theories of motivation.

1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow is among the most prominent psychologists of the 20th century and the hierarchy of needs, accompanied by the pyramid representing how human needs are ranked, is an image familiar to most business students and managers.

Maslow's theory is based on a simple premise: Human beings have needs that are hierarchically ranked. According to him, there are some needs that are basic to all human beings, and in their absence, nothing else matters. As we satisfy these basic needs, we start looking to satisfy higher-order needs. Once a lower-level need is satisfied, it no longer serves as a motivator.

The most basic of Maslow's needs are physiological needs. Physiological needs refer to the need for air, food, and water. Imagine being very hungry. At that point, all your behavior may be directed at finding food. Once you eat, though, the search for food ceases and the promise of food no longer serves as a motivator. Once physiological needs are satisfied, people tend to become concerned about safety.

Are they safe from danger, pain, or an uncertain future? One level up, social needs refer to the need to bond with other human beings, to be loved, and to form lasting attachments. In fact, having no attachments can negatively affect health and wellbeing. The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation.

The satisfaction of social needs makes esteem needs more salient. Esteem needs refer to the desire to be respected by one's peers, feeling important, and being appreciated. Finally, at the highest level of the hierarchy, the need for self-actualization refers to "becoming all you are capable of becoming."

This need manifests itself by acquiring new skills, taking on new challenges, and behaving in a way that will lead to the satisfaction of one's life goals. The fig. 3.1 shows Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.

Maslow's hierarchy is a systematic way of thinking about the different needs employees may have at any given point and explains different reactions they may have to similar

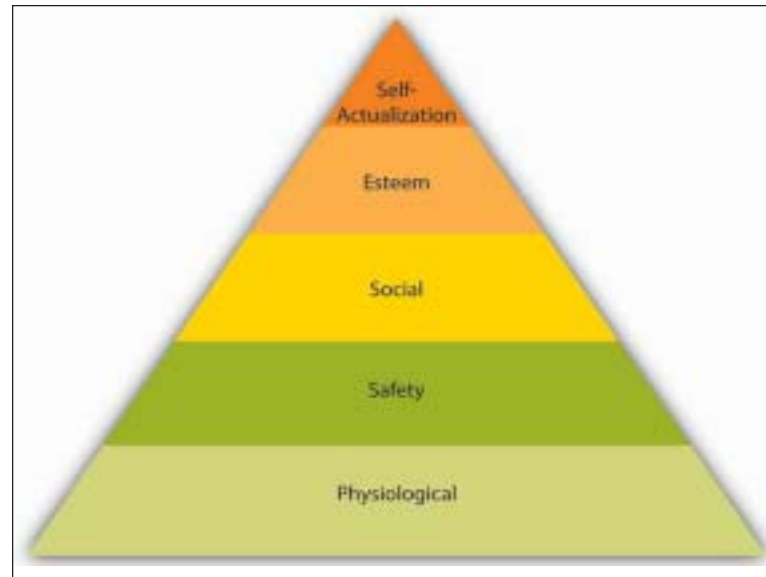


Fig. 3.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

treatment. An employee who is trying to satisfy her esteem needs may feel gratified when her supervisor praises her. However, another employee who is trying to satisfy his social needs may resent being praised by upper management in front of peers if the praise sets him apart from the rest of the group.

So, how can organizations satisfy their employees' various needs? By leveraging the various facets of the planning-organizing-leading-controlling (P-O-L-C) functions.

In the long run, physiological needs may be satisfied by the person's paycheck, but it is important to remember that pay may satisfy other needs such as safety and esteem as well. Providing generous benefits, including health insurance and company-sponsored retirement plans, as well as offering a measure of job security, will help satisfy safety needs. Social needs may be satisfied by having a friendly environment, providing a workplace conducive to collaboration and communication with others. Company games and other social get-togethers may also be helpful if the majority of employees are motivated primarily by social needs (but may cause resentment if they are not and if they have to sacrifice a

Sunday afternoon for a company games). Providing promotion opportunities at work, recognizing a person's accomplishments verbally or through more formal reward systems, job titles that communicate to the employee that one has achieved high status within the organization are among the ways of satisfying **esteem needs**.

Finally, self-actualization needs may be satisfied by providing development and growth opportunities on or off the job, as well as by assigning interesting and challenging work. By making the effort to satisfy the different needs each employee may have at a given time, organizations may ensure a more highly motivated workforce.

2. Two-Factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg approached the question of motivation in a different way. By asking individuals what satisfies them on the job and what dissatisfies them, Herzberg came to the conclusion that aspects of the work environment that satisfy employees are very different from aspects that dissatisfy them.

Herzberg labeled factors causing dissatisfaction of workers as “hygiene” factors because these factors were part of the context in which the job was performed, as opposed to the job itself. Hygiene factors included company policies, supervision, working conditions, salary, safety, and security on the job. To illustrate, imagine that you are working in an unpleasant work environment. Your office is too hot in the summer and too cold in the winter. You are being harassed and mistreated. You would certainly be miserable in such a work environment. However, if these problems were solved (your office temperature is just right and you are not harassed at all), would you be motivated? Most likely, you would take the situation for granted. In fact, many factors in our work environment are things that we miss when they are absent, but take for granted if they are present.

In contrast, motivators are factors that are intrinsic to the job, such as achievement, recognition, interesting work, increased responsibilities, advancement, and growth opportunities. According to Herzberg's research, motivators are the conditions that truly encourage employees to try harder.

The fig. 3.2 shows demonstrates Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation



Fig. 3.2: Demonstrates Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

Herzberg's research, which is summarized in the figure above, has received its share of criticism. One criticism relates to the classification of the factors as hygiene or motivator. For example, pay is viewed as a hygiene factor. However, pay is not necessarily a contextual factor and may have symbolic value by showing employees that they are being recognized for their contributions as well as communicating to them that they are advancing within the company. Similarly, quality of supervision or relationships employees form with their supervisors may determine whether they are assigned interesting work, whether they are recognized for their potential, and whether they take on more responsibilities. Despite its limitations, the two factor theory can be a valuable aid to managers because it points out that improving the environment in which the job is performed goes only so far in motivating employees.

3. Expectancy Theory

According to expectancy theory, individual motivation to put forth more or less effort is determined by a rational calculation.

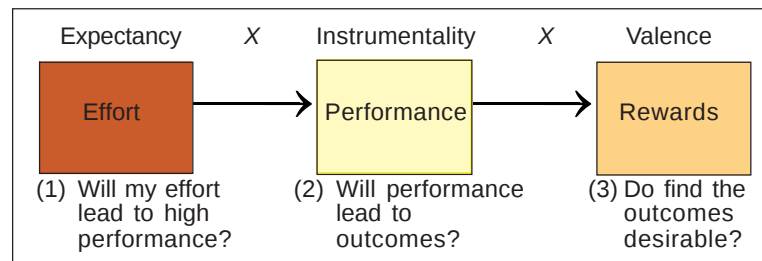


Fig. 3.3: Summary of Expectancy Theory

According to this theory, individuals ask themselves three questions. The fig. 3.3 presents a *Summary of Expectancy Theory*

The first question is whether the person believes that high levels of effort will lead to desired outcomes. This perception is labeled as expectancy. For example, do you believe that the effort you put forth in a class is related to learning worthwhile material and receiving a good grade? If you do, you are more likely to put forth effort.

The second question is the degree to which the person believes that performance is related to secondary outcomes such as rewards. This perception is labeled as instrumentality. For example, do you believe that passing the class is related to rewards such as getting a better job, or gaining approval from your instructor, from your friends, or parents? If you do, you are more likely to put forth effort.

Finally, individuals are also concerned about the value of the rewards awaiting them as a result of performance. The anticipated satisfaction that will result from an outcome is labeled as valence. For example, do you value getting a better job or gaining approval from your instructor, friends, or parents? If these outcomes are desirable to you, you are more likely to put forth effort. As a manager, how can you influence these perceptions to motivate employees?

To influence their expectancy perceptions, managers may train their employees, or hire people who are qualified for the jobs in question. Low expectancy may also be due to employees feeling that something other than effort predicts performance, such as political behaviours on the part of employees. In this case, clearing the way to performance and creating an environment in which employees do not feel blocked will be helpful. The first step in influencing instrumentality is to connect pay and other rewards to performance using bonuses, award systems, and merit pay. Publicizing any contests or award programs is helpful in bringing rewards to the awareness of employees. It is also important to highlight that performance and not something else is being rewarded.

For example, if a company has an employee-of-the-month award that is rotated among employees, employees are unlikely to believe that performance is being rewarded. In the name of being egalitarian, such a reward system may actually hamper the motivation of highest performing employees by eroding instrumentality. Finally, to influence **valence**, managers will need to find out what their employees value. This can be done by talking to employees, or surveying them about what rewards they find valuable.

4. McGregor's X and Y Theory

Theory X and Theory Y are two approach models used to manage and motivate employees. The managers follow Theory X model when they have negative expectation from employees. They adopt strict control and supervision and use reward and punishment method to motivate employees to work. Those managers that have positive expectations from employees follow Theory Y model.

McGregor first presented his ideas on "Theory X and Theory Y" in a classic article titled "The Human Side of Enterprise". After studying and analyzing the behaviour of different employees at work, McGregor came to conclusion that there are 2 types of employees. The employee falls either under Theory X or Theory Y.

(a) Theory X

The assumptions of this approach (regarding the behaviour of employees) are as follows:

- 1. Dislike work:** It is assumed that employees dislike work and are lazy by nature. Given an opportunity, they will prefer to avoid the work or try to shift the responsibility to others.
- 2. Avoid responsibility:** It is assumed that employees prefer to be followers rather than being leaders. They try to transfer the responsibility onto others. In other words, employees prefer taking orders and following instructions of seniors.
- 3. Disinterested in achieving organizational goals:** Management adopting this approach assumes that

employees are only concerned about meeting their own needs and goals. They are passive and disinterested in achieving organizational goals.

4. **Lack ambition:** It is assumed that employees do not have any career or personal ambitions. They are satisfied with moderate pay, responsibility and job security. In other words, they are not motivated to move beyond their present status.
5. **Lack creativity:** It is assumed that employees are not creative. They are dull, lack reasoning skills and do not use their common sense while dealing with problems.
6. **Resist change:** It is assumed that employees are inflexible or stubborn. They do not co-operate in introducing new system or methods as it makes them uncomfortable and may require them to learn new skills. Instead, employees prefer doing their routine and monotonous job.
7. **Lack self-motivation:** It is assumed that employees by themselves are not interested in taking additional responsibilities and initiatives. Mostly, they are forced to take up responsibilities and they need to be closely supervised by seniors.
8. **Opportunities:** It is assumed that employees do not take full advantage of the career opportunities available to them. They prefer to do their routine work. In other words, they tend to resist taking new challenges and higher job role.
9. **Orthodox by nature:** It is assumed that employees are satisfied with their current job and work environment. They do not support introduction of new ideas or innovative methods.
10. **Lower level needs:** It is assumed that employees are dominated by lower level needs such as job security, basic amenities and so on.

Since employees are not self-motivated and tend to avoid work, management adopts autocratic style of leadership. In other words, Theory X places emphasis on centralization of

authority. Further, management needs to maintain constant and close supervision over employees' work. Generally, reward and punishment method is used to motivate employees to perform better.

b. Theory Y

The assumptions of this approach (regarding the behaviour of employees) are as follows:

1. ***Attitude towards work:*** It is assumed that employees do not resist work. If comfortable work environment and good opportunity is provided to them, employees take active interest and initiative in work.
2. ***Creative:*** Management adopting this approach assumes that employees are creative. They use their intelligence and mental skills to deal with difficult situations. Further, employees tend to utilize their skills and abilities at work if they are properly guided by the superiors.
3. ***Self-motivated:*** It is assumed that employees are responsible and sincere. They are self-motivated to complete the assigned job on their own without any force or punishment. Hence, they need not be closely supervised by the seniors.
4. ***Interested in achieving organizational goals:*** It is assumed that employees take initiative and actively participate in achieving organizational goals. Further, employees realize that their growth depends on the growth and success of organization.
5. ***Ready to learn and contribute:*** It is assumed that employees are ready to learn and contribute more to the organization, if they are provided with good work environment and adequate growth opportunities.
6. ***Ambitions:*** It is assumed that employees have career ambitions and higher goals. They are motivated to work harder and make the best use of their abilities and take opportunities to achieve their goals.
7. ***Leaders and initiators:*** It is assumed that employees prefer to be leaders rather than followers. In other

words, employees prefer to lead and give orders rather than working under the control & instructions of other people.

8. **Opportunities:** It is assumed that employees take complete advantage of the career opportunities available to them. They have the desire to grow and develop over time. Such employees are given proper guidance, training and opportunities to exhibit their skills and potential.
9. **Encourage change:** It is assumed that employees are flexible in nature. They are ready to adjust as per the changing needs of the organization. They support introduction of new ideas and methods to improve performance and productivity.
10. **Higher level needs:** It is assumed that employees are dominated by higher level needs such as self-esteem, self-fulfillment and so on.

Since employees are assumed to be self-motivated and ambitious, management adopts situational and democratic style of leadership. The management holds that their employees are reliable and responsible and do not require constant control and supervision. Instead, management focuses on providing comfortable work situations, career opportunities, counseling sessions and training to employees.

5. Carrot and Stick Approach of Motivation

Carrot and stick motivation is a motivational approach that involves offering a “carrot” (a reward—for good behavior) and a “stick” (a negative consequence for poor behavior). It motivates staff by creating actionable goals and desirable rewards for employees who can alter their behavior and performance. It is a simple and effective form of feedback for employees.

The carrot and stick theory can be applied effectively in the workplace with a reward and consequence system as motivational tools for staff members. Using the carrot and stick approach in the workplace can be an effective form of extrinsic motivation. Set the goal you would like your employees to achieve, then create a carrot and a stick related to that goal.

For example, if you want your sales team to sign contracts with five new clients per month, you need a reward for those who do so and a consequence for those who don't. Your reward could be an increased commission on those five sales, and the consequence could be taking a percentage off of the commission of the employee with the lowest number of new clients that month.

The carrot and stick approach can work very well to modify the behavior of your employees, guiding them to avoid the actions that are punishable and engage in the actions that will earn rewards. As long as your reward is attractive enough and your consequence is undesirable, this method can help motivate employees to achieve your preferred outcomes.

Use the following steps to begin a carrot and stick motivational policy for your team:

1. Set a goal

When you first implement a carrot and stick policy, you need to set a goal for your employees. It should be measurable and achievable within a deadline. You need to be specific about what you want your staff to accomplish and have a date by which you expect the goal to be achieved.

By beginning with a series of small, attainable goals, your employees are more likely to reach your desired objectives and earn their rewards. It is important to begin with small goals that you are confident your staff will be able to achieve. This will make it easier to implement your carrot and stick policy.

Your objective should be a goal that can be measured, such as a certain production output, a sales total or another common metric used by your employees. Opt for a goal such as "Increase sales by 5% by the end of this quarter" instead of simply setting the goal to "Increase sales."

2. Create an incentive

The key to the carrot and stick approach is using an incentive that interests or appeals to employees. Decide on a reward you can offer for reaching the goal. There are four general types of rewards you could give your staff members:

- Compensation
- Benefits
- Recognition
- Appreciation

Choose a reward that you believe your employees would want to receive. In a large company, a company-wide email recognizing the employees who achieved the objective could be a highly sought-after reward. For a small startup with only a few employees who often work closely together, company-wide recognition might not be as attractive of a reward, and a small stipend or gift might be more appreciated. Consider what might be valuable to your employees, and use your company culture and structure to help you determine potential rewards.

If you notice that not many employees can reach your goal, try offering a different reward to see if that helps with motivation. Alter your rewards as needed by choosing a new reward if there doesn't seem to be enough interest, or by creating larger rewards for bigger, more challenging goals.

3. Decide who is eligible to receive the carrot

You will also need to decide who is eligible for the reward and clearly outline any qualifications to all employees. If everyone surpasses your goal, you may decide to give a small reward to each employee. Alternatively, you could choose to give a larger reward to the employee who performed the best. For example, if you have set a sales goal for your employees and they reach the goal, you could give everyone a small reward such as a staff party or a catered lunch, or choose to reward the top employee with a larger personal prize, such as a monetary bonus.

4. Outline a consequence

Choose a consequence for employees who do not meet the stated goal or have the lowest performance, and clearly communicate it. When your staff reaches its goals and you consistently follow through on providing the “carrot,” your staff members will be more inclined to believe that you will also follow through on the “stick” as well. Once they see that you are serious about your carrot and stick motivation policy, they

will be more motivated to avoid the punishment and receive the reward.

5. Decide who is eligible to receive the stick

Just like with the incentive, you will need to decide who receives a consequence. You could choose a small punishment for those who were unable to reach your goal, or you could have a more serious punishment for the employee who performed the worst at the task.

For example, if your goal is to reach a certain production output and only half of your employees can reach that goal, you could choose to have the employees who failed assist with inventory, or you could select the employee with the lowest output and give them the responsibility of tidying up the break room for the next two weeks.

6. Choose your carrot and stick policy carefully

If you choose to reward all staff members who can reach or surpass your goal, then your consequence should be applied only to the employee with the worst performance. Similarly, if you are singling out the employee who performed the best, apply a small punishment to all who were unable to reach your goal. This can help you avoid dividing your employees into those who got a small reward and those who got a small punishment.

You should unify your staff in achieving the goals you set out, while still allowing for them to compete. If everyone either gets a reward or a punishment, there will be little motivation to surpass the goal or avoid group punishment. Instead, single out either the employee with the best performance or the worst performance to motivate staff to be the one who avoids the stick and receives the carrot.

3.2 MOTIVATION INCENTIVES

Incentive is an act or promise for greater action. It is also called as a stimulus to greater action. An incentive is something which is given in addition to wages. It means additional remuneration or benefit to an employee in recognition of achievement or better work. Incentives provide

a spur or zeal in the employees for better performance. It is a natural thing that nobody acts without a purpose behind. Therefore, a hope for a reward is a powerful incentive to motivate employees. Besides monetary incentive, there are some other stimuli which can drive a person to better. This will include job satisfaction, job security, job promotion, and pride for accomplishment. Therefore, incentives really can sometimes work to accomplish the goals of a concern. The need of incentives can be many:-

- To increase productivity,
- To drive or arouse a stimulus work,
- To enhance commitment in work performance,
- To psychologically satisfy a person which leads to job satisfaction,
- To shape the behavior or outlook of subordinate towards work,
- To inculcate zeal and enthusiasm towards work,
- To get the maximum of their capabilities so that they are exploited and utilized maximally.

Therefore, management has to offer the following two categories of incentives to motivate employees:

1. **Monetary incentives:** Those incentives which satisfy the subordinates by providing them rewards in terms of rupees. Money has been recognized as a chief source of satisfying the needs of people. Money is also helpful to satisfy the social needs by possessing various material items. Therefore, money not only satisfies psychological needs but also the security and social needs. Therefore, in many factories, various wage plans and bonus schemes are introduced to motivate and stimulate the people to work.
2. **Non-monetary incentives:** Besides the monetary incentives, there are certain non-financial incentives which can satisfy the ego and self-actualization needs of employees. The incentives which cannot be measured in terms of money are under the category of "Non-monetary incentives". Whenever a manager has to satisfy the psychological needs of the

subordinates, he makes use of non-financial incentives. Non- financial incentives can be of the following types:

- (a) **Security of service:** Job security is an incentive which provides great motivation to employees. If his job is secured, he will put maximum efforts to achieve the objectives of the enterprise. This also helps since he is very far off from mental tension and he can give his best to the enterprise.
- (b) **Praise or recognition:** The praise or recognition is another non- financial incentive which satisfies the ego needs of the employees. Sometimes praise becomes more effective than any other incentive. The employees will respond more to praise and try to give the best of their abilities to a concern.
- (c) **Suggestion scheme:** The organization should look forward to taking suggestions and inviting suggestion schemes from the subordinates. This inculcates a spirit of participation in the employees. This can be done by publishing various articles written by employees to improve the work environment which can be published in various magazines of the company. This also is helpful to motivate the employees to feel important and they can also be in search for innovative methods which can be applied for better work methods. This ultimately helps in growing a concern and adapting new methods of operations.
- (d) **Job enrichment:** Job enrichment is another non-monetary incentive in which the job of a worker can be enriched. This can be done by increasing his responsibilities, giving him an important designation, increasing the content and nature of the work. This way efficient worker can get challenging jobs in which they can prove their worth. This also helps in the greatest motivation of the efficient employees.
- (e) **Promotion opportunities:** Promotion is an effective tool to increase the spirit to work in a

concern. If the employees are provided opportunities for the advancement and growth, they feel satisfied and contented and they become more committed to the organization.

The above non-financial tools can be framed effectively by giving due concentration to the role of employees. A combination of financial and non- financial incentives help together in bringing motivation and zeal to work in a concern.

3.3 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is very important for an organization because of the following reasons:

1. Improves Performance Level

Motivated employees have the ability and willing-ness to work and improve their performance level by obtaining relevant education and training. For example, a highly educated employee with experience of working in abroad is employed because this employee has new learning from her/his experiences to share, implement and improve performance levels of themselves and her/his colleagues.

2. Indifferent Attitudes can be Changed

Motivated employees attempt to change indifferent or negative attitudes of employees by engaging in supporting conversations without resorting to belittling and complaining comments, speaking up with a dismissive employee and addressing an employee's inability to work in a team situation. Motivated employees could also privately discuss negative attitudes, recognize HR policies and procedures and involve HR, to make them listen their problems and support them. With such high morale building exercises the possibility of conflicts and industrial disputes could be minimal.

3. Reduction in Resistance to Change

Changes can be uncomfortable and require employees to think and/or act differently. Changes in a business may seem as a sign of uncertainty that may further lead to anxiety among employees. Accordingly, employees should be motivated in an organization to embrace changes (if any) positively by

developing transparency and trust during the process of change in an organization. This motivation can be created by the management along with their employees by collectively, identifying and recognizing the benefits of possible changes.

4. Reduction of Employee Turnover and Absenteeism

Employee turnover is a measurement of the term or number of years an employee stays and/or replaced in the company. Highly motivated employees are considered to be the most reliable and valuable assets to the organization. They are more loyal, punctual and regular in their work schedule and stay on-job for a longer period of time in the organization. In case of poor working conditions, lack of recognition and poor relations with colleagues and superiors absenteeism could increase as these conditions demotivate employees to work harder.

5. Healthy Corporate Image

Motivation also helps organizations in improving their image due to efficient performance, maintenance of self-discipline and productive internal environment. It creates a good impression and enhanced image among people outside the organization.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Originally an anthropological term, culture refers to the underlying values, beliefs, and codes of practice that makes a community what it is. It refers to the totality of knowledge in an organization or society. Organizations are located within larger societal cultural contexts, yet almost all organizational cultures are unique to particular organizations. Obviously, there is cultural variation within each society, depending on the region in which a particular organization is located. In almost any organization around the globe, the organizational culture would consist of the uniquely patterned beliefs, feelings, values and behaviour that connect the members to the organization and simultaneously distinguish that organizational culture from the cultures of other organizations. Obviously, cultural dimensions are reflected in various forms in the external life of a society or an organization, as well as in the values and beliefs held by its members.

4.1 CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The simplest definition of culture is 'the way we do things round here' (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). It is a combination of values and beliefs, norms of behaviour that are acceptable or otherwise, written policies, pressures, and expectations coming down from the top, formal and informal systems, processes and procedures, and networks.

The culture of an organization is a product of history, a variety of external and internal influences, and priorities and values of key people in it. Culture is reflected in the artifacts - rituals, design of space, furniture and ways of dealing with various phenomena. Smircich (1983) defines organizational culture as a fairly stable set of taken-for—granted assumptions, shared beliefs, meanings, and values that bring forth a new way of understanding of organizational life. According to Denison (1984), organizational culture refers to the set of values, beliefs, and behaviour patterns that form the core identity of an organization.

4.2 ROLE OF CULTURE

The role of culture in an organization is to:

- Specify the goals and objectives of the organization;
- Specify the relations that exist within the organization;
- Specify what qualities are valued within organizations such as loyalty, confidentiality, dynamism, hard work, and so on and
- Specify the wider context within which the organization operates.

The success of any organization is linked to an organization culture in which people are encouraged to work together and share resources as needed. Organization culture exerts many effects on individuals and organizational processes - some dramatic and others more subtle. If the organization culture stresses the importance of product quality and excellent service, its customers will generally find their complaints handled politely and efficiently.

4.3 DEVELOPING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Organization cultures are developed and reinforced in a variety of ways. There are five primary and five secondary cultural development mechanisms. The five primary mechanisms are:

1. What leaders pay attention to, measure, to, and control,

2. Leaders' reactions to critical incidents and organizational crisis.
3. Deliberate role modeling, teaching and coaching.
4. Criteria for allocation of rewards and status.
5. Criteria for recruitment, selection, promotion and retirement employees.

There are five secondary mechanisms by which organizational culture develops. They are:

1. The organization's design and structure.
2. Organizational systems and procedures.
3. Design of physical space, facades and buildings.
4. Stories, legends, myths, and parables about important events and people.
5. Formal statements of organizational philosophy, creeds and charters.

4.4 TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Handy (1985) has analyzed the different types of organizational culture and offers a four-fold typology:

1. The power culture

In this, the organization stresses the role of individuals rather than committees. Individuals are power-oriented and politically aware. Control is exercised at the centre and is characterized by informal webs of influence rather than formal procedures. It is not characterized by bureaucracy.

2. The role culture

Here the stress is upon formal rules and roles and authority is vested in these roles. It is characterized by formal procedures and offers the individual security, stability and predictability. It is, therefore, characteristic of bureaucracy.

3. The task culture

This is job-oriented and is concerned with getting the job done. It is concerned with utilizing resources to meet the organization's objectives and is characterized by the requirement of efficiency. The culture adapts itself to change

and is driven by the need to provide goods and services for the customer.

4. The person culture

The individual is at the heart of this organization and this culture, according to Handy, is not often found. The organization serves the individual rather than the other way round. Control mechanisms or hierarchies are virtually impossible and influence the shared.

One way of classifying organizational culture can be autocratic or feudal, bureaucratic, technocratic, and entrepreneurial or democratic:

Traditionally bureaucracy has been described as a role culture, but there is no reason to suppose that the different cultures cannot exist within the same organization particularly if the organization is as large and diverse as a government department or a local authority. Each of the different cultures may express the roles that organizations perform. Problems arise where there is a clash of cultures.

All organizations exist within some wider context and we would expect an organization's culture to reflect this. Thus it may be unrealistic to expect a democratically run workplace when the prevailing political and social ethos is authoritarian. Organizations are social systems that have shared understandings, norms and values and have a common language. The history of the organization, its past values and beliefs also influence the present culture of the organization. Each of the different cultures may express the roles that organizations perform.

4.5 STRATEGIC AND CULTURAL VALUES

As the company grows and becomes successful, it usually develops a culture that distinguishes it from other companies and that is one of the reasons for its success. In other words, a company succeeds as a result of what the company does, its strategy, and how it does it, its culture. The process of creating an organizational culture is really a process of linking its strategic values with its cultural values. **Strategic values** are the basic beliefs about an organization's environment that

shape its strategy. Strategic analysis evaluates economic, demographic, public policy, technological, and social trends to identify needs in the marketplace that the organization can meet. The cultural values are the values employees need to act on for the organization to carry out its strategic values. Organizations that attempt to develop cultural values that are not linked to strategic values may end up with an empty set of values that have little relationship to its business.

After developing its strategic and cultural values, the organization must establish a vision of the organization's direction. This "vision" is a picture of what the organization will be like at some point in the future. It portrays how the strategic and cultural values will combine to create the future. For example, an insurance company might establish a vision of "protecting the lifestyles" of two million families by the year 2030." In effect, it synthesizes both the strategic and cultural values as it communicates a performance target to employees. Operationally, development of culture would involve developing a strong corporate identity, development of important values, building healthy traditions, and developing consistent management practices.

4.6 CULTURAL CHANGE

There are a number of internal and external factors which are responsible for cultural change in an organization.

Composition of the workforce: Overtime, the people entering an organization may differ in important ways from those already in it, and these differences may impinge on the existing culture of the organization.

Mergers and acquisitions: Another source of cultural change is mergers and acquisitions, events in which one organization purchases or otherwise absorbs another. In such cases, rare consideration is given to the acquired organization's culture. This is unfortunate because there have been several cases in which the merger of two organizations with incompatible cultures leads to serious problems, commonly known as culture clashes. In such cases, the larger and more powerful company attempts to dominate the smaller acquired company.

Planned organizational change: Even if an organization does not change by acquiring another, cultural change still may result from planned changes. One important force in planned organizational change is technology. Technology affects the behaviour of people on the job as well as the effective functioning of organizations.

4.6.1 Cultural Change Programme

A cultural change programme involves the following steps:

1. Identify the basic assumptions and beliefs and challenge them if necessary.
2. Define or re-define the core values - stated or unstated.
3. Analyze the organizational climate.
4. Analyze the management style.
5. Plan and implement what aspects of the culture need to be changed and what aspects should be maintained or reinforced.

Specific approaches to achieve a cultural change are:

1. Recognition to facilitate integration, to create departments or jobs which are responsible for new activities or to eliminate unnecessary layers of management.
2. Organization development to improve the effectiveness with which an organization functions and responds to change.
3. Communication to get the messages across about the values and to achieve the objectives.
4. Training to help form new attitudes to such matters as customer service, quality, productivity, managing and motivating people.
5. Recruitment to set out deliberately to change the type of people recruited.
6. Management by objectives to ensure that managers know what they are expected to do.
7. Performance management to ensure that managers,

supervisors and staff are assessed on the basis of the results they achieve and that performance improvement programmes are used to capitalize on strengths or overcome weaknesses.

8. Reward management to enhance the cultural assumption that rewards should be related to achievement by introducing performance-related bonus schemes and remuneration systems.

There are a variety of methods for developing, maintaining, or changing organizational cultures. The power to change company culture lies largely in the hands of management. Changing culture is not easy. However, when employees have been brought up in a particular tradition, they may find it difficult to recognize the need for and scope of the changes required. The organization culture has its deep roots and hence it cannot be changed overnight. It takes time and patience, nevertheless the journey has to be undertaken to reach a new era.

The culture of a business is not formed by what management preaches or publishes, but by what they accept in practice. Cultural change needs clear vision, commitment, persistence and determination. In today's increasingly uncertain and turbulent times, organizations must depend on the people in their systems to develop a culture of innovation and change. It is people who will push for change - not systems or technology. Some organizations are better at sustaining a dynamic environment, one that can adapt and change to new demands and some organizations resist each change imposed on them.

4.7 CORPORATE CULTURE

Corporate culture has been defined as the personality of an organization. It encompasses the company's goals and dominant ideologies. It is a system of shared values that interact with a company's People, organizational structure and control system to produce behavioural norms. The interest in corporate culture is derived from the organizational behaviour specialists and from the empirical studies.

The corporate culture underlines much of the way in which things get done in the organization. It encompasses the company's goals and dominant ideologies. Environmental influences will make a strong impact on the corporate culture. The organization has to survive and thrive in an external environment which could be turbulent or steady. Against this background, corporate culture is created by organizational members with the values, philosophy, beliefs, assumptions and norms, with the top management playing a dominant role.

Corporate culture contains assumptions about the nature of the business and its markets and customers, the way in which business should be carried out, how work should be organized, the sort of people the organization needs and how they should be treated. Among the factors that affect corporate culture are work groups, organizational characteristics, supervision, and administration.

A corporate culture can be strong or weak, and a strong culture is not necessarily a good one - it could be a wrong culture and it could be difficult to change. A weak culture, even a practically non-existent culture, may be acceptable if the organization functions well. Within one organization, there may be a dominant culture, but there will certainly be many sub-cultures in different departments or locations.

Corporate culture manifests itself in organizational behaviour - how managers and individual employees or groups behave in the context of the organization. Culture influences behaviour in three areas:

- **Corporate Values:** Belief in what is best or good for the organization and what should or ought to happen. They are expressed by reference to both ends (goals) and means (action plans for achieving goals).
- **Organizational Climate:** The working atmosphere of the organization as perceived and experienced by its members. This will encompass how people feel about and react to the characteristics and quality of the corporate culture and its values.
- **Management Style:** It is the way in which managers behave and exercise authority. They may be autocratic

or democratic, tough or easygoing, formal or informal. It also describes the way in which managers behave.

Corporate culture is a somewhat elusive concept, because it is based on the taken-for-granted assumptions and beliefs about what is good and not good for the organization. There may not be a single culture but a number of cultures spread throughout the organization; and this does make managing the culture any easier. In any case, there is no such thing as a “good” or “bad” culture, but only cultures which are appropriate or inappropriate. If you have an appropriate culture, its management consists of no more than maintaining the existing values, climate and management style; change is not necessary. Cultural change in programmes may be required if the wrong assumptions have created an inappropriate culture affecting the performance of the individuals within an organization.

Corporate culture is a key factor in achieving success but it is not easy to get it. A deeply-rooted culture may be difficult to change -old habits die hard. The answer to the question, “Can it be changed?” is “Yes, but with difficulty.”

Every organization has its own unique culture or value set. Most organizations do not consciously try to create a certain culture. The culture of the organization is typically created unconsciously, based on the values of top management or the founders of an organization, for instance, Hewlett-Packard is a company that has, long time, been conscious of its culture and has worked hard to maintain it over the years. Hewlett Packard's corporate culture is based on: (1) respect for others, (2) a sense of community, and (3) plain hard work. It has been developed and maintained through extensive training of managers and employees. HP's growth and success over the years has largely been due to its culture.

Cultural systems are the most neglected part of HRD, but they have attracted some attention in the last few years. Interest in culture has been aroused by the examples of Japanese successes characterized by a high commitment to work, loyalty towards the organization, concern for quality, and high levels of productivity. Some organizations in India have adopted the Japanese practices, notable among them being

the Maruti Udyog and Sundaram Clayton. These practices are a 7-hour-45-minute shift, zero-defect production, cost-cutting, and discipline. These practices help in the development of a new organizational culture.

In India, TISCO has traditionally built up a culture of its own and successfully continued with the same. Indian companies have diverse cultures of their own across the country. The culture of public sector organizations is different from that of the private sector. Even there is cultural diversity within the private and public sector organizations.

4.8 WORK CULTURE

Culture, in the context of human civilization, is the way of life of a human group. Work culture, which in the context of an organization is also known as organizational culture, is essentially a learned and shared set of responses of constituent individuals and groups to the organization environment, tasks and problems (Sinclair, 1993). Stated another way, it consists of what people believe about how things work in their organization, and the behavioural and physical outcomes of such beliefs (Sinclair, 1993). It is thus a combination of attitudes, relationships, developed abilities, habits and other behavioural patterns of the individuals who belong to the organization. An important constituent of work culture is work ethos.

The attributes of work culture are:

Timing: Being punctual while reporting to office and attending meetings.

Responsiveness: Response to requests, queries and instructions from customers and colleagues.

Communication: Adherence to prescribed norms set for verbal/written means of communication such as face to face interaction, e-mail, telephone, voicemail.

Professional Work Etiquette: Adherence to prescribed norms of behaviour at work with respect to speech, grooming, punctuality, interpersonal interactions, use of office resources.

Housekeeping: Adherence to prescribed norms of

hygiene and cleanliness with respect to workstations and public areas.

Infrastructure: Adherence to norms set for office layout, interiors, and facilities.

Commitment to Results: Focus on results at an individual, group, functional level, which are in line with company objectives.

Performance Recognition: Standards of performance and ways and means of recognizing performance.

Quality Consciousness: Awareness of the quality standards and adherence to the same.

Process Orientation: Formulations of processes that are in line with the company objectives and adherence to the same.

Proactivity: Anticipation of needs, problems, possibilities and taking appropriate steps to address them.

Sense of Belonging: A feeling of being an important part of the organization.

Team Work: A group of people with complementary skills, working synergistically in a mutually and positive environment towards a common objective.

Group Dynamics: Interactions within and across groups in the organization.

Socialization Practices: Informal interpersonal interactions at individual and group level that may or may not have an impact on the company objectives.

Decision-Making: A process of finding the most viable alternative from a set of possibilities in order to meet an objective. The process could be unilateral or participative.

Respect for Others: To recognize that each person in the organization plays an important role and has a valuable contribution to make.

Caring: An attitude that reflects a genuine interest and concern for people at work or otherwise.

Interpersonal Sensitivity: Knowing and respecting likes and dislikes of people.

Informal Power Centres: Unofficial structures of influence created by individuals or groups to achieve their objectives.

Openness: Sharing of information and transparent decision-making. Freedom to ask questions and offer differing views.

In the Indian context, some of the important characteristics of work culture should be:

- Discipline
- Teamwork and cooperation
- Communication and consultation
- Flexibility and work innovation
- Delegation of authority
- Identity and a sense of belonging to the organization
- Role of unions and associations
- Response of individuals and groups to changing environment.

The following are some of the important measures to be taken for developing work culture:

- Be fair but firm in dealings with subordinates.
- Take an active interest in the personal and family needs/problems of subordinates.
- Discourage overemphasis on hierarchical status.
- Promote information-sharing and communication.
- Encourage the setting of goals/targets and decision-making through consultation and participative forums and ensure consistency in decision-making.

The work culture represents the prevailing beliefs, mores, and values pertaining to work. Improvement in work culture can be achieved if we not only identify but also develop the talent of all employees in the organization to achieve improved performance. This can be achieved by trying to build a learning organization. Different approaches have been adopted to create a climate conducive to work.

The internal factors that influence the work culture of an organization can be broadly listed as:

- Management policies and practices.
- The extent of job security and physical facilities for ensuring the safety of employees at the workplace.
- The extent of inter-departmental cooperation within the organization.
- Cordiality in inter-personal relations between managerial personnel and rank and file workers.
- Adequacy of communication systems within the organization.
- Welfare services provided by the company to their employees and dependents.
- Recruitment and selection methods employed by the organization.
- Training and career development opportunities available within the organization.
- Existence of performance norms for employees at various levels and their effectiveness and promotion opportunities available.
- The pattern of compensation, recognition and reward systems in the organization.
- Norms governing discipline and effectiveness of the grievance handling system.
- Employee participation in the decision-making process.
- Relations between trade unions and management and trade unions themselves.
- Meaningfulness and variety of technology involved in the work.

Broadly speaking, two types of change are required to bring about a change in work culture. First, appropriate organizational climate, innovative design, and an effective managerial style for which the onus will be entirely on the management. Second, employees' attitude to work, commitment to organizational goals, and motivation and morale.

A significant work culture is to be built up:

- To perform up to the highest measure of competence.

- To take initiatives and risks.
- To adapt to change.
- To make decisions.
- To work co-operatively as a team.
- To be open especially with information, knowledge, and news of forthcoming or actual “problems”.
- To trust, and be trustworthy.
- To respect others (customers, suppliers, and colleagues) and oneself.
- To answer for actions and to accept responsibility.

To judge and be judged, reward and be rewarded, on the basis of performance.

CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Change management is defined as the methods and manners in which a company describes and implements change within both its internal and external processes. This includes preparing and supporting employees, establishing the necessary steps for change, and monitoring pre- and post-change activities to ensure successful implementation.

One of the greatest challenges faced by organizations today is the volatility of the global markets. Globalization has greatly affected the market and so have opportunities for more growth and revenue. However, to serve such a diverse marketplace, organizations need to respond to and understand the needs and expectations of the marketplace.

Organizations are required to constantly innovate and update their processes and operational efficiencies to collaborate with the expanding markets. Organizations that refuse to change or move forward are forced to exit the market or may be wiped out by forward looking companies.

It is this movement or shift in an organization to improve the performance of the entire organization or a part of the organization that is referred to as Organizational Change.

Organizational change is a process in which a large company or an organization changes its working methods or aims, in order to develop and respond to new situations or markets.

5.1 WHY ORGANIZATIONS NEED TO CHANGE

Substantial organizational changes take place typically when organizations perceive a need to change the overall strategy and direction for success, adds or discontinues a major segment or practice, and/or wants to change the very nature by which it operates. It also occurs when an organization evolves through its life cycles, and has to restructure itself to grow.

Organizational change is often a response to changes in the environment. Some of the reasons prompting changes are:

Market Dynamics: The changing market conditions cause unexpected changes which organizations find hard to adjust to. To stay in business and continue to serve the customers, organizations have to align themselves to these variations.

Globalization: Globalization has created enormous opportunities as well as global challenges to organizations. The market has thus expanded across geographies, and organizations in order to succeed have to serve customers across these regions. While doing this, organizations are finding it more affordable and logical to produce goods and deliver services in certain countries compared to others. The availability of local resources, the environment of the countries they serve in, localization of goods and services, etc. are some reasons for this. To cater to global market, organizations have to understand the global environment and market behavior, and align the organizations to these new situations.

Organizational Development: As organizations grow and develop in size, the policies, procedures and the structure that forms the core, also needs to evolve. Organizational changes may involve changes to its mission and objectives, strategy and direction, organizational structure and hierarchy, etc. Adjusting an organization's internal direction and environment requires considerable dedication and a careful management.

Reaction to External Environments: Organizations are greatly impacted by the environments that surround it. External pressures come from many areas, including customers, competition, changing government regulations, shareholders, financial markets, and other factors in the organization's external environment.

Performance Gaps: Organizations that have been having issues with their results are often the ones that consider changes. Performance gaps can be identified in several areas like production, sales and marketing, service, etc. Such companies need to conduct a serious study and identify factors causing gaps and change accordingly to succeed.

Mergers & Acquisitions: Mergers and acquisitions create reorganization in a number of areas. When two organizations merge, significant changes are expected.

5.2 TYPES OF ORGANIZATION CHANGE

The 3 most common types of organizational change include:

1. **Developmental change:** Any organizational change that improves and optimizes on previously established processes, strategies and procedures.
2. **Transitional change:** Change that moves an organization away from its current state to a new state in order to solve a problem, such as mergers and acquisitions and automation.
3. **Transformational change:** Change that radically and fundamentally alters the culture, core values and operations.

5.3 ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE FACTORS

Organizational change as we have read is a strategic initiative impacting almost every aspect of its operations and functions. The factors that induce changes almost always require immediate attention. The major forces that drive this change in business are:

- Internal environment
- External environment

(a) The Internal Environment

The internal environment of an organization consists of factors within the organization over which it can exercise a fair amount of control. Some of the internal factors are:

- **Employees:** Employees are the human capital of the organization. An organization without a motivated and dedicated workforce will not be able to perform in spite of having the best products and capital. Employees must take the initiative to change their workplace, or changes in work tasks for more efficient and effective performance.
- **The Organizational Structure:** The organizational structure is what governs and guides the effective operations of the company. It defines and scopes the authority and hierarchy in the company. However, over time the organizational structure needs reorganization to answer to the needs of an evolving entity and becomes an internal source of organizational change.
- **Organization Processes:** The processes in organization are collections of activities that need to be undertaken in order to produce an output, and that will have a value for consumers. There are various processes in the organization that need to be constantly updated to keep serving the market like – manufacturing, distribution, logistics, information technology, etc.

Apart from the above factors like the company's mission and objectives, organizational culture and style of leadership are factors typically associated with the internal environment of an organization and can have a considerable impact on the organization.

(b) The External Environment

The external environment of an organization are those set of factors which the organization cannot exercise control on. Though these factors are external to the organization, they have a significant influence over its operations, growth and sustainability.

- **Economic Factors:** The macroeconomic factors like the political and legal environment, the rate of inflation and unemployment, monetary and fiscal policies of the government, etc. are causes that have a high influence on companies and prompt for changes in the organization. Managers need to carefully track these indicators in order to make the right decisions for change.
- **Socio-cultural Factors:** The local and regional conditions greatly influence people's values, habits, norms, attitudes and demographic characteristics in the society. All of these factors highly influence the business operations or will do so in the future.
- **Global Environment:** The increasing globalization of markets has made organizations sensitive to changes. Any change or crisis in the global market affects every business, and corrective measures are not often easy and immediately taken.
- **Technology:** Technology has become an intrinsic part of business operations. It regulates processes in all aspects like manufacturing, distribution, logistics, finance, etc. Organizations have to be up-to-date with the ever-changing technological advancements in order to improve efficiencies and remain competitive.

5.4 THE FOUR PRINCIPLES OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT

No organization can afford to stand still. There are always new challenges to meet, and better ways of doing things. However, every change you need to make should be planned and implemented with care; otherwise it could end up doing more harm than good!

In this section, we will explain how you can enact positive and productive change in your organization using four core principles of successful change management.

Principle 1: Understand Change

To successfully promote the benefits of the change, you need to understand them yourself. So, think about:

- Why you need to change. What are your key objectives?
- What will the benefits of the change be to the organization?
- How will it impact people positively?
- How will it affect the way that people work?
- What will people need to do to successfully achieve the change?

It can also be helpful to think about what the negative outcomes of **not** making the change would be. Beckhard and Harris' Change Equation shows that, for change to work, there has to be sufficient dissatisfaction with the old way of doing things. But people also need to feel confident that the new approach will be better – and that there's a clear route to get there.

Principle 2: Plan Change

Effective change doesn't just happen by chance, and any plan you make has to be right for your organization. The way that change projects are managed can vary from organization to organization. Some have very rigid change methodologies, while others are more open and flexible in their approach.

However, in general, you will need to consider the following:

- **Sponsorship:** How will you secure, engage and use high-level support and sponsorship of the change?
- **Involvement:** Who is best positioned to help you to design and implement the change? For example, will you need external expertise? Or can you use internal resources?
- **Buy-in:** Change is most effective when you are able to win support from people across the business. How do you plan to achieve this?
- **Impact:** Finally, think about what success should look like. How will you predict and assess the impact of the change that you need to make? What goals do you need to achieve?

Principle 3: Implement Change

Whatever tools you choose, the following steps can help you to implement change in a positive way:

- Ensure that everyone involved in the changes understands what needs to happen – and what it means for them.
- Agree success criteria for your changes, and make sure that they're regularly measured and reported on.
- Map and identify all of the key stakeholders that will be involved in the change and define their level of involvement.
- Identify any training needs that must be addressed in order to implement the change.
- Appoint "change agents," who will help to put the new practices into place – and who can act as role models for the new approach.
- Find ways to change people's habits, so that the new practices become the norm.
- Make sure that everyone is supported throughout the change process.

Principle 4: Communicate Change

Communication can be a make-or-break component of change management. The change that you want to implement has to be clear and relevant, so people understand what you want them to do and why they need to do it. But you also have to set the right tone, so that you get the emotional reaction you're hoping for.

It's a good idea to link the changes that you're planning to your organization's mission or vision statements. Not only will this help people to see how the change positively impacts the "bigger picture," it will also provide them with an inspiring, shared vision of the future.

5.5 CHANGE RESISTANCE

Organizational change is sometimes unavoidable. It is a complex process that affects the organization all across. Not

all employees and departments welcome changes to their existing environment and processes. It is normal human reaction to defend the status quo if security or status is threatened.

Managing resistance to change is challenging. Some reasons why change is resisted in organizations are:

Impact of Change: Employees resist change if it is not favorable to them. They tend to be more welcoming of changes that are favorable to them and empower them. Resistance also happens when change is thrust onto people without giving them adequate warning and without helping them through the process of understanding what the change will entail and how it will impact their jobs/work.

Self-Interest Before Organizational Well-being: Some employees resist changes as it comes in the way of their personal interest and agenda. They fear that the change will delay or obstruct the fulfillment of their hidden agenda.

Personality Trait: Some are inherently more resistant to any kind of change than others. Employees having a positive and optimistic approach are more willing to accept changes than employees who have a negative approach.

Uncertainty: Change often brings feelings of uncertainty as the end result is usually unknown. The environment after transformation could change for the better or sometimes worse than it was earlier. This lack of clarity creates insecurity in employees as it leads to a sense of loss of control.

Fear of Failure: Changes in the work processes can create uncertainty over their capabilities in employees as they fear that they may not be able to adapt to the new requirements. Thus employees who are confident of their abilities and performance are more likely to welcome the proposed change, than those who have lower confidence.

Fear of Job Loss: Another important factor that

causes employees to resist change is the fear that they may lose their job in the organization once the transformation is affected. This usually happens in organizations that undertake restructuring or downsizing as a major cause of the change.

5.5.1 Overcoming Resistance to Change

Implementing change is always difficult for organizations. But the transition can be made smooth if the management goes through it with empathy and compassion after thorough analysis, planning, and strategizing.

The top management must fully understand how change works in order to lead their organizations successfully into the future. The introduction and management of change are emerging as two of the most critical elements of leadership for the future.

Address Employee Concerns: A management that is truly concerned about its employees will address and deal with the concerns of the employees first, by giving them confidence and assuring that the change will bring positive results and then focus on the organizational benefits.

Effective Communication: A good leader is also an effective communicator. As a change agent, the leader rather than communicating with the employees what they stand to gain from the change can have a greater impact by telling them what they stand to lose if they don't accept the change.

Creating an Atmosphere of Trust: Exercises such as teambuilding, trust-building, and open and honest communication with the employees prior to the introduction of change will help create an atmosphere of trust. If employees are involved in the change process and their inputs sought, it will help them accept the changes implemented without fear.

Link Changes to Employee Concerns: Employees' perception of change can be made positive and welcoming by associating the need for change to other

issues that they are concerned about like issues of health, job security, and better working atmosphere.

5.6 KOTTER'S 8-STEP CHANGE MODEL

There are many theories about how to “do” change. Many originate with leadership and change management guru, John Kotter. A professor at Harvard Business School and world-renowned change expert, Kotter introduced his eight-step change process in his 1995 book, “Leading Change.” Below are his eight steps for leading change, below.

Step 1: Create Urgency

Develop a sense of urgency around the need for change. This may help you spark the initial motivation to get things moving.

This is not simply a matter of showing people poor sales statistics or talking about increased competition. Open an honest and convincing dialogue about what’s happening in the marketplace and with your competition. If many people start talking about the change you propose, the urgency can build and feed on itself.

What you can do:

- Identify potential threats, and develop scenarios showing what could happen in the future.
- Examine opportunities that should be, or could be, exploited.
- Start honest discussions, and give dynamic and convincing reasons to get people talking and thinking.
- Request support from customers, outside stakeholders and industry people to strengthen your argument.

Step 2: Form a Powerful Coalition

Convince people that change is necessary. This often takes strong leadership and visible support from key people within your organization. Managing change is not enough – you have to lead it.

You can find effective change leaders throughout your organization – they don’t necessarily follow the traditional company hierarchy. To lead change, you need to bring

together a coalition, or team of influential people whose power comes from a variety of sources, including job title, status, expertise, and political importance.

Once formed, your “change coalition” needs to work as a team, continuing to build urgency and momentum around the need for change.

What you can do:

- Identify the true leaders in your organization, as well as your key stakeholders.
- Ask for an emotional commitment from these key people.
- Work on team building within your change coalition.
- Check your team for weak areas, and ensure that you have a good mix of people from different departments and different levels within your company.

Step 3: Create a Vision for Change

When you first start thinking about change, there will probably be many great ideas and solutions floating around. Link these concepts to an overall vision that people can grasp easily and remember.

A clear vision can help everyone understand why you are asking them to do something. When people see for themselves what you’re trying to achieve, then the directives they’re given tend to make more sense.

What you can do:

- Determine the values that are central to the change.
- Develop a short summary (one or two sentences) that captures what you “see” as the future of your organization.
- Create a strategy to execute that vision.
- Ensure that your change coalition can describe the vision in five minutes or less.
- Practice your “vision speech” often.

Step 4: Communicate the Vision

What you do with your vision after you create it will determine

your success. Your message will probably have strong competition from other day-to-day communications within the company, so you need to communicate it frequently and powerfully, and embed it within everything that you do.

Don't just call special meetings to communicate your vision. Instead, talk about it every chance you get. Use the vision daily to make decisions and solve problems. When you keep it fresh on everyone's minds, they will remember it and respond to it.

It's also important to "walk the talk." What you do is far more important – and believable – than what you say. Demonstrate the kind of behavior that you want from others.

What you can do:

- Talk often about your change vision.
- Address peoples' concerns and anxieties, openly and honestly.
- Apply your vision to all aspects of operations – from training to performance reviews. Tie everything back to the vision.
- Lead by example.

Step 5: Remove Obstacles

Put in place the structure for change, and continually check for barriers to it. Removing obstacles can empower the people you need to execute your vision, and it can help the change move forward.

What you can do:

- Identify, or hire, change leaders whose main roles are to deliver the change.
- Look at your organizational structure, job descriptions, and performance and compensation systems to ensure they're in line with your vision.
- Recognize and reward people for making change happen.
- Identify people who are resisting the change, and help them see what's needed.

- Take action to quickly remove barriers (human or otherwise).

Step 6: Create Short-Term Wins

Nothing motivates more than success. Give your company a taste of victory early in the change process. Within a short time frame (this could be a month or a year, depending on the type of change), you will want to have some “**quick wins**” that your staff can see. Without this, critics and negative thinkers might hurt your progress.

Create short-term targets – not just one long-term goal. You want each smaller target to be achievable, with little room for failure. Your change team may have to work very hard to come up with these targets, but each “win” that you produce can further motivate the entire staff.

What you can do:

- Look for sure-fire projects that you can implement without help from any strong critics of the change.
- Don’t choose early targets that are expensive. You want to be able to justify the investment in each project.
- Thoroughly analyze the potential pros and cons of your targets. If you don’t succeed with an early goal, it can hurt your entire change initiative.
- Reward the people who help you meet the targets.

Step 7: Build on the Change

Kotter argues that many change projects fail because victory is declared too early. Real change runs deep. Quick wins are only the beginning of what needs to be done to achieve long-term change.

Launching one new product using a new system is great. But if you can launch 10 products, that means the new system is working. To reach that 10th success, you need to keep looking for improvements.

Each success provides an opportunity to build on what went right and identify what you can improve.

What you can do:

- After every win, analyze what went right, and what needs improving.
- **Set goals** to continue building on the momentum you have achieved.
- Learn about kaizen, the idea of continuous improvement.
- Keep ideas fresh by bringing in new change agents and leaders for your change coalition.

Step 8: Anchor the Changes in Corporate Culture

Finally, to make any change stick, it should become part of the core of your organization. Your corporate culture often determines what gets done, so the values behind your vision must show in day-to-day work.

Make continuous efforts to ensure that the change is seen in every aspect of your organization. This will help give that change a solid place in your organization's culture.

It's also important that your company's leaders continue to support the change. This includes existing staff and new leaders who are brought in. If you lose the support of these people, you might end up back where you started.

What you can do:

- Talk about progress every chance you get. Tell success stories about the change process, and repeat other stories that you hear.
- Include the change ideals and values when hiring and training new staff.
- Publicly recognize key members of your original change coalition, and make sure the rest of the staff – new and old – remembers their contributions.
- Create plans to replace key leaders of change as they move on. This will help ensure that their legacy is not lost or forgotten.

You have to work hard to change an organization successfully. When you plan carefully and build the proper foundation, implementing change can be much easier, and

you'll improve the chances of success. If you're too impatient, and if you expect too many results too soon, your plans for change are more likely to fail.

Create a sense of urgency, recruit powerful change leaders, build a vision and effectively communicate it, remove obstacles, create quick wins, and build on your momentum. If you do these things, you can help make the change part of your organizational culture. That's when you can declare a true victory. Then sit back and enjoy the change that you envisioned so long ago.

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organization is a framework in which the human resources function and thus has a major influence on it. Organizational development can also be termed as the modern approach to management of change for human resources development.

The development of an organization thus is a key issue for the overall development of the human resource and to enhance the goal achievement and profitability of an organization.

Organizational development can be described as a long range effort to improve organization's problem solving and renewal processes, particularly through more effective and collaborative management of organizational culture, often with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioural science. We thus need to focus on this very significant issue in order to not only understand the concept of organizational development, but also learn its significance in an organizational setup.

Let us now try to understand the meaning of organizational development by first clarifying the concept of an organization. Organization is the core concept of organizational development. Organization can be defined as two or more

people working together toward one or more shared goal(s). Weisbord presents a six step model for understanding organizations:

1. **Purposes:** The organization members are clear about the organization's mission and purpose and goal agreements, whether people support the organization's purpose.
2. **Structure:** How do we divide up the work? The question is whether there is an adequate fit between the purpose and the internal structure.
3. **Relationship:** Between individual, between units or department that perform different tasks, and between the people and requirements of their job.
4. **Rewards:** The consultant should diagnose the similarities between what the organization formally reward or punished for doing.
5. **Leadership:** Is to watch for blips among the other boxes and maintain balance among them
6. **Helpful mechanism:** Is a helpful organization that must attend to in order to survive which as planning, control, budgeting, and other information systems that help organization member accomplish.

Organizational Development can be described as the systematic process to change the culture, system and behaviour of organization. It is process that helps in solving organizational problems and achieving organizational objectives. It works as important mechanism that helps in impressing the organization and its employee through planned and established system. It concentrates on people dimensions like norms, values, attitudes, relationships, organizational culture etc. The strategies of organizational development focus on enhancement of organization effectiveness and solving organizational problems. It includes structural and technological changes and focuses on working relationships of employees with the organization.

Warren Bennis has referred to organizational development as a response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure

of organization so that they can better adapt to new technologies, marketing and challenges, and the dizzying rate of change itself. Organizational development is neither “anything done to better an organization” nor is it “the training function of the organization”; it is a particular kind of change process designed to bring about a particular kind of end result. Organizational development can involve interventions in the organization’s “processes,” using behavioural science knowledge as well as organizational reflection, system improvement, planning, and self-analysis.

Organizational development (OD) can play a vital part in harnessing the collective talent of an organization, bringing about change and improving performance. It involves taking planned steps to create an environment that will enable the staff to understand and deliver through organization’s objectives. These steps include developing appropriate skills, behaviours and attitudes, culture and a style of leadership that will enable the organization to achieve optimum performance.

A clear sense of direction, strong leadership and a focus on people management issues including the management of performance and the promotion of learning, development, creativity and innovation are essential.

The term organizational development is often used interchangeably with organizational effectiveness, especially when used as the name of a department within an organization. An organization is the machinery of management and this machinery system is operated and maintained by the personnel of the organization. An organization must adapt itself to the changes taking place in its environment or else, it will not remain effective enough to achieve the corporation’s goal of profitability. Organizational development is a shared approach of its members and it values a participative-democratic style of working. It is an ongoing interactive process and it focuses on intact work teams.

6.1 GOALS OF ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organizational development has various goals, they are discussed as follows:

- 1. Create an open and problem solving atmosphere**

in the organization: An open and problem solving atmosphere in an organization will not only facilitate the overall functioning in the organization but will also promote employee satisfaction and motivation.

2. **The authority should be associated with their role, status, knowledge and competence:** This goal will help develop a positive relationship between superiors and subordinates, thus creating a conducive environment in the organization.
3. **Decision-making and sources of information should be clear:** This goal will help employees have a clear idea about the functioning of the organization, about various opportunities for career development and issues and problems existing in the organization. This will not only make employees more aware but will also promote organizational citizenship amongst the employees.
4. **Build trust and values amongst employees throughout the organization:** This will not only enhance the interpersonal relationship and communication amongst the employees but will lead to development of a positive organizational culture.
5. **Create healthy competitive atmosphere amongst the employees to maximize collaborative efforts:** Creating and maintaining healthy competition amongst the employees not only promotes team work but will also enhance the overall functioning of the organization.
6. **Develop a reward or promotion system to motivate the personnel and increase the performance:** This is one of the most relevant goals of organizational development as employee performance is key to organizational development and in order to promote maximum performance on the part of the employees, it is important to use varied motivational techniques.
7. **Improve the effectiveness of the organization:** Another important goal of organizational development

is to use varied techniques and promote organizational effectiveness.

8. **Enhance achievement of the organizational goals:** Various techniques under organizational development can be used to help enhance the achievement of organizational goals.

6.2 NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The nature of organizational development can be described with the help of the following:

- (1) **Organizational development as-an ongoing interactive and continues process:** The ongoing process nature of organizational development implies that it is not to be regarded as a one-shot solution to organizational problems, but more as a growing toward greater effectiveness through a series of intervention activities over a time period. Managing and directing the change of an organization's culture and process does not happen overnight, rather (a more realistic time estimate) it may take several years.

Understanding about organizational development is greatly facilitated by viewing it as an ongoing interactive process. A process is an identifiable flow of interrelated events moving over time toward some goal or end. The interrelated event consists of interventions in the client system as also responses to these interventions. It also includes the dynamic, moving and changing things, in which people can learn the new skills or revised the old ones.

Organizational development is a continuous process in the sense that, in organizational development how things are done is as much important as what is done. In order to solve problems and to create future problem solving capabilities we need organizational development or the self-renewing and culture managing capabilities among the organizational personnel.

- (2) **Organizational development as a form of applied behavioural science:** An organizational development

program applies the scientific and practice principles from several behavioural sciences, social psychology, social anthropology, sociology, psychiatry, economic and political science. It can be define as the application of behaviour science knowledge, practices and skills on ongoing systems in collaboration with system members. Organizational development is both a result of applied behavioural science as well as a form of behavioural science.

- (3) **Organizational development as normative re-educative change:** It is a process for improvement organizational effectiveness; it implies that things will be done in a different style which requires usually changing its processes and culture. These types of organizational changes are desired by the people who will be affected, which open up alternatives for action rather than closing off alternatives for the same. Organizational development has three types of strategies for the organization change i.e. empirical-rational strategy; normative strategy; and power-coercive strategy. Normative strategy is more popular in organization settings and it can be cover other two types of strategies. This strategy is based on the assumption that norms form the basis for behaviour and change comes through a reeducation process in which outmoded norms are supplanted by new ones. Changes in normative orientations involve changes in attitudes, values, skills and significant relationships, not just changes in knowledge, information or intellectual rationales for action and practice. For example if we want to introduce the Wikipedia system in our organization first of all we have to introduce and train to our employees and also to re-educate them about changing their existing norms and beliefs about computers that their application will not result in retrenchment of personnel or loss of jobs in the country.
- (4) **Organizational development includes the incorporating of a system approach to organizations:** The term 'system' may refer either an

entire organization or a sub-system such as an academic department or the group of teachers. The focus is always on improving both the ability of a system to cope and the relationships of the system with subsystems and with the environment. It is always noted that the systems approach is one for the foundations of an organizational development; a significant step was taken toward the invention of organizational development. Systems approach emphasizes organization phenomena and dynamics in their interaction. This approach is useful to understanding of organization.

Blake and Mouton (1976) address that organizational development is the development of overall system, not only of the one part of a system. It also indicates the progress of total organization. The objective of organizational development is to liberate all of the individuals within it, so that they will be free, participative, and contributive to problem solving, in order to achieve corporate purposes of profitability, this objective cannot be reached until the constraints that operate within the corporation's culture have been studied and deliberately rejected.

- (5) **Organizational development goes as an experience based learning mode that emphasizes goal setting and objectives:** The process of organizational development is based on experience and it emphasizes that people learn about organizational dynamics by living with their experiences and skills.

In this system the personnel learn to make decisions by making decisions and then evaluating the same so that they may learn how to make adequate decisions in future. They can also learn to manage conflicts after experiencing the ill effects of conflicts and contra productive behaviours. Organizational development interventions tend to focus on real behaviour of individuals and groups, for solving real world problems and also tend to derive generalizations about organizations dynamics inductively from experience.

The persons to be involved in the organization functioning first of all they should be involved themselves in an activity and then reflect on that experience to learn and to derive generalizations about the phenomena. In order that they may learn and improve the learning activity is essential, it also refers to an inquiry attitude which the individuals take into all their experiences.

Therefor, experience based learning also becomes an important foundation of organizational development.

- (6) Organizational development concentrates on intact work teams as the primary instruments for organization's improvement:** These different aspects of organizational development serve as foundations, characteristics, distinguishing features or theoretical and practice underpinnings upon which the process has been built and this foundation has played a significant contribution in shaping the practice of organizational development.

Today, the organizational development is shifting its own area of attention from one person to intact work teams which is a move towards viewing organizations from a systems approach that had brought organizational development into limelight.

The above different aspects of organizational development serve as the foundation upon which the process is built, and the foundation has played a significant role in shaping the practice of organizational development.

6.3 ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The organizational development process is an action research model designed to understand known problems, set measurable goals, implement changes, and analyze results.

This process will begin when a problem is identified. This system can be used to make improvements on just about any situation or problem that a business faces. It is a broad set of steps that are easily understood, and provide companies with the ability to quickly make changes in an attempt to solve

issues. Once the changes are made, they can be evaluated to see if the problem was resolved, and if not, it will continue through the development process.

This process runs through the following steps:

- **Problem Identification:** A problem can be identified in a wide-range of ways including reports from employees, data gathering, and more.
- **Situational Assessment:** Making a formal assessment of the situation is the next step. This can be done by reviewing documentation, holding focus groups, interviewing, surveying, or just about anything else. Gathering all the facts related to the problem at hand is important for developing an effective solution.
- **Action Planning:** Making a plan of action on how the problem will be solved is the next step. This should be done by incorporating input from all impacted parties so that a solution that addresses the specific problem at hand can be found. In many cases, this will be the longest step in the process.
- **Implement Plan:** Taking the plan made in the previous step, and putting it into action. Depending on the complexities of the change, this may include training and other steps needed to ensure the action plan is put in place correctly.
- **Gather Data:** As soon as the change is put in place, it is time to start gathering data. This should be done with a focus on identifying whether or not the changes made are having a positive impact on the problem at hand.
- **Analyze Results:** Looking at the data that is gathered to see if it improved the problem, eliminated the problem, did nothing to the problem, or made the problem worse. In addition, watching to see if the changes had any secondary, negative, impacts on other issues is also done here.
- **Get Feedback:** Gathering feedback from all impacted parties is also important. If the problem is eliminated,

but it increases the risk of injury for employees, for example, then it wasn't a good solution.

- **Repeat:** If necessary, the process will be repeated. If the changes made had some positive impact, then the process will begin with the current system in place. If they didn't, it may be beneficial to go back to the original way things were done in order to reevaluate.

By following through these steps, a company can make significant improvements in a very orderly fashion. They will also be able to track the changes that are made in order to have real data when it comes to finding solutions to problems.

Having access to this data not only helps to ensure problems are objectively solved, but it can also help to find solutions to other issues more quickly. If another department is facing a similar problem, the data and strategies used can be applied. This can help to cut back on the length of time it takes to address many types of issues.

6.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

It's difficult to overestimate the importance of organizational development as it relates to the success of your business because it affects every aspect of decision-making. Organizational development is defined as the use of organizational resources to improve efficiency and productivity in the workplace. An effective organization can also boost employee morale because workers can feel more empowered and valued when your company is well structured. The importance of organizational development also extends to how you solve problems within your company as well as the ways in which you analyze a process to find a more efficient way of doing it. Implementing organizational development requires an investment of time and money. But as you begin to understand the importance of organizational development as well as the role of organizational development in helping you chart a strong course for your business, it will more than justify the costs.

The following are some of importance of organizational development

- **Identifies Areas That Need Change:** One of the functions of organizational development is that it identifies areas in your company operations where change is needed. Senior decision makers and managers can analyze each need, and project the potential effects of change into a management plan. This plan outlines the specific ways in which the change will improve company operations, which staff members will be affected by the change, and how it can be rolled out efficiently to employees. For example, you may discover that productivity declines at your workplace after lunch, which jeopardizes projects with imminent due dates. To resolve this issue, you can front-load projects with important timelines at the beginning of the day, and backload projects with greater timeline flexibility to the second half of the day. Without organizational development, your company would have a difficult time developing effective change management programs. And as a business owner, you know that how you handle change is critical to your company's success, which is why this is one of the significant functions of organizational development.
- **Promotes and Manages Growth:** Another role of organizational development is as an important tool in managing and planning corporate growth. You can achieve this through an organizational development analysis that brings together sales projections and customer demand to help determine the rate of your company's growth. For example, through market research, a computer security firm may determine that cyber espionage has become the prevailing concern of many of its clients. This information should be shared with the firm's sales department so that they can develop the right strategies to take advantage of this trend. In some instances, the organizational development analysis may alter your company's original business plan and push you into an exciting new direction. However, by using this analysis, you can properly allocate company resources such as personnel to promote and manage future growth.

- **Helps Product Innovation:** One of the additional functions of organizational development is product innovation, which requires the analysis of several kinds of information to be successful. Organizational development is critical to product innovation because it can help analyze each element of product development and create a method for using it effectively. Some of the processes that come together in organizational development to assist in product innovation are competitive analysis, technology development, consumer preferences, target market research, manufacturing capabilities analysis, and patents and trademarks.
- **Analyzes Work Processes:** Analyzing your company's work processes is another role of organizational development. When your company is involved in organizational development, you are able to analyze work processes for efficiency and accuracy. You can determine whether or not there is overlap in the things you're doing, or if you need more employees to take up a task that is under served. Any quality control measures required to attain company standards are put in place. Evaluators analyze a duplicate process or processes that can be combined for greater efficiency, and develop and implement detailed plans on how to improve company methods.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

7.1 INTRODUCTION

We all know someone who is incredibly bright and yet cannot seem to pull their life together. The brilliant student who flunks out of university, or the incredibly intelligent worker who can't seem to get ahead in their company. We know from our familiarity with them that they have a good to superior intelligence level, but that doesn't seem to be enough to ensure success. And at the same time, we can probably describe in some form why we feel these people have not been successful. Our descriptions would include certain traits or behaviours that have nothing to do with intelligence.

Over time, scientists have begun to study why standard intelligence alone isn't enough to predict performance in an individual. They have realized that there is another type of intelligence that isn't related to the standard cognitive intelligence – it's called emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is a relatively new subject of study, though its roots go back to the time of Darwin, who posited that emotional expression was essential for survival. But what do we mean when we talk about emotional intelligence? The fact is that there are numerous ways of defining emotional intelligence. But for now, let's say that it is the ability to be aware of your emotions and the emotions of others and then

to use that knowledge to help manage the expression of emotions so that they foster success instead of cause roadblocks.

Those who have high levels of emotional intelligence, or EI for short, are able to understand the physical, mental, and social impact that negative emotions have on their bodies, minds, relationships, and ability to pursue and achieve goals. They then are able to moderate their own emotions so that their emotions support their activities and enhance their quality of life.

People with highly developed EI are proven to be more successful in the workplace because they can understand their emotions and why they behave the way that they behave. They can use their emotions as clues to what their body and mind are trying to tell them. And they can use their EI to truly understand others and their points of view.

When they wield this kind of tool, they can overcome the kinds of emotional obstacles that tend to stop us all. They can understand why others feel the way that they feel and why they are doing what they are doing, and use that knowledge to help others perform at their best. They can resolve conflict quickly and recover from setbacks with aplomb. They are good in a crisis, strong at communicating and successful where others fail.

7.2 DEFINITION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

According to Bradberry & Greaves, Emotional intelligence is your ability to recognize and understand emotions in yourself and others, and your ability to use this awareness to manage your behaviour and relationships”

According to Goleman, Emotional Intelligence refers to the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.

Emotional Intelligence **(EI)** is the ability to identify feelings and apply knowledge about one's emotions and the emotions of others. Emotional Intelligence is not about being soft! EI is about acquiring the skills to manage your emotions. It's the

ability to make in-the-moment choices with greater self-awareness, empathy and control, creating an impact with others that is more appreciated, understood and respected. Great divides can be bridged and strong connections made when you engage your feelings to make effective, responsive choices, not reactive or 'triggered' comments and behaviours.

7.3 THEORIES OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES

Until the last century, the understanding of intelligence was strictly related to cognitive functions such as memory, learning, and problem-solving. However, scientists had begun to understand by the 1900s that non-cognitive aspects of intelligence also exist.

For example, E.L. Thorndike described a type of social intelligence that was related to managing and understanding others. In 1940, David Wechsler further developed the concept of non-cognitive intelligence by arguing that no full definition of intelligence could exist until we were able to fully define those aspects that were not related to traditionally measured cognitive skills.

Then in 1983, Howard Gardner published a groundbreaking work entitled *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. He argued that people have more than one type of intelligence, and that these types of intelligence were also actually cognitive in nature, yet could not fully be defined by current models such as standard Intelligent Quotient (IQ) tests. His model for multiple intelligences focused mainly on:

- **Intrapersonal Intelligence:** the ability to understand one's own feelings, motivations, and fears)
- **Interpersonal Intelligence:** the ability to understand others and their desires, motivations, and intentions

Gardner believed that these additional intelligence types were just as important as traditional intelligence in predicting performance and success. So although the term emotional intelligence wasn't being used at the time, the concept was being explored.

It wasn't until 1985 that the term emotional intelligence was first used in the sense that we use it today, to describe these

additional types of intelligence. The term was used in the doctoral thesis of Wayne Payne, *A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence*. From this point, the field has become rich with different models for defining emotional intelligence.

However, there is one model which has become the most widely recognized as accurately describing the concept of emotional intelligence. It was published in 1995 by Daniel Goldman in his book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ*. It was after the publication of this bestseller that the term emotional intelligence became widely used.

7.4 MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

When defining emotional intelligence, one faces the challenge that there is not one decided definition. There is disagreement between researchers on exactly what terminology to use and exactly how much of our behaviour can be affected by EI. However, there have been several models put forth in attempts to fully define and describe EI. Currently, there are three main models: the Ability EI model, the Trait EI model, and the Mixed EI model. The field is so popular now that researchers are still publishing revisions to these models, so this information will be refined as more is learned about EI.

7.4.1 The Ability-Based Model

The majority of the research for this model was done by Solvey and Mayer. They defined EI as: The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth

The major tenets of this model are that emotions are a means of information that is useful in interacting in social environments and in social relationships. It is also important to understand that not all individuals have the same ability to process emotional information and then to relate that information to overall cognitive processes. The model proposes four main types of emotional abilities:

- **Emotional Perception:** An individual's ability to recognize his own emotions and to understand the emotions expressed in faces, voices, and pictures. This

is the basic skill involved in EI because unless you can perceive emotions you cannot manage them.

- **Emotional Use:** The ability to use emotions in order to perform other cognitive activities. Someone with high EI can use their emotions in order to help them think through a situation and solve problems. She is able to use her varying moods to the best advantage for completing required tasks.
- **Emotional Understanding:** The ability to perceive the shades of emotion that exist and how different emotions interact with each other. This ability also includes comprehension of how emotions may evolve across a period of time.
- **Emotional Management:** The ability to self-regulate emotions and to regulate emotions in others. The person with a high level of this ability can harness positive or negative emotions and manage them in a way that facilitates the completion of required tasks.

This model has faced some criticism because it is modeled on the IQ test. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Test (MSCEIT) uses problem-solving challenges that are emotionally charged in order to test the participant's ability on each of the four abilities as well as an overall rating of EI. The test assumes that the test taker will be responsive to social norms that are in place in our society, and is scored by comparing the respondent's answers to a global sample of others who have responded.

However, the test doesn't allow for emotionally 'intelligent' answers that are unique but may still be valid. Therefore, some argue that the test does not allow for the breadth of ways in which each of the EI abilities may manifest itself. In other words, if you come up with an effective, creative new idea or solution to the problem, you would receive a low score because no one else had thought of the idea. This is a flaw in the exam which cannot always be controlled for.

7.4.2 The Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence

The most recent model of EI was published in 2009 by Petrides and colleagues. This model marks a break from the idea that

EI is ability-based. Instead, it proposes that people have, as part of their personalities, a number of emotional self-perceptions and emotional traits. These traits aren't measured in the scientific sense, but are instead measured by the respondent's self-report. Of course, this assumes that the respondent is able to accurately describe his or her own traits.

It's important to note that this model of EI can only be viewed in conjunction with a comprehensive exploration of a person's personality. This is distinct from the other models, which posit that EI is a brain based ability, not an environmental aspect of personality. Since this is the newest model of EI, it will take time before it can be fully examined and confirmed or rejected by the research community at large.

7.4.3 Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence

The mixed model was most famously described by Daniel Goleman, and is today the most widely accepted and used model for EI. It involves a range of competencies which are broken down into skill sets and which together form the picture of a person's level of EI.

Goleman's EI Competencies

- **Self-Awareness:** Knowing how we feel in the moment and using our gut feelings to help drive decision-making; having a realistic understanding of our own abilities and a strong sense of self- confidence.
 - Emotional Self-Awareness
 - Accurate Self-Assessment
 - Self-Confidence
- **Self-Management:** Handling our own emotions so that they don't interfere but facilitate; having the ability to delay gratification in pursuit of a goal; recovering well from emotional distress; translating our deepest, truest preferences into action in order to improve and succeed.
 - Self-Control
 - Trustworthiness
 - Conscientiousness

- Adaptability
- Achievement Orientation
- Initiative
- **Social Awareness:** Sensing what others are feeling; being able to understand situations from others' perspective; cultivating relationships with a diverse range of people.
 - Empathy
 - Organizational Awareness
 - Service Orientation
- **Social Skills:** Handling emotions in respect to relationships with other people; able to read the intricacies of social interactions; able to interact in social situations well; able to use this skill set to influence, persuade, negotiate, and lead.
 - Influence
 - Leadership
 - Developing Others
 - Communication
 - Change Catalyst
 - Conflict Management
 - Building Bonds
 - Teamwork and Collaboration

What is most important to recognize about Goleman's model of EI is that these competencies are not considered to be innate. Instead, they must be developed over time in order to develop and improve performance. Unlike IQ, which is believed to be 'fixed' by the time we reach adulthood, EI is not. You can continue to develop your emotional intelligence throughout your lifetime.

7.5 IMPORTANCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Employees with emotional intelligence are better able to communicate and more effectively relate with coworkers, solve problems more readily, manage change and build trust with employers, clients and colleagues. Daniel Goleman in his

landmark: *Harvard Business Review* article, *What Makes a Leader?* (HBR, Nov/Dec, 1998) shares insight into the power of emotional intelligence: "...when I calculated the ratio of technical skills, IQ and emotional intelligence (identified in competency models from 188 companies) as ingredients of excellent performance, emotional intelligence was twice as important as the others for jobs at all levels. ...Moreover, my analysis showed that emotional intelligence played an increasingly important role at the highest levels of the company, where differences in technical skills are of negligible importance..."

A Hay Group study of 44 Fortune 500 companies found that salespeople with high EQ produced twice the revenue of those with average or below average scores. In another study, technical programmers demonstrating the top 10 per cent of emotional intelligence competency were developing software three times faster than those with lower competency.

Studies conducted by ZERORISK HR, Inc., showed construction workers with low emotional intelligence had a higher likelihood of work related injury. Another study found a correlation between low emotional intelligence and theft/shrinkage.

Most companies recognize that highly emotionally intelligent employees are a key advantage in today's competitive business world and value EI as important as technical ability when hiring or promoting employees.

7.5.1 Positive Impact on Business

Developing and using Emotional Intelligence skills offers a set of core abilities that positively impact business results:

- **Engagement/Motivation/Empowerment:** People with high EI skills positively impact every person they contact, serving as role models of excellent performance.
- **Team Performance:** People with high EI quickly establish and grow relationships, not letting anxieties and frustrations get in the way of efficiently solving problems.

- **Creativity & Innovation:** People with high EI skills calm and clear their minds quickly and easily, opening the path for insight, intuition, and creative/innovative ideas.
- **Talent Retention:** Leaders with high EI skills have been shown to be the best and most effective managers, the type of person for whom talented people want to work.
- **Customer Satisfaction:** Excellent customer service is based on sincere care. People with high EI skills take care of themselves and extend sincere care to others.
- **Developing Leaders:** “Emotional Intelligence is more than 85% of what enables ‘star performers’ to develop into great leaders.” (Goleman, 1998)
- **Difficult Clients/Teams:** Developing EI skills increases the understanding between individuals and minimizes conflict that often results in time wasted arguing and defending turf.
- **Personal Productivity:** EI skills allow people to think more clearly under pressure, eliminating time wasted by feelings of anger, anxiety, and fear.
- **Time Management:** People with high EI skills do not waste time worrying, arguing or second-guessing themselves; they choose productive behaviours.
- **Stress Reduction:** High EI professionals recognize internal tension, possess in-the-moment awareness, and use techniques to gain calm and focus.
- **Work/Life Balance:** Improved personal productivity and improved staff performance means people can confidently leave work at a reasonable time to enjoy the personal side of life.
- **Career Success:** “Emotional Intelligence, as a determinant of high performance, is twice as important as technical and cognitive skills combined.” (Goleman, 1998)

7.5.2 Negative Impact on Business

Unproductive and inappropriate emotional reactions (lack of EI skills) in business are widespread and significant. Unbridled emotional reactions or lack of emotional intelligence skills by executives and employees at all levels can lead to:

- Negative organizational climate/culture, a disengaged workforce
- Inability or resistance to change (unsuccessful reengineering/process improvement initiatives)
- Lack of innovation and creativity
- Reduced or missed revenue
- High cost (loss of high potential talent/employee turnover, decreased productivity)
- Decreased customer satisfaction and customer loyalty
- Career derailment
- Workplace violence
- Increased stress and healthcare costs

The good news is that emotional intelligence skills can be learned and constantly honed. There is however, a caveat: when we apply the typical training approach targeted for enhancing analytical or technical skills, we are doomed to fail. Conventional programs do not include the factors by which the limbic system (emotional centre of the brain) learns best: motivation, experiential learning, extended practice, and feedback. Developing emotional intelligence skills requires that the individual recognizes and commits to eliminating certain old behaviours and embracing new ones.

PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Every organization is a mix of individuals with a variety of personalities, values, and attitudes. Personality and characteristics determine an employee's behaviour and ability to perform. Organizations hire people on the premise that they have certain knowledge, skills, abilities, personalities, and values which they bring to the workplace.

Personality contributes in part to workplace behaviour because the way that people think, feel, and behave affects many aspects of the workplace. Attitude is another major factor to be considered here. People's personalities influence their behaviour in groups, their attitudes, and the way they make decisions.

Today, at the hiring stage itself many organizations are attempting to screen applicants who are more likely to fit with their company culture. Organizations want to hire individuals with positive traits and attitudes to create a healthy environment.

Personality encompasses a person's relatively stable feelings, thoughts, and behavioural patterns. Each of us has a unique personality that differentiates us from other people, and understanding someone's personality gives us clues about how that person is likely to act and feel in a variety of situations. To manage effectively, it is helpful to understand the personalities of different employees. Having this knowledge is also useful for placing people into jobs and organizations.

If personality is stable, does this mean that it does not change? You probably remember how you have changed and evolved as a result of your own life experiences, parenting style and attention you have received in early childhood, successes and failures you experienced over the course of your life, and other life events. In fact, personality does change over long periods of time. For example, we tend to become more socially dominant, more conscientious (organized and dependable), and more emotionally stable between the ages of 20 and 40, whereas openness to new experiences tends to decline as we age.

Is our behaviour in organizations dependent on our personality? To some extent, yes, and to some extent, no. While we will discuss the effects of personality for employee behaviour, you must remember that the relationships we describe are modest correlations. For example, having a sociable and outgoing personality may encourage people to seek friends and prefer social situations. This does not mean that their personality will immediately affect their work behaviour. At work, we have a job to do and a role to perform. Therefore, our behaviour may be more strongly affected by what is expected of us, as opposed to how we want to behave. Especially in jobs that involve a lot of autonomy, or freedom, personality tends to exert a strong influence on work behaviour.

8.1 PERSONALITY TRAITS

Organizations have greatly evolved over the years in the way organizations operate and react to situations. Today they are leaner with fewer levels and more transparency. Managers are more participative involving subordinates at all levels. The shift towards more knowledge-oriented and customer-focused jobs has rendered more autonomy even at fairly low levels within organizations.

The constant volatility of the environment affecting organizations have made them open to changes and newness. All of these factors have contributed to personality being seen as more important now than it was in the past.

Behaviour patterns have been a constantly evolving field of study where psychologists attempt to identify and measure

individual personality characteristics, often called personality traits which are assumed to be some enduring characteristics that are relatively constant like dependable, trustworthy, friendly, cheerful, etc.

Modern personality theorists, Costa & McCrae, have researched and published their study of a '5 trait' model which is now widely accepted among psychologists. These 5 aspects of personality are referred to as the 5-factors or sometimes just 'the Big 5'.

These five are not necessarily the only traits out there. There are other, specific traits that represent other dimensions not captured by the Big Five. Still, understanding them gives us a good start for describing personality.

There are five Big Personality Traits which have a significant impact in individual's life. They are as follows:

- (a) **Extroversion:** Extroverts are sociable, lively, and gregarious and seek outward interaction. Such individuals are likely to be most successful working in marketing division, public relations etc. where they can interact face to face with others. Introverts are quite, reflective, introspective and intellectual people, preferring to interact with a small intimate circle of friends. Introverts are more likely to be successful when they can work on highly abstract ideas (accountant, R&D work etc.) in a relatively quiet atmosphere.
- (b) **Agreeableness:** This refers to the extent to which individuals agreeing and cooperating with others. Highly agreeable people are cooperative, warm and trusting. People who score low on agreeableness are cold, disagreeable and antagonistic. This characteristic is very important and critical in attaining a successful achievement in their life.
- (c) **Conscientiousness:** This refers to the extent to which people are responsible and dependable in their work and life. A highly conscientiousness person is responsible, organized, dependable and persistent. They are likely to move upward direction very quickly and attain remarkable achievement in their life. Those

who score low on this dimension are easily distracted, disorganized and unreliable.

- (d) **Emotional Stability:** This refers to the extent to which people have the ability to withstand stress. People with positive emotional stability tend to be calm, self-confident and secure. Those with highly low level of emotional stability tend to be nervous, anxious, depressed and insecure.
- (e) **Openness to experience:** This refers to the extent to which people are more imaginative, artistic sensitivity and intellectualism. Individuals tend to vary widely ranging from conservative to creative or artistic. Extremely open people are creative, and artistically sensitive. Whereas not so open category personnel are very conservative and find comfort in the familiar or routine activities

8.2 PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

- **Locus of control:** People are assumed to be of two types: 'Internals' and 'Externals'. Internals are people who believe that much of what happens to them is controlled by their destiny. Externals believe that much of what happens to them is controlled by outside forces.
- **Machiavellianism:** High Machs tend to take control, especially in loosely structured situations; Low Machs respond well to structured situations. High Machs tend to be more logical, rational and Pragmatic. They are more skilled in influencing and coalition building.
- **Self-esteem:** People differ in the degree to which they like or dislike themselves. This trait is called self-esteem. Individuals with high self-esteem will take more risks in job selection and more likely to choose unconventional jobs than people with low self-esteem.
- **Self-monitoring:** A personality trait that measures an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external, situational factors. Individuals high in self-monitoring show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external situational factors. They are

highly sensitive to external cues and can behave different situations.

- **Risk Taking:** This refers to the extent to which people are willing to take chances. This propensity to assume or to avoid risk has been shown to have an effect on their decision-making capabilities and information gathering process. High risk taking managers made more rapid decision and used less information in making their choices than did the low risk taking managers
- **Type 'A' or Type 'B':** People who are Hard-driving, impatient, aggressive, and super competitive are termed as **Type 'A' Personality**. Those who are easy-going, sociable, laid-back and non-competitive are termed as **Type 'B' Personality**. Type A people tend to be very productive and work very hard. They are workaholics. The negative side of them is that they are impatient, not good team players, more irritable, have poor judgment. Type B people do better on complex tasks involving judgment, accuracy rather than speed and team work

Type A personality

- Are always moving, walking, and eating rapidly;
- Feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place;
- Strive to think or do two or more things simultaneously;
- Cannot cope with leisure time; and
- Are obsessed with numbers, measuring their success in terms of how much of everything they acquire.

The alternative to the Type A behaviour pattern is the Type B behaviour pattern. People with Type B personalities are relatively free of the Type A behaviours and characteristics.

Type B personalities are “rarely harried by the desire to obtain a wildly increasing number of things or participate in an endless growing series of events in an ever decreasing amount of time”.

Type B personality

- Never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience;
- Feel no need to display or discuss either their achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation;
- Play for fun and relaxation, rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost; and
- Can relax without guilt.

Organizations can also be characterized as Type A or Type B organizations. Type A individuals in Type B organizations and Type B individuals in Type A organizations experience stress related to a misfit between their personality type and the predominant type of the organization.

8.3 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

Psychologists say that our personality is mainly a result of four major determinants, i.e. Biological (Hereditary/ Physical features), Social (the community you are brought up in and your role in the community), Psychological (your behaviour, emotions and inner thought patterns) and Intellectual (your values and beliefs). These determinants of personality further also include various cultural, situational and environmental factors that you might come across in life. Let's look at each one of them in detail:

1. Biological Determinants of Personality

Biological traits are the foremost parameter which reflects various factors of one's personality. Being the essential determinant of personality, it incorporates a majority of other factors as well which bring out the various insights about an individual. Some important constituents under the physical determinants of personality are:

- **Hereditary:** The features that can be determined from the time of conception are generally put under hereditary. Sex, physical stature, temperament, muscle composition, facial features, height etc. are the characteristics that one usually inherits from parents.

Thus, through the hereditary approach, it is evident that the genes located in chromosomes are the ultimate explanation of personality.

- **Brain:** The second biological approach is to concentrate on the role that the brain plays in personality. The psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of the human brain in influencing personality.

Preliminary results from the electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) research give an indication that a better understanding of human personality and behaviour might come from the study of the brain.

- **Biofeedback:** Until recently, physiologists and psychologists felt that certain biological functions such as brainwave patterns, gastric and hormonal secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control.

Now some scientists believe that these involuntary functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback techniques. In BFT, the individual learns the internal rhythms of a particular body process through electronic signals that are feedback from equipment that is wired to the body.

- **Physical Features:** Physical appearance is also amongst the integral determinants of personality. How one appears physically actually plays an important role in how they are perceived by others. Whether one is short, tall, slim, fat, black or white will obviously have an impression on others and this will have an influence on the self-conception of the individual.

2. Psychological Determinants of Personality

Considering a personality as a particular style pertaining to each individual, the psychological approach is amongst the major determinants of personality. This specific style which is different for each individual actually gets determined through the accumulative characteristics of mental trends, emotions, sentiments, thought patterns and complexes. Further, it also

studies an individual's mental conflicts, wishes, aspirations, feelings of repression, sublimation and emotional well-being.

3. Cultural Determinants of Personality

Just as we are born with biological determinants, cultural determinants of personality are the ones which we grow up with. The ritual and norms in the family, the early conditioning, the way we are raised up, the social group in which we hang out are the factors which have an impactful emphasis on our personality formation. Each culture trains and expects its members to behave and breathe in a way that is acceptable by society. Hence, factors like aggression, independence, cooperation and competition are major cultural contributors to personality determination. Thus, it is quite evident to filter out the individuals brought up in the western part of the world from the citizens of our country as the cultures we have been brought up are poles apart.

4. Family Factors

The most significant out of the different determinants of personality is that of familial. The environments at home blended with the direct influence of the parents are the major contributors to the traits that build our personality. A critical impact is driven by the family especially in the early and naive age. For example, a child brought up in a violent household will be quite different and emotionally and socially timid and cold as compared to a child reared in a warm, adjusting and healthy environment.

Let us understand the importance of parents and family as crucial determinants of personality with the help of the American-Australian Psychologist Walter Mischel's theory:

- Identification can be done by observing the similarity of the behaviour like feelings and attitude between the child and their parents.
- Identification can be viewed as the child's desire and aspiration to be like their parents.
- It can be looked as the method through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the personality from their parents.

5. Social Determinants of Personality

The social determinants analyze a personality as per the status of the individual in their social group or community and consider the individual's conception of their role in the group is like. The key factor that this approach weighs in is what others perceive us as plays a greater role in the formation of our personality.

The era has seen the widespread emergence of communication tools, especially through social media. Social media influencers hold an authoritative power to influence masses around the globe. Hence, anyone's personality is majorly persuaded by the social lives they lead and are a part of. Through socializing, be it virtual or real, one encounters a plethora of other individuals which some way or the other leave a mark on our personalities. The process starts as soon as we step into the real world from the playschool we go to peers and friends, amongst others. Our social life is one of the essential determinants of personality and that's why we are always advised to choose our social circle wisely.

6. Situational Factors

In our discussion of various determinants of personality, a vital mention should go to the situational category. It would not be difficult for you to relate with the fact that we as humans, react differently to distinct situations. Although, it would not be correct to say that situational factors determine an individual's personality in the most correct manner but it surely reflects how a person's behaviour is and how they react in a given situation. The traits shown through situational factors usually vary a lot as different people exhibit different situational personality traits. For Example: You may behave differently in front of your boss in the office than at a club with your friends.

7. Intellectual Determinants of Personality

Intelligence is another essential factor that can play an important role in the development of our personality. Our intellect can influence various aspects and areas of our behaviour which in turn, can determine our personality. Here are the intellectual determinants of Personality:

- **Humour:** Humour is one of the integral intellectual determinants of personality as it helps us get a realistic view of things, facilitates social acceptance and further also ironically brings forward a lighter perspective of life.
- **Morality:** Our intellect and worldview plays a crucial role in the development of our morality and how we see certain things as moral or immoral. Thus, morality is another factor that determines our intellect and thus overall personality as well.
- **Values:** An individual learns about values from his/her upbringing as well as from the society they are brought up in. These values and beliefs also form our intellectual behaviour and thus are an important determinant of our personality.

8.4 STAGES OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Personality development is the development of the organized pattern of behaviours and attitudes that makes a person distinctive. Personality development occurs by the ongoing interaction of temperament, character, and environment.

Personality is what makes a person a unique person, and it is recognizable soon after birth. A child's personality has several components: temperament, environment, and character. Temperament is the set of genetically determined traits that determine the child's approach to the world and how the child learns about the world. There are no genes that specify personality traits, but some genes do control the development of the nervous system, which in turn controls behaviour.

A second component of personality comes from adaptive patterns related to a child's specific environment. Most psychologists agree that these two factors—temperament and environment—influence the development of a person's personality the most. Temperament, with its dependence on genetic factors, is sometimes referred to as “nature,” while the environmental factors are called “nurture.”

While there is still controversy as to which factor ranks higher in affecting personality development, all experts agree

that high-quality parenting plays a critical role in the development of a child's personality. When parents understand how their child responds to certain situations, they can anticipate issues that might be problematic for their child. They can prepare the child for the situation or in some cases they may avoid a potentially difficult situation altogether. Parents who know how to adapt their parenting approach to the particular temperament of their child can best provide guidance and ensure the successful development of their child's personality.

Finally, the third component of personality is character—the set of emotional, cognitive, and behavioural patterns learned from experience that determines how a person thinks, feels, and behaves. A person's character continues to evolve throughout life, although much depends on inborn traits and early experiences. Character is also dependent on a person's moral development.

In 1956, psychiatrist Erik Erikson provided an insightful description as to how personality develops based on his extensive experience in psychotherapy with children and adolescents from low, upper, and middle-class backgrounds. According to Erikson, the socialization process of an individual consists of eight phases, each one accompanied by a “psychosocial crisis” that must be solved if the person is to manage the next and subsequent phases satisfactorily. The stages significantly influence personality development, with five of them occurring during infancy, childhood, and adolescence.

Infancy

During the first two years of life, an infant goes through the first stage: *Learning Basic Trust or Mistrust (Hope)*. Well-nurtured and loved, the infant develops trust and security and a basic optimism. Badly handled, the infant becomes insecure and learns “basic mistrust.”

Toddlerhood

The second stage occurs during early childhood, between about 18 months to two years and three to four years of age. It deals with *Learning Autonomy or Shame (Will)*. Well-

parented, the child emerges from this stage with self-confidence, elated with his or her newly found control. The early part of this stage can also include stormy **tantrums**, stubbornness, and negativism, depending on the child's temperament.

Preschool

The third stage occurs during the "play age," or the later preschool years from about three to entry into formal school. The developing child goes through *Learning Initiative or Guilt (Purpose)* . The child learns to use imagination; to broaden skills through active play and fantasy; to cooperate with others; and to lead as well as to follow. If unsuccessful, the child becomes fearful, is unable to join groups, and harbors guilty feelings. The child depends excessively on adults and is restricted both in the development of play skills and in imagination.

School age

The fourth stage, *Learning Industry or Inferiority (Competence)* , occurs during school age, up to and possibly including junior high school. The child learns to master more formal skills:

- Relating with peers according to rules
- Progressing from free play to play that is structured by rules and requires teamwork (team sports)
- Learning basic intellectual skills (reading, arithmetic)

At this stage, the need for self-discipline increases every year. The child who, because of his or her successful passage through earlier stages, is trusting, autonomous, and full of initiative, will quickly learn to be industrious. However, the mistrusting child will doubt the future and will feel inferior.

Adolescence

The fifth stage, *Learning Identity or Identity Diffusion (Fidelity)* , occurs during adolescence from age 13 or 14. Maturity starts developing during this time; the young person acquires self-certainty as opposed to self-doubt and experiments with different constructive roles rather than adopting a negative

identity, such as delinquency. The well-adjusted adolescent actually looks forward to achievement, and, in later adolescence, clear sexual identity is established. The adolescent seeks leadership (someone to inspire him or her), and gradually develops a set of ideals to live by.

The Child Development Institute (CDI) rightfully points out that very little knowledge is available on the type of specific environment that will result, for example, in traits of trust being more developed in a person's personality. Helping the child through the various stages of emotional and personality development is a complex and difficult task. Searching for the best ways of accomplishing this task accounts for most of the research carried out in the field of child development today.

Renowned psychologist Carl Rogers emphasized how childhood experiences affect personality development. Many psychologists believe that there are certain critical periods in personality development—periods when the child will be more sensitive to certain environmental factors. Most experts believe that a child's experiences in the family are important for his or her personality development, although not exactly as described by Erikson's stages, but in good agreement with the importance of how a child's needs should to be met in the family environment. For example, children who are toilet trained too early or have their toilet training carried out too strictly may become rebellious. Another example is shown by children who learn appropriate behaviour to their sex lives when there is a good relationship with their same-sex parent.

Another environmental factor of importance is culture. Researchers comparing cultural groups for specific personality types have found some important differences. For example, Northern European countries and the United States have individualistic cultures that put more emphasis on individual needs and accomplishments. In contrast, Asian, African, Central American, and South American countries are characterized more by community-centered cultures that focus on belonging to a larger group, such as a family, or nation. In these cultures, cooperation is considered a more important value than competitiveness, which will necessarily affect personality development.

Common problems

Infants who are just a few weeks old display differences between each other in how active they are, how responsive they are to change, and how irritable they are. Some infants cry constantly while others seem happy and stay fairly quiet. Child development research conducted by the CDI has identified nine temperamental traits that may contribute to a child's personality development being challenging or difficult:

- Activity level (how active the child is generally)
- Distractibility (degree of concentration and paying attention when the child is not particularly interested)
- Intensity (how loud the child is)
- Regularity (the predictability of biological functions like appetite and sleep)
- Sensory threshold (how sensitive the child is to physical stimuli: touch, taste, smell, sound, light)
- Approach/withdrawal (characteristic responses of a child to a new situation or to strangers)
- Adaptability (how easily the child adapts to transitions and changes such as switching to a new activity)
- Persistence (stubbornness, inability to give up)
- Mood (tendency to react to the world primarily in a positive or negative way)

Temperamental traits are enduring personality characteristics that are neither "good" nor "bad." Early on, parents can work with the child's temperamental traits rather than oppose them. Later, as the child grows up, parents can help the child to adapt to his or her own world in spite of inborn temperament.

Parental concerns

Most children experience healthy personality development. However, some parents worry as to whether their infant, child, or teenager has a personality disorder. Parents are usually the first to recognize that their child has a problem with emotions or behaviours that may point to a personality disorder.

Children with personality disorders have great difficulty dealing with other people. They tend to be inflexible, rigid, and unable to respond to the changes and normal stresses of life and find it very difficult to participate in social activities. When these characteristics are present in a child to an extreme, when they are persistent and when they interfere with healthy development, a diagnostic evaluation with a licensed physician or mental health professional is recommended.

When to call the doctor

Parents who suspect that their child has a personality disorder should seek professional help. It is a very important first step in knowing for sure whether there is a disorder, and if so, what treatment can best help the child. Child and adolescent psychiatrists are trained to help parents sort out whether their child's personality development is normal.

8.5 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

1. Psychodynamic Perspectives on Personality

According to Freud's psychoanalytic theory, personality develops through a series of stages, each characterized by a certain internal psychological conflict.

Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality argues that human behaviour is the result of the interactions among three component parts of the mind: the *id*, *ego*, and *superego*. This theory known as Freud's structural theory of personality, places great emphasis on the role of unconscious psychological conflicts in shaping behaviour and personality. Dynamic interactions among these fundamental parts of the mind are thought to progress through five distinct psychosexual stages of development. Over the last century, however, Freud's ideas have since been met with criticism, in part because of his singular focus on sexuality as the main driver of human personality development.

According to Freud, our personality develops from the interactions among what he proposed as the three fundamental structures of the human mind: the *id*, *ego*, and *superego*. Conflicts among these three structures, and our efforts to find balance among what each of them "desires,"

determines how we behave and approach the world. What balance we strike in any given situation determines how we will resolve the conflict between two overarching behavioural tendencies: our biological aggressive and pleasure-seeking drives vs. our socialized internal control over those drives.

The Id

The *id*, the most primitive of the three structures, is concerned with instant gratification of basic physical needs and urges. It operates entirely unconsciously (outside of conscious thought). For example, if your id walked past a stranger eating ice cream, it would most likely take the ice cream for itself. It doesn't know, or care, that it is rude to take something belonging to someone else; it would care only that you wanted the ice cream.

The Superego

The *superego* is concerned with social rules and morals—similar to what many people call their “conscience” or their “moral compass.” It develops as a child learns what their culture considers right and wrong. If your superego walked past the same stranger, it would not take their ice cream because it would know that that would be rude. However, if both your id *and* your superego were involved, and your id was strong enough to override your superego's concern, you *would* still take the ice cream, but afterward you would most likely feel guilt and shame over your actions.

The Ego

In contrast to the instinctual id and the moral superego, the *ego* is the rational, pragmatic part of our personality. It is less primitive than the id and is partly conscious and partly unconscious. It's what Freud considered to be the “self,” and its job is to balance the demands of the id and superego in the practical context of reality. So, if you walked past the stranger with ice cream one more time, your ego would mediate the conflict between your id (“I want that ice cream right now”) and superego (“It's wrong to take someone else's ice cream”) and decide to go buy your own ice cream. While this may mean you have to wait 10 more minutes, which would

frustrate your id, your ego decides to make that sacrifice as part of the compromise– satisfying your desire for ice cream while also avoiding an unpleasant social situation and potential feelings of shame.

Freud believed that the id, ego, and superego are in constant conflict and that adult personality and behavior are rooted in the results of these internal struggles throughout childhood. He believed that a person who has a strong ego has a healthy personality and that imbalances in this system can lead to neurosis (what we now think of as anxiety and depression) and unhealthy behaviours.

2. Trait Theories of Personalities

Trait theorists believe personality can be understood by positing that all people have certain traits, or characteristic ways of behaving. Do you tend to be sociable or shy? Passive or aggressive? Optimistic or pessimistic? According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM) of the American Psychiatric Association, personality traits are prominent aspects of personality that are exhibited in a wide range of important social and personal contexts. In other words, individuals have certain characteristics that partly determine their behaviour; these traits are trends in behaviour or attitude that tend to be present regardless of the situation.

An example of a trait is extraversion introversion. *Extraversion* tends to be manifested in outgoing, talkative, energetic behaviour, whereas *introversion* is manifested in more reserved and solitary behaviour. An individual may fall along any point in the continuum, and the location where the individual falls will determine how he or she responds to various situations.

The idea of categorizing people by traits can be traced back as far as Hippocrates; however more modern theories have come from Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattell, and Hans Eysenck.

Gordon Allport (1897–1967)

Gordon Allport was one of the first modern trait theorists. Allport and Henry Odbert worked through two of the most

comprehensive dictionaries of the English language available and extracted around 18,000 personality-describing words. From this list they reduced the number of words to approximately 4,500 personality-describing adjectives which they considered to describe observable and relatively permanent personality traits.

Allport organized these traits into a hierarchy of three levels:

- *Cardinal traits* dominate and shape an individual's behaviour, such as Ebenezer Scrooge's greed or Mother Theresa's altruism. They stand at the top of the hierarchy and are collectively known as the individual's *master control*. They are considered to be an individual's ruling passions. Cardinal traits are powerful, but few people have personalities dominated by a single trait. Instead, our personalities are typically composed of multiple traits.
- *Central traits* come next in the hierarchy. These are general characteristics found in varying degrees in every person (such as loyalty, kindness, agreeableness, friendliness, sneakiness, wildness, or grouchiness). They are the basic building blocks that shape most of our behaviour.
- *Secondary traits* exist at the bottom of the hierarchy and are not quite as obvious or consistent as central traits. They are plentiful but are only present under specific circumstances; they include things like preferences and attitudes. These secondary traits explain why a person may at times exhibit behaviours that seem incongruent with their usual behaviours. For example, a friendly person gets angry when people try to tickle him; another is not an anxious person but always feels nervous speaking publicly.

Allport hypothesized that internal and external forces influence an individual's behaviour and personality, and he referred to these forces as genotypes and phenotypes. *Genotypes* are internal forces that relate to how a person retains information and uses it to interact with the world. *Phenotypes* are external forces that relate to the way

an individual accepts his or her surroundings and how others influence his or her behaviour.

Raymond Cattell (1905–1998)

In an effort to make Allport's list of 4,500 traits more manageable, Raymond Cattell took the list and removed all the synonyms, reducing the number down to 171. However, saying that a trait is either present or absent does not accurately reflect a person's uniqueness, because (according to trait theorists) all of our personalities are actually made up of the same traits; we differ only in the degree to which each trait is expressed.

Cattell believed it necessary to sample a wide range of variables to capture a full understanding of personality. The first type of data was *life data*, which involves collecting information from an individual's natural everyday life behaviors. *Experimental data* involves measuring reactions to standardized experimental situations, and *questionnaire data* involves gathering responses based on introspection by an individual about his or her own behaviour and feelings. Using this data, Cattell performed factor analysis to generate sixteen dimensions of human personality traits: *abstractedness, warmth, apprehension, emotional stability, liveliness, openness to change, perfectionism, privateness, intelligence, rule consciousness, tension, sensitivity, social boldness, self-reliance, vigilance, and dominance*.

Based on these 16 factors, he developed a personality assessment called the 16PF. Instead of a trait being present or absent, each dimension is scored over a continuum, from high to low. For example, your level of warmth describes how warm, caring, and nice to others you are. If you score low on this index, you tend to be more distant and cold. A high score on this index signifies you are supportive and comforting. Despite cutting down significantly on Allport's list of traits, Cattell's 16PF theory has still been criticized for being too broad.

Hans Eysenck (1916–1997)

Hans Eysenck was a personality theorist who focused on temperament—innate, genetically based personality

differences. He believed personality is largely governed by biology, and he viewed people as having two specific personality dimensions: extroversion vs. introversion and neuroticism vs. stability. After collaborating with his wife and fellow personality theorist Sybil Eysenck, he added a third dimension to this model: psychoticism vs. socialization.

- According to their theory, people high on the trait of *extroversion* are sociable and outgoing and readily connect with others, whereas people high on the trait of *introversion* have a higher need to be alone, engage in solitary behaviours, and limit their interactions with others.
- In the neuroticism/stability dimension, people high on *neuroticism* tend to be anxious; they tend to have an overactive sympathetic nervous system and even with low stress, their bodies and emotional state tend to go into a flight-or-fight reaction. In contrast, people high on *stability* tend to need more stimulation to activate their flight-or-fight reaction and are therefore considered more emotionally stable.
- In the psychoticism/socialization dimension, people who are high on *psychoticism* tend to be independent thinkers, cold, nonconformist, impulsive, antisocial, and hostile. People who are high on *socialization* (often referred to as superego control) tend to have high impulse control—they are more altruistic, empathetic, cooperative, and conventional.

The major strength of Eysenck's model is that he was one of the first to make his approach more quantifiable; it was therefore perceived to be more "legitimate", as a common criticism of psychological theories is that they are not empirically verifiable. Eysenck proposed that extroversion was caused by variability in cortical arousal, with introverts characteristically having a higher level of activity in this area than extroverts. He also hypothesized that neuroticism was determined by individual differences in the limbic system, the part of the human brain involved in emotion, motivation, and emotional association with memory. Unlike Allport's and

Cattell's models, however, Eysenck's has been criticized for being too narrow.

Strengths of the Trait Perspectives

One strength of the trait perspectives is their ability to categorize observable behaviours. Researchers have found that examining the aggregate behaviours of individuals provides a strong correlation with traits; in other words, observing the behaviours of an individual over time and in varying circumstances provides evidence for the personality traits categorized in trait theories.

Another strength is that trait theories use objective criteria for categorizing and measuring behaviour. One possible proof of this is that several trait theories were developed independently of each other when factor analysis was used to conclude a specific set of traits. While developing their theories independently of each other, trait theorists often arrived at a similar set of traits.

Limitations of the Trait Perspectives

Trait perspectives are often criticized for their predictive value: critics argue that traits do a poor job of predicting behaviour in every situation. Some psychologists argue that the situational variables (i.e., environmental factors) are more influential in determining behaviour than traits are; other psychologists argue that a combination of traits and situational variables influences behaviour.

Such critics argue that the patterns of variability over different situations are crucial to determining personality, and that averaging over such situations to find an overarching "trait" in fact masks critical differences among individuals. For example, Brian is teased a lot but he rarely responds aggressively, while Josie is teased very rarely but responds aggressively every time. These two children might be acting aggressively the same number of times, so trait theorists would suggest that their behaviour patterns—or even their personalities—are equivalent. However, psychologists who criticize the trait approach would argue that Brian and Josie are very different children.

Another limitation of trait theories is that they require personal observations or subjective self-reports to measure. Self-report measures require that an individual be introspective enough to understand their own behaviour. Personal observation measures require that an individual spend enough time observing someone else in a number of situations to be able to provide an accurate assessment of their behaviours. Both of these measures are subjective and can fall prey to observer bias and other forms of inaccuracy.

Another criticism is that trait theories do not explain *why* an individual behaves in a certain way. Trait theories provide information about people and about which traits cause which behaviours; however, there is no indication as to *why* these traits interact in the way that they do. For example, an extroverted individual is energized by social interactions and seeks out social situations, but trait theory does not offer any explanation for why this might occur or why an introvert would avoid such situations.

3. Humanistic Perspectives on Personality

Often called the “third force” in psychology, humanism was a reaction to both the pessimistic determinism of psychoanalysis, with its emphasis on psychological disturbance, and to the behaviourists’ view of humans passively reacting to the environment. Two of the leading humanistic theorists who made advancements in the field of personality psychology were Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers.

Abraham Maslow’s Humanism

As a leader of humanistic psychology, Abraham Maslow approached the study of personality psychology by focusing on subjective experiences and free will. He was mainly concerned with an individual’s innate drive toward self-actualization—a state of fulfillment in which a person is achieving at his or her highest level of capability. Maslow positioned his work as a vital complement to that of Freud, saying: “It is as if Freud supplied us the sick half of psychology and we must now fill it out with the healthy half.”

In his research, Maslow studied the personalities of people

who he considered to be healthy, creative, and productive, including Albert Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, and others. He found that such people share similar characteristics, such as being open, creative, loving, spontaneous, compassionate, concerned for others, and accepting of themselves.

Personality and the Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow is perhaps most well-known for his hierarchy of needs theory, in which he proposes that human beings have certain needs in common and that these needs must be met in a certain order. These needs range from the most basic physiological needs for survival to higher-level self-actualization and transcendence needs. Maslow's hierarchy is most often presented visually as a pyramid, with the largest, most fundamental physiological needs at the bottom and the smallest, most advanced self-actualization needs at the top. Each layer of the pyramid must be fulfilled before moving up the pyramid to higher needs, and this process is continued throughout the lifespan.

Maslow believed that successful fulfillment of each layer of needs was vital in the development of personality. The highest need for self-actualization represents the achievement of our fullest potential, and those individuals who finally achieved self-actualization were said to represent optimal psychological health and functioning. Maslow stretched the field of psychological study to include fully-functional individuals instead of only those with psychoses, and he shed a more positive light on personality psychology.

Characteristics of Self-Actualizers

Maslow viewed self-actualizers as the supreme achievers in the human race. He studied stand-out individuals in order to better understand what characteristics they possessed that allowed them to achieve self-actualization. In his research, he found that many of these people shared certain personality traits.

Most self-actualizers had a great sense of awareness, maintaining a near-constant enjoyment and awe of life. They

often described *peak experiences* during which they felt such an intense degree of satisfaction that they seemed to transcend themselves. They actively engaged in activities that would bring about this feeling of unity and meaningfulness. Despite this fact, most of these individuals seemed deeply rooted in reality and were active problem-seekers and solvers. They developed a level of acceptance for what could not be changed and a level of spontaneity and resilience to tackle what could be changed. Most of these people had healthy relationships with a small group with which they interacted frequently. According to Maslow, self-actualized people indicate a *coherent personality syndrome* and represent optimal psychological health and functioning.

Criticism of Maslow's Theories

Maslow's ideas have been criticized for their lack of scientific rigor. As with all early psychological studies, questions have been raised about the lack of empirical evidence used in his research. Because of the subjective nature of the study, the holistic approach allows for a great deal of variation but does not identify enough constant variables in order to be researched with true accuracy. Psychologists also worry that such an extreme focus on the subjective experience of the individual does little to explain or appreciate the impact of society on personality development. Furthermore, the hierarchy of needs has been accused of cultural bias—mainly reflecting Western values and ideologies. Critics argue that this concept is considered relative to each culture and society and cannot be universally applied.

Rogers' Humanistic Theory of Personality

Carl Rogers was a prominent psychologist and one of the founding members of the humanist movement. Along with Abraham Maslow, he focused on the growth potential of healthy individuals and greatly contributed to our understanding of the self and personality. Both Rogers' and Maslow's theories focus on individual choices and do not hold that biology is deterministic. They emphasized free will and self-determination, with each individual desiring to become the best person they can become.

Humanistic psychology emphasized the active role of the individual in shaping their internal and external worlds. Rogers advanced the field by stressing that the human person is an active, creative, experiencing being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships, and encounters. He coined the term *actualizing tendency*, which refers to a person's basic instinct to succeed at his or her highest possible capacity. Through person-centered counseling and scientific therapy research, Rogers formed his theory of personality development, which highlighted free will and the great reservoir of human potential for goodness.

Personality Development and the Self-Concept

Rogers based his theories of personality development on humanistic psychology and theories of subjective experience. He believed that everyone exists in a constantly changing world of experiences that they are at the center of. A person reacts to changes in their phenomenal field, which includes external objects and people as well as internal thoughts and emotions.

Rogers believed that all behaviour is motivated by self-actualizing tendencies, which drive a person to achieve at their highest level. As a result of their interactions with the environment and others, an individual forms a structure of the self or *self-concept*—an organized, fluid, conceptual pattern of concepts and values related to the self. If a person has a positive self-concept, they tend to feel good about who they are and often see the world as a safe and positive place. If they have a negative self-concept, they may feel unhappy with who they are.

Ideal Self vs. Real Self

Rogers further divided the self into two categories: the ideal self and the real self. The *ideal self* is the person that you would like to be; the *real self* is the person you actually are. Rogers focused on the idea that we need to achieve consistency between these two selves. We experience *congruence* when our thoughts about our real self and ideal self are very similar—in other words, when our self-concept

is accurate. High congruence leads to a greater sense of self-worth and a healthy, productive life. Conversely, when there is a great discrepancy between our ideal and actual selves, we experience a state Rogers called *incongruence*, which can lead to maladjustment.

Criticisms of Rogers' Theories

Like Maslow's theories, Rogers' were criticized for their lack of empirical evidence used in research. The holistic approach of humanism allows for a great deal of variation but does not identify enough constant variables to be researched with true accuracy. Psychologists also worry that such an extreme focus on the subjective experience of the individual does little to explain or appreciate the impact of society on personality development.

4. Social-Cognitive Perspectives on Personality

Social-cognitive theories of personality emphasize the role of cognitive processes, such as thinking and judging, in the development of personality. Social cognition is basically *social thought*, or how the mind processes social information; social-cognitive theory describes how individuals think and react in social situations. How the mind works in a social setting is extremely complicated—emotions, social desirability factors, and unconscious thoughts can all interact and affect social cognition in many ways. Two major figures in social cognitive-theory are behaviourist Albert Bandura and clinical psychologist Julian Rotter.

Albert Bandura (1925-present)

Albert Bandura is a behavioural psychologist credited with creating social learning theory. He agreed with B.F. Skinner's theory that personality develops through learning; however, he disagreed with Skinner's strict behaviourist approach to personality development. In contrast to Skinner's idea that the environment alone determines behaviour, Bandura (1990) proposed the concept of *reciprocal determinism*, in which cognitive processes, behaviour, and context all interact, each factor simultaneously influencing and being influenced by the others. *Cognitive processes* refer to all characteristics

previously learned, including beliefs, expectations, and personality characteristics. *Behaviour* refers to anything that we do that may be rewarded or punished. Finally, the *context* in which the behaviour occurs refers to the environment or situation, which includes rewarding/punishing stimuli.

This theory was significant because it moved away from the idea that environment alone affects an individual's behaviour. Instead, Bandura hypothesized that the relationship between behaviour and environment was *bi-directional*, meaning that both factors can influence each other. In this theory, humans are actively involved in molding the environment that influences their own development and growth.

Julian Rotter (1916-present)

Julian Rotter is a clinical psychologist who was influenced by Bandura's social learning theory after rejecting a strict behaviourist approach. Rotter expanded upon Bandura's ideas of reciprocal determinism, and he developed the term *locus of control* to describe how individuals view their relationship to the environment. Distinct from self-efficacy, which involves our belief in our own abilities, locus of control refers to our beliefs about the power we have over our lives, and is a cognitive factor that affects personality development. Locus of control can be classified along a spectrum from internal to external; where an individual falls along the spectrum determines the extent to which they believe they can affect the events around them.

Criticisms of the Social-Cognitive Perspective on Personality

One of the main criticisms of the social-cognitive theory is that it is not a unified theory. This means that the different aspects of the theory may not be connected. For example, researchers currently cannot find a connection between observational learning and self-efficacy within the social-cognitive perspective. The theory is so broad that not all of its component parts are fully understood and integrated into a single explanation of learning and personality.

The findings associated with this theory are still, for the most part, preliminary. It does not provide a full explanation or description of how social cognition, behaviour, environment, and personality are related, although there are several hypotheses.

Another limitation is that not all social learning can be directly observed. Because of this, it can be difficult to quantify the effect that social cognition has on development. Similarly, many aspects of personality are subjective and can be equally hard to measure and quantify.

Finally, this theory tends to ignore maturation throughout the lifespan. Because of this, the understanding of how a child learns through observation and how an adult learns through observation are not differentiated, and factors of development are not included.

THE CONCEPT OF ATTITUDE

An attitude is a positive, negative, or mixed evaluation of an object expressed at some level of intensity. It is an expression of a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of a person, place, thing, or event. These are fundamental determinants of our perceptions of and actions toward all aspects of our social environment. Attitudes involve a complex organization of evaluative beliefs, feelings, and tendencies toward certain actions.

According to Gordon Allport, "An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related."

Frank Freeman said, "An attitude is a dispositional readiness to respond to certain institutions, persons or objects in a consistent manner which has been learned and has become one's typical mode of response."

In simple words, an "attitude" is an individual's way of looking or an individual's point of view at something. To be more specific, an "attitude" may be defined as the mental state of an individual, which prepares him to react or make him behave in a particular pre-determined way. It is actually an acquired feeling.

9.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDE

1. Attitudes are the complex combination of things we call

personality, beliefs, values, behaviours, and motivations.

2. It can fall anywhere along a continuum from very favorable to very unfavorable.
3. All people, irrespective of their status or intelligence, hold attitudes.
4. An attitude exists in every person's mind. It helps to define our identity, guide our actions, and influence how we judge people.
5. Although the feeling and belief components of attitude are internal to a person, we can view a person's attitude from their resulting behaviour.
6. Attitude helps us define how we see situations and define how we behave toward the situation or object.
7. It provides us with internal cognitions or beliefs and thoughts about people and objects.
8. It can also be explicit and implicit. Explicit attitude is those that we are consciously aware of and implicit attitude is unconscious, but still, affect our behaviours.
9. Attitudes cause us to behave in a particular way toward an object or person.
10. It may be positive or negative and may be affected by age, position, and education.

9.2 COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE

(a) Cognitive Component

The cognitive component of attitudes refers to the beliefs, thoughts, and attributes that we would associate with an object. It is the opinion or belief segment of an attitude. It refers to that part of attitude which is related in general knowledge of a person.

Typically these come to light in generalities or stereotypes, such as 'all babies are cute', 'smoking is harmful to health' etc.

(b) Affective Component

Affective component is the emotional or feeling segment of

an attitude. It is related to the statement which affects another person.

It deals with feelings or emotions that are brought to the surface about something, such as fear or hate. Using the above example, someone might have the attitude that they love all babies because they are cute or that they hate smoking because it is harmful to health.

(c) Behavioural Component

Behaviour component of an attitude consists of a person's tendencies to behave in a particular way toward an object. It refers to that part of attitude which reflects the intention of a person in the short-run or long run.

Using the above example, the behavioural attitude maybe- 'I cannot wait to kiss the baby', or 'we better keep those smokers out of the library, etc.

In an organization, attitudes are important for their goal or objective to succeed. Each one of these components is very different from the other, and they can build upon one another to form our attitudes and, therefore, affect how we relate to the world.

9.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING ATTITUDE

1. Social Factors

Every society has the majority of people who prefer to live a harmonious life. They try to avoid unnecessary friction of conflicts with people.

Social roles relate to how people are expected to behave in a particular role or context. Social norms involve society's rules for what behaviours are considered appropriate.

2. Family

The family is the most powerful source for the formation of attitudes. The parents, elder brother or sister provide information about various things. Attitudes developed by an individual, whether positive or negative are the result of family influence, which is very powerful and difficult to change.

3. Prejudices

An attitude may involve a prejudice, in which we prejudge an issue without giving unbiased consideration to all the evidence.

Prejudices are preconceived ideas or judgments where one develops some attitudes toward other people, objects, etc. If we are prejudiced against a person, who is, accused of a crime, we may regard him as guilty regardless of the evidence. We can also be prejudiced in favour of something.

4. Media

As a means of communication, mass media such as television, radio, has a major influence in shaping people's opinions and beliefs. There is new information on something that provides the foundation for the emergence of new cognitive attitudes towards it.

5. Educational and Religious Institutions

As a system, educational and religious institutions have a strong influence in shaping attitudes because they lay the foundation of understanding and moral concepts within the individual.

Understanding the good and the bad, the dividing line between something that can and cannot do is obtained from the center of the educational and religious institutions.

6. Direct Instruction

Sometimes direct instruction can influence attitude formation. For example, somebody gives information about the usefulness of some fruit. On the basis of this information, we can develop a positive or negative attitude about that fruit.

7. Physical Factors

Clinical psychologists have generally recognized that physical, health and vitality are important factors in determining adjustment, and frequently it has been found that malnutrition or disease or accidents have interfered so seriously with normal development that serious behavioural disturbances have followed.

8. Economic Status and Occupations

Our economic and occupational positions also contribute to attitude formation. They determine, in part, our attitudes towards unions and management and our belief that certain laws are 'good' or 'bad'. Our socio-economic background influences our present and future attitudes.

9.4 TYPES OF ATTITUDES

(a) Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the level of contentment a person feels regarding his or her job. This feeling is mainly based on an individual's perception of satisfaction.

A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes about the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds a negative attitude about the job.

A person having a negative attitude shows a personality disposition that is inclined to experience nervousness, tension, upset, distress, etc. whereas those with a positive attitude will feel happy themselves, others and their work.

Generally, it is deemed a high level of job satisfaction means positive attitudes towards the job and vice versa. When people speak of employee attitudes, more often than not they mean job satisfaction. In fact, the two are frequently used interchangeably.

(b) Job Involvement

Job involvement refers to the degree to which a person identifies himself (psychologically) with his job, actively participates and considers his perceived performance level important to self-worth. (Robbins)

Higher job satisfaction leads to low absenteeism & employee turnover and indicates that the individual cares for his job.

(c) Organizational Commitment

The last job-attitude refers to organizational commitment. It is understood as one's identification with his or her organization and feels proud of being its employee.

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

Different studies demonstrate that an individual's level of organizational commitment is a better indicator of turnover than the far more frequently used job satisfaction predictor, explaining as much as 34 per cent of the variance.

Basically, turnover and absenteeism are low when employees have an organizational commitment.

9.5 FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDE

Daniel Katz outlines 4 functions of attitudes;

- Adjustment Function.
- Ego-Defensive Function.
- Value-Expressive Function.
- Knowledge Function.

(a) Adjustment Function

Attitudes often help people to adjust to their work environment. When employees are well treated, they are likely to develop a positive attitude toward management and the organization.

When employees are criticized and given a minimal salary, they are likely to develop a negative attitude toward management and the organization.

These attitudes help employees adjust to their environment and are a basis for future behaviour. The adjustment function directs people toward pleasurable or rewarding objects and away from unpleasant, undesirable ones. It serves the utilitarian concept of maximizing reward and minimizing punishment.

Thus, the attitudes of consumers depend to a large degree on their perceptions of what is needed satisfying and what is punishing.

(b) Ego-Defensive Function

The ego-defensive function refers to holding attitudes that protect our self-esteem or that justify actions that make us feel guilty.

This function involves psychoanalytic principles where

people use defense mechanisms to protect themselves from psychological harm. Mechanisms include denial, repression, projection, rationalization, etc.

For example; an older manager whose decisions are continually challenged by a younger subordinate manager may feel that the latter is brash, cocky, immature, and inexperienced. In truth, the younger subordinate may be right in challenging the decisions. The older manager may not be a very effective leader and may constantly make poor decisions. On the other hand, the older manager is not going to admit this but will try to protect the ego by blaming the other party.

(c) Value-Expressive Function

Whereas ego defensive attitudes are formed to protect a person's self-image, value-expressive attitudes enable the expression of the person's centrally held values.

Central values tend to establish our identity and gain us social approval thereby showing us who we are, and what we stand for.

Our value-expressive attitudes are closely related to our self-concept. One whose central value is freedom, the individual may express very positive attitudes towards the decentralization of authority in the organization, flexible work schedules, and relaxation of dress standards.

(d) Knowledge Function

The knowledge function refers to our need which is consistent and relatively stable. This allows us to predict what is likely to happen, and so gives us a sense of control.

Some attitudes are useful because they help to make the world more understandable. They help people ascribe causes to events and direct attention towards features of people or situations that are likely to be useful in making sense of them.

Consequently, they help to make the world more understandable, predictable, and knowable. Knowing a person's attitude helps us predict their behaviour.

For example- people who are not familiar with nuclear energy may develop an attitude that is dangerous and should not be used as an energy source. Stereotyping is another

example. In the absence of knowledge about a person, we may use a stereotyped attitude for judging the person.

9.6 ATTITUDE FORMATION

While attitudes are basically learned over the years, some inherited characteristics do affect such attitudes

Some of the learned characteristics responsible for attitude formation are:

1. Experiences

Our personal experiences with people and situations develop our attitude towards such persons and situations.

Through job experience, people develop attitudes towards working conditions, salaries, supervision, group dynamics and so on.

2. Perceptual biases

Perception is the result of a complex interaction of various senses such as feelings, seeing, hearing and so on and plays an important part in our attitude and behavioural formation.

For example, if a manager perceives a subordinate's ability as limited, he will give him limited responsibility. Similarly, we lose many good friends due to our changed perception about them.

3. Observation of other person attitude

When we like someone, we try to emulate that person's attitude.

For example, when we are impressed by someone keeping calm under stressful circumstances and we appreciate such calmness, we might try to do the same.

4. Association

Our association with the group we belong to strongly influences our attitude. Our close association with a group would encourage us to be consistent with the attitude of the group.

5. Personality

Personality is a set of traits and characteristics, habit patterns

and conditioned responses to certain stimuli that formulate the impression that a person makes upon others and this impression is a function of a person's attitude.

9.7 IMPORTANCE OF ATTITUDE IN ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **Career success:** Performance is a parameter to measure employees' success in the workplace. Performance leads to success either through promotion or increased compensation. A positive attitude of an employee will help him to think of ways to accomplish their task in a well-defined manner
- **Productivity:** An employee with a positive attitude tends to take more interest and responsibility and will provide better work, which in turn will improve productivity.
- **Leadership:** Managing a diverse workforce is a crucial task for achieving the objective of an organization. Positive attitude demonstrated by leaders or employee will result in proper communication between the subordinate which will lead to efficient work.
- **Teamwork:** A positive attitude of employees helps to appreciate each other's competencies and work as a team for achieving common objectives.
- **Decision-making:** An employee with a positive attitude and mindset will help employees to make better decisions, in an objective manner. It will enable employees to choose wisely and logically and avoid them to take an unambiguous decision.
- **Motivation:** Motivation is an important factor for efficient work. An employee with a positive attitude will always be mentally prepared to face any obstacle in a job. The moment they are successful in overcoming obstacles, they are motivated to move forward.
- **Interpersonal relations:** Customers prefer to make relation with someone who is positive in nature. A positive attitude helps in establishing valuable customer loyalty.

- **Stress management:** Positive attitude and thinking will reduce the stress of an employee and with reduced stress employee can take a better decision and increase their productivity which results, employees, to enjoy better health and take fewer sick leaves.

9.8 BARRIERS TO CHANGE ATTITUDES

Employees' attitudes can be changed, and sometimes it is in the best interests of management to try to do so.

For example, if employees believe that their employer does not look after their welfare, the management should try to change employees' attitudes and develop a more positive attitude towards them.

However, the process of changing the attitude is not always easy. Actually, the barriers are the limits that prevent the organization from achieving its predetermined goals.

So every organization should be aware of these and should take corrective actions. Below are some barriers to Change Attitudes:

- **Prior Commitment:** When people feel a commitment towards a particular course of action that has already been agreed upon, it becomes difficult for them to change or accept the new ways of functioning.
- **Insufficient Information:** It also acts as a major barrier to change attitudes. Sometimes people do not see why they should change their attitude due to the unavailability of adequate information.
- **Balance and Consistency:** Another obstacle to a change of attitude is the attitude theory of balance and consistency. Human beings prefer their attitudes about people and things to be in line with their behaviours towards each other and objects.
- **Lack of Resources:** If plans become excessively ambitious, they can sometimes be obstructed by the lack of resources on a company or organization. So, in this case, if the organization wants to change the employees' attitude towards the new plan, sometimes it becomes impossible for the lack of resources to achieve this.

- **Improper Reward System:** Sometimes, an improper reward system acts as a barrier to change attitude. If an organization places too much emphasis on short-term performance and results, managers may ignore longer-term issues as they set goals and formulate plans to achieve higher profits in the short term.

If this reward system is introduced in the organization, employees are not motivated to change their attitude.

- **Resistance to Change:** Another barrier is resistance to change. Basically, change is a continuous process within and outside the organization to achieve the set goal.

When the authority changes a plan of the organization, the employees have to change themselves. But some of them do not like this. If their attitude regarding the change of plan cannot be changed, the organization will not be successful.

9.9 WAYS OF CHANGING ATTITUDE

- New information will help to change attitudes.
- Negative attitudes are mainly formed owing to insufficient information.
- Attitudes may change through direct experience.
- Another way in which attitudes can be changed is by resolving discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour.
- Change of attitude can come through the persuasion of friends or peers.
- Attitudes may change through legislation.
- Since a person's attitudes are anchored in his membership group and reference groups, one way to change the attitude is to modify one or the other.
- Fear can change their attitude. If low levels of fear are used, people often ignore them.
- Changing the attitude differs regarding the situation also.

9.10 ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events, or symbols. It is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner for a given object.

It is an expression of evaluation toward a person, place, thing, or event. It will always have a positive and negative element and tend to behave in a certain way.

Beliefs reflect who we are and how we live our lives. It is composed of multiple factors tending to family, society, and the structure of life. It is the trust that something is true and good without any doubt.

It is an internal feeling that something is true, even though that belief may be unproven or irrational.

9.11 ATTITUDES VS. BEHAVIOUR

Attitude refers to feelings, beliefs, and behaviour predispositions directed towards people, groups, ideas, or objects. It influences the behaviour of the individuals. It decides how to act or behave in a particular situation.

Everything in an organization will get better if the attitude of everyone gets better. Successes and failures in life depend upon the attitude of the individuals.

Behaviour is the way a person responds to his attitude. This response is either positive or negative, depending on how that views his position.

For example, an employee who dislikes another coworker or has little respect for a coworker may display this attitude by speaking harshly to this individual.

Behaviour can be influenced by factors beyond attitude, including preconceptions about self and others, monetary factors, social influences, and convenience.

It is the actions or reactions of a person or animal in response to external or internal stimuli. It indicates how something functions or operates.

UNDERSTANDING VALUES

Generally, value has been taken to mean moral ideas, general conceptions or orientations towards the world or sometimes simply interests, attitudes, preferences, needs, sentiments and dispositions.

But sociologists use this term in a more precise sense to mean “the generalized end which has the connotations of rightness, goodness or inherent desirability”.

It has a major influence on a person's behaviour and attitude and serves as broad guidelines in all situations. Actually, the value represents basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

A value is a shared idea about how something is ranked in terms of desirability, worth or goodness. Sometimes, it has been interpreted to mean “such standards by means of which the ends of action are selected”.

Sometimes, it has been interpreted to mean “such standards by means of which the ends of action are selected”. Thus, values are collective conceptions of what is considered good, desirable, and proper or bad, undesirable, and improper in a culture.

Familiar examples of values are wealth, loyalty, independence, equality, justice, fraternity and friendliness.

These are generalized ends consciously pursued by or held up to individuals as being worthwhile in them.

Socially shared, intensely felt values are a fundamental part of our lives. These values become part of our personalities. They are shared and reinforced by those with whom we interact.

Since values often strongly influence both attitude and behaviour, they serve as a kind of personal compass for employee conduct in the workplace.

These help to determine whether an employee is passionate about work and the workplace, which in turn can lead to above-average returns, high employee satisfaction, strong team dynamics, and synergy.

10.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF VALUE

- Most of our core values are learned early in life from family, friends, neighborhood school, the mass print, visual media and other sources within the society.
- Values are loaded with effective thoughts about ideas, objects, behaviour, etc.
- They contain a judgmental element in that they carry an individual's ideas as to what is right, good, or desirable.
- Values can differ from culture to culture and even person to person.
- Values play a significant role in the integration and fulfillment of man's basic impulses and desire stably and consistently appropriate for his living.
- They are generic experiences in social action made up of both individual and social responses and attitudes.
- They build up societies, integrate social relations.
- They mold the ideal dimensions of personality and depth of culture.
- They influence people's behaviour and serve as criteria for evaluating the actions of others.
- They have a great role to play in the conduct of social

life. They help in creating norms to guide day-to-day behaviour.

Types of Values

There are two types of values: Terminal Values and Instrumental Values.

(a) Terminal Values

These are values that we think are most important or most desirable. These refer to desirable end-states of existence, the goals a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime. They include happiness, self-respect, recognition, inner harmony, leading a prosperous life, and professional excellence.

(b) Instrumental Values

Instrumental values deal with views on acceptable modes of conductor means of achieving the terminal values. These include being honest, sincere, ethical, and being ambitious. These values are more focused on personality traits and character.

10.2 IMPORTANCE OF VALUES

- Value is the foundation for understanding the level of motivation.
- It influences our perception.
- Value helps to understand what ought to be or what ought not to be.
- It contains interpretations of right or wrong.
- These influence attitudes and behaviour.
- It implies that certain behaviours on outcomes are preferred over others.
- These allow the members of an organization to interact harmoniously. These make it easier to reach goals that would be impossible to achieve individually.
- These are goals set for achievements, and they motivate, define and color all our activities cognitive, affective add connective.

- They are the guideposts of our lives, and they direct us to who we want to be.
- Values and morals can not only guide but inspire and motivate a person, give energy and a zest for living and for doing something meaningful.

Actually, values are important to the study of organizational behaviour because they lay the foundation for the understanding of attitudes and motivation.

Individuals enter an organization with preconceived notions of what “ought” or what “ought not” to be. Of course, these notions are not value free.

These are part of the makeup of a person. They remind us as to what is important in our lives, such as success or family, but also, by virtue of their presence, they provide contrast to what is not important.

That is not to say that, over time, values cannot change. As we grow and change as individuals, we will begin to value different aspects of life.

If we value- family when we are younger, as our children get older, we might start to value success in business more than the family.

10.3 SOURCES OF VALUES

Sources of value are a comprehensive guide to financial decision-making suitable for beginners as well as experienced practitioners. It treats financial decision-making as both an art and a science and proposes a comprehensive approach through which companies can maximize their value.

Generally, no values tend to be relatively stable and enduring. A significant portion of the values we hold is established in our early years from parents, teachers, friends, and others. There are so many sources from which we can acquire different values. Some of which include:

- **Family:** Family is a great source of values. A child learns his first value from his family.
- **Friends & peers:** Friends and peers play a vital role in achieving values.

- **Community or society:** As a part of society, a person learns values from society or different groups of society.
- **School:** As a learner, school and teachers also play a very important role in introducing values.
- **Media:** Media such as – Print media, Electronic media also play the role of increasing values in the mind of people.
- **Relatives:** Relative also helps to create values in the minds of people.
- **Organization:** Different organizations and institutions also play a vital role in creating value.
- **Religion.**
- **History.**
- **Books.**
- **Others.**

10.4 VALUES AND BELIEFS

Values are socially approved desires and goals that are internalized through the process of conditioning, learning or socialization and that become subjective preferences, standards, and aspirations.

They focus on the judgment of what ought to be. This judgment can represent the specific expression of the behaviour. They are touched with moral flavor, involving an individual's judgment of what is right, good, or desirable.

Thus:

- Values provide standards of competence and morality.
- These are ideas that we hold to be important.
- They govern the way we behave, communicate and interact with others.
- They transcend specific objects, Situations or persons.
- These are relatively permanent and there is resistant to change them.

Beliefs are the convictions that we generally hold to be true, usually without actual proof or evidence.

They are often, but not always connected to religion. Religious beliefs could include a belief that Allah is alone and created the earth. Religions other than Islam also have their own set of beliefs.

Nonreligious beliefs could include: that all people are created equal, which would guide us to treat everyone regardless of sex, race, religion, age, education, status, etc. with equal respect.

Conversely, someone might believe that all people are not created equal. These are basic assumptions that we make about the world and our values stem from those beliefs.

Thus:

- Beliefs are concepts that we hold to be true.
- These may come from religion, but not always.
- Beliefs determine our attitudes and opinions.

10.5 VALUES IN WORKPLACE

Values can strongly influence employee conduct in the workplace. If an employee values honesty, hard work, and discipline, for example, he will likely make an effort to exhibit those traits in the workplace. This person may, therefore, be a more efficient employee and a more positive role model to others than an employee with opposite values.

Conflict may arise, however, if an employee realizes that his co-workers do not share his values. For example, an employee who values hard work may dislike co-workers who are lazy or unproductive without being reprimanded. Even so, additional conflicts can result if the employee attempts to force his own values on his co-workers.

10.6 VALUES AND ATTITUDES

We can control our behaviour in a way that does not reflect our beliefs and values, which in order to embrace a diverse culture and behaviours as a successful manager; we have to adapt our behaviour in a positive manner.

<i>Difference between Values and Attitudes</i>	
<i>Values</i>	<i>Attitudes</i>
Values help to guide our behaviour.	Attitudes are the response that is a result of our values.
Values decide what we think as for right, wrong, good, or unjust.	Attitudes are our likes and dislike of things, people, and objects.
Values are more or less permanent in nature.	Attitudes are changeable with favorable experiences.
They represent a single belief that, guides actions and judgment across objects and situations.	They represent several beliefs focused on a specific object or situation.
They derived from social and cultural mores.	These are personal experiences.

Similarities between Values and Attitudes

1. Values and attitudes are two important variables influencing the cognitive process and behaviour.
2. They are learned and acquired essentially from the same sources.
3. They endure and are resistant to change.
4. They have a reciprocal influence and are used interchangeably.

PERCEPTION AND DECISION-MAKING

Perception is another most important aspect of life of organization. Many problems of the organization and that of its members may be traced to the distortion in perception. Perception means the ability to perceive i.e. understanding or knowledge, mental grasp of qualities by means of senses or awareness.

Communication is influenced by one's perception of individual. When we communicate with someone, the language we used, the tone of the language and gesture we make portray an individual's character and a kind of relationship he wants to develop.

Perception is the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment.

The study, of these perceptual 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.

What is Perception

Perception is a subjective, active and creative process through which we assign meaning to sensory information to understand ourselves and others. It can be defined as our recognition and

interpretation of sensory information. It also includes how we respond to the information.

It is the process by which an organism detects and interprets information from the external world by means of the sensory receptors. It is our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli.

According to S. P. Robbins, perception can be defined as “the process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environments.”

Perception includes the **5 senses; touch, sight, taste smell and sound**. It also involves the cognitive processes required to process information, such as recognizing the face of a friend or detecting a familiar perfume.

All perception involves signals in the nervous system, which in turn result from physical or chemical stimulation of the sense organs. It is not the passive receipt of these signals but is shaped by learning, memory, expectation, and attention.

11.1 IMPORTANCE OF PERCEPTION

1. Perception is very important in understanding human behavior because every person perceives the world and approaches life problems differently. Whatever we see or feel is not necessarily the same as it really is. When we buy something, it is not because it is the best, but because we take it to be the best.
2. If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behavior in the changed circumstances by understanding their present perception of the environment. One person may be viewing the facts in one way which may be different from the facts as seen by another viewer.
3. With the help of perception, the needs of various people can be determined, because people's perception is influenced by their needs.
4. Perception is very important for the manager who wants to avoid making errors when dealing with people and

events in the work setting. This problem is made more complicated by the fact that different people perceive the same situation differently. In order to deal with the subordinates effectively, the managers must understand their perceptions properly.

5. Perception can be important because it offers more than objective output; it ingests an observation and manufactures an altered reality enriched with previous experiences.
6. Perception builds character (not necessarily good or bad character) that defines different roles individuals fall into the clown, the hypocrite, the self-righteous, the victim, etc..
7. It is vitally important if we want to get along with others to try to see things from their perspective or walk in their shoes for a while. If we walk in their shoes we will gain a new perspective about things and in that understand the other and also can love and help the other more appropriately.

Thus, for understanding human behavior, it is very important to understand their perception, that is, how they perceive the different situations.

People's behavior is based on their perceptions of what reality is, not on reality itself. The world as it is perceived is the world that is important for understanding human behavior.

11.2 FACTORS AFFECTING PERCEPTION

Perception is the process by which an individual selects, organizes, and interprets information to create a meaningful picture. Perception depends not only on the physical stimuli but also on the stimuli's relation to the surrounding field and on conditions within the individual. Perception is a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory perceives in order to give meaning to their environment.

However, what one perceives can be substantially different from objective reality. It is the process through which the information from the outside environment is selected, received, organized and interpreted to make it meaningful.

This input of meaningful information results in decisions and actions. A number of factors operate to shape and sometimes distort perception. These factors can reside in the perceiver in the object or target being perceived, or in the context of the situation in which the perception is made.

When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she sees, that interpretation is heavily influenced by the personal characteristics of the individual perceiver.

Personal characteristics that affect perception include a person's attitudes, personality, motives, interests, past experiences, and expectations.

There are some factors that influence the target such as novelty, motion, sounds, size, background, proximity, similarity, etc.

Characteristics of the target being observed can affect what is perceived. Because targets are not looked at in isolation, the relationship of a target to its background also influences perception, as does our tendency to group close things and similar things together.

There are also some situational factors like the time of perceiving others, work settings, social settings, etc. which influence the perception process.

Besides these, there are some other factors like perceptual learning which is based on past experiences or any special training that we get; every one of us learns to emphasize some sensory inputs and to ignore others.

Another factor is the mental set, which refers to preparedness or readiness to receive some sensory input.

Such expectancy keeps the individual prepared with good attention and concentration. The level of knowledge we have may also change the way we perceive his or her behaviors.

For example; if a person knows that her friend is stressed out over family problems then she might overlook her snappy comments. Learning has a considerable influence on perception.

It creates expectancy in people. The nature of the things

which have to be perceived is also an influential factor. By nature we mean, whether the object is visual or auditory, and whether it involves pictures, people or animals.

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.

When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she sees, that interpretation is heavily influenced by the personal characteristics of the individual perceiver.

Personal characteristics that affect perception included a person's attitudes, personality motives interest, past experiences, and expectations.

11.3 PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

The perceptual process allows us to experience the world around us. In this overview of perception and the perceptual process, we will learn more about how we go from detecting stimuli in the environment to actually taking action based on that information and it can be organized into our existing structures and patterns, and are then interpreted based on previous experiences.

Although the perception is a largely cognitive and psychological process, how we perceive the people and objects around us affects our communication.

Actually perception process is a sequence of steps that begins with the environment and leads to our perception of a stimulus and action in response to the stimulus.

In order to fully understand how the perception process works, we have to follow each of the following steps.

1. Selection

The world around us is filled with an infinite number of stimuli that we might attend, but our brains do not have the resources to pay attention to everything. Thus, the first step of perception is the decision of what to attend to.

Selecting is the first part of the perception process, in which we focus our attention on certain incoming sensory information. In selection, we choose stimuli that attract our attention.

We focus on the ones that stand out to our senses (sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch). We take information through all five of our senses, but our perceptual field includes so many stimuli that it is impossible for our brains to process and make sense of it all.

So, as information comes in through our senses, various factors influence what actually continues on through the perception process.

2. Organization

Once we have chosen to attend to a stimulus in the environment, the choice sets off a series of reactions in our brain. This neural process starts with the activation of our sensory receptors (touch, taste, smell, sight, and hearing).

Organizing is the second part of the perception process, in which we sort and categorize information that we perceive based on innate and learned cognitive patterns.

Three ways we sort things into patterns are by using proximity, similarity, and difference (Stanley, mo).

3. Interpretation

After we have attended to a stimulus, and our brains have received and organized the information, we interpret it in a way that makes sense using our existing information about the world. Interpretation simply means that we take the information that we have sensed and organized and turn it into something that we can categorize.

By putting different stimuli into categories, we can better understand and react to the world around us.

Perception of others involves sensing, organizing, and interpreting information about people, and what they say and do. The sensation is a main characteristic of perception as it relates to outside input. In the perceptual process, firstly the perceiver should select what will be perceived.

Then, the organization takes place when listeners identify the type of sound and compare it to other sounds heard in the past.

Interpretation and categorization are generally the most subjective areas of perception, as they involve decisions about whether listeners like what they hear and want to keep listening.

We make immediate evaluations that cause automatic judgments of positive and negative reactions toward others, which occur outside of our awareness.

The selection, organization, and interpretation of perceptions can differ among different people.

On the basis of these, the perceptual output that means, values, attitudes, behavior, etc. of the perceiver may differ.

Therefore, when people react differently in a situation, part of their behavior can be explained by examining their perceptual process, and how their perceptions are leading to their responses.

11.4 ERRORS IN PERCEPTION

As seen above, perception is the process of analyzing and understanding a stimulus as it is. But it may not be always possible to perceive the stimuli as they are. Knowingly or unknowingly, we mistake the stimulus and perceive it wrongly.

Many times the prejudices in the individual, time of perception, unfavorable background, lack of clarity of stimulus, confusion, conflict in mind and such other factors are responsible for errors in perception.

The following are some errors in perception;

- Illusion.
- Hallucination.
- Halo Effect.

- Stereotyping.
- Similarity.
- Horn Effect.
- Contrast.

1. Illusion

The illusion is a false perception. Here the person will mistake a stimulus and perceive it wrongly. For example, in the dark, a rope is mistaken as a snake or vice versa. The voice of an unknown person is mistaken as a friend's voice. A person standing at a distance who is not known may be perceived as a known person.

2. Hallucination

Sometimes we come across instances where the individual perceives some stimulus, even when it is not present. This phenomenon is known as a hallucination. The person may see an object, person, etc. or he may listen to some voice though there are no objects and sounds in reality.

3. Selective Perception

Selective perception means the situation when people selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experience, and attitudes. It means any characteristics that make a person, object, or event stand out will increase the probability that it will be perceived.

Because it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see, only certain stimuli can be taken in.

4. Halo Effect

The individual is evaluated on the basis of perceived positive quality, feature or trait. When we draw a general impression about an individual on the basis of a single characteristic, such as intelligence, sociability, or appearance, a halo effect is operating.

In other words, this is the tendency to rate a man uniformly high or low in other traits if he is extraordinarily high or low in one particular trait: If a worker has few absences, his

supervisor might give him a high rating in all other areas of work.

5. Stereotyping

People usually can fall into at least one general category based on physical or behavioral traits. When we judge someone on the basis of our perception of the group to which he or she belongs, we are using the shortcut called stereotyping. For example, a boss might assume that a worker from a Middle East country is lazy and cannot meet performance objectives, even if the worker tried his best.

6. Similarity

Often, people tend to seek out and rate more positively those who are similar to themselves. This tendency to approve of similarity may cause evaluators to give better ratings to employees who exhibit the same interests, work methods, points of view or standards.

7. Horn Effect

When the individual is completely evaluated on the basis of a negative quality or feature perceived. This results in an overall lower rating than an acceptable rate. For example: He is not formally dressed up in the office, that's why he may be casual at work too.

8. Contrast

The tendency to rate people relative to other people rather than to the individual performance he or she is doing. Rather will evaluate an employee by comparing that employee's performance with other employees.

In the early 20th Century, Wilhelm Wundt identified contrast as a fundamental principle of perception, and since then the effect has been confirmed in many different areas. These effects shape not only visual qualities like color and brightness but other kinds of perception, including how heavy an object feels. One experiment found that thinking of the name "Hitler" led to subjects rating a person as more hostile.

Basically, we use the above shortcuts when we judge

others. Perceiving and interpreting what others do is burdensome. As a result, individuals develop techniques for making the task more manageable.

These techniques are frequently valuable—they allow us to make accurate perceptions rapidly and provide valid data for making projections. But sometimes it also creates problems. Because firstly, we have said that these are the shortcuts. In these ways, we can judge others in a short period of time but sometimes we mistakenly judge others by these shortcuts.

11.5 WHY PERCEPTION VARY

Our perceptions vary from person to person, and the meaning we take from those perceptions varies. This is why people have different tastes in music, art, architecture, clothes, etc.

Different people perceive different things about the same situation. But more than that, we assign different meanings to what we perceive. And the meanings might change for a certain person.

One might change one's perspective or simply make things mean something else. Two people with identically tested seeing and hearing will still have different tastes in what they like to see and hear.

The way we perceive the world around us varies and is as unique as our individual personalities. Even though we might look at the same picture, what we interpret will vary depending on a number of factors, including what we expect to see.

Basically, perception is a very interesting facet of life and business. How we perceive our world and how we think our world, perceives us can dictate how we act and how we respond in certain situations.

Thus, perception, or apprehending by means of the senses or the mind, can be a very powerful and influential aspect of our lives. It can direct our actions and our thoughts, which in many ways guide who we are.

11.6 DECISION-MAKING

A decision is the conclusion of a process by which one decision

is chosen among available alternative courses of action for the purpose of attaining a goal(s).

According to Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, "Decision-making is the process of identifying to deal with a specific problem or take advantage of an opportunity."

According to Weihrich & Koontz, "All management work is accomplished by decision-making".

According to Trewartha and Newport, "Decision-making involves the selection of a course of action from among two or more possible alternatives in order to arrive at a solution for a given problem".

So, decision-making means "to cut off" or in practical terms, to come to a conclusion of something. It is a course of action, which is consciously chosen for achieving the desired result.

In terms of managerial decision-making, it is an act of choice, wherein a manager selects a particular course of action from the available alternatives in a given situation. It is done to achieve a specific objective or to solve a specific problem.

How are Decisions Actually Made?

For novice decision makers with little experience, decision makers faced with simple problems that have few alternative courses of action, or when the cost of searching out and evaluating alternatives is low, the rational model provides a fairly accurate description of the decision process.

But in reality, people do not follow the rational decision-making process. As one expert in decision-making said, "Most significant decisions are made by judges, rather than by a defined prescriptive model" (Bazerman, ms).

The following reviews will provide a more accurate description of how most decisions in organizations are actually made:

(a) Bounded Rationality

Rationality of individuals is limited by the information they have, the cognitive limitations of their minds, and the finite amount of time they have to make a decision. Individuals are

limited by the information they have in order to make a decision in the decision-making process due to the limitation of the rationality of individuals.

Bounded rationality is the idea that when individuals make decisions, their rationality is limited by the available information.

Actually, the capacity of the human mind for formulating and solving complex problems is far too small to meet the requirements for full rationality. Actually here the decision makers construct simplified models that extract the essential features from problems without capturing all their complexity.

Herbert A. Simon proposed bounded rationality as an alternative basis for the mathematical modeling of decision-making, as used in economics, political science, and related disciplines. It complements “rationality as optimization”, which views decision -making as a fully rational process of finding an optimal choice given the information available.

Many economic models assume that people are on average rational, and can in large enough quantities be approximated to act according to their preferences. The term is thought to have been coined by Herbert A. Simon.

In Models of Man, Simon points out that most people are only partly rational, and are irrational in the remaining part of their actions. These include:

1. Limiting the types of utility functions
2. Recognizing the costs of gathering and processing information
3. The possibility of having a “vector” or “multi-valued” utility function.

(b) Intuition

The word “intuition” comes from Latin verb *Intueri* translated as consider or from late Middle English word *intuit*, “to contemplate”. Intuition is a phenomenon of the mind, describes the ability to acquire knowledge without inference or the use of reason.

Intuition has been subject of discussion from ancient philosophy to modern psychology, also a topic of interest in

various religions as well as a common subject of writings and is often misunderstood and misinterpreted as instinct, truth, belief, meaning and other subjects.

Some scientists have contended that intuition is associated with innovation in scientific discovery. Experts no longer automatically assume that using intuition to make decisions is irrational or ineffective.

There is growing recognition that rational analysis has been over emphasized and that, in certain instances, relying on intuition can improve decision-making. Eight conditions have been identified when people most likely to use intuitive decision-making.

These are:

1. When a high level of uncertainty exists;
2. When there is a little precedent to draw on;
3. When variables are less significantly predictable;
4. When facts are limited; ‘
5. When facts don’t clearly point the way;
6. When analytical data are of little use;
7. When there are several possible alternative situations from which to choose, with good arguments for each; and
8. When the time is limited and there is pressure to come up with the right decision.

(c) Problem Identification

Problems that are visible tend to have a higher probability of being selected than ones that are important. There are two reasons behind it:

First, visible problems are more likely to catch a decision maker’s attention.

Second, remember we are concerned with decision-making in organizations. Decision makers want to appear competent and “on the top of problems.”

This motivates them to focus attention on problems that are visible to others. If a decision maker faces a conflict

between selecting a problem that is important to the organization and one that is important to the decision maker, self-interest tend to win out.

It is usually in a decision maker's best interest to attack high-profile problems. Moreover, when the decision maker's performance is evaluated, the evaluator is more likely to give a high rating to someone who has been aggressively attacking visible problems.

(d) Alternative Development

At this stage, managers decide how to move from their current position towards their decided future position. More complex search behaviour, which includes the development of creative alternatives, will be resorted to only when a simple search fails to discover a satisfactory alternative.

Finding alternatives are not the problem normally. Reducing the number of alternatives in order to analyze and find out the best one is the problem.

(e) Making Choices

After evaluating all of the possible alternatives, the decision maker will make the final decision. The decision makers rely on heuristics or judgmental shortcuts in decision-making. There are two common categories of heuristics- availability and representativeness.

Availability heuristics is the tendency for people to base their judgments on information that is readily available to them. Representative heuristics tend to assess the likelihood of an occurrence by trying to match it with a preexisting category.

Another bias that creeps into decisions in practice is a tendency to escalate commitment when a decision stream represents a series of decisions.

Escalation of commitment refers to staying with a decision even when there is clear evidence that it is wrong. It has obvious implications for managerial decisions.

Many organizations have suffered large losses because a manager was determined to prove his or her original decision was right. In actuality, effective managers are those who are

able to differentiate between situations in which persistence will pay off and situations in which it will not.

11.7 FACTORS INFLUENCING DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making and problem solving are ongoing processes of evaluating situations or problems, considering alternatives, making choices, and following them up with the necessary actions.

The entire decision-making process is dependent upon some factors which are considered by the manager at the time of decision-making. They include:

The factors are;

- Coalition.
- Intuition.
- Escalation of Commitment.
- Risk Propensity.
- Ethics.

1. Coalition

Coalition is one of the major elements of decision-making. A coalition is an informal alliance of individuals or groups to achieve a common goal. This common goal is often a preferred decision alternative. For example, coalition of stockholders is frequently band together to force a board of directors to make a certain decision.

The impact of coalitions can be positive or negative. Managers must recognize when to use coalitions, how to assess whether coalitions are acting in the best interests of the organization, and how to constrain their dysfunctional effects.

2. Intuition

Intuition is an innate belief about something without conscious consideration. Managers sometimes decide to do something because they think it is right.

This feeling is usually not arbitrary rather it is based on years of experience and practice in making decisions in similar situations.

An inner sense may help managers make an occasional decision without going through a full-blown rational sequence of steps.

3. Escalation of Commitment

Another important behavioural process that influences decision-making is escalation of commitment to a chosen course of action. In particular, decision makers sometimes make decisions and then become so committed to the course of action suggested by that decision.

4. Risk Propensity

Risk propensity is to when a decision maker is willing to gamble when making decision. Some managers are cautious about every decision they make. They try to adhere to the rational model and are extremely conservative in what they do. Such managers are more likely to avoid risk, and they infrequently make decisions that lead to big losses. Other managers are extremely aggressive in making decisions and are willing to take risks.

5. Ethics

Individual ethics are personal beliefs about right or wrong behaviour. A manager should make decisions that maximize the enterprise benefits, even at the cost of his/her personal benefits.

Basically these factors influence the decision-making process. At the time of taking decisions managers have to consider so many things. They have to analyze the advantages and disadvantages of all the available alternatives.

When they consider the things and analyze the alternatives the above factors influence their decision-making process.

11.8 LIMITATIONS OF DECISION-MAKING

1. Time Consuming

A lot of precious time is consumed for decision-making. Individual decisions take a lot of time because the manager has to study the merits and demerits of all the alternatives.

He also has to take advice from many people before making a decision. All this consumes a lot of time. Group decisions are also time consuming. This is because it involves many meetings and each member has to give his opinion. This results in delayed decisions or no decisions.

2. Compromised Decisions

In group decisions, there is a difference of opinion. This results in a compromised decision. A compromised decision is made to please all the members. It may not be a correct and bold decision. The quality of this decision is inferior. So it will not give good results on implementation.

3. Subjective Decisions

Individual decisions are not objective. They are subjective because the decisions depend on the knowledge, education, experience, perception, beliefs, moral, attitude, etc., of the manager. Subjective decisions are not good decisions.

4. Biased Decisions

Sometimes decisions are biased. That is, the manager makes decisions, which is only beneficial for himself and his group. These decisions have a bad effect on the workers, consumers or the society.

5. Limited Analysis

Before making a decision the manager must analyze all the alternatives. He must study the merits and demerits of each alternative.

However, most managers do not do this because they do not get an accurate date, and they have limited time. Inexperienced researchers and wrong sampling also result in a limited analysis. This limited analysis results in bad decisions.

6. Uncontrollable Environmental Factors

Environmental factors include political, social, organizational, technological and other factors. These factors are dynamic in nature and keeps on changing every day.

The manager has no control over external factors. If these factors change in the wrong direction, his decisions will also divert and go wrong.

7. Uncertain Future

Decisions are made for the future. However, the future is very uncertain. Therefore, it is very difficult to take decisions for the future.

8. Responsibility is Diluted

In individual decision, only one manager is responsible for the decision. However, in a group decision, all managers are responsible for the decision. That is, everybody's responsibility is nobody's responsibility. So, the responsibility is diluted.

For the above reasons sometimes decision-making loses its importance, even it becomes impossible to achieve the organizational goals. For this reasons, at the time of decision-making the managers should be aware about the above limitations.

11.9 ETHICS IN DECISION-MAKING

Ethics are the set of moral principles that guide a person's behaviour. These morals are shaped by social norms, cultural practices, and religious influences.

Ethics reflect beliefs about what is right, what is wrong, what is just, what is unjust, what is good, and what is bad in terms of human behaviour. Ethical decision-making refers to the process of evaluating and choosing among alternatives in a manner consistent with ethical principles.

In making ethical decisions, it is necessary to perceive and eliminate unethical options and select the best ethical alternative.

An individual can use three different criteria in making ethical choices. The first is the **utilitarian criterion**, in which decisions are made solely on the basis of their outcomes or consequences.

The goal of utilitarianism is to provide the greatest good for the greatest number. The view tends to dominate business

decision-making. It is consistent with goals like efficiency, productivity, and high profits.

Another ethical criterion is to focus on rights. An emphasis on rights in decision-making means respecting and protecting the basic rights of individuals, such as the right to privacy, to free speech, and to due process.

A third criterion is to focus on justice. This requires individuals to impose and enforce rules fairly and impartially so that there is an equitable distribution of benefits and costs.

Each of these criteria has advantages and liabilities. A focus on utilitarianism promotes efficiency and productivity, but it can result in ignoring the rights of some individuals, particularly those with minority representation in the organization.

The use of rights as a criterion protects individuals from injury and is consistent with freedom and privacy, but it can create an overly legalistic work environment that hinders productivity and efficiency.

A focus on justice protects the interests of the underrepresented and less powerful, but it can encourage a sense of entitlement that reduces risk taking, innovation, and productivity.

11.10 INDIVIDUAL DECISION-MAKING STYLES

In a practical situation, a person is different from others. That's why different people use different decision-making styles in the organization.

There are two reasons for the differences between decision-making styles. The first is the way of thinking. Some people are logical and rational. They process information serially. In contrast, some people are intuitive and creative. They perceive things as a whole. The other reason addresses a person's tolerance for ambiguity.

Some people have a high need to structure information in ways that minimize ambiguity, while others can process many thoughts at the same time. Research on decision styles has identified four different individual approaches to making decisions. They include:

1. Analytic Style.
2. Conceptual Style.
3. Directive Style, and
4. Behavioral Style.

The analytic style has a much higher tolerance for ambiguity than do directive decision-makers. Analytic managers would be best characterized as careful decision-makers with the ability to adapt to or cope with novel and unexpected situations.

Individuals with conceptual styles tend to use data from multiple sources and consider many alternatives. Their focus is on taking long-run decisions, and they are very good at finding creative solutions to problems.

People using a directive style have a low tolerance for ambiguity and seek rationality. They are efficient and logical, but their efficiency concerns result in decisions made with minimal information and with few alternatives assessed. Directive style makes decisions fast, and they focus on the short run.

Lastly, behavioral style characterizes decision-makers who have a strong concern for the people in the organization and their development. They are concerned with the well-being of their subordinates and usually receive suggestions from others.

Although these four decision-making styles are different, most managers have the characteristics to fall into more than one. It is probably best to think in terms of the manager's dominant style and his or her backup styles.

Some managers rely almost exclusively on their dominant style; however, more flexible managers can make shifts 'depending on the situation.

THE CONCEPT OF LEARNING

Knowledge changes so fast. We spend all our lives on education, it is long life task. People who are 60 ages ahead, they are also involved in learning activities.

Continuous learning is a process which is surrounded by one's attitude to learn and shares the knowledge, academic curiosity, reading & practicing, creativity, thinking ability and extending the knowledge levels. All these are very important in making a perfect personality. Many people once they passed any certification or attained a degree, they would feel they have achieved the pinnacle of life.

Learning is described as the process of having one's behaviour modified, more or less permanently, by what he does and the consequences of his action, or by what he observes. It is a process by which an activity originates or is changed through responding to a situation.

According to S.P. Robbins, "Learning is any relatively permanent change in behavior resulting from experience." Therefore learning involves change.

When we observe any change in a person's behaviour, we can say that learning has taken place. Learning means the act, process, or experience of gaining knowledge or skill. It can change our behaviour. By birth, every people learned from his environment. On the other hand, knowledge or skill gained through schooling or study is also called learning.

Learning is the only thing which distinguishes humans from animals. Being a human, we have a great privilege to think. Thinking is a great thing we all can do.

There is a great quote from Respected APJ Abdul Kalam regarding learning “Learning process gives creativity, creativity leads to thinking, thinking provides knowledge, and knowledge makes you great”.

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.

Therefore, every human being should struggle beyond anything in order to learn new things. Please let us not limit learning just to a subject, if we are able to see it with a wide range of thinking, then the whole world looks very small.

The 21st century is also called as the age of competition. Everyone wants to be competing with one another. Learning is also for the same purpose. In learning as well, people learn to compete with another. We must continue studying.

Nowadays, everyone tries to get a perfect job. After getting the job they also try to get promotion in their job. People know that nothing lasts forever.

12.1 COMPONENTS OF LEARNING

Learning has many components. These components include:

1. Learning involves change. Change may good or bad from an organizational point of view. People can learn unfavorable behaviors to hold prejudices or to restrict their output.
2. The changed must be ingrained. Temporary changes may be only reflexive and may not represent learning. Therefore the requirement that learning must be relatively permanent in nature.
3. Some form of experience is necessary for learning. Experience may be acquired directly through observation or practice, or it may be acquired indirectly, as through reading.

4. Learning involves concentration and participation. It usually is quicker and long-lasting when the learner participates actively. As a result of participation, people learn more quickly and retain that learning longer.
5. Learning does not occur in a specific place like in a classroom. It is informal and it can be acquired anywhere, at any time.
6. There is no specific time for learning. A person can learn different things in his total lifetime.
7. Learning is concerned with behaviour. A change in an individual's thought processes or attitudes, if not accompanied by a change in behavior, would not be learning.
8. Learners benefited more from constructing deep explanations of the material than memorizing the facts. If there is no explanation in learning than the learning will be difficult for learners.
9. There are multiple ways to learn things. But the learner should know which one is the best way of learning and select this one.
10. It is related to frequent feedback which learners should get from instructors and peers throughout the learning process. Without it, even well-learned abilities will go away. Ewell emphasizes that the feedback will be most effective if it is delivered in an enjoyable setting that involves personal interactions and a considerable level of personal support.

12.2 DETERMINANTS OF LEARNING

The important factors that determine learning are:

1. **Motive:** Motives also called drives, prompt people to action. They are primary energizers of behaviour. They are the ways of behaviour and mainspring of action. They are largely subjective and represent the mental feelings of human beings. They are cognitive variables. They arise continuously and determine the general direction of an individual's behaviour without motive learning cannot occur.

2. **Stimuli:** Stimuli are objects that exist in the environment in which a person lives. Stimuli increase the probability of eliciting a specific response from a person.
3. **Generalisation:** The principle of generalisation has important implications for human learning. Generalisation takes place when the similar new stimuli repeat in the environment. When two stimuli are exactly alike, they will have probability of eliciting specific response. It makes possible for a manager to predict human behaviour when stimuli are exactly alike.
4. **Discrimination:** What is not generalisation is discrimination. In case of discrimination, responses vary to different stimuli. For example an MBA student may learn to respond to video teaching but not to the oral lecturing by his professor.
5. **Responses:** The stimulus results in responses - be these in the physical form or in terms of attitudes or perception or in other phenomena. However, the responses need to be operationally defined and preferably physically observable.
6. **Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is a fundamental conditioning of learning. Reinforcement can be defined as anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of behaviour that preceded the reinforcement. No measurable modification of behaviour can take place without reinforcement.
7. **Retention:** Retention means remembrance of learned behaviour overtime. Converse is forgetting. Learning which is forgotten over time is called "extinction". When the response strength returns after extinction without only intervening reinforcement it is called "spontaneous recovery".

12.3 PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Learning principles are guidelines for how people learn most

effectively. The more these principles are reflected in training, and the more effective training is likely to be.

Research suggests that they apply equally to domestic and international situations. These are the basic principles or conditions that facilitate learning.

1. Readiness

Readiness implies a degree of concentration and eagerness. Individuals learn best when they are physical and tangible; both mentally, and emotionally ready to learn, and do not learn well if they see, no reason for learning.

Though every person can learn from the environment, a human should learn things quickly and they should learn the things willingly without any force from others.

2. Participation

Learning should permit and encourage active participation of the learner. Participation improves motivation and apparently engages more senses that reinforce the learning process. As a result of participation, people learn more quickly and retain that learning longer.

For example, most people never forget how to ride a bicycle because they actively participated in the learning process. The learning activities should be experiential rather than just informational. Therefore, the trainers should arrange the physical surroundings to facilitate small group interaction and promote the sharing of ideas.

3. Repetitiveness

The things which are repeated several times with the learner, he or she can easily capture these things. Learning involves the repetition of key ideas so that they can be recalled during a test.

When an employee does an activity repeatedly, then he / she can learn this thing perfectly and there is a low chance of doing the wrong thing and the employee can do the thing in a short period of time.

The human memory is fallible. The mind can rarely retain,

evaluate, and apply new concepts or practices after a single exposure. Every time practice occurs, learning continues. The instructor must repeat important items of the subject matter at reasonable intervals.

4. Relevance

Learning is helped when the material to be learned is meaningful. The learning should be problem-centered rather than content centered.

People are motivated to learn when training is immediately relevant to help them solve a current problem. Learning something just because someone says “it is important” is not as motivating.

5. Transference

Because the training occurs in a special environment, an important question to ask is whether learning will transfer to the actual job situation.

Transfer of training occurs when trainees can apply the knowledge and skills learned in training course to their jobs. If the learning in one setting does not transfer to the actual job situation, the training has failed.

Three transfers training situations are possible:

- Positive transfer of training when the training activities enhance performance in the new situation;
- Negative transfer of training, when the training activities inhibit performance in a new situation; and
- No observable effect of training.

6. Reinforcement

It is another critical principle of learning. It means the recognition of activity. A learner can be positively or negatively reinforced.

When the learner positively reinforced, that means when they get financial rewards or non-financial incentives at the time of reaching a higher level of skill, they continued their behaviour and when they are negatively reinforced, that means

when there is no evaluation of their learning, they stopped their behaviour.

There are four basic forms of reinforcement in organizations: positive reinforcement, avoidance, extinction, and punishment.

7. Schedules of Learning

Probably one of the most well established and well-documented learning principles is that distributed or spaced practice is superior to continuous or massed practiced. This seems to be true for both simple laboratory tasks and for highly complex tasks.

Actually, schedules of learning can be manipulated in three different ways:

1. Duration of the practice session,
2. Duration of rest session, and
3. The positioning of the rest session.

The evidence seems to support the motion of short practice periods and moderate rest periods. It is usually much more effective to have short frequent rest periods than to have only one or two long rests periods and one or two long practice periods.

8. Feedback

Feedback gives learners information on their progress. Performance feedback is a necessary prerequisite for learning. Feedback improves performance not only by helping learners correct their mistakes but also by providing reinforcement for learning.

Knowledge of results is a positive reinforcement itself. Learning activities have more intrinsic interest if the feedback is available.

Nevertheless, performance feedback should do more than inform learners whether they were right or wrong. Merely informing the trainees that they were wrong is not as effective as telling them why they were wrong and how they can avoid making mistakes in the future. In general, knowledge of results

is an essential feature of learning, and this knowledge comes after the learner's response.

12.4 THE LEARNING PROCESS

The learning process has the following steps:

1. Stimuli

Stimuli are any objects and language which draw the attention of people. Employees get stimuli from the actions of their superiors. Superiors tell and advice employees who pay attention to these stimuli. All the stimuli may not be fully attended to.

2. Attention

The degree of attention depends upon the nature of stimuli. All stimuli are not paid attention to. Technical and interesting stimuli are highly attended. Career-oriented stimuli are generally accepted by employees. The personality levels of employees influence their desires to learn, motives for need fulfilment and tension reduction.

3. Recognition

Attention-paid stimuli are recognized as acceptable factors of improvement and new life styles. Employees paying attention to stimuli are recognising the stimuli for learning purposes. The levels of recognition depend upon the levels of values, preferences, needs and desires of the employees.

4. Translation

The translation and evaluation process is a crucial point for implementing the stimuli in behaviour through reinforcement. Employees behave properly through attitude changes, objectivity, mental and physical development. It is observed in better performances.

5. Reinforcement

Reinforced perception is learning. The perception process includes stimuli, attention, recognition, translation and behaviour. Perception leads to learning, but perception itself is not learning unless it is reinforced.

Repeated action is reinforcement. Reinforcement may be positive, negative, punishment and extinction. Learners learn as per their perception levels. Generally positive reinforcement is more effective for making permanent changes in behaviour.

6. Behaviour

Learning changes behaviour through reinforcement of perceived knowledge. It makes permanent changes in behaviour. A temporary change in behaviour is not learning. Positive behaviour gives rewards to employees.

7. Reward

Employees expect rewards for learning. If the translated behaviour provides a reward, it is accepted, otherwise it is not accepted. Employees develop their behaviour into habits. Rewards may be monetary or non-monetary.

8. Habits

A permanent change in behaviour becomes a habit which helps continuous improvement in behaviour and performance. Employees develop the habit of self-appraisal and development. It helps to instill creativity and confidence in employees who are encouraged to behave properly again and again.

9. Motives

Motives depend on the level of satisfaction. Employees getting more satisfaction through learning develop high motives. Less satisfied learners have low motives. Learning is complete only when motives are fully realized and translated into efforts.

10. Efforts

Habits help achieve good efforts and performance. This is a continuous process. Efforts are the automatic outcome of good habits which are acquired through the learning process. Self-development is possible through self-effort. Employees willing to develop themselves are self-motivated and effort-oriented.

12. 5 TYPES OF LEARNING

1. Motor learning

Most of our activities in our day-to-days life refer to motor activities. The individual has to learn them in order to maintain his regular life, for example walking, running, skating, driving, climbing, etc. All these activities involve the muscular coordination.

2. Verbal learning

This type of learning involves the language we speak, the communication devices we use. Signs, pictures, symbols, words, figures, sounds, etc., are the tools used in such activities. We use words for communication.

3. Concept learning

It is the form of learning which requires higher order mental processes like thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc. we learn different concepts from childhood. For example, when we see a dog and attach the term 'dog', we learn that the word dog refers to a particular animal. Concept learning involves two processes, viz. abstraction and generalisation. This learning is very useful in recognising, identifying things.

4. Discrimination learning

Learning to differentiate between stimuli and showing an appropriate response to these stimuli is called discrimination learning. Example, sound horns of different vehicles like bus, car, ambulance, etc.

5. Learning of principles

Individuals learn certain principles related to science, mathematics, grammar, etc. in order to manage their work effectively. These principles always show the relationship between two or more concepts. Example: formulae, laws, associations, correlations, etc.

6. Problem solving

This is a higher order learning process. This learning requires the use of cognitive abilities-such as thinking, reasoning, observation, imagination, generalization, etc. This is very useful to overcome difficult problems encountered by the people.

7. Attitude learning

Attitude is a predisposition which determines and directs our behaviour. We develop different attitudes from our childhood about the people, objects and everything we know. Our behaviour may be positive or negative depending upon our attitudes. Example: attitudes of nurse towards her profession, patients, etc.

12.6 METHODS OF LEARNING

There are mainly 5 different methods of learning;



1. Trial and Error Method

This is the most primitive and simplest way in which learning occurs. Placed in a new situation, the individual makes a number of random movements, those which are unsuccessful are eliminated and successful ones are fixed. It is learning by blundering, by trying something and succeeding or failing.

2. Conditional Response

This theory was evolved as a result of the experiments by Ivan Pavlov and Watson. It is a process of substituting the original stimulus by a new one and connecting the response with it.

Pavlov carried out an experiment on a dog. He used to ring a bell while giving food to the dog. When the food was placed before the dog and the bell was rung the saliva would secrete in the mouth of the dog.

But it was also seen that when the bell was rung only, but the food was not given, the saliva started secreting. Pavlov called the response as 'conditioned reflex'.

In learning by the conditioned response, there is no choice or freedom. A good part of the learning of early childhood is the result of conditioning.

3. Learning by Insight

Gestalt psychologists opposed the trial and error method. They argue that learning is not a blind and mechanical process. It involves insight into the total situation.

In learning, we use our sense along with the motor activity. Learning by observation is learning by insight, learning by perceiving the relationship in the scene and understanding the situation.

After looking over the whole situation the learner strives to make some sense out of it and it gives him clues regarding the way he should proceed to solve the problem, the method he should pursue and general awareness of the consequences of performing an act.

4. Learning by Imitation

Imitation is one of the most important means of learning.

Human beings, consciously or unconsciously, imitate the actions, manners, and styles of his fellow being. A child learns to walk, talk and behave as his parents or brothers do. It is important therefore that the first model should be worthy of imitation.

Imitation does not crush originality: on the other hand, it

is the first stage in the development of individuality and the richer scope for imitation the richer developed individual will be.

5. Transfer of Training

Transfer of training means that training is transferred from one skill to another. It has special significance for all kinds of the industrial training program.

Stated simply, transfer of training deals with whether or not learning in one situation will facilitate learning (and therefore performance) in subsequent similar situations. There are three possibilities:

- Positive transfer: learning in one situation enhances learning or performance in a new situation.
- Negative transfer: learning in one situation inhibits learning in a new situation.
- No observable effect.

12.7 EVALUATION OF LEARNING

It is important to evaluate learning in order to assess its effectiveness in producing the outcomes specified when the activity was planned and to indicate where improvements or changes are required to make the training even more effective. As Tamkin *et al* (2002) suggest:

Learning can be modelled as a chain of impact from the planning of learning to meet organizational or individual learning needs to the learning that takes place in a learning event, from learning to changed behaviour, and from changed behaviour to impact on others and the organization as a whole.

It is at the planning stage that the basis upon which each category of learning event is to be evaluated should be determined. At the same time, it is necessary to consider how the information required for evaluation should be obtained and analyzed.

Approaches to the evaluation of learning have traditionally concentrated on the evaluation of training events as described

below. But the trend is to concentrate more on the validation of the total learning process.

The process of evaluating training has been defined by Hamblin (1974) as: 'Any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of a training programme, and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information.' Evaluation leads to control, which means deciding whether or not the training was worthwhile (preferably in cost/benefit terms) and what improvements are required to make it even more cost-effective.

Evaluation is an integral feature of learning activities. In its crudest form, it is the comparison of objectives (criterion behaviour) with outcomes (terminal behaviour) to answer the question of how far the event has achieved its purpose. The setting of objectives and the establishment of methods of measuring results are, or should be, an essential part of the planning stage of any learning and development programme.

Levels of evaluation

Four levels of training evaluation have been suggested by Kirkpatrick (1994).

Level 1: Reaction

At this level, evaluation measures how those who participated in the training have reacted to it. In a sense, it is a measure of immediate customer satisfaction.

Kirkpatrick suggests the following guidelines for evaluating reactions:

- Determine what you want to find out;
- Design a form that will quantify reactions;
- Encourage written comments and suggestions;
- Get 100 per cent immediate response;
- Get honest responses;
- Develop acceptable standards;
- Measure reactions against standards, and take appropriate action;
- Communicate reactions as appropriate.

Research by Warr *et al* (1999) has shown that there is relatively little correlation between learner reactions and measures of training, or subsequent measures of changed behaviour. But as Tamkin *et al* (2002) point out, despite this, organizations are still keen to get reactions to training, and when used with caution, can produce useful information on the extent to which learning objectives were perceived to be met and why.

Level 2: Evaluating learning

This level obtains information on the extent to which learning objectives have been attained. It will aim to find how much knowledge was acquired, what skills were developed or improved, and the extent to which attitudes have changed in the desired direction. So far as possible, the evaluation of learning should involve the use of tests before and after the programme – paper and pencil, oral or performance tests.

Level 3: Evaluating behaviour

This level evaluates the extent to which behaviour has changed as required when people attending the programme have returned to their jobs. The question to be answered is the extent to which knowledge, skills and attitudes have been transferred from the classroom to the workplace. Ideally, the evaluation should take place both before and after the training. Time should be allowed for the change in behaviour to take place. The evaluation needs to assess the extent to which specific learning objectives relating to changes in behaviour and the application of knowledge and skills have been achieved.

Level 4: Evaluating results

This is the ultimate level of evaluation and provides the basis for assessing the benefits of the training against its costs. The objective is to determine the added value of learning and development programmes – how they contribute to raising organizational performance significantly above its previous level. The evaluation has to be based on 'before and after' measures and has to determine the extent to which the fundamental objectives of the training have been achieved in

areas such as increasing sales, raising productivity, reducing accidents or increasing customer satisfaction.

Evaluating results is obviously easier when they can be quantified. However, it is not always easy to prove the contribution to improved results made by training as distinct from other factors and, as Kirkpatrick says: 'Be satisfied with evidence, because proof is usually impossible to get.' Perhaps the most powerful method of demonstrating that learning programmes pay is to measure the return on investment.

12.8 THEORIES OF LEARNING

The most basic purpose of learning theory like any other is to better explain how learning occurs. Attempts have been made by the psychologists and behavioural scientists to develop theories of learning.

How do we learn? Four theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behaviour:

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

1. Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is a type of conditioning in which an individual responds to some stimulus that would not ordinarily produce such as response. It is the process of learning to associate a particular thing in our environment with a prediction of what will happen next.

When we think of the classical conditioning, the first name that comes to our mind is Ivan Pavlov, the Russian psychologist.

When Pavlov presented one dog with a piece of meat, the dog exhibited a noticeable increase in salivation. When Pavlov withheld the presentation of meat and merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate.

Then Pavlov proceeded to link the meat and the ringing of the bell. After repeatedly hearing the bell before getting the food, the dog began to salivate as soon as the bell rang. After

a while, the dog would salivate merely at the sound of the bell, even if no food was offered.

In classical conditioning, learning involves a conditioned stimulus and an unconditioned stimulus. Here, the meat was unconditioned stimulus; it invariably caused the dog to react in a specific way.

The reaction that took place whenever the unconditioned stimulus occurred was called the unconditioned response. Here, the bell was a conditioned stimulus.

When the bell was paired with the meat, it eventually produced a response when presented alone. This is a conditioned response.

2. Operant conditioning

The second type of conditioning is called operant conditioning. Here, we learn that a particular behaviour is usually followed by a reward or punishment. What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, the Harvard psychologist B.F. Skinner did for operant conditioning.

Operant conditioning argues that one's behaviour will depend on different situations. People will repeatedly behave in a specific way from where they will get benefits.

On the other hand, they will try to avoid behaviour from where they will get nothing. Skinner argued that creating pleasing consequences to specific forms of behaviour would increase the frequency of that behaviour.

In one famous experiment displaying operant learning, the psychologist B.F. Skinner trained rats to press a lever to get food. In this experiment, a hungry rat placed in a box containing a lever attached to some concealed food. At first, the rat ran around the box randomly. In this process, it happened to press the lever, and the food dropped into the box. The dropping of food-reinforced the response of pressing the lever.

After repeating the process of pressing the lever followed by dropping off food many times, the rat learned to press the lever for food.

People will most likely engage in desired behaviours if they are positively reinforced for doing so. Rewards are most

effective if they immediately follow the desired response. Also, behaviour that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated.

For example, suppose you are an employee of 'X' Bank limited. Your Branch Manager has announced in a meeting that you will get a bonus if you can bring a \$100,000,000 deposit for the bank.

You worked hard and found that you have done this successfully. But when the time comes, you find that you are given no bonus for your hard work which increases the bank's deposit by \$100,000,000. In the next year, if your manager again makes such promises about hard work, maybe you will not be encourage to act because last year you did not receive anything for it.

Many activities that we will engage in during everyday life can be classified as an operant. Turning your key in a lock, writing a letter, saying "I Love You" to your wife, calling parents on the telephone all of these are operant acts, operant in this sense that we do them in anticipation of reward which acts as a reinforcer for the commission of these behaviors.

3. Cognitive Theory

Cognition refers to an individual's thoughts, knowledge of interpretations, understandings, or ideas about himself, and his environment. This is a process of learning through active and constructive thought processes, such as a practice or using our memory.

One example might be that you were taught how to tell time by looking at a clock. Someone taught you the meaning of the big hand and little hand, and you might have had to practice telling the time when you were first learning it.

This process of learning was entirely inside your mind and didn't involve any physical motions or behaviours. It was all cognitive, meaning an internal thought process.

The theory has been used to explain mental processes as they are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which eventually bring about learning in an individual.

Cognitive learning theory implies that the different

processes concerning learning can be explained by analyzing the mental processes first.

It imagines that with effective cognitive processes, learning is easier and new information can be stored in the memory for a long time. On the other hand, ineffective cognitive processes result in learning difficulties that can be seen anytime during the lifetime of an individual.

4. Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory also called observational learning, stresses the ability of an individual to learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something.

One can learn things by observing models, parents, teachers, peers, motion pictures, TV artists, bosses, and others.

Many patterns of behaviour are learned by watching the behaviours of others and observing its consequences for them. In this theory, it is said that the influence of models is the central issue.

Four processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual. They include:

1. Attention process

People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. If the learner is not attentive they would not be able to learn anything. We tend to be most influenced by attractive models, repeatedly available, which we think is important, or we see as similar to us.

2. Retention process

A model's influence depends on how well the individuals remember the models' actions after the model is no longer readily available.

3. Motor reproduction process

After a person has seen a new behaviour by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. It involves recall the model's behaviours and performing own actions and

matching them with those of the model. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modeled activities.

3. Reinforcement process

Individuals are motivated to exhibit the modeled behaviour if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviour that is positively reinforced is given more attention, learned better and performed more often.

At last, we can say that social learning theory is a function of consequences. It also acknowledges the existence of observational learning and the importance of perception in learning.

In this case, a person who wants to learn should identify the target behaviour and select the appropriate model and modeling medium. Then he/she should create a favourable learning environment and observe the model.

12.9 PRINCIPLES OF REINFORCEMENT

Reinforcement has played a central role in learning. Most learning experts agree that reinforcement is the single most important principle of learning. Yet, there is much controversy over its theoretical explanation. The first major theoretical treatment given to reinforcement in learning is Thorndike's classic law of effect. According to Thorndike, "of several responses made to the same situation, those which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction (reinforcement), will be more likely to recur; those which are accompanied or closely followed by discomfort (punishment), will be less likely to occur". From a strictly empirical standpoint, most behavioural scientists, generally accept the validity of this law. Therefore, reinforcement is the attempt to develop or strengthen desirable behaviour by either bestowing positive consequences or withholding negative consequences.

Reinforcement is the process by which certain types of behaviours are strengthened. It is the attempt to develop or strengthen desirable behaviour by either bestowing positive consequences or withholding negative consequences. Thus, a "reinforcer" is any stimulus that causes certain behaviour

to be repeated or inhibited. By introducing some reinforcers, the organizations can maintain or increase the probability of such behaviours as quality oriented performance, decision-making, high level of attendance and punctuality and so on. There are four basic reinforcement strategies:

- Positive reinforcement
- Negative reinforcement
- Extinction
- Punishment

1. Positive Reinforcement

A positive reinforcement is a reward for a desired behaviour. The reward should be sufficiently powerful and durable so that it increases the probability of occurrence of desirable behaviour. Positive reinforcement results from the application of a positive consequence following a desirable behaviour.

For example:

- Bonuses paid at the end of a successful business year are an example of positive reinforcement
- Employees will work hard for a raise or a promotion
- Salesmen will increase their efforts to get rewards and bonuses
- Students will study to get good grades and
- Children will throw temper tantrums to get candy or ice creams.

In these examples, the rises, promotions, awards, bonuses, good grades candy and ice cream are positive reinforcers.

2. Negative Reinforcers

Negative reinforcement also known as “escape conditioning” or “avoidance learning” it is also a method of strengthening desired behaviour. Negative reinforcement results from withholding a threatened negative consequence when a desired behaviour occurs. For example students study hard, write term papers and do their homework on time to avoid the consequences of failure in the examination.

Just as people engage in behaviours in order to get

positive reinforcers, they also engage in behaviours to avoid or escape unpleasant conditions. Terminating an unpleasant stimulus in order to strengthen or increase the probability of a response is called negative reinforcement. If people find that a response successfully ends an aversive condition, they are likely to repeat it. For example, Heroin addicts will do almost anything to obtain heroin to terminate their painful withdrawal symptoms.

Responses that end discomfort and those that are followed by rewards are likely to be strengthened or repeated because both lead to a more desirable outcome. Some behaviour is influenced by a combination of positive and negative reinforcement. For example, if you eat a plateful of rather disgusting leftovers to relieve intense hunger then you are eating solely to remove hunger, a negative reinforcer. But if your hunger is relieved by dinner at a fine restaurant, both positive and negative reinforcement will have played a role.

3. Extinction

We have seen that responses followed by reinforcers tend to be repeated and that responses no longer followed by reinforcers will occur less and less frequently and eventually die out.

In humans, extinction can lead to frustration or even rage. Consider a child having a temper tantrum. If whining and loud demands do not bring the reinforcer, the child may progress to kicking and screaming. It is what we expect and don't get that makes us angry.

An alternative to punishing undesirable behaviour is extinction - the attempt to weaken behaviour by attaching no consequences (either positive or negative) to it. It is equivalent to ignoring the behaviour. The rationale for using extinction is that a behaviour not followed by any consequence is weakened. However, some patience and time may be needed for it to be effective.

This type of reinforcement is applied to reduce undesirable behaviour, especially when such behaviours were previously rewarded. This means that if rewards were removed from behaviours that were previously reinforced, then such

behaviours would become less frequent and eventually die out. For example, if a student in the class is highly mischievous and disturbs the class, he is probably asking for attention. If the attention is given to him, he will continue to exhibit that behaviour. However, if he is continuously ignored and not recognized, then such undesirable behaviour will vanish over a period of time.

4. Punishment

Punishment is the opposite of reinforcement. Punishment tends to lower the probability of a response by following it with an aversive or unpleasant consequence. And punishment can be accomplished either adding an unpleasant stimulus or removing a pleasant stimulus.

The added unpleasant stimulus might take the form of criticism, a scolding, a disapproving look, a fine, or a prison sentence. The removal of a pleasant stimulus might consist of withholding affection and attention, suspending a driver's license, or taking away a privilege such as watching television.

We often confuse negative reinforcement and punishment. Unlike punishment, negative reinforcement increases the probability of a desired response by removing an unpleasant stimulus when the correct response is made.

Punishment is the attempt to eliminate or weaken undesirable behaviour. It is used in two ways. One way to punish a person is through the application of a negative consequence following an undesirable behaviour. The other way to punish a person is through the withholding a positive consequence following an undesirable behaviour.

Punishment is the most controversial method of behaviour modification and involves delivering an unpleasant consequence contingent upon the occurrence of an undesirable behaviour.

The punishment process consists of "application" of an undesirable consequence or "withdrawal" of a desirable consequence for an undesirable behaviour, which has never been associated with reward before.

According to B. F. Skinner, punishment is still the most

common technique of behaviour control in today's life. When a child misbehaves, he is spanked. If a person does not behave as the society or law wants him to behave, he is punished by arrest and jail.

Certain undesirable behaviours must be punished; otherwise, they will have far reaching effects. Accordingly, in situations where punishment is desirable as a means of behaviour modification, certain guidelines would make it more effective thus minimizing its dysfunctional consequences.

- Praise in public; punish in private.
- Apply punishment before the undesirable behaviour has been strongly reinforced. Thus, the punishment should immediately follow the undesirable behaviour.
- The punishment should focus on the behaviour and not on the person.

One problem with punishment is that it may have unintended results. Because punishment is discomforting to the individual being punished, the experience of punishment may result in negative psychological, emotional, performance or behavioural consequences. For example, the person being punished may become angry, hostile, depressed or despondent.

From an organizational standpoint, this result becomes important when the punished person translates negative emotional and psychological responses into negative actions.

12.10 BARRIERS TO LEARNING

Barriers to learning are problems or situations that prevent learners from accessing programs, make it difficult for learners to go to class or make it hard for learners to concentrate and learn.

The following are some of the barriers to learning:

- 1. Presentation problem:** The presentation problem is one of the biggest barriers to learning. Sometimes people cannot understand the meaning of a topic if it is presented orally without using any kind of visual methods of presentation. In this case, sometimes it

becomes very difficult for the learner to understand clearly.

2. **Changing the expectation of new culture:** Another barrier to learning is changing the expectation of a new culture. If people go to a new culture, sometimes they do not get the expected environment and it hampers the learning process.

In this case, firstly they have to learn the new culture within a very short period and it is very difficult for everyone.

3. **Learners do not get appropriate support:** When the learners do not get appropriate support from the family and the organization, they cannot learn the things properly.
4. **Employment-related issues:** Employment-related issues can be a very big problem in the learning process. People cannot learn if there is no good relationship with their superior or subordinate. Not only that, if there is no reinforcement related to the **outcomes of learning**, employees cannot be motivated in achieving a good result from it.
5. **Sometimes employees cannot concentrate properly:** Sometimes employees cannot concentrate properly on the learning process because of their family, personal or organizational problems. There are some of the learning course which requires an amount of money.
6. **Financial problems can be a barrier to learning:** Some so many persons have financial problems and because of that, they cannot attend the learning process. Financial problems can be a barrier to learning.

For insufficient money, people cannot learn a thing properly.
7. **The political influence can be a barrier:** The political influence can be a barrier. If the political environment is in favour of the learners, it becomes an opportunity for the learner. If the environment is not

so good, then they face many problems because of political influences.

If there is any problem with the person who will give information to the learners, then it becomes very difficult for the person to learn.

12.11 OVERCOMING THE BARRIERS OF LEARNING

In learning, every learner has to face some barriers which have to overcome by the learner himself. Otherwise, they stumble while processing information, taking longer to grasp the concept of requiring numerous exposures over a sustained period. Below are 8 ways to overcome the barriers to learning;

1. Environment

The organizational environment should be noiseless. In a noisy environment, learning should be difficult for the learner.

Besides these, the organization should use visual prompts, gestures and/or a signing system to reinforce spoken and written language, make a visual timetable, and eliminate extraneous noise as far as possible.

2. Routine

This is vital to alleviate confusion and give people a sense of security. When routines have to be broken, ensure that people are prepared whenever possible and that someone talks them through what is going to happen.

3. Verbal Instructions

Verbal instructions should be short and precise. The trainer should ensure that learners know he/she is addressing them, not someone else.

One instruction should be given at a time. He/she have to speak clearly, at a natural pace and make sure that the learner can see the face of the trainer.

4. Respect

Young people should not be forced to work in pairs or groups if they are uncomfortable in that situation. Respect should be

shown for differences and be aware of the social networks of the room where the learning session will be conducted.

5. Non-curricular Activities

When the session will be running, problems often arise at break time, lunchtime, or any other unstructured time of the day.

It is during these times when computer clubs, organized games, and mentors offer valuable support and can also provide some training in social skills that will help pupils to cope with new situations.

6. Improving Communication Skill

Good communication skills can be better to learn anything. In this case, the trainer should use the language which is understandable by the learners. For better learning, we have to improve our communication skills as soon as possible.

7. Giving ICT and Presentation Facilities

For successfully conducting the learning session, the trainer or the organization should use the ICT and visual presentation facilities. It influences the learners to learn things in a short period.

8. Provide Effective and Timely Feedback

This is important for any kind of learning. Make the trainer's presence known in a discussion forum by getting involved early and asking questions that keep the discussion going.

Learners should also be aware of their progress throughout the course. It has already been asserted that barriers can be located within the learner, within the center of learning, within the education system and within the broader social, economic and political context.

These barriers manifest themselves in different ways and only become obvious when learning breakdown occurs when learners 'drop-out' of the system or when the excluded become visible.

Sometimes it is possible to identify permanent barriers in

the learner or the system which can be addressed through enabling mechanisms and processes.

However, barriers may also arise during the learning process and are seen as transitory. These may require different interventions or strategies to prevent them.

If the above things should be considered at the time of arranging a different session, the organization will be successful.

THE NOTION OF GROUPS

The importance of groups in organizations cannot be overemphasized because most of the organizational activities are carried out by groups. Since jobs in organizations are becoming more complex and interdependent, the use of groups in performing task functions will become increasingly important.

A group is a collection of individuals who interact with each other such that one person's actions have an impact on the others. In other words, a group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives.

13.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS

- **Size:** To form a group, it must be having at least two members. Practically, the number of group members ranges from 15 to 20. The more the members in the group, the more complex it is to manage.
- **Goals:** Every group has certain goals, which are the reasons for its existence.
- **Norms:** A group has certain rules, for interacting with the group members.
- **Structure:** It has a structure, based on the roles and positions held by the members.
- **Roles:** Every member of a group has certain roles

and responsibilities, which are assigned, by the group leader.

- **Interaction:** The interaction between the group members can occur in several ways, i.e. face to face, telephonic, in writing or in any other manner.
- **Collective Identity:** A group is an aggregation of individuals, which are separately called as members, and collectively called as a group.

Furthermore, a group climate is an emotional setting of the group that relies on participative spirit, coordination, trust and bonding among the members, open communication and other similar factors.

13.2 FUNCTIONS OF GROUPS

- Working on a complex and independent task that is too complex for an individual to perform and that cannot be easily broken down into independent tasks.
- Generating new ideas or creative solutions to solve problems that require inputs from several people.
- Serving liaison or coordinating functions among several workgroups whose work is to some extent independent.
- Facilitating the implementation of complex decisions. A group composed of representatives from various working groups can coordinate the activities of these interrelated groups.
- Serving as a vehicle for training new employees, groups teach new members methods of operations and group norms.

One of the most common findings from the research on groups in organizations is that most groups turn out to have both formal and informal functions; they serve the needs of both organizational and individual members. Psychological groups, therefore, may well be the key unit for facilitating the integration of organizational goals and personal needs.

13.3 TYPES OF GROUPS

- (a) **Formal Groups:** Groups that are formed consciously

by the management, with an aim of serving an organizational objective. These are further classified as:

- **Self-directed teams:** The group of employees which are so authorized to make decisions, on their own, as it is independent and self-governing in nature.
- **Quality Circles:** A number of employees classed together belonging to the same field, who meet every week for an hour, to talk about their problems, identify the causes and find out solutions, to take necessary steps in this regard.
- **Committees:** An association of people created by the management for different matters to identify and discuss the issues of the company and arrives at a conclusion. It can be:
 - Standing Committee
 - Advisory Committee
 - Audit Committee
 - Grievance Committee
 - Adhoc Committee

Differences between Formal Group and Informal Group		
<i>Basis for Comparison</i>	<i>Formal Group</i>	<i>Informal Group</i>
Meaning	Groups created by the organization, to accomplish a specific task, are known as Formal Groups.	Groups created by the employees themselves, for their own sake are known as Informal Groups.
Formation	Deliberately.	Voluntarily.
Size	Large.	Comparatively small.
Life	It depends on the type of group.	It depends on the members.
The importance is given to	Position.	Person.
Relationship	Professional.	Personal.
Communication	Moves in a defined direction.	Stretches in all the directions.

- **Task force:** It is a temporary committee, wherein people belonging to different fields are grouped together for the performance of the task.

(b) Informal Groups: The social and psychological variables operating at the workplace, results in the formation of informal groups. The creation of these groups is spontaneous due to the common interest, social needs, physical proximity and mutual attraction.

Apart from the two broad classifications of the group, they are also divided into the primary groups, secondary groups, membership groups, reference groups and interest groups.

13.4 REASONS WHY INDIVIDUALS JOIN GROUPS

A small group is a combination of more than two people who are interdependent on one another. So communication among the members of a group consisting of a small number of members is known as small group communication.

Every organization employs small groups to collect, process, and produce information, solve problems and make decisions.

Group communication helps to get a synergistic benefit. Synergy means combined efforts of a group result in greater output than the sum of the individual output. That is, groups can do more for individuals than individuals can do for themselves. People join groups for many reasons.

Great OB scholar K. Aswathappa said there is no single reason why individuals join groups. Since most people belong to many groups, it is obvious that different groups offer different attractions and benefits to their members.

The most popular reasons for joining a group are related to our needs for security, esteem, affiliation, power, identity, huddling, and task functions.

1. Security

Probably the strongest reason for group formation is the people's need for security. By joining a group we can reduce our insecurity – we feel stronger, have fewer self-doubts, and are more resistant to threats.

2. Esteem

An individual can increase his self-esteem through group membership. First, one may gain esteem by becoming a member of a high-status group. Associating with high-status people is reinforcing, and one who belongs to such a group is usually accorded a high status by outsiders.

Second, the close relationship an individual can develop as a group member provides opportunities for recognition and praise that are not available outside of the group.

3. Affiliation

Another reason why people join groups is that they enjoy the regular company of other people, particularly those who possess common interests. Individuals may seek out others at work who shares common hobbies or common backgrounds.

4. Power

Membership of groups offers power to members in at least two ways. First, there are sayings such as “united we stand, divided we fall” and “there is strength in numbers.” These are driving forces behind unionizations. Workers enjoy much greater power collectively than they do as individuals.

Second, the leadership of an informal group enables an individual to exercise power over group members, even if he does not enjoy the formal position of authority in the organization.

5. Identity

Group membership contributes to the individual's eternal quest for an answer to the question “who am I”. It is common knowledge that ‘ tries to understand ourselves through the behaviour of others towards us.

If others praise us, we feel we are great, if others enjoy our jokes, we see ourselves as funny persons, and so on. Groups provide several “others” who will laugh, praise or admire us.

6. Huddling

One more reason why individuals want to join groups is for

huddling. Because of the way bureaucracies work, individuals, particularly executives, make use of informal get-togethers called huddles. There are intimate task-oriented encounters of executives trying to get something done. Huddling enables executives to deal with emerging matters and minimize the amount of surprise.

It also serves to reduce red tape by cutting through hierarchical channels of communication and minimizing misunderstandings.

Because organization charts represent real duties, huddling can compensate for a lack of leadership by taking collective and unofficial responsibility for getting things done.

13.5 SKILLS FOR A HEALTHY GROUP CLIMATE

To work together successfully, group members must demonstrate a sense of cohesion. Cohesion emerges as group members exhibit the following skills:

(a) Openness

Group members are willing to get to know one another, particularly those with different interests and backgrounds. They are open to new ideas, diverse viewpoints, and the variety of individuals present within the group.

They listen to others and elicit their ideas. They know how to balance the need for cohesion within a group with the need for individual expression.

(b) Trust and Self-Disclosure

Group members trust one another enough to share their ideas and feelings. A sense of mutual trust develops only to the extent that everyone is willing to self-disclose and be honest yet respectful. Trust also grows as a group when the members demonstrate personal accountability for the tasks they have been assigned.

(c) Support

Group members demonstrate support for one another as they accomplish their goals. They exemplify a sense of team loyalty

and both cheer on the group as a whole and help members who are experiencing difficulties. They view one another not as competitors (which is common within a typically individualistic educational system) but as collaborators.

(d) Respect

Group members communicate their opinions in a way that respects others, focusing on “What can we learn?” rather than “Who is to blame?”

(e) Individual Responsibility and Accountability

All group members agree on what needs to be done and by whom. Each member determines what he or she needs to do and takes responsibility to complete the task(s).

They can be held accountable for their tasks, and they hold others accountable for theirs.

(f) Constructive Feedback

Group members can give and receive feedback about group ideas. Giving constructive feedback requires focusing on ideas and behaviors, instead of individuals, being as positive as possible and offering suggestions for improvement.

Receiving feedback requires listening well, asking for clarification if the comment is unclear, and being open to change and other ideas.

13. 6 STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Group Development means, forming the association of people to work as a group and direct their actions towards the accomplishment of a common goal. The jobs of each group member are interdependent and hence the performance of one will affect the entire group's performance. It is often called as a team building or team development.

The most famous and a well-known model of group development was proposed by Bruce Tuckman, that included four stages Viz, forming, storming, norming, performing and later the fifth stage adjourning was added to this model.

Tuckman's Stages of Group Development

(1) Forming

The first stage of group development is known as the forming stage. The forming stage represents a time where the group is just starting to come together and is characterized by anxiety and uncertainty. Members are cautious with their behaviour, which is driven by the desire to be accepted by all members of the group.

Conflict, controversy and personal opinions are avoided even though members are beginning to form impressions of each other and gain an understanding of what the group will do together.

Some believe this cautious behaviour prevents the group from getting any real work done. However, the focus for group members during the forming stage is to become familiar with each other and their purpose, not on work.

Typical outcomes of the forming stage include things like gaining an understanding of the group's purpose, determining how the team will be organized and who will be responsible for what, discussion of major milestones or phases of the group's goal, outlining general group rules and discovery of what resources will be available for the group to use.

(2) Storming

The second stage of group development is known as the storming stage. The storming stage is where conflict and competition are at its greatest. This is because now that group members have an understanding of the task and a general feel for who they are as a group and who group members are, they feel confident and begin to address some of the more important issues surrounding the group. Such issues can relate to things like the group's tasks, individual roles, and responsibilities or even with the group members themselves.

The storming stage is where the more dominant of the group members emerge, while other, less confrontational members stay in the comfort and security of suppressing their feelings just as they did in the previous stage.

All members have an increased need for clarification. Questions surrounding leadership, authority, rules, responsibilities, structure, evaluation criteria and reward systems tend to arise during the storming stage.

Such questions must be answered so that the group can move on to the next stage. Consequently, not all groups are able to move past the storming stage.

(3) Norming

The norming stage is the time where the group becomes a cohesive unit. Morale is high as group members actively acknowledge the talents, skills and experience that each member brings to the group. A sense of community is established and the group remains focused on the group's purpose and goal. Members are flexible, interdependent and trust each other.

Leadership is shared, and members are willing to adapt to the needs of the group. Information flows seamlessly and is uninhibited due to the sense of security members feel in the norming stage.

(4) Performing

At its peak, the group moves into the fourth stage of group development, known as the performing stage. The performing stage is marked by high productivity.

Group members are unified, loyal and supportive. Competence in all members is seen, allowing for a high level of autonomy in decision-making. Problem solving, experimentation and testing possible solutions are high as group members are focused on task completion and achievement. The overall objective of the group during the performing stage is to complete their mission.

(5) Adjourning

This is the last stage of group development, where the group is terminated, and the group members are separated from each other. Every group is created for a purpose, and once the purpose is fulfilled the group is adjourned.

Some authors call this stage as "***mourning or***

deforming,” because, the sense of loss is felt by the group members, at the time of separation from each other.

13.7 GROUP DYNAMICS

Group Dynamics can be understood as a process, wherein the attitude and behaviour of a member influence the behaviour of another or other members of the group, either by choice or circumstances. Factors such as individual personality, cultural traditions and social situations, often affect the group dynamics.

It has the ability to change each member's conduct, outlook, thinking pattern and relationship with each other.

Group Dynamics is part of social psychology which deals with the development and change in the overall structure and function of the psychological groups into self-directing ones.

13.8 SALIENT FEATURES OF GROUP DYNAMICS

The salient features of Group Dynamics are given as under:

- Group Dynamics is associated with groups, which means that if there exists a group, the members of such group tend to interact, change and adjust themselves according to the changing circumstances and their relationship with one another.
- Changes occur continuously in a group, i.e. entry and exit of members, change in leadership, type of task assigned, etc.
- Group dynamics are affected by rigidity or flexibility.
- Group organization leads to group effectiveness, participation, cooperation and coordination of members, as well as boosts morale.
- Groups tend to continuously restructure, adjust and readjust members, so as to release stress, eliminating conflicts, better decision-making and problem-solving, which affects the group members.

Group dynamics describes how groups and group members act and react to dynamic circumstances. It deals with the changes that occur within the groups along with the

interaction and forces operating with the group in a social organization.

Further, there are various behavioural and psychological forces which lead to the development and performance of a group. These forces are present within the group and differ from one group to another, as well as they vary in different kinds of group situations. The scientific study of these forces functioning within the group or amidst two groups is known as group dynamics.

13.9 SUBJECT MATTER OF GROUP DYNAMICS

1. What is the internal nature of the group?
2. How a group is created?
3. What is its structure?
4. Which processes are followed in its operation?
5. How group members interact with one another?
6. How it affects members within the group as well as other groups and the organization?

The essence of group dynamics is the dynamics of the way of communication between the members of the group, pressures applied by the members of the group, parameters considered while making decisions, way of performing tasks, etc.

13.10 PRINCIPLES OF GROUP DYNAMICS

- **Principle of Belongingness:** A good sense of belongingness must exist or develop in the members of the group
- **Principle of Perception:** Changes can be implemented in the group by creating a common perception in the minds of the members regarding the need for change.
- **Principle of Conformity:** When continuous efforts are made in the direction of removing individual subparts of the group, it may result in the conformity to the norms of the group.
- **Principle of Change:** All the relevant information

concerning the need, plan, strategy and outcome of change has to be shared amongst the group members.

- **Principle of Readjustment:** Changes in a particular part of the group is likely to create stress in the other parts, which can be reduced either by reversing the change or introducing readjustments in the related parts.
- **Principle of Common Motives:** A group is formed and operated because of common or shared motives.
- **Principle of Power:** The higher the level of the group to its members, the higher will be the influence which can be exercised on its members.
- **Continuous Process Principle:** Every member who is a part of a certain group is responsible for its continuous operation, so they must ensure that the activities and tasks assigned to the group are performed uninterruptedly.
- **Goal Orientation Principle:** The survival of a group is ensured by placing the members into an operational hierarchy and a goal-oriented action.

13.10 GROUP STRUCTURE

When a group comes together for the first time and begins to interact, various differences between the members begin to appear; differences in status, influence, role, ability, and so on. The pattern of relationships that is thus established is known as the group structure.

A group's structure defines the formation, arrangement, and articulation of the members of that group.

The group's formation is its overall "design" or "architecture," meaning its general configuration for unifying the constituent elements into a single unit-the group's basic shape. The structure is the underlying pattern of stable relationships among the group members.

13.11 STRUCTURAL VARIABLES OF A GROUP STRUCTURE

(a) Formal Leadership

Almost every work group has a formal leader. He or she is typically identified by titles such as unit or committee chair. This leader can play an important part in the group's success – so much so, in fact, that we have devoted an entire chapter to the topic of leadership.

(b) Roles

Great English essayist William Shakespeare said, “All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players”.

Using the same metaphor, all group members are actors, each playing a role. By this term, we mean a set of expected behaviour patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit.

The understanding of role behaviour would be dramatically simplified if each of us chose one role and “played it out” regularly and consistently. Unfortunately, we are required to play a number of diverse roles, both on and off our jobs.

(c) Role Identity

There are certain attitudes and actual behaviours consistent with a role, and they create the role identity. People have the ability to shift roles rapidly when they recognize that the situation and its demands clearly require major changes. For instance, when union stewards were promoted to supervisory positions, it was found that their attitudes changed from pro-union to pro-management within a few months of their promotion.

When these promotions had to be rescinded later because of economic difficulties in the firm, it was found that the demoted supervisors had once again adopted their pro-Union attitudes.

(d) Role Perception

One view of how one is supposed to act in a given situation is a role perception. Based on an interpretation of how we

believe we are supposed to behave, we engage in certain types of behaviour.

Where do we get these perceptions? We get them from stimuli all around us – friends, books, movies, television. Many current law enforcement officers learned their roles from reading books, while many of tomorrow's lawyers will be influenced by watching the actions of attorneys in law and order or the practice.

(e) Role Expectations

Role expectations are defined as how others believe you should act in a given situation. How you behave is determined to a large extent by the role defined in the context in which you are acting.

For instance, the role of a University teacher is viewed as honesty, dignity, calm and quiet, while a football coach is seen as aggressive, dynamic, and inspiring to his players. In the workplace, it can be helpful to look at the topic of role expectations through the perspective of the psychological contract.

There is an unwritten agreement that exists between employees and their employer. This psychological contract sets out mutual expectations – what management expects from workers, and vice versa.

(f) Role Conflict

When an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations, the result is role conflict. It exists when an individual finds that compliance with one role requirement may make it more difficult to comply with another (Peterson, 1995).

At the extreme, it would include situations in which two or more role expectations are mutually contradictory.

(g) Norms

Group norms are rules or guidelines that reflect expectations of how group members should act and interact. They define what behaviours are acceptable or not; good or not; right or not; or appropriate or not.

Norms may relate to how people look, behave, or communicate with each other. Some norms relate to how a group as a whole will act. By defining what social behaviour lies within acceptable boundaries, norms can help a group function smoothly and face conflict without falling apart.

Group norms vary based on the group and issues important to the group. All groups have established norms, that is acceptable standards of behaviour that shared by the groups' members.

Norms tell members what they ought and ought not to do under certain circumstances. From an individual's standpoint, they tell what is expected of you in certain situations.

When agreed to and accepted by the group, norms act as a means of influencing the behaviour of group members with a minimum of external controls. Norms differ among groups, communities, and societies, but they all have them.

Common Classes of Norms

Without group norms, individuals would have no understanding of how to act in social situations. A work group's norms are like an individual's fingerprint. Each is unique.

There are still some common classes of norms that appear in most work groups. They include:

Performance Norms

Performance norms are centered on how hard a person should work in a given group. They are informal cues, if you will, that tells a person or helps a person understand how hard they should work and what type of output they should have.

Appearance Norms

This type of norm informs or guides us as to how we should look or what our physical appearance should be – what fashion we should wear or how we should style our hair or any number of areas related to how we should look.

Social Arrangement Norms

When we talk about this type of norm, we generally do not equate it to a business setting. This norm is centered on how

we should act in social settings. Once again, there are cues we need to pick up on when we are out with friends or at social events that help us fit in and get a closer connection to the group.

Resource Allocation Norms

For this type of norm, we are focusing on the allocation of resources in a business environment. This can include raw materials as well as overtime or any other resource found or needed within an organization.

Conformity

As a member of a group, you desire acceptance by the group. Because of your desire for acceptance, you are susceptible to conforming to the group's norms. There is considerable evidence that groups can place strong pressures on individual members to change their attitudes and behaviours to conform to the group's standard.

Do individuals conform to the pressures of all the groups to which they belong? Obviously not, because people belong to many groups and their norms vary. In some cases, they may even have contradictory norms.

So what do people do? They conform to the important groups to which they belong or hope to belong.

The important groups have been referred to as reference groups and are characterized as ones in which the person is aware of the others; the person defines himself or herself as a member, or would like to be a member; and the person feels that the group members are significant to him or her.

The implication, then, is that all groups do not impose equal conformity pressures on their members.

Deviant Workplace Behaviour

Mr. Xisan is frustrated by a co-worker who constantly spreads malicious and unsubstantiated rumors about him. Ms. Yesmin is tired of a member of her work team who, when confronted with a problem, taken out his frustration by yelling and screaming at her and other work team members. And Ms.

Zakia recently quit her job as a dental hygienist after being constantly sexually harassed by her employer.

What do these three episodes have in common? They represent employees being exposed to acts of deviant workplace behavior.

This term covers a full range of antisocial actions by organizational members that intentionally violate established norms and that result in negative consequences for the organization, its members, or both.

Few organizations will admit to creating or condoning conditions that encourage and maintain deviate norms. Yet they exist.

(h) Status

While teaching a college course on adolescence, the instructor asked the class to list things that contributed to status when they were in high school. The list was long and included being an athlete or a cheerleader and being able to cut class without getting caught. Then the instructor asked the students to list things that didn't contribute to status." Again, it was easy for the students to create a long list: getting straight A's having your mother drive you to school, and so forth. Finally, the students were asked to develop a third list – those things that didn't matter one way or the other. There was a long silence. At last one student in the back row volunteered, "In high school, nothing didn't matter" (Keyes).

Status, that is, a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others – permeates society far beyond the walls of high school. It would not be extravagant to rephrase the preceding quotation to read. "In the status hierarchy of life, nothing doesn't matter."

Despite all attempts to make it more egalitarian, we have made little progress toward a classless society. Even the smallest group will develop roles, rights, and rituals to differentiate its members.

Status is an important factor in understanding human behaviour because it is a significant motivator and has major behavioural consequences when individuals perceive a

disparity between what they believe their status to be and what others perceive it to be.

Status and Norms

Status has been shown to have some interesting effects on the power of norms and pressures to conform. For instance, high-status members of groups often are given more freedom to deviate from norms than are other group members. High-status people also are better able to resist conformity pressures than lower-status peers. An individual who is highly valued by a group but who doesn't much need or care about the social rewards the group provides is particularly able to pay minimal attention to conformity norms (Harvey A. Consaivi, 1960).

Status Equity

It is important for group members to believe that the status hierarchy is equitable. When inequity is perceived, it creates disequilibrium, which results in various types of corrective behaviour.

The trapping that go with formal positions are also important elements in maintaining equity. When we believe there is an inequity between the perceived ranking of an individual and the status accouterments that person is given by the organization, we are experiencing status incongruence. An example of this kind of incongruence is the more desirable office location being held by a lower-ranking individual. Pay incongruence has long been a problem in the insurance industry, where top sales agents often earn two to five times more than senior corporate executives. The result is that it is very hard for insurance companies to entice successful agents into, management positions.

Our point is that employees expect the things an individual has and receives to be congruent with his or her status.

Status and Culture

Before we leave the topic of status, we should briefly address the issue of cross-cultural transferability. Do cultural differences affect status?

The answer is a resounding yes (Harris & Moran, 1996). The importance of status does vary between cultures. The French, for example, are highly status conscious. Also, countries differ on the criteria that create status.

For instance, status for Latin Americans and Asian tends to be derived from family position and formal roles held in organizations. In contrast USA and Australia, it tends to be less “in your face”. And it tends to be bestowed more on accomplishments than on titles and family trees.

(i) Group Size

Does the size of a group affect the group’s overall behavior? The answer to this question is a definite yes, but the effect depends on what dependent variables you look at. The evidence indicates, for instance, the smaller groups are faster at completing tasks that are larger ones. However, if the group is engaged in problem solving, large groups consistently get better marks than their smaller counterparts. Translating these results into specific numbers is a bit more hazardous, but we can offer some parameters.

Large groups – with a dozen or more members – are good for gaining diverse input. So if the goal of the group is fact-finding, the larger groups should be more effective. On the other hand, smaller groups are better at doing something productive with the input. Groups of approximately seven members, therefore, tend to be more effective for taking action.

One of the most important findings related to the size of a group has been labeled social loafing. Social loafing refers to the concept that people are prone to exert less effort on a task if they are in a group versus when they work alone. Social loafing is the tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually (Comer, ms).

The idea of working in groups is typically seen as a way to improve the accomplishment of a task by pooling the skills and talents of the individuals in that group. But, in some groups, there is a tendency on the part of participants to contribute

less to the group's goal than if they were doing the same task themselves.

In social psychology, social loafing is the phenomenon of people exerting less effort to achieve a goal when they work in a group than when they work alone.

This is seen as one of the main reasons groups are sometimes less productive than the combined performance of their members working as individuals but should be distinguished from the accidental coordination problems that groups sometimes experience.

Causes of social loafing include a perception of unfair division-of-labour, a belief that co-workers are lazy, or a feeling of being able to hide in a crowd and therefore not be able to be singled out for blame. Social loafing may also arise if a member believes that others intend to withhold their efforts and thus he or she would be foolish not to do the same – the sucker effect.

Social loafing has negative consequences for both the group and the individuals in the group. The group dynamic is affected when certain individuals are seen as weak contributors to the group purpose. It tends to split the group and fosters a lack of cohesion.

For example, if a motivated team member repeatedly feels others are relying on them to do most of the work, they might deliberately reduce their workload or even stop collaborating with group members because they no longer want to feel exploited by the less productive members.

(j) Composition

Most group activities require a variety of skills and knowledge. Given this requirement, it would be reasonable to conclude that heterogeneous groups – those composed of dissimilar individuals – would be more likely to have diverse abilities and information and should be more effective. Research studies generally substantiate this conclusion, especially on cognitive, creativity-demanding tasks.

When a group is diverse in terms of personality, gender, age, education, functional specialization, and experience, there

is an increased probability that the group will possess the needed characteristics to complete its tasks effectively.

The group may be more conflict-laden and less expedient as varied positions are introduced and assimilated, but the evidence generally supports the conclusion that heterogeneous groups perform more effectively than those that are homogeneous.

Essentially, diversity promotes conflict, which stimulates creativity, which leads to improved decision-making.

(k) Cohesiveness

Groups differ in their cohesiveness, that is, the degree to which members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group. For instance, some work groups are cohesive because the members have spent a great deal of time together, or the groups' small size facilitates high interaction, or the group has experienced external threats that have brought members to close together. Cohesiveness is important because it has been found to be related to the group's productivity.

What can you do to encourage group cohesiveness?

- Make the group smaller.
- Encourage agreement with group goals.
- Increase the time members spend together.
- Increase the status of the group and the perceived difficulty of attaining membership in the group.
- Stimulate competition with other groups.
- Give rewards to the group rather than to the individual members.
- Physically isolate the group.

13.12 GROUP DECISION-MAKING

Group decision-making is a situation faced when individuals collectively make a choice from the alternatives. It may involve assimilating a huge amount of information, exploring many different ideas, and drawing on many strands of experience. And the consequences of the right or wrong decision may be profound for the team and the organization.

For obvious reasons, decisions made in groups can vary considerably from those undertaken by individuals. It is this potential divergence in outcomes that make group decision-making attractive.

Group decision-making is a situation faced when individuals collectively make a choice from the alternatives before them. The decision is then no longer attributable to any single individual who is a member of the group. This is because all the individuals and social group processes such as social influence contribute to the outcome.

The decisions made by groups are often different from those made by individuals. There is much debate as to whether this difference results in decisions that are better or worse.

According to the idea of synergy, decisions made collectively tend to be more effective than decisions made by a single individual. Factors that impact other social group behaviours also affect group decisions. Moreover, when individuals make decisions as part of a group, there is a tendency to exhibit a bias towards discussing shared information (i.e. shared information bias), as opposed to unshared information.

13.13 ADVANTAGES OF GROUP DECISION-MAKING

Group decision-making provides two advantages over decisions made by individuals: synergy and sharing of information.

Synergy is the idea that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. When a group makes a decision collectively, its judgment can be keener than that of any of its members.

Through discussion, questioning, and collaboration, group members can identify more complete and robust solutions and recommendations. The sharing of information among group members is another advantage of the group decision-making process.

Other advantages or strengths of group decision-making are:

- Groups generate more complete information and knowledge.
- By aggregating the resources of several individuals, groups bring more input into the decision process.
- In addition to more input, groups can bring heterogeneity to the decision process. They offer increased diversity of views.
- A group will almost always outperform even the best individual. So, groups generate higher quality decisions.
- Finally, groups lead to increase acceptance of solutions. Many decisions fail after the final choice is made because people don't accept the solution. Group members who participated in making a decision are likely to enthusiastically support the decision and encourage others to accept it.

13.14 DISADVANTAGES OF GROUP DECISION-MAKING

Though group decision-making is a powerful technique, it has its own disadvantages as it is time-consuming. Members may be unclear about their roles and if not handled well, there could be some bitter feelings between the members. Below are some of the disadvantages of group decision-making:

Diffusion of Responsibility

One possible disadvantage of group decision-making is that it can create a diffusion of responsibility that results in a lack of accountability for outcomes. In a sense, if everyone is responsible for a decision, then no one is. Moreover, group decisions can make it easier for members to deny personal responsibility and blame others for bad decisions.

Lower Efficiency

Group decisions can also be less efficient than those made by an individual. Group decisions can take additional time because there is the requirement of participation, discussion, and coordination among group members.

Without good facilitation and structure, meetings can be

considered in trivial details that may matter a lot to one person but not to the others.

Groupthink

One of the greatest inhibitors of effective group decision-making is groupthink.

Groupthink is a psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people in which the desire for harmony or conformity results in an irrational or dysfunctional decision-making outcome.

By isolating themselves from outside influences and actively suppressing dissenting viewpoints in the interest of minimizing conflict, group members reach a consensus decision without critical evaluation of alternative viewpoints.

13.14 GROUP DECISION-MAKING TECHNIQUES

1. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a process for developing creative solutions to problems. This technique was developed by Alex Osborn a partner in an agency. It is a popular method for encouraging creative thinking in groups of about 8 people.

Alex Faickney Osborn, an advertising manager, popularized the method in 1953 in his book, *Applied Imagination*. Ten years later, he proposed that teams could double their creative output with brainstorming.

Brainstorming is meant to overcome pressures for conformity in the interacting group that retard the development of creative alternatives. It is built around four basic guidelines for participants:

- Generate as many ideas as possible.
- Be creative, freewheeling, and imaginative.
- Build upon, extend, or combine earlier ideas.
- Withhold criticism of others' ideas.

It is a combination of group problem solving and discussions. It works on the belief that the more the number of ideas, the greater the possibility of having a solution to the problem that is acceptable to all. It starts with the group

generating ideas which are then analyzed, with action points based on the discussions.

Brainstorming works by focusing on a problem, and then deliberately coming up with as many solutions as possible and by pushing the ideas as far as possible.

One of the reasons it is so effective is that the brainstormers not only come up with new ideas in a session but also spark off from associations with other people's ideas by developing and refining them.

2. Nominal Group Technique

Another technique is the nominal group technique (NGT), which is group process involving problem identification, solution generation, and decision-making.

The nominal group technique restricts discussion or interpersonal communication during the decision-making process, hence, the term nominal. Group members are all physically present, as in a traditional committee meeting, but members operate independently. Specifically, a problem is presented and then the following steps take place:

- Members meet as a group but, before any discussion takes place, each member independently writes down his or her ideas on the problem.
- After this silent period, each member presents one idea to the group. Each member takes his or her turn, presenting a single idea until all ideas have been presented and recorded. No discussion takes place until all the ideas have been recorded.
- The group now discusses the ideas for clarity and evaluates them.
- Each group member silently and independently rank-orders the ideas. The idea with the highest aggregate ranking determines the final decision.

The chief advantage of the nominal group technique is that it permits the group to meet formally but does not restrict independent thinking, as does the interacting group.

It's the method of tallying and coming to a resultant

conclusion that sets the nominal group technique apart from other methods.

The initial stage of the technique gives each individual a chance to state his opinion on what the solution should be. He's also allowed to elaborate slightly with a brief accompanying explanation about why he chose the way he did.

Duplicate solutions are then eliminated from the pool, leaving only original solutions behind. The individuals then rank the remaining solutions according to numerical preference. All of these preferences are tallied and considered to render the most accurate results.

3. Electronic Meeting

The most recent approach to group decision-making blends the nominal group technique with sophisticated computer technology.

It's called the computer-assisted group or electronic meeting. It is a meeting in which members interact by a computer, allowing for anonymity of comments and aggregating of votes.

Once the technology is in place, the concept is simple. Issues are presented to the participants and they type their responses into their computer screen. Individual comments, as well as aggregates votes, are displayed on a projection screen.

The major advantages of electronic meetings are mystery, honesty, and speed. Participants can anonymously type any message they want and it flashes on the screen for all to see at the push of a participant's board key. It also allows people to be brutally honest without penalty. And it's fast because chitchat is eliminated, discussions don't digress and many participants can "talk" at once without stepping on another's toes.

4. Multi-Voting

It starts with a number of rounds of voting where an individual casts his/her vote for the options that are shortlisted. Each individual can cast one vote at a time.

In this way, the options favoring the maximum number of votes is carried to the next round. This process is repeated until a clear winning option is obtained.

5. Delphi Method

In this method of decision-making, the facilitator allows team members to individually brainstorm their ideas and submit their ideas “anonymously”. The other team members do not know the owner of the ideas.

The facilitator then collects all the inputs and circulates them among others for modifying or improving them. This process continues until a final decision is made.

Delphi technique was originally developed by Rand Corporation as a method to systematically gather the judgments of experts for use in developing forecasts.

It is designed for a group that does not meet face-to-face. The Delphi method is a structured communication technique or method, originally developed as a systematic, interactive forecasting method which relies on a panel of experts.

The experts answer questionnaires in two or more rounds. After recruiting participants, the manager develops a questionnaire for them to complete.

The questionnaire is relatively simple which contains straightforward questions that deal with the issue, trends in the area, new technological developments, and other factors the manager is interested in. The managers summarize the responses and reports back to the experts with another questionnaire.

This cycle may be repeated as many times as necessary to generate the information the managers need. It is useful when experts are physically dispersed, anonymity is desired, or the participants are known to have trouble communicating with one another because of extreme differences of opinion.

This method also avoids the intimidation problems that may exist in decision-making groups. On the other hand, the technique eliminates the often fruitful results of direct interaction among group members.”

6. Dialectic Decision Methods

Some face-to-face decision taking groups converge too quickly on one alternative while overlooking others. Their incomplete evaluation of options may reflect either the participants' dislike of meetings or their lack of willingness to raise and confront tough issues.

The dialectic decision method (DDM), which traces its roots to Plato and Aristotle, offers a way of overcoming these problems.

The dialectic process begins with a clear statement of a problem to be solved. Then two or more competing proposals are generated. A key step follows in which participants identify the explicit or implicit assumptions that underlie each proposal.

The group then breaks into advocacy subgroups, which examine and argue the relative merits of their positions.

Then the entire group makes a decision based on the competing presentations. This decision may mean embracing one of the alternatives, forging a compromise from several ideas, or generating a new proposal.

The merits of DDM include a better understanding of the proposals, their underlying premises, and their pros and cons by the participants. Members are also likely to feel more confident about the choice they made.

Disadvantages include the propensity to forge a compromise in order to avoid choosing sides and the tendency to focus more on who were the better debaters than what the best decision should be. Nevertheless, the dialectic method holds promise for future decision-making groups.

13.15 GROUP PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS

As you read through the steps in the process, think about how you can apply what we learned regarding the general and specific elements of problems.

Some of the following steps are straightforward, and they are things we would logically do when faced with a problem.

Steps of group problem-solving process are;

1. Define the Problem.

2. Analyze the Problem.
3. Generate Possible Solutions.
4. Evaluate Solutions.
5. Implement and Assess the Solution.

Step 1: Define the Problem

Define the problem by considering the three elements shared by every problem like:

- The current undesirable situation,
- The goal or more desirable situation, and
- Obstacles in the way.

At this stage, group members share what they know about the current situation, without proposing solutions or evaluating the information. Here are some good questions to ask during this stage:

- What is the current difficulty?
- How did we come to know that the difficulty exists?
- Who/what is involved?
- Why is it meaningful/urgent/important?
- What have the effects been so far?
- What, if any, elements of the difficulty require clarification?

At the end of this stage, the group should be able to compose a single sentence that summarizes the problem called a problem statement.

Step 2: Analyze the Problem

During this step, a group should analyze the problem and the group's relationship to the problem.

Whereas the first step involved exploring the "what" related to the problem, this step focuses on the "why." At this stage, group members can discuss the potential causes of the difficulty. Group members may also want to begin setting out an agenda or timeline for the group's problem-solving process, looking forward to the other steps.

Step 3: Generate Possible Solutions

During this step, group members generate possible solutions to the problem. Again, solutions should not be evaluated at this point, only proposed and clarified. The question should be what we could do to address this problem, not what should we do to address it.

It is perfectly okay for a group member to question another person's idea by asking something like "What do you mean?" or "Could you explain your reasoning more?" Discussions at this stage may reveal a need to return to previous steps to better define or more fully analyze a problem.

Since many problems are multifaceted, it is necessary for group members to generate solutions for each part of the problem separately, making sure to have multiple solutions for each part. Stopping the solution-generating process prematurely can lead to groupthink.

Step 4: Evaluate Solutions

During this step, solutions can be critically evaluated based on their credibility, completeness, and worth. Once the potential solutions have been narrowed based on more obvious differences in relevance and/or merit, the group should analyze each solution based on its potential effects—especially negative effects.

Groups that are required to report the rationale for their decision or whose decisions may be subject to public scrutiny would be wise to make a set list of criteria for evaluating each solution. Additionally, solutions can be evaluated based on how well they fit with the group's charge and the abilities of the group.

Step 5: Implement and Assess the Solution

Implementing the solution requires some advanced planning, and it should not be rushed unless the group is operating under strict time restraints or delay may lead to some kind of harm.

Although some solutions can be implemented immediately, others may take days, months, or years. As was noted earlier,

it may be beneficial for groups to poll those who will be affected by the solution as to their opinion of it or even do a pilot test to observe the effectiveness of the solution and how people react to it.

Before implementation, groups should also determine how and when they would assess the effectiveness of the solution by asking, “How will we know if the solution is working or not?”

Since solution assessment will vary based on whether or not the group is disbanded, groups should also consider the following questions;

- If the group disbands after implementation, which will be responsible for assessing the solution?
- If the solution fails, will the same group reconvene or will a new group be formed?

There are several variations of similar problem-solving models based on reflective thinking process.

13.16 UNDERSTANDING WORK TEAMS

A team becomes more than just a collection of people when a strong sense of mutual commitment creates synergy, thus generating performance greater than the sum of the performance of its individual members.

One of the many ways for a business to organize employees is in teams. A team is made up of two or more people who work together to achieve a common goal.

Teams offer an alternative to a vertical chain-of-command and are a much more inclusive approach to business organization. Teams are becoming more common in the business world today. Effective teams can lead to an increase in employee motivation and business productivity.

A team can also be defined in the following ways:

- A group of people who compete in a sport, game, etc., against another group.
- A group of people who work together.
- A group of two or more animals used to pull a wagon, cart, etc.

- A number of persons forming one of the sides in a game or contest.
- A number of persons associated in some joint action: a team of experts.

13.17 CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE TEAMS

While no team exists without problems, some teams particularly those who have learned to counter negative team dynamics seem to be especially good at preventing many issues.

We have put together a list of what may be considered as the most essential ingredients for creating effective teams:

- **Ideal Size and Membership:** The team should be the minimum size needed to achieve the team's goals and include members with the right mix of skills and talents to get the job done.
- **Fairness in Decision-Making:** Ideally, teams will make decisions by consensus. When consensus is not feasible, teams will use fair decision-making procedures that everyone agrees on.
- **Creativity:** Effective teams value original thinking and will produce new and unique approaches to organizational problems.
- **Accountability:** Members must be accountable to each other for getting their work done on schedule and following the group's rules and procedures.
- **Purpose and Goals:** Every team member must clearly understand the purpose and goals for bringing this particular group of individuals together.
- **Action Plans:** Help the team determine what advice, assistance, training, materials, and other resources it may be needed.
- **Roles and Responsibilities:** Teams operate most efficiently if they tap everyone's talents. All members understand their own duties and know who is responsible for what.
- **Information Sharing:** Effective discussions depend upon how well information is passed between team

members – hoarding information cannot be tolerated. A proliferation of new technologies has made this easier than it has ever been.

- **Good Data:** With information sharing comes the requirement for good data. Teams that use good data for problem-solving and decision-making have a much easier time arriving at permanent solutions to problems.
- **Meeting Skills and Practices:** All team members must commit to a common method for conducting meetings. There is no 'best' method, but everyone must be on the same page.
- **Decision-Making:** This is really a subset of the 'Skills & Practices'. There is no 'one way' to reach a decision, but it must be a recognized path and transparent to all team members.
- **Participation:** Since every team member has a stake in the group's achievements, everyone should participate in discussions and decisions, share a commitment to the team's success, and contribute their talents.
- **Ground Rules:** Groups invariably establish ground rules (or "norms") for what will and will not be tolerated within the group. Many members will want to skip the laying of ground rules, but in the long run investment up front will head off major issues down the road.
- **Clear Roles:** How we apportion the team purpose will in large measure determine the team synergy. High-performing teams leverage individuals' different roles against collective work products.

Therefore, it is essential that every team member is clear about his or her own role as well as the role of every other team member. Roles are about the design, division, and deployment of the work of the team.

While the concept is compellingly logical, many teams find it challenging to implement. There is often a tendency to take role definition to extremes or not to take it far enough.

- **Accepted Leadership:** High-performance teams

need competent leadership. When such leadership is lacking, groups can quickly lose their way. Whereas a common, compelling task might be the biggest contributor to team effectiveness, inadequate team leadership is often the single biggest reason for team ineffectiveness.

In most organizational settings, it is the leader who frames the team purpose and facilitates discussions on its meaning and nature. The vision, commitment, and communication of the leader govern the optics through which individual team members see the team purpose and become aligned to it.

- **Effective Processes:** Teams and processes go together. It would never occur to a surgical team, construction crew, string quartet, or film crew to approach tasks without clearly defined processes. The playbook of a football team or the score sheet of a string quartet clearly outlines the necessary processes.

Business teams have processes as well, which might include solving problems, making decisions, managing a meeting, or designing a product.

- **Solid Relationships:** One of the biggest misperceptions in the world of teams and teamwork is the belief that to work and communicate effectively, team members must be friends.

In fact, the diversity of skills, experience, and knowledge needed to divide tasks effectively almost precludes high levels of friendship, which is most often based on commonality — of the way people think, their interests, or beliefs.

- **Excellent Communication:** Communication is the very means of cooperation. One of the primary motives of companies choosing to implement teams is that team-based organizations are more responsive and move faster. A team cannot move faster than it communicates.

Fast, clear, timely, accurate communication is a hallmark

of high levels of team performance. High-performance teams have mastered the art of straight talk; there is little motion wasted through misunderstanding or confusion.

13.18 Types of Team

There are various types of teams and their functions and objectives are also different. The various types of teams are discussed below:

1. Executive Team

An executive team is a management team that draws up plans for activities and then directs these activities. An example of an executive team would be a construction team designing blueprints for a new building, and then guiding the construction of the building using these blueprints.

2. Command Team

The goal of the command team is to combine instructions and coordinate action among management. In other words, command teams serve as the “middle man” in the task. For instance, messengers on a construction site, conveying instructions from the executive team to the builders would be an example of a command team.

3. Project Teams

A team used only for a defined period of time and for a separate, concretely definable purpose often becomes known as a project team. This category of teams includes negotiation, compassion and design team subtypes.

In general, these types of teams are multi-talented and composed of individuals with expertise in many different areas. Members of these teams might belong to different groups, but receive an assignment to activities for the same project.

4. Advisory Teams

Advisory teams make suggestions about a final product. For instance, a quality control group on an assembly line would be an example of an advisory team. They would examine the products produced and make suggestions about how to improve the quality of the items being made.

5. Work Teams

Work teams are responsible for the actual act of creating tangible products and services. The actual workers on an assembly line would be an example of a production team, whereas waiters and waitresses at a diner would be an example of a service team.

6. Action Teams

Action teams are highly specialized and coordinated teams whose actions are intensely focused on producing a product or service. A football team would be an example of an action team. Other examples occur in the military, paramedics, and transportation (e g., a flight crew on an airplane).

7. Sports Teams

A sports team is a group of people which play sports, often team sports together. Members include all players (even those who are waiting their turn to play) as well as support members such as a team manager or coach.

8. Virtual Teams

A virtual team is a group of people who work interdependently and with shared purpose across space, time, and organizational boundaries using technology to communicate and collaborate.

Virtual team members can be located across a country or across the world, rarely meet face-to-face, and include members from different cultures.

9. Work Teams

Work teams (also referred to as production and service teams) are continuing work units responsible for producing goods or providing services for the organization. Their membership is typically stable, usually full-time, and well-defined. These teams are traditionally directed by a supervisor who mandates what work is done, who does it, and in what manner is it executed.

10. Self-Managed Team

Self-managed work teams (also referred to as autonomous work groups) allow their members to make a greater contribution at work and constitute a significant competitive advantage for the organization.

These work teams determine how they will accomplish the objectives they are mandated to achieve and decide what route they will take to complete the current assignment.

Self-managed work teams are granted the responsibility of planning scheduling, organizing, directing, controlling and evaluating their own work process.

11. Parallel Teams

Parallel teams (also referred to as advice and involvement teams) pull together people from different work units or jobs to perform functions that the regular organization is not equipped to perform well.

These teams are given limited authority and can only make recommendations to individuals higher in the organizational hierarchy.

12. Management Teams

Management teams (also referred to as action and negotiation teams) are responsible for the coordination and direction of a division within an institution or organization during various assigned projects and functional, operational and/or strategic tasks and initiatives.

Management teams are responsible for the total performance of the division they oversee with regards to day-to-day operations, a delegation of tasks and the supervision of employees.

13. Managed Team

Managed groups sometimes also work together as a team on a single, focused objective or task. In such groups, people may come from diverse background, with each bringing a specialized skill to the team.

13.19 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUPS AND TEAMS

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Teams</i>
Individual accountability.	Individual and mutual accountability.
Come together to share information and perspectives.	Frequently come together for discussion, decision-making, problem-solving, and planning.
Focus on individual goals.	Focus on team goals.
Produce individual work products.	Produce collective work products.
Define individual roles, responsibilities, and tasks.	Define individual roles, responsibilities, and tasks to help the team do its work; often share and rotate them.
Concerned with one's own outcome and challenges.	Concerned with the outcomes of everyone and challenges the team faces.
Purpose, goals, approach to work shaped by the manager.	Purpose, goals, approach to work shaped by the team leader with team members.
The leader dominates and controls the group.	The leader acts as a facilitator.
The leader is apparent and will conduct the meeting.	The members have active participation in the discussions and eventual outcome.
The leader usually assigns work to the members.	The team members decide on the disbursements of work assignments.
Groups do not need to focus on specific outcomes or a common purpose.	Teams require the coordination of tasks and activities to achieve a shared aim.
Individuals in a group can be entirely disconnected from one another and not rely upon the fellow members at all.	Team members are inter-dependent since they bring to bear a set of resources to produce a common outcome.
Groups are generally much more informal; roles do not need to be assigned and norms of behaviour do not need to develop.	Team members' individual roles and duties are specified and their ways of working together are defined.

13.20 WHAT MAKES A TEAM EFFECTIVE

Many studies have been conducted in an attempt to isolate the factors that contribute most directly to team success. Common items identified include careful composition, information sharing, clear direction and measurable goals for accountability, sufficient resources, integration and coordination, flexibility and innovativeness, and the stimulation of openness to learning. Below are 4 major factors of an effective team:

1. Supportive Environment.
2. Skills and Role Clarity.
3. Super Ordinate Goals.
4. Team Rewards.

(a) Supportive Environment

Teamwork is most likely to develop when management builds a supportive environment for it. Creating such an environment involves encouraging members to think like a team, providing adequate time for meetings, and demonstrating faith in members' capacity to achieve.

Supportive measures such as these help the group take the necessary first steps toward teamwork. Since these steps contribute to further cooperation, trust, and compatibility, supervisors need to develop an organizational culture that builds these conditions.

(b) Skills and Role Clarity

Team members must be reasonably qualified to perform their jobs and have the desire to cooperate. Beyond these requirements, members can work together as a team only after all the members of the group know the roles of all the others with whom they will be interacting.

When this understanding exists, members can act immediately as a team on the basis of the requirements of that situation, without waiting for someone to give an order.

In other words, team members respond voluntarily to the demands of the job and take appropriate actions to accomplish team goals.

(c) Super Ordinate Goals

A major responsibility of managers is to try to keep the team members oriented toward their overall task. Sometimes, unfortunately, an organization's policies, record-keeping requirements, and reward systems may fragment individual efforts and discourage teamwork.

(d) Team Rewards

Another element that can stimulate teamwork is the presence of team rewards. These may be financial, or they may be in the form of recognition. Rewards are most powerful if they are valued by the team members, perceived as possible to earn, and administered contingent on the group's task performance.

In addition, organizations need to achieve a careful balance between encouraging and rewarding individual initiative and growth and stimulating full contributions to team success.

Innovative (nonfinancial) team rewards for possible behavior may include the authority to select new members of the group, make recommendations regarding a new supervisor, or propose discipline for team members.

TIME MANAGEMENT

In the business world of today, time is increasingly at a premium. Yet it is amazing how many people are working hard on tasks that are of little or no value to their goals. No matter how well you do an unimportant task, it does not help you. Even worse, working on low-value tasks keeps you from working on the most important things you could be doing. Hard work on the wrong job can actually sabotage your career. Benjamin Tregoe, once said, ***“The very worst use of time is to do very well what need not be done at all.”***

There is perhaps no area of your life in which self-discipline is more important than in the way you manage your time. Time management is a core discipline that largely determines the quality of your life. As Peter Drucker said, ***“You cannot manage time; you can only manage yourself.”*** Time management is really life management, personal management, management of yourself rather than of time or circumstances. Time is perishable; it cannot be saved. Time is irreplaceable; nothing else will do. Time is irretrievable; once it is gone or wasted, you can never get it back. Finally, time is indispensable, especially for accomplishments of any kind. All achievement, all results, all success requires time. The fact is that you cannot save time; you can only spend it differently. You can only reallocate your time usage from areas of low value to areas of high value. You require tremendous self-discipline to overcome procrastination and delay that holds most people back from great success.

There is a principle known as the Pareto Principle, also called the 80:20 Rule. It says that of all the results that we produce in the day, 80 per cent of those results are generated with 20 per cent of our efforts. The remaining 80 per cent of our efforts only generate 20 per cent of our results. This poses an interesting question when it comes to time management; how can we take the 80 per cent of our efforts that are currently only producing 20 per cent of our results and become more effective with that time? What would we be able to do if we were as effective with that time as we are with the 20 per cent of our time that produced 80 per cent of our results? Chances are we will never get to 100 per cent productivity – we are only human, after all. There will always be distractions and time wasters that tempt us away from being our most productive. However, successful time management will help you to become more effective in completing the tasks that you have to complete so that there is more time available for you to spend on the things that are important to you. This isn't necessarily always an easy feat; in some cases, it would take significant changes for you to spend time on the things that are important to you.

The essence of time management is for you to discipline yourself to set clear priorities and then stick to those priorities. You must consciously and deliberately select the most valuable and important thing that you could be doing at any given time, and then discipline yourself to work solely on that task. Before you commit to any time-consuming activity, you must always ask, *"Is this the very best use of my time?"*

In our society today when time is increasingly at a premium, prioritization must be considered most. Prioritization is the ability to make the best, most effective use of your time, ability, and resources as well as those of your team. When you feel like work is never-ending and time is at a premium, prioritization is what will help you spend your time wisely and move forward on the goals that are the most important. At its simplest level, prioritizing is straightforward. You simply determine the criteria that are most important to you and most related to your goals and then use those criteria to order the tasks that you have in front of you in terms of priority. For example, you might choose to work first on the project that:

- Is most likely to be profitable,
- Has to be finished before others can move on with their work,
- Has a budget allocated to it already,
- Has the necessary tool readily available.

Yet not all situations that require prioritization are this simple. In many cases, we are making the decision regarding what to work on first when many things seem important.

Important vs. Urgent

Whatever is at stake is actually very important to our own job or work product, and it happens to be urgent as well. What you want to learn to do is to distinguish these true emergency situations from situations that seem urgent but just aren't that important. Before you drop everything next time, ask yourself the following questions:

- Is this truly important or just urgent to the person requesting my help?
- What will the consequences be if I don't handle this immediately?
- Do I actually have important and urgent things that should be done instead?
- Is there someone else who can handle this situation?

If you determine that the request for your action is actually not both urgent and important, then chances are there is someone better suited to handle the request.

14.1 TIME MANAGEMENT AND INTERRUPTIONS

Most of us are so accustomed to being interrupted during the day that unless we are intentionally aware of it or unless we are in a particularly busy period, we won't even notice when it is happening. Some interruptions are inevitable, since not everyone that you work with, from bosses to subordinates, will have the same exact priorities every day that you have. In an ideal world you could simply align your priorities so that you all had the exact same work tasks every day and you would greatly decrease or eliminate interruptions. But in many work situations this is impossible. We all have a role to play in our

organization that is different from the role of our colleagues. This means that eventually, there will be interruptions. How you manage them, however, is entirely up to you.

None of us is entirely free of responsibility for some of the interruptions in our workday. If we can identify those times that we are causing our own interruptions, we can reclaim that time by simply disciplining ourselves and others around us to eliminate the causes of those interruptions. Compare the time that you lose to interruptions to the value you could gain by being productive during that time. Then ask yourself: is it worth it? If the answer is **yes** and the distraction is serving a purpose that helps you be more effective at work, then by all means, allow for that distraction. But if, as in most cases, the answer is **no**, then take the steps that you need to take in order to eliminate interruptions that you have a hand in causing. Some basic sources of interruption include:

(a) Distraction

Each of us has an environment in which we will do our best work. While the office with the window might be a sign of success, your success won't last long if the view out of that window is distracting you. Determine what the distractions are in your environment that you can eliminate. Some other examples of distractions might include responding to the sound of an email arriving, automatically stopping work to answer the phone (when it's not explicitly your job), or looking up every time someone walks by your office door. Arrange your furniture so that you can avoid distractions. If noise is a problem, close your door.

(b) You accept non-work calls at work

Everyone has an emergency from time to time. That means you need to take a call at work. But in many cases, we have started accepting calls at work that are not emergencies. It is important to realize that we have trained those people in our lives to believe that they can call us at work whenever they want or need to. But if it is affecting our productivity, these calls become an interruption and a nuisance. You may need to tell your friends and family that you can no longer accept calls at work unless they are an emergency and then stick to

it. You can do this in a way that lets the person know that they and what they have to say are important to you. Just ask if you can call them back on your next break or when you leave work.

(c) You often have co-workers stopping by to chat

Everyone wants to have friends at work. They can make some of the hard days bearable and the good days better. But when the stopping by occasionally becomes habitual, the friendly chats can become true interruptions. Treat these interruptions as you would with the phone calls from family and friends. Let the person know that you have an important project that you are working on and you'd like to get back to them later on that day. Pick a day to have lunch together or meet up for your coffee break. Just don't let chatting keep you from getting done what you need to accomplish

(d) You answer every email as it is received

Email has had a major impact on the way that we work, but not all of the changes have been for the good. Many of us have the tendency to jump every time that we receive an email. We hear the 'ping' of the email arriving and we immediately stop what we are doing in order to see who it was from and what it was about. In most cases, this is a waste of time and simply interrupts what you were doing. Sure, there are times when you need to be alert to arriving email, but ideally you should have set times that you check your email during the day, say first thing in the morning, around 10:30 a.m., after lunch, and an hour before leaving for the day. You may even be able to check less than this – it just depends on your job and the expectations of your workplace.

14.1.1 Managing Interruptions

As you become more aware of the distractions and interruptions in your day, you will also become more aware of the amount of time that you are wasting on them. This will serve as motivation to continue trying to eliminate interruptions from your day. Here are some additional tips to help you control interruptions and get more productivity out of your work day:

- Before calling a meeting, determine if it is truly

necessary. Can you handle it by email or a short conference call? Don't take your time and the time of other people unless a meeting is truly the best way to achieve your goal.

- Before calling a meeting, be sure that you have a specific result in mind. If you don't know why you are meeting, how will you know if you accomplished what you needed to accomplish?
- **Use 'Do Not Disturb.'** If you have that feature on your phone system, use it. The feature allows you to direct calls to your voicemail rather than having the phone ring in your office. Then when it is convenient for you, you can respond. Don't be afraid to use a sign on your door that says 'do not disturb' if you have a serious deadline that you have to concentrate on – sometimes a physical sign is what it will take for some people to get the message.
- **Stand up to visitors.** Not in the sense of defending yourself, but in the sense of defending your time. A great tactic for ending a conversation is to simply stand up from your desk. This signals to the other person that you have somewhere to be. If you have to, actually walk out of the office.
- **Learn to just say no.** Most of us don't like to say no to others. We want to be seen as a team player and we want to be included in what the rest of the team is talking about or doing. But sometimes the best thing for you and your workload is to simply say no. You can do so graciously, of course, by giving the person another opportunity for whatever they are offering. If they invite you to lunch today, propose that you go on Friday. If they want your input on how they are progressing on their project, let them know that you would like to help them but you can't at the moment – then schedule time in your week to help them when it is convenient for you both.

Most people use interruption as an excuse for not having been able to complete something. If someone or something interrupts you, pay attention to whether or not you use that

interruption as a reason to stop what you were working on. You shouldn't stop your work for an interruption unless you feel that the interruption is more important than what you were working on. If you have to stop what you are doing, be sure to write down or otherwise mark where you were so that you can get right back to where you were once you have handled the interruption. Also, do not try to work on multiple projects at once. While 'multi-tasking' is a buzz word that tends to convey a sense of competence and high-level performance, the truth is that switching from project to project can be a major interruption. If you are in charge of what you work on from day to day, then make it a goal to complete one project, task, or item fully before moving on to the next one.

14.2 TIME MANAGEMENT AND PROCRASTINATION

When you are focusing on something other than what you should be focusing on according to your priorities and the priorities of your organization, you are procrastinating. Another more scientific definition comes from psychologist Clarry Lay. He states that procrastination is the gap between the time that we intend to perform a task and the time that we actually perform it. When you don't want to do something, you find reasons to avoid doing it. You might tell yourself that these things are important, but are they truly more important than what you are doing?

We are all guilty of procrastination from time to time. It is only natural to resist what we have to do sometimes, particularly when there are more appealing things to do waiting right there for you. But if you have a chronic problem with procrastination, it is likely impacting your ability to get your work done and get it done on time. There's a saying regarding procrastination that can be helpful when you face this self-created time waster. *It says 'you don't have to want to do something in order to do it.' If you've determined that the task you're procrastinating about is actually the most important task that you have at the moment, then why not just knock it out and get it done?* The sooner you take action to complete the task, the sooner you will be done with it and ready to move on to the next item on your list.

In order to manage procrastination, you need to first become aware of when it is happening. If you can't determine when you are procrastinating, you won't be able to come up with the motivation you need to stop procrastinating and move forward. Next, you will need to try to understand why you are procrastinating. Is it something you don't enjoy? Or is there another reason why you are stalling on getting the task done? Once you understand why you are procrastinating, you can take the steps needed to manage and resolve it.

Below are some common indications that you may be procrastinating:

- Filling your 'to do' list with items of low importance
- Filling your 'to do' list just to look busy
- Handling papers repeatedly instead of doing what you need to do with them the first time
- Leaving something on your 'to do' list that is actually important
- Deciding to postpone working on something until you feel like it, have more energy, or are in a better mood
- Saying yes to helping others with tasks that are not as important as those already on your 'to do' list

Once you recognize when you procrastinate, you have the opportunity to change your attitude and your behaviors in order to manage and eliminate procrastinating behaviour. Remember as well what procrastination is not. Not every time that you put something off is procrastination. If you have put off a task because it is unimportant in favour of one that is important, that is not procrastination. That is good time management and prioritization.

14.3 TIME MANAGEMENT AND SCHEDULING

If you are someone who feels that schedules are restrictive, then you haven't yet learned the power that they can provide. We live in a world where there is always something jockeying for our attention and our time. For you to be able to fit in the things that are important to your job and to you, a schedule is a vital tool. It allows you to block out segments of time and

assign them to a specific activity. At work, a schedule offers additional benefits because it allows you to:

- Ensure you've allocated time for all of your necessary tasks and functions
- Cut off unproductive interruptions by referring to it
- Limit meetings to their scheduled time rather than letting them go on until people feel like leaving
- Allocate time for yourself for breaks
- Identify whether or not a goal is SMART

Scheduling is actually a form of organization. It can help you prevent any wasted time in exchange for making time for the things that are truly important. For example, how many times have you sat down in front of the computer intending to just read the day's headlines, but the next thing you know you've been distracted for an hour? If you are intentional with your time scheduling, you can instead have a purpose for your time – a purpose that is important to you and to the organization.

The first step in scheduling is to start with a 'master schedule.' This is a listing of the days of the week and the hours available in that week, as well as the requirements that are fixed in your schedule. For example, if you know that payroll is due every Friday by noon, then you will have to block out time for completing the information Friday morning at the latest. Fill in all of the fixed tasks that you can identify. Add blocks of time for tasks that are required every day, such as reading and responding to email and checking voicemail. Be sure to schedule in your breaks as well. What's left is time that you can schedule in order to help you be as productive as possible. You should use your prioritized list of activities as a guide to fill in these hours. For example, you might decide that you are going to dedicate two hours on Monday to working on the sales presentation that you have to complete for next week. You then schedule two more hours on Wednesday for a review and editing session. Continue to fill in your days with different tasks assigned to their dedicated time slots. Be sure to leave some space open in order to handle the unexpected. Once you've scheduled in time for the things that are important

for you to complete, you need to treat those appointments with yourself and your work just as if they were a meeting or other required event. It can take practice to train yourself to do this particularly if you have never worked to a schedule before. But when you schedule time for what is important and you stick to that schedule, you will find that you are more productive overall and less inclined to fall victim to procrastination.

Before you commit to a new undertaking, ask yourself, *"What am I going to stop doing so that I have enough time to work on this new task?"* Go through your life regularly and practice "creative abandonment": Consciously determine the activities that you are going to discontinue so that you have more time to spend on those tasks that can really make a difference to your future.

STRESS AND STRESS MANAGEMENT

We live in a dynamic world whose environment has, and will continually pose demands (central to our survival) on us. Meeting these demands require some form of behavioural readjustments or reaction from us i.e. psychological and emotional responses. The body's natural way of responding to these demands of our ever changing world is referred to as stress.

Stress is an unwanted characteristics of life (Adeyemo & Ogunyemi, 2005) as well as an evolutionary necessity for our survival (Ballesteros & Whitlock, 2009) which has been implicated by numerous researches in the etiology of most health and behavioural problems either as a risk or precipitating factor, and perhaps the most pernicious among all the factors contributing to poor health and early death (Marcola, 2016). It is also thought to influence a wide range of physiological processes and disease state, with existing evidence supporting it as a risk factor in depression, cardiovascular disease, HIV/AIDS, delayed wound healing, upper respiratory infection, autoimmune disease and total mortality (Cohen & Janicki-Devert, 2012). It can make one more likely to catch less serious illness like cold as well as a contributor to obesity, alcoholism, drug addiction, cigarette use and other harmful behaviours

This is not to state that stress is bad in all its ramifications as some are, and will continue to be helpful in our modern life since it motivates us to accomplish tasks or make changes, improve performance, reach goals and allowing us to learn and grow. Therefore, since stress is an inevitable element of our lives, learning about stress and how it can be effectively managed is paramount if we must live happy and healthy.

15.1 DEFINITION OF STRESS

The term 'stress' is a highly subjective phenomenon that is very difficult to define as it has been used by people to describe a wide range of things. It refers to the experience of being subjected to physical, mental or emotional strain in response to real or imagined stimuli (Lehloo, 2008). It could also be understood as a state of tension experienced by individuals facing extraordinary demands, constraints or opportunities. Such state of tension or strain experienced could be physiological or psychological.

Physiological stress is experienced when there is a disturbance in the body's state of equilibrium thereby resulting in physiological responses. Stress can therefore be regarded as a physiological response to events and situations that causes an upset in the homeostasis of the body.

Psychological stress experience is directly affected by the way one evaluates events and situations, as a result everyone does not experience the same event as stressful, as what may be stressful to one may not be to another and vice versa. According to Sarafino (2012), stress arises when individuals perceive a discrepancy between the physical or psychological demands of a situation and the resources of his or her biological, psychological or social system. It also occurs when an individual perceives that environmental demands tax or exceed his or her adaptive capacity.

While there is no universally acceptable definition for stress, modern definitions of stress all recognize that it is a personal experience caused by pressure or demands on an individual, and impact upon the individual's ability to cope or rather, his or her perception of that ability.

15.2 SOURCES OF STRESS (STRESSORS)

A stressor is any event, situation, experience or environmental stimulus that is perceived as a threat or a challenge that cause stress to an individual. In other word, a stressor is the source or cause of stress. Stress originates from many sources which can be either external or internal; they could be environmental, social, psychological, or even from significant life events. Understanding these sources can help in coping adequately, reducing and even relieving stress from our lives.

External Sources of Stress

These are sources outside us and they include the following:

- Physical environment
- Job
- Pollution
- Noise
- Micro organism (bacteria, viruses, fungi etc.)
- Toxins
- Poor working conditions e.g. poor air circulation and lack of privacy
- Home
- Injury etc.

Internal Sources of Stress

These are sources inside us. They include the following:

- Fear e.g. fears of flying, public speaking etc.
- Attitude
- Feeling of anger
- Worrying about future events e.g. waiting for medical test result, examination result or job restructuring
- Imagination
- Anticipation
- Memory
- Thoughts
- Nutritional status

- Overall health and fitness level
- Presence of illness or infection
- Unrealistic or perfectionist expectation
- Habitual behaviors such as:
 - Over scheduling
 - Failing to be assertive/unassertive
 - Failing to plan ahead
 - Failing to set and maintain healthy boundaries
 - Procrastination etc.

Stressor could also be categorized into the following:

1. **Environmental Stressor:** This refers to the aspects of our environment and surrounding that cause us stress. Examples of environmental stressor include weather, noise, overcrowding, pollution, traffic, unsafe and substandard housing etc.
2. **Social Stressors:** This relates to the social roles we occupy. Meeting the demands of the social roles we occupy could cause us a great deal of stress. The stress they cause usually results from interacting, socializing and communicating with other human beings. Some examples of social roles that cause stress are being an employee, spouse, parent, caregiver, teacher etc. Social stress also include financial problems, disagreements, demands for our time and attention, lost of love one, co-parenting, divorce, job interviews, presentations etc.
3. **Physiological Stressor:** Situations and circumstances affecting our body as well as the body's normal processes can be a source of stress. Example include body change during puberty, rapid growth of adolescent, ageing, giving birth, illness, menopause, poor nutrition, accident, sleep disturbance etc.
4. **Psychological Stressor:** The mental and emotional characteristics of an individual can be a source of stress. Such characteristics include our mindset, how we think and rationalize as well as how we interprets and perceive situations. Some life events and

situations are stress provoking, but it is our thought that determines whether they will be a problem.

- 5. Significant Event Stressor:** These sources of stress revolve around significant events and critical incidents in our life. Some significant event leads to positive stress e.g. school graduation, wedding, having a child, winning a sporting event among others. There are also significant events that cause negative stress; they are often referred to as critical life incidents e.g. serious accidents, physical or sexual assault etc.

It is important to note that stressor is inherently neutral. Meaning that a single stressor can cause either positive or negative stress depending on one's interpretation/perception of the stressor as a threat and the judgement of his or her ability to cope with it.

15.3 TYPES OF STRESS

Stress can be categorized from different perspectives. From psychological perspective there is good stress and bad stress. The term 'stress' has often been used to describe negative situation, and has made many people to believe that all stress is bad. This is not true as there are some stresses that are very good.

1. Good Stress-Eustress

Good stress also known as eustress or positive stress is a positive cognitive response that an individual possess towards a stressor. It is the type of stress that instead of being harmful and detrimental to the individual, it becomes beneficial by helping the individual to improve his or her life. Eustress is fun, exciting and energizing in that it motivates one to complete a given task or achieve a set goal. Some benefits of eustress include increase creativity, increase productivity, improve self-esteem, and health benefit like stimulation of immune system for optimum operation, boosting of adrenaline and epinephrine secretion which can help with everything from improved agility, moving faster, thinking clearly, and improved brain function among others. It can also lead to feeling of satisfaction, fulfilment, accomplishment, wellbeing and wholeness.

According to Hansen (2015), eustress occurs during moments in an individual's life when a degree of motivation is required to overcome potentially difficult obstacles. He further explained that the body gains huge benefits from regular instances of good stress as the individual feels a brief period of elevated worry which is then quickly transformed into relaxation once the given task is completed. However, it is important to note that positive stress depletes the body's reserves just as much as negative stress does, and overexposing oneself to positive stressor without effectively managing the stress can transform positive stress into negative stress thereby inducing exhaustion.

Important factors that help in experiencing a stressful situation positively are:

- A believe system and mindset of hope, expectation and a positive attitude to life.
- Believe in oneself and self - ability to tackle the stressor.
- A perception that one has power and control over the stressful situation.
- Expectation of the best of oneself.
- Expectation of reward.

Characteristics of Good Stress

- It motivates and focuses energy.
- It is short-term.
- It is perceived to be within one's coping ability.
- It feels exciting and fun.
- It improves performance.

Examples of Good Stress

- Engaging in a challenge.
- Engaging in sports.
- A desired physical activity such as weight training.
- Receiving a promotion.
- Meeting a work deadline.

- Managing the daily, repeating stress of a job.
- Preparing for an examination.
- Taking education courses or leaning a new hobby.
- Watching a suspenseful or scary movie.
- The excitement of falling in love.
- Gambling.
- Labor and delivery.
- Planning for wedding.
- Planning for a vacation etc.

2. Bad Stress-Distress

Bad stress also known as distress or negative stress is the direct opposite of good stress. It is the type of stress that is harmful and detrimental to us. Distress could also be seen as a maladaptive response to stressful situations, in other word, it results from ones inability to cope with the demands placed on him/her by stressor. Distress leads to poor decision-making and some of it manifestation includes anxiety, sorrow, pain and even the symptoms of mental illness. It could also lead to manifestation of physiological or behavioral symptoms. Physiological symptoms may include increase in blood pressure, rapid breathing, and generalized tension among others, while behavioral symptoms may include aggression, overreaction, drinking, smoking as well as other negative coping mechanisms. Other symptoms may also include soliloquy, hallucination, delusions, recklessness, decrease pleasure in sexual activities, obsessive thought or compulsions, belief that others can hear one's thought or that one's thought is not his own, anger management problems etc.

Characteristics of Bad Stress

Distress is known to have the following Characteristics

- It causes anxiety or concern.
- It can be short or long term.
- Feels unpleasant.
- Decrease performance.

- It is perceived to be beyond one's coping ability.
- Can lead to mental or physical problems.

Examples of Bad Stress

- The death of a partner or family member.
- Hospitalization. (One's self or family member).
- Injury or illness. (One's self or family member).
- Unemployment.
- Excessive job demands.
- Job insecurity.
- Conflict in interpersonal relationship.
- Conflict with team mate or supervisor.
- Unproductive and time consuming meeting.
- Child's problem at school.
- Money problems.
- Legal problems.
- Sleep problems.
- Being abused or neglected.
- Separation from a spouse or a committed relationship partner.
- Being a victim of bully etc.

Stress can also be categorized from the perspective of its time span i.e. how they come and how long they last, if it comes suddenly or if it has lingered since the body responds to stressors differently depending on whether the stressor is new or short-termed or whether it has remained for a long time. The categories are:

- Acute stress.
- Episodic acute stress.
- Chronic stress.
- Post-traumatic stress (PTS)

3. Acute Stress

This is the most common form of stress. It manifests from recent events or from the expectation of future events. Acute

stress may feel exciting and exhilarating but too much of it do more bad than good. It is short termed and as such does not have the time to do any damage like long termed stress will do. It is highly treatable and manageable. Symptoms of acute stress may include anger, anxiety, irritation, depression, headache, muscle tension, stomach ache, constipation, increase in blood pressure, rapid heartbeat, chest pain, back pain etc.

4. Episodic Acute Stress

This is the type that affects people that suffers frequent incidents of acute stress. The lives of people who are victims of this type of stress are so disordered and filled with chaos and crisis, at such are perpetually in the grips of acute stress. Such people are always too busy, taking too much on themselves and not being able to organize themselves. As far as they are concern, they see nothing wrong with the way they conduct their life, blaming their woes on others and external events. Symptoms of episodic acute stress may include headache, migraine, chest pain, hypertension, heart disease among others. Episodic acute stress can be addressed with certain lifestyle changes; however professional help may be employed before it escalates to any chronic problems.

5. Chronic Stress

This is the type of stress that arises from long lasting events and circumstances that are beyond one's control. It is long termed, debilitating and can be seen in people suffering from adverse situations such as disdained career, endless poverty, unhappy marriage, dysfunctional family etc. with no way out. In other word, it is the wearing stress that people feel when they don't see a way of escape out of the problem and demands that continually make their life miserable. Some chronic stress stems from traumatic and/or childhood experiences that becomes internalized and remain forever painful and present. This class of stress can kill through suicide, violence, heart attack, stroke and perhaps cancer (America Psychological Association). Chronic stress is difficult to treat, however professional and medical assistance such as counseling and targeted behavioural therapy can help.

6. Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

This type of stress is associated with frightening and distressing events such as traumatic experience from one's childhood, war, poverty, sexual abuse etc. Sufferers of this stress can have strong feeling of guilt, emotional numbness, constant worry, depression and can even retrieve traumatic event through nightmares and flashbacks (Dr. Kelly & Associates, 2014).

15.4 STRESS MANAGEMENT AND COPING

Stress management is a predetermined action taking process aimed at controlling a person's level of stress. It involves taking charge of one's thought, emotions and lifestyle as a whole including the way one deals with his or her personal problems for the purpose of improving functionality. Stress management encompasses the use of a wide variety of techniques and psychotherapies that adequately equip one to cope effectively with stress.

Coping according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) is defined as a constantly changing Cognitive and behavioural effort to manage specific external and internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resource of the person. It is also defined by Campas *et al* (as cited by skinner et al, 2007) as a conscious and volitional effort to regulate emotions, cognition, behavior, physiology, and the environment in response to stressful events or circumstances. In other word, coping as a process seeks to help one master, minimize or tolerate stress, whereas stress management enhances coping.

People choose different coping strategies or mechanisms to deal with stress; some are positive or adaptive while some others are negative or maladaptive and thus ineffective. Their choices often times are influenced to a great extent by their personality, gender, social environment and even the nature of the stressor that is involved. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) grouped coping into two types which are problem focused coping and emotional focused coping.

1. Problem Focused Coping

This kind of coping also referred to as active coping is one that is aimed at resolving the stressful situation or event. It involves modifying or eliminating the fundamental source of the stress. Problem focused coping helps individuals in taking control of the stress, seeks relevant information or needed assistance in tackling the situation or removing oneself from the stressful situation. Problem focused coping is the best in coping with stress in that it provides a long-term solution by dealing with the root cause of the stress. However, it is not possible to use problem focused coping in all situations e.g. for the death of a loved one, using problem focused coping will be ineffective for the bereaved. At such, emotional focused coping becomes the most appropriate and effective. This therefore implies that the effectiveness of problem focused coping depends on the changeability of the stressor: whether or not the stressor can be changed.

2. Emoticon Focused Coping

This kind which is a passive form of coping is directed towards managing the negative distressing emotions caused by stressful situations or events i.e. one alters his or her emotions in order to tolerate or eliminate the stress. The strategies of emotion focused coping when employed helps one to feel better but does not proffer a solution to the source of the distress thereby providing a short term relieve. The use of emoticon focused coping is best and most effective when it involves a problematic situation that are out of one's control (e.g. terminal illness and sudden death) since problem focused coping will not do any good. Some examples of emotion focused coping strategies include listening to music, meditation, journaling, distraction, avoidance, cognitive reappraisal, alcohol and drug use, seeking social support, taking a hot bath etc.

15.5 STRESS MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

Stress management techniques when practiced on a regular basics help to bring about relaxation response in the body. Relaxation response is a physical state of deep rest as described by Benson (1975) that changes the physical and

emotional response to stress, which also is an opposite of the fight or flight response. Stress management techniques are not only beneficial to people who are already experiencing the symptoms of stress but also to stress free people who employ them as proactive measures to combat stress. Common among these techniques are explained below:

1. Exercise

Physical activity is one major stress management technique which has been found to contribute to effective coping (Kim & Mckenzie, 2014). Our encounter with stressful situations often times increase the body's level of stress hormones such as adrenaline and cortisol, these hormones are metabolized during physical activity thereby restoring the body and mind to a calmer and relaxed state. Exercise warms and relaxes cold tight muscles and tissues which contribute to stress feelings. It develops and maintains a healthy body which directly reduces stress and susceptibility as well as increasing blood flow to the brain, stimulating nervous system, releasing hormones and chemicals such as beta-endorphins which has a positive effect on how we feel, and improving quality of sleep. It also releases tense muscles and tight connective tissues which are often responsible for stress feelings and symptoms. Exercise also plays a distracting function drawing one's attention from the stressor especially when it involves a competitive activity as it makes one to push himself further than he will normally do. Examples of exercises include brisk walking, jogging, swimming, rowing, biking, dancing, etc. Since any exercise can increase fitness and reduce stress, it is important to choose an activity that one enjoy rather than dread.

2. Progressive Muscle Relaxation (PMR)

This is another technique for stress management and reduction of overall body tension. It involves alternatively tensing and relaxing specific muscle group in a sequential and systematic pattern to combat stress. Such muscle group could include those of the arms, legs, chest, abdomen, neck, back etc. When using this technique, one should be extremely cautious so as not to cause harm to self while tensing muscles.

Also one should endeavour to seek for professional counsel from physicians before engaging this technique when a medical condition such as muscle or bone problem exist which can hinder physical activity. The mental component of PMR requires that one focus on the distinction between the feeling of the tension and the relaxation. With regular practice, PMR helps one to recognize what tension as well as complete relaxation feels like in different part of the body and as a result, one is able to spot and counteract the first signs of muscle tension that accompanies stress.

3. Diaphragmatic Breathing

Diaphragmatic breathing also known as deep breathing, abdominal breathing, belly breathing, or paced respiration is another technique that involves the manipulation of breathing movement by contracting the diaphragm to induce relaxation. According to the University of Texas Counseling and Mental Health Center, "Diaphragmatic breathing allows one to take normal breaths while maximizing the amount of oxygen that goes into the bloodstream. It is a way of interrupting the 'Fight or Flight' response and triggering the body's normal relaxation response." Diaphragmatic breathing also stimulates the parasympathetic nervous system which induce a state of calmness thereby releasing tension from the body improving both physical and mental wellness. Stress often times comes along with a change in breathing pattern, for instance anxiety is characterized by small and shallow breath using the shoulder to inhale and exhale instead of the diaphragm hereby creating an imbalance in the gases (oxygen and carbon dioxide) in the body. This kind of small shallow breath can lengthen the feeling of anxiety as well as aggravating the physical symptoms of stress. It is important to note that other than curbing stress, diaphragmatic breathing also help in the improvement of pulmonary function, cardiorespiratory fitness, posture, respiratory muscle length, and respiratory muscle strength.

4. Visualization/Guided Imagery

Visualization is a stress management technique which can be thought of as mental vacation which comprises of the arousal

of perceptual experiences across the sensory modalities i.e. the use of one's innate power of imagination such as the imagination of smell, hearing, touch, taste and movement to induce a state of relaxation in the body in the same manner that one's thoughts which causes anger and anxiety can induce tension and stress in the body. Such imaginations could involve picturing oneself in a tranquil, serene and relaxing setting or place with all its details that is particularly appealing and soothing to one. It could be a real setting that one has actually visited in the past or a total product of one's imagination. Examples of such setting could be beach, park, forest, tourist centre etc.

5. Meditation

Meditation is another potent stress management technique that can induce a deep state of relaxation and tranquil mind. It helps to quiet the mind, master or even eliminate completely the negative thought patterns which are often the fundamental cause of stress. It can also enhance one's resilience level as well as make one less reactive to stress. This results in an enhanced physical and emotional wellbeing and an overall improvement of health.

6. Social Support

Social support is another potent antidote to stress. It is simply referred to as the functions performed to an individual by significant other to help cope with adversity. Such significant others include family members, friends, church and even coworkers

CONCLUSION

For us to enjoy life to its fullness in health and vitality, we must take total responsibility in identifying the various sources of stress in our individual lives and choose for ourselves as we deem worthy the best strategy or technique that will enable us cope and manage effectively the stress of our lives.

SUCCESS AND PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

There are many different tactics for how to be successful in life, but the strategy that works best for you may depend on your view of success itself. We often think of it as doing well at work or earning a high salary.

While professional accomplishments can be one piece of the puzzle, it leaves out many other important areas of life. Family, romantic relationships, academics, and athletics are just a few areas where people may strive for success. Your individual definition of what success is may vary, but many might define it as being fulfilled, happy, safe, healthy, and loved.

Success can define as the ability to reach your goals in life, whatever those goals may be. So what can you do to boost your chances of achieving these things? What are some of the habits of successful people?

There is no single right way to be successful. What works for you might not work for someone else. There may not be a perfect combination of ingredients that can guarantee success, but there are some basic steps you can follow that can improve your chances of being successful in life, love, work, or whatever happens to be important to you.

16.1 STEPS FOR ACHIEVING SUCCESS IN LIFE

1. Build a Growth Mindset

Research by psychologist Carol Dweck suggests that there are two basic mindsets that influence how people think about themselves and their abilities: the fixed mindset and the growth mindset.

People who possess a fixed mindset believe that things such as intelligence are static and unchangeable. Those with a fixed mindset believe that success isn't a result of hard work—it's simply a consequence of innate talents. Because they believe that such talents are something people are either born with or without, they tend to give up more easily in the face of a challenge. They quit when things do not come easily because they believe that they lack the inborn skill needed to excel.

Those who have a growth mindset, on the other hand, feel that they can change, grow, and learn through effort. People who believe that they are capable of growth are more likely to achieve success. When things get tough, they look for ways to improve their skills and keep working toward success.

What can you do to build a growth mindset?

- **Believe that your efforts matter:** Rather than thinking their abilities are fixed or stuck, people who have a growth mindset believe that effort and hard work can lead to meaningful growth.
- **Learn new skills:** When faced with a challenge, they look for ways to develop the knowledge and skills that they need to overcome and triumph.
- **View failures as learning experiences:** People with growth mindsets don't believe that failure is a reflection of their abilities. Instead, they view it as a valuable source of experience from which they can learn and improve. "That didn't work," they might think, "so this time I'll try something a little different."

2. Improve Your Emotional Intelligence

Overall intelligence has long been believed to be one factor

contributing to success in different areas of life, but some experts suggest that emotional intelligence may actually matter even more. Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to understand, utilize, and reason with emotions. Emotionally intelligent people are able to understand not only their own emotions, but those of others as well.

To improve your emotional intelligence:

- **Pay attention to your own emotions:** Focus on identifying what you are feeling and what is causing those feelings.
- **Manage your emotions:** Step back and try to view things with an impartial eye. Avoid bottling up or repressing your feelings, but look for healthy and appropriate ways of dealing with what you are feeling.
- **Listen to others:** This not only involves hearing what they are saying, but also paying attention to nonverbal signals and body language.

3. Develop Mental Toughness

Mental toughness refers to the resilience to carry on and continue trying even in the face of obstacles. People who possess this mental strength see challenges as opportunities. They also feel that they have control over their own destiny, are confident in their abilities to succeed, and are committed to finishing what they start.

What can you do to improve your mental toughness and increase your chances of being successful in life?

- **Believe in yourself:** Cut out negative self-talk and look for ways to stay positive and self-encouraging.
- **Keep trying:** Even when things seem impossible or setbacks keep holding you back, focus on ways that you can develop your skills and keep soldiering forward. One of the key habits of successful people is to always look at setbacks or failures as learning opportunities.
- **Set goals:** Mentally tough people know that in order to achieve, they need to start by having attainable goals. These goals are not necessarily easy to reach,

but by having something to aim for, you will be better able to move forward and overcome obstacles.

- **Find support:** Doing things alone can be difficult, but having a strong support system can make things easier. Mentors, friends, co-workers, and family members can cheer you on when things get tough, and even offer advice and assistance that can help you improve your chances for success.

4. Strengthen Your Willpower

In a long-running longitudinal study, psychologists followed a group of children who were identified by their teachers as highly intelligent. As they compared how these subjects fared throughout childhood and into adulthood, researchers found that those who ultimately were the most successful in life shared some key characteristics, including perseverance and willpower.

These characteristics tend to be part of an individual's overall personality, but they are also something you can improve. Delayed gratification, learning to persist in the face of challenges, and waiting for the rewards of your hard work can often be the key to success in life.

Strategies you can use to improve your willpower include:

- **Distraction:** For example, if you are trying to lose weight but are having a difficult time staying away from your favorite snacks, distracting yourself during your moments of weakness can be an effective way to avoid giving in to temptation.
- **Practice:** Willpower is something you can build, but it takes time and effort. Start by making small goals that require will power to achieve, such as avoiding sugary snacks. As you build your ability to use your will power to achieve such small goals, you may find that your willpower is also stronger when working on much larger goals.

5. Focus on Intrinsic Motivations

What is it that motivates you the most? Do you find that the promise of external rewards keeps you reaching for your

goals, or is it the more personal, intrinsic motivators that keep you feeling inspired? While extrinsic rewards such as money, awards, and praise can be helpful, many people find that they are most motivated when they are doing things for personal satisfaction.

If you are doing things because you enjoy them, because you find them meaningful, or because you enjoy seeing the effects of your work, then you are driven by intrinsic motivations. Research has shown that while incentives can be a better predictor of some types of performance, intrinsic motivators tend to be better at predicting performance quality.

What can you do to boost your sense of intrinsic motivation?

- **Challenge yourself:** Pursuing a goal that is achievable, but not necessarily easy, is a great way to increase motivation to succeed. Challenges can keep you interested in a task, improve your self-esteem, and offer feedback on areas you can improve on. Choosing a task that is slightly challenging will help motivates you to get started—it feels exciting!
- **Stay curious:** Look for things that grab your attention and that you would like to learn more about.
- **Take control:** It can be difficult to stay intrinsically motivated to pursue a goal if you don't feel that you have any real influence over the outcome. Look for ways that you can take an active role.
- **Don't fear competition:** There might be other people out there trying to reach the same goals as you, but this doesn't mean that you should give up. Don't compare your progress or journey to anyone else's. You can look to others for motivation and inspiration, but remember that we all have different paths.

6. Nurture Traits Linked to High Potential

Psychologists have long attempted to link specific traits or personality characteristics to success in life and work. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is one widely used assessment that is often utilized by businesses to screen job

candidates. However, research often fails to show that the MBTI actually correlates to performance.

According to some more recent research, there are certain traits that tend to be consistently tied to success.

Researchers Ian MacRae and Adrian Furnham have identified six key traits that can play a role in how well people do at work. However, they noted that there are optimal levels of these traits. Too little of these characteristics can hinder success, but so can having too much.

If you are trying to learn how to be successful in life, consider what you can do to nurture these key traits:

Conscientiousness

Conscientious people consider the effects of their actions. They also consider how other people will react and feel. You can nurture this trait by:

- Thinking about the consequences of actions
- Considering other people's perspectives

Accepting of Ambiguity

Life is full of situations that are not always clear. People with a great deal of potential for success are better able to accept this ambiguity. Rather than being rigid and inflexible, they are ready to adapt when the unexpected comes their way. You can learn to embrace ambiguity by:

- Challenging your perspectives and considering opinions and ideas other than your own
- Not fearing the unfamiliar
- Being willing to change
- Valuing diversity

Capable of Adjustment

In addition to being able to accept ambiguity, success often hinges on the ability to quickly adjust to change. You can nurture this ability to adjust by:

- Reframing difficult situations, to see them as opportunities to learn and grow rather than simply obstacles to live through

- Being open to change; when plans or situations change, step back and look at ways to cope

Courageous

The world's most successful people often exemplify great courage. They are willing to take risks, even in the face of potential failure. Research suggests that courageous people utilize positive emotions to overcome fear. You can improve your tolerance of risk by:

- Quelling negative emotions and focusing on more positive feelings
- Balancing risk with common sense; being cautious and pragmatic can also pay off, depending upon the situation

Curiosity

People who are successful tend to be curious about the world around them. They are always eager to learn more, including new knowledge and skills. You can cultivate your sense of curiosity by:

- Relating tasks to your interests: If you find filing boring, for example, look for a more efficient way to categorize the information to play to your strengths as an organizer.
- Learning new things

Competitiveness

Successful people are able to utilize competition to motivate, but avoid falling prey to jealousy. You can nurture a healthy sense of competition by:

- Focusing on your own improvements; rather than worry about being the best at something, pay attention to your progress
- Being happy when others succeed

Some personality traits and types may be better suited for certain jobs than others. However, no specific personality trait can guarantee success, nor can being low in that trait doom someone to failure.

16.2 UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

Personal Development is the process of improving oneself through conscious habits and activities. It is the pursuit of personal growth to enhance the quality of life and to achieve one's dreams and aspirations.

After studying just about everything that has been written or said about personal development and success, I have come to the conclusion that the root of both is your level of self-confidence.

Self-confidence is the critical factor in everything you accomplish because, with the appropriate amount, you will try almost anything.

Many people underachieve in their careers because they do not realize the areas of personal development that can help achieve mastery in any field.

16.2.1 Personal Development Categories

There are 7 main categories of personal development that most people focus on:

1. Personal Skills

Are you trying to grow your skills in the workplace? The highest paid, top individuals in their field are the ones that focus on growing their personal skills. These skills can be ones you were born with as well as skills gained through deliberate practice.

Knowing what areas you excel in and which need development are very useful in your personal and professional life.

2. Personal Growth

Personal growth is bettering yourself, stepping out of your comfort zone, focusing on becoming a better version of yourself. Humans and the human mind are constantly evolving and never stop. Your job is to always be a better version of yourself than you were yesterday.

3. Personal Power

Personal power is supported by your contacts and money. Developing an ever-widening circle of contacts increases the number of open doors for you.

Having people with like-minded goals and are willing to help you can directly affect how successful you are. Money in the bank provides freedom and the ability to take full advantage of certain opportunities when they present themselves.

4. Personal Improvement

Personal improvement stems from good work habits and having a positive mental attitude. Thinking before you act is critical to developing good work habits.

Set priorities on a list and consider the likely consequences before beginning. Maintaining a positive mental attitude will reduce the amount of time that it takes you to achieve your goal.

5. Personal Empowerment

Promoting a positive image and creativity within your daily life can speed up the time it takes to achieve your goals and increase your personal empowerment.

Creativity thinking means continually looking for faster, better, easier, and cheaper ways to get the job done.

6. Personal Analysis

It is very important to be conscious of areas in which you are naturally gifted as well analyze areas in which you need improvement.

Being truthful about where you currently stand is the first step to moving forward. You should be constantly evaluating where you stand in relation to achieving your goals and ambitions.

7. Personal Objectives

Ambition goes to waste when there are no clear goals in sight. Developing short term and long term goals are a pivotal step.

Having a set plan will help you to have a clear

understanding of which strategies are necessary in order to reach your desired destination.

16.2.2 Personal Development Plan

A personal development plan (or PDP) is not just a mandatory something that managers makes you do before a yearly appraisal; they're also that firm rock that helps your dreams and desires stay in sight.

A good plan provides focus; it helps you map out a path towards your version of success; it allows you to make better decisions, and it prevents you from taking backwards steps. A good plan also allows you to strategize and get back on track when things do go wrong.

16.2.3 Writing a Personal Development Plan

There are seven steps to writing a PDP:

1. Set Yourself Goals

As a twenty-something, you're in one of the scariest phases of life. Everything feels chaotic, and there are many frustrations. Figuring out what you want is not only the first step in planning, it's also the hardest. Once you have figured out what you want to do, that dream acts an emotional anchor; it provides stability and structure in a time of chaos.

By the way, your life goals should be difficult; they should feel enormous, and scary, and totally overwhelming. You're going to break them down into tiny baby steps, and that will make them feel manageable and achievable, and you will achieve them.

But, before you do that, your goals SHOULD overwhelm you. This is because you're thinking and planning for your future. And, it's normal and natural to feel scared; it's your life you're planning, and that's a serious matter indeed.

2. Prioritizing Your Goals

Next, you need to consider all the little steps that will help you achieve your big goals. And you will need to prioritize these short-term goals. Remember that you can't do everything at once and trying to will lead to failure.

In your PDP, set yourself mini goals to make the big ones happen. For example, say you want a career in academia as a senior lecturer and someday a professor. First, you're going to need a PhD to make that happen. So there's a big goal, now break it down into steps like this:

1. Learn about the PhD application process.
2. Find a suitable university and supervisor for a PhD.
3. Look at routes for funding.
4. Find studentships to apply for/or apply to your university of choice.
5. Write and submit your PhD application.

3. Set Yourself Deadlines

Knowing when you want to achieve a goal is crucial and picturing your future is an important source of motivation and inspiration.

Day-dreaming is a vital motivation mechanism, and you should harness it to set a deadline on your goals. When you picture yourself buying your first home, how old are you? When you walk up on that graduation stage and get your doctorate, when will that be?

But dreams cannot be the only way to set deadlines; you need to make your dreams realistic. Otherwise, you could become discouraged. Find out the likelihood of you achieving your dreams by speaking to other people about their experiences and researching the process so you get a realistic idea of what to expect.

Realism factors are vital because they prevent you from becoming discouraged when you do hit pitfalls, they also help you learn more about the things you want to achieve, and can help you predict future problems and plan how to avoid them.

4. Recognize threats and opportunities

There are going to be certain things – they could be external things or an element of yourself – that, if you let them, will prevent you from achieving your goals or delay you on your way. These are your threats.

For example, a lack of motivation could be detrimental to applying for that PhD. But once you have identified your tendency to procrastinate or lose focus, you can put in place methods that will keep you motivated on your dreams.

There are also going to be things that you could do, and connections you could take advantage of that will help you on your way. These are things you should commit to doing; these are your opportunities.

For example, if there's a conference coming up. Take advantage of that situation. Go along and network, stay up to date on the latest knowledge, even present a paper.

5. Develop yourself

Once you have an idea of what could hinder you and what could help you, this is when you can capitalize on those opportunities you recognized. Make an action plan about how you will make that progress.

So take that course, cut down on unnecessary spending or figure out a way to make sure you stay motivated. Whatever it is that hinders you, there's a way to stop it, and your plan is the first step.

6. Use your support network

The next thing you need to realize is that: *You don't have to do everything by yourself.* And you shouldn't. The support network around you is a valuable asset, so use it and don't underestimate it.

In your PDP, list the people who can help you. This could be a financial advisor, a friend, a colleague. People are often so happy to help you, more than you might realize.

7. Measure progress

Whether it's big or small, after you have achieved some progress take time to reflect on how far you have come. Recognizing what has gone well is a way to bolster your motivation and remain dedicated. And after a setback, this is another time to take stock.

Wallowing – briefly – is a good way to feel what you need to without holding on to it. Holding onto sadness, anger or

frustration, however, will only deter you. These emotions will take you nowhere and will only hinder you.

You should also spend a little time figuring out why it went wrong. Can you identify a skills or knowledge gap? If you can, then you can get yourself back on track by focusing on your next little step; this will reignite your sense of purpose and help you regain control which is integral to making progress.

16.3 STEPS TO SUCCEED AS A NEW MANAGER

Stepping into management can be an overwhelming transition. Forget all your past accomplishments that got you to where you are today. As a new manager, you're starting from scratch, and the learning curve can be steep. You'll deal with individuals who have different personalities and ambitions and are even from different generations. You'll also encounter those who are more experienced, entrenched, and talented than you. Plus, all those jobs that you may have taken for granted or just knew you could do better—hiring, training, coaching, evaluating, disciplining, firing, planning, budgeting, etc.—are now your responsibility. It can be overwhelming.

So as we approach the end of the year and enter that period of tips and resolutions, here is a list of tips to get you off to a successful start as a new manager. Remember, your initial steps set the tone for your leadership.

- **Learn the Business of Your Department:** It could be very tempting to overhaul every process and way of doing things that your predecessor had in place and start fresh, but moving too quickly can backfire (especially with staff; change is difficult even if it's good change). Spend your first 60 days (at least) observing, listening, and learning rather than talking and changing things. Learn what's critical and what "clutter." is Start by learning what your people do, including the constituencies, responsibilities, systems, and schedules that drive their day. Don't hide in your office; jump into the trenches, roll up your sleeves, and get your hands dirty. Show you can step in and do their job if need be. Figure out how to grab some early victories to prove you can get things done. In other

words, establish your credibility. Without it, you're tagged as a "do nothing, know nothing" boss—the one staff members know will confuse everything. They'll do their best to stay away from you.

- **Seize the Moment:** As the newest person on the team (and its leader), you have the staff's attention, so capitalize on it. Set ground rules and expectations early. Outline your short-term and long-term vision for the department. Identify what's mission-critical, and explain why and how everyone's roles contribute to the end result. Set goals, but keep them relatively short, unambiguous, and achievable. Establish timelines and benchmarks to measure progress. Help members of the team understand that they're working toward something larger than their own job and help them see how the organization, campus, and even their careers benefit from their work.
- **Have a Department Plan:** After meeting with stakeholders, draft three- and six-month plans. Set targets, including starting and ending points (and the steps in between). Hold yourself accountable by evaluating progress regularly and making adjustments as necessary. At a minimum, your job is to get your team members on the same page and up to the same level. Be sure to foster an environment where they can excel. Without a plan and a commitment to carrying it out, the team will inevitably lose sight of the mission as well as their own potential and value to the organization.
- **Meet with Your Team Often:** Everyone is anxious about having a new boss, so early on give your staff plenty of time (including one-on-one time). Learn about their history and aspirations. Watch them in action to see who will help or, inevitably, disappoint. Don't overlook getting buy-in from your top performers and respected veterans. You will definitely need their support so that others will follow.
- **Provide Ongoing Communication:** Your team's perception of you can be either your biggest asset or

your biggest drawback. Start off on the right foot by reaching out. Set aside time for each person in order to provide guidance and support. Keep all team members current on organizational developments, and share what you're doing to help them. Be transparent and seek feedback on what's important to them. You're now responsible for others, and they need to know you're watching out for their interests.

- **Be Consistent:** Being the boss doesn't automatically mean respect. It ebbs and flows for many managers unless they possess a critical quality: consistency. As higher education IT becomes ever more complex and uncertain, your staff should never guess how you would react in any given situation. Instead, they should view you as a person who will provide a fair hearing and give honest feedback. Otherwise, they'll end up telling you what you want to hear rather than what you need to hear. Know that silence is a far greater threat to any organization than is candor. Understanding and embracing that concept will differentiate you from other managers and leaders.
- **Keep Emotion Out of Situations:** There's a price to pay for leadership: you always have to be the "bigger person," which means you cannot take things personally, publicize your views, or get too close with your team. At times you'll have to have really tough meetings about responsibilities and performance, among other issues, and you must remain calm and levelheaded despite how you may feel inside. Find an outlet outside of work to keep you balanced and grounded.
- **Develop Each Person on the Team:** How can you take your staff to the next level? Like most things, doing so requires planning, attention, and commitment. Start with recognizing each person's strengths, goals, and areas for improvement. From there, establish individual plans (no different from your department plan). Seek out opportunities where they can learn and contribute (and even move out of their comfort zones).

Check in regularly on their performance, and always remember that there should never be any surprises when it comes time for performance evaluation. Regular contact and feedback will ensure that no one feels hijacked by the annual review. Be cognizant that most staff won't stay in their jobs forever. Learn what they really want to do, and provide motivation by helping them get there.

- **Take a Genuine Interest in the Team:** No one aspires to be a lousy manager. It's often the accumulation of little things—careless comments or hypocritical acts—that erodes camaraderie and trust. Small things like a kind word or gesture set good managers apart. How can you strengthen your relationships? Start by learning what makes others tick. Are they looking for recognition, influence, or meaning? What are their interests? Most importantly, accept them for who they are. Not everyone is a superstar, but steady performers bring equal value over the long term.
- **Treat Staff like the Professionals They Are:** You're managing highly driven, talented, and accomplished professionals. Chances are some think they could (or should) have your job, so be flexible. That means asking questions and examining all sides of issues instead of making snap judgments. Respect their time. Always be prepared, relevant, and succinct in your interactions and meetings with them. Don't micromanage unless they're not meeting expectations. Keep an open mind. Don't be afraid to accept input (or even criticism). You will win your staff's respect and loyalty if you do.
- **Be a Good Role Model:** The staff will adopt your attitudes and anxieties, consciously or not. Always be cognizant of the image you project. Show confidence and stay composed even under stressful circumstances. Always own up to your mistakes (and do so quickly), so that your team will know you're an authentic leader. Follow your own rules, and let your

staff see that no job is beneath you. Stay approachable and positive at all times. Your team will watch what you do more than they will listen to what you say. Make sure your own conduct and attitude don't hamper your team when it comes to securing resources for the department.

- **Energize:** You're the leader: set the tone and others will follow. Recognize others publicly, praise regularly, and always highlight the positive. Ensure that the team is exposed to best practices (e.g., host speakers or share videos and articles). Assign projects to foster collaboration and to build closer relationships within your team. Reinforce every day why they want to work there and not somewhere else.
- **Build Bridges with Other Departments:** Along with being a manager, you're also an ambassador. The ROI on this role is immeasurable. Invest time in building relations with other departments. If they're not coming to you, go to them. Talk with all levels of department staff, not only your counterpart. Listen and learn how your department is viewed throughout the organization. Identify areas where you could improve relations.
- **Increase Your Team's Exposure:** Turn your staff into your department's ambassadors as well. Look for opportunities to give them the spotlight, such as training sessions, project leadership, and committee assignments. Most importantly, give them the opportunity to interact with organizational leadership. You want to expand, not narrow, your team members' experience in order to enhance their value to the organization.
- **Recognize Your Limitations:** It takes time to make things happen, and there will be mistakes along the way. Be patient and celebrate your achievements. Realize you can't be everything to everyone, and learn to be comfortable with that.
- **Find a Mentor:** Being the boss can be lonely. Find a mentor who can put your challenges in perspective.

Stay in touch regularly and listen carefully to his or her advice, however critical it might be. If you're hesitant to ask someone to be a mentor, know that most people will be flattered by your request and that many want to give back, since they were likely helped along the way themselves.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- AACAP and David Pruitt, *"Your Child: Emotional, Behavioral, and Cognitive Development from Infancy through Pre-Adolescence"* (1998). .
- Ahmed Abad, *"Management and Organisation Development"*, Rachna Prakashan, New Delhi (1972).
- Apple White, Phillip B, *"Organisational Behaviour"*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliff Organisational Behaviour (1965)
- Aquinas P.G., *"Organizational Behaviour - concepts, realities and challenges"*, Excel Books, New Delhi (2005)
- Argyris, C., *"Personality and Organization"*, Harper and Row, New York (1957)
- Arnold and Feidman, *"Organisational Behaviour"*, McGraw Hill International, New York.
- Bernard, M. Bass and Edward C. Ryterband (1979), *"Organizational Psychology"*, (2nd Ed.) Allyn and Bacon, Boston.
- Biesanz, J. C. *et al* "Personality over time: Methodological approaches to the study of short-term and long-term development and change. (2003).
- Boulding, K.E, *"Conflict and Defence: A General Theory"*, Harper and Row, New York (1962).
- Chabra Ahuja and Jain, *"Managing People at Work"*, Dhanpat Rai and Sons, New Delhi.
- Anurag H., and Christian A., *"Principles of Management"*, Balaji Publications, Meerut, India (2021).

- Davis Keith and Scott William G, "*Human Relations and Organisational Behaviour: Readings and Comments*", McGraw Hill, New York (1969).
- Davis P. and John Rohrbugh, "*Group Decision Process Effectiveness: A Competing Value Approach*", Group and Organization Studies, March 1990.
- Fred Luthans, "*Organisational Behaviour*", (7th Ed) McGraw Hill, New York (1995).
- John W Newstorm, Keith Davis, "*Organisational Behaviour a - Human Behaviour at Work*", (9th Edition) McGraw Hill, New York (1989)
- Kossen, Stan, "*Human Side of Organization*", Canfield Press, San Francisco (1978)
- March J. C. and Simon H., "*Organisations*", Wiley, New York (1958)
- Marvin D Dunnette (1976), "*Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*", Rand McNally, Chicago.
- Mitzberg H. (1973), "*The Nature of Managerial Work*", Harper and Row, New York.
- Ricardo R.J. "*The What, Why, and How of Change Management*". Manufacturing Systems (1991)
- Varney G.H. "*Building Productive Teams*", Jossey-Bass, San Francisco (1989).
- Whyte W.F., "*Organisational Behaviour*", Irwin/ Dorsey Homewood III (1969)
- William G. Dyer "*Team Building: A Microcosm of the Past, Present, and Future of O.D.*". Academy of Management OD Newsletter, winter (1989).
- Woodward J (Ed), "*Industrial Organisations: Behaviour and Control*", Oxford University Press, Oxford (1970)

INDEX

- 8-step change model, 98
- Attitudes vs. Behavior, 166
- Barriers to Learning, 218, 220
- Characteristics of Attitude, 155
- Characteristics of Effective Teams, 254
- Characteristics of Group, 223
- Characteristics of Value, 168
- Characteristics, v, 1, 6, 45, 82, 86, 93, 112, 125, 129, 130-133, 140, 141, 143, 144, 149 152, 153, 155, 162, 168, 178, 179, 182, 194, 223, 243, 254, 273, 276, 278, 279, 290-292
- Components of Learning, 196
- Components, vi, 7, 23, 25, 40, 41, 136, 156, 157, 196
- Concept, 28, 31, 42, 46, 51, 75, 83, 99, 103, 119, 120, 151, 152, 155, 158, 160, 161, 167, 172, 195, 204, 220, 241, 248, 255, 294, 301
- Decision Making, 87, 108, 114, 131, 163, 170, 175, 184-194, 231, 232, 243-250, 254, 255, 260, Definition, 2, 13, 31, 44, 51, 75, 118-120, 255, 269, 274, 287
- Determinants, 132-139, 141
- Errors in Perception, 181
- Ethics, 28, 33, 189, 190, 192
- Evaluation of Learning, 207, 209
- Evolution, 3
- Factors affecting perception, 177
- Factors influencing attitude, 157
- Factors Influencing Decision Making, 15, 16, 25, 26, 34, 36, 37, 48, 85, 86, 189
- Factors, 9, 12, 128, 130, 132, 134, 136, 139, 145, 147, 152-155, 157, 158, 166, 177, 178, 180, 181, 184, 189, 190-193, 197, 202, 210
- Formal Group vs. Informal Group, 225
- Functions, 7, 24, 25, 51, 60, 66, 80, 82, 91, 115, 116, 119, 133, 140, 160, 186, 224, 226, 233, 257, 259, 271, 286
- Goals of Organizational Development, 108
- Group Decision Making Techniques, 246

- Group Decision Making, 15, 16, 37, 243-246, 248
- Group Dynamics, 15, 85, 132, 133, 162
- Group Structure, 234, 235
- Importance of Attitude in OB, 140, 163
- Importance, 8, 9, 16, 55, 58, 73, 76, 99, 114, 123, 124, 134, 139, 163, 169, 176, 192, 214, 223, 225, 241, 270
- Incentives, 9, 57, 70-73, 200, 214, 291
- Leader, 25, 29, 32-37, 39, 40-46, 48-52, 54, 55, 64, 66, 76, 77, 98-100, 102, 103, 125, 163, 300-302
- Leadership Models and Theories, 44
- Learning Process, 4, 196, 197, 199, 202-204, 208, 219, 222
- Levels, 4, 19, 23, 24, 27, 48, 57, 63, 73, 83, 87, 99, 118, 124, 126, 128, 144, 165, 195
- Limitations, 62, 147, 185, 190, 192, 303
- Meaning, 22, 31, 76, 105, 153, 175-177, 184, 187, 212, 218, 225, 234, 256, 277, 302
- Methods, 4, 6, 12, 28, 65, 67, 72, 81, 87, 89, 116, 183, 205, 208, 218, 224, 248, 250, 298
- Models, 19, 20, 22, 25, 44, 64, 95, 119, 120, 122, 124, 147, 186, 213, 253
- Nature, 2, 3, 5, 10, 11, 13-15, 17, 18, 21, 23, 64, 65, 67, 72, 82, 90, 109, 119, 136, 156, 163, 170, 173, 179, 191, 196, 202, 225, 233, 256, 282,
- Norms, 9, 12, 15, 16, 18, 20, 75, 78, 81, 82, 84, 85, 87, 93, 106, 110, 121, 134, 157, 169, 192, 223, 224, 233, 236, 237-240, 255, 260
- Overcoming the Barriers to Learning, 220
- Perceptual Process, 175, 179, 181
- Personality Traits, vi, 25, 46, 47, 49, 50, 128, 129, 135, 136, 143, 144, 145, 147, 149, 169, 293
- Power, 19, 31, 34, 37, 42, 50-55, 77, 81, 86, 99, 124, 135, 153, 226, 227, 234, 240, 270, 278, 286
- Principles of Change Management, 93
- Principles of Reinforcement, 214
- Principles, 16, 17, 44, 74, 75, 93, 110, 160, 192, 198, 199, 201, 204, 214, 233, 234
- Process, 3, 4, 7, 12, 15, 24, 25, 27, 37-39, 41, 52, 57, 75, 76, 78, 85, 87, 89, 91-93, 95-98, 101, 102, 105-107, 109-114, 116, 120, 126, 131, 133, 135, 137, 149, 152, 164, 165, 171, 176-181, 184-186, 189, 190, 192, 193, 195-197, 199, 202-204, 206, 208, 210-214, 217, 219, 220, 222, 226, 232-234, 244-247, 249, 251-253, 256, 259, 273, 276, 282, 294, 297, 299
- Qualities, 32, 33, 35, 36, 39, 76, 175, 183

- Resistance to Change, 73, 96, 97, 126, 165
- Role of Culture, 76
- Sources, 55, 58, 99, 108, 168, 170, 173, 194, 266, 275, 277, 286
- Stages of Group Development, 229, 230
- Stages, 136-139, 141, 229, 230
- Status, vi, 15, 21, 38, 55, 61, 65, 77, 86, 96, 99, 108, 155, 156, 159, 172, 227, 234, 239-241, 243, 275
- Strategy, 34, 49, 50, 53, 78, 79, 90, 99, 106, 110, 234, 287
- Stress Management Techniques, 283, 284
- Stress Management, 19, 164, 273, 282, 283-286,
- Stress, 4, 12, 15, 19, 36, 76, 77, 122, 125, 126, 132, 141, 146, 151, 159, 162, 164, 178, 213, 232, 234, 273-279
- Styles of Leadership, 47, 48
- Success and Personal Development, 285
- Theories, 1-4, 14, 15, 36, 43, 44, 47, 48, 58, 98, 119, 141, 143, 146-148, 150-152
- Time Management, 125, 263-265, 269-271
- Types of Change, 87
- Types of Stress, 277
- Types of Team, 257
- Types, 17, 18, 27, 51, 52, 54, 64, 68, 72, 77, 87, 91, 110, 114, 119, 120, 130, 139, 159, 169, 186, 203, 214, 224, 236, 240, 257, 277, 282, 291, 293
- Values and Attitudes, 127, 172, 173
- Values and Beliefs, 75, 78, 132, 136, 171
- Work Teams, 23, 49, 112, 117, 253, 258, 259