ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Content

Lesson10: CONTENT AND PROCESS OF WORK THEORIES

Introduction

Organizational Behaviour

Organizations are social inventions for accomplishing common goals through group effort. Organizational behaviour is concerned with the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in organizations and can be understood in terms of three levels of analysis: the individual, the group, and the organization.

Organizational Behaviour and Organization Competitiveness

Organizational behaviour is important, in part, because it can influence an organization's effectiveness by providing it with a competitive advantage. Many of the factors that differentiate the 35 best companies to work for in Canada have to do with issues in organizational behaviour and the three main goals of organizational behaviour: prediction, explanation, and management.

LESSON 1: ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Types of Groups

(1) Formal Groups (2) Informal Groups

1. Formal Groups: Are the groups which perform functional responsibilities. ex: Product, Financial, Marketing and Personnel

2. Informal Group: Have in common certain common interests or friendship.

Our identity comes from the group.

What is a Group?

A Group has the following characteristics.

(1). Interpersonal Interaction

(2). Perceptions of membership

(3). Interdependency

(4). Goals

(5). Motivation

(6). Structured Relationships

(7). Mutual Influence

Explanation:

(1). Interpersonal Interaction: Group members communicate with each other.

(2). Perceptions of membership: Everybody feels that he or she is part and parcel of group. ex :- If one sick. All come.

(3). Interdependency: In a group every member is dependent on other. ex: Non of us great than all of us (synergy)

- Synergy: Whole is greater than some of it's parts. Means what we produce individually is less than what all of us produce. ex: 1 + 1 = 3 or 4 etc.

(4). Goals: Groups are goal oriented. Share certain norms and participate in a system of interlocking roles.

(5). Motivation: A Group normally is highly motivated.

(6). Structured Relationships: When it comes to positions of individuals (ex: Manager, Assistant Manager, Executive Officer) status differences are forgotten.

(7). Mutual Influence: Group members influence each other.

Difference between a Group and a Team

Team is much effective than a group.

What is a Team?

Team (Definition)

A team is a group in which individuals have a common aim and in which the jobs and kills of each member fit in with those of others as in a jigsaw puzzle, pieces fit together without distortion and produce some overall pattern.

1. Each person expect in one field. (ex: Muralitharan)
2. Each supports other

3. In a group you get duplication of skills.

Leader of a Team

He must be a generalist. A person who can do anything with competence/Multi-disciplinary skills.

Effective groups and effective group skills

(1). Group goals must be clearly understood

Means goals must be relevant to needs of group members. Then only there will be commitment to achieve that goal.

(2). Group members must communicate their ideas and feelings clearly and accurately

There should be two way communications to achieve this.

(3) Participation and leadership must be distributed among members

It means all should participate and all should be listened to. So an equalization of participation and leadership makes certain that all members will be involved in a group's work and committed to implementing the group's decisions. This also increases the cohesiveness of the group and also helps in utilizing resources of each member.

(4) Appropriate decision making procedures must be used flexibly if they are to be matched with the needs of the situation.

There must be a balance between the availability of time and resources (skills of members) and the method of decision making used. The most effective way of decision making is by consensus.

What is decision making by consensus?

Everybody agrees but also there are disagreements. Consensus promotes distributed participation that is everybody feels that he or she consulted equalization of power, productive controversy and cohesion, involvement and commitment.

(5). Power and Influence need to be approximately equal throughout the group

Power and influence should be based on expertise, ability and access to information and not authority.

(6). Conflicts arising from opposing ideas and opinions are to be encouraged (controversy)

Controversy is promoted with the involvement in group's work, quality and creativity in decision making and commitment to implementing a good decision. Minority opinions should be accepted and used.

(7). Group cohesion needs to be high

How to get cohesiveness:

(bonds that bind people together)

1. By physical proximity (closeness)
2. By same or similar work
3. Homogeneity (same sex, religion)
4. By personality
5. By communication
6. By size of the group (ex: smaller the group higher the cohesiveness)

Cohesion is based on members liking each other. So group norms supporting individuality, creativity, conflict of ideas, growth and change need to be encouraged.

(8) Problem solving adequacy should be high

Procedures should exist for sensing existence of problems, inventing and implementing solutions, evaluating the effectiveness of the solution.

How Groups formed

(Various development stages of group)

(1) Forming

(2) Storming

(3) Norming and

(4) Performing

(5) Adjourning

(1)Forming (Mutual Acceptance)

This stage is characterized by members sharing information about themselves and getting to know themselves.

(2) **Storming** (Communication and Decision Making)

At this stage members discuss their feelings more openly and agree on group goals and individual roles in the group.

(3) Norming (Motivation and Productivity)

At this stage members cooperate help each other and work toward task accomplishment.

(4) Performing (Control and organizing)

At this stage members work together and are flexible, adaptive and self correction.

Team Player Styles

(1). Contributor Style

1. Freely share all relevant information
2. Helps the team use its time and resources
3. Push the team to set high standards
4. Accept responsibility for all actions
5. Provides technical training

(2). Collaborator Style

1. Helps the team to see how its work fits in to the total organization
2. Pitches in to help out other team members who need assistance
3. Does not gossip about other team members or share negative comments about team process with non members
4. Often works outside his or her defined role to help the team achieve its goals
5. Is willing to share the limelight with other team members

(3) Communicator Style

1. Listen while with holding judgement
2. Communicates enthusiasm
3. Gives specific and descriptive feed back and receives feedback
4. Recognizes and praises other members
5. Helps to relax and have fun

Advantages of Group Decisions

(1). Resistance to change is reduced

And decisions are usually better received since members are committed to the solution and more willing to support it.

(2). Decisions may be superior

Since more people with different viewpoints gave inputs

(3). Personal satisfaction and job enjoyment are greater

(4). Hostility and aggression are significantly reduced

(5). Productivity is increased

Group building and maintenance roles

(1). Encourager

When things go had tell don’t worry

(2). Harmonizer

When there are misunderstandings he brings understanding

(3). Compromiser

Try to bring understanding and various options.

(4). Gatekeeper - Expediter

Watching and communicates information to group members and implement them.

(5). Standard Setter

He set high standards.

Much organizational work is done in groups and teams. Indeed, to meet the challenges of the business environment today more and more organizations are replacing old hierarchies and formal systems with groups/teams and teamwork. Many organizations are finding that the best way to make individual employees productive is to pay attention to the way work groups and teams are managed. In this lesson, we will describe work groups and teams and explain how they can be managed effectively.

TYPES OF GROUPS

A group is defined as two or more people who interact and influence each other toward a common purpose. Traditionally, two types of groups have existed in organizations: (1) Formal groups and (2) Informal groups. Today, however, groups exist that have the characteristics of both.

FORMAL GROUPS AND INFORMAL GROUPS

(1) FORMAL GROUPS

Formal groups are created deliberately by managers and charged with carrying out specific tasks to help the organization achieve its goals. The most prevalent type of formal group is the command group, which includes a manager and all employees who report to that manager.

Another type of formal group is the committee, which generally lasts a long time and deals with recurrent problems and decisions. For instance, your university college probably has a committee for student affairs to deal with recurring issues that involve students' lives. While members of this committee may come and go, the committee remains in place over time.

A quality circle is a kind of group. At Reynolds Metal Company's McCook Sheet & Plate Plant, based in McCook, Illinois, quality circles have been a significant component of a quality program that has dramatically improved productivity and quality since 1981. In a program called Cooperative Hourly and Management Problem Solving (CHAMPS), quality circle groups meet for an hour weekly to discuss work-related problems, investigate the causes, recommend solutions, and recommend solutions, and take corrective action.

Some formal groups are temporary. They may be called task forces or project teams. These teams are created to deal with a specific problem and are usually disbanded when the task is completed or the problem is solved. For instance, President Clinton formed a project team, headed by Hillary Rodham Clinton, to formulate a proposal for a national health care plan.

(2) INFORMAL GROUPS

Informal groups emerge whenever people come together and interact regularly. Such groups develop within the formal organizational structure. Members of informal groups tend to subordinate some of their individual needs to those of the group as a whole. In return, the group supports and protects them. The activities of informal group may further the interests of the organization - Saturday morning softball games, for example, may strengthen the players' ties to each other. Or a women's group may meet to discuss various actions that can make the organization a better place for women to work.

FUNCTIONS OF INFORMAL GROUPS

Informal groups serve four major functions.

(1) First, they maintain and strengthen the norms (expected behavior) and values their members hold in common.

(2) Second, they give members feelings of social satisfaction, status, and security. Informal groups enable employees to share jokes and complaints, eat together, and socialize after work. Informal groups thus satisfy the human needs for friendship, support, and security.

(3) Third, informal groups help their members communicate. Members of informal groups learn about matters that affect them by developing their own informal channels of communication to supplement more formal channels. In fact, managers often use informal networks to convey information "unofficially'.

(4) Fourth, informal groups help solve problems. They might aid a sick or tired employee or devise activities to deal with boredom. Quite often, such group problem solving helps the organization. But these groups can also reduce an organization's effectiveness -for an example, when they pressure new employees to reduce their efforts so the group's normal standards will not be called into question.

(5) Beyond these four functions, informal groups may act as reference groups **-** groups that we identify with and compare ourselves to (thus, they have referent power). A middle manager's reference group, for example, might be higher-level managers. Because people tend to model themselves after their reference groups, these groups have an important influence on organizational life.

1) HIGH PERFORMANCE GROUPS OR SUPER GROUPS

Some groups today have characteristics of both formal and informal teams. **Super** groups or **high-performance groups -** groups of 3 to 30 workers drawn from different areas of a company are an example. Initially called “self-managed work groups”, or “high-performance groups”.

What set a super group apart from other formal group is that they ignore the traditional “chimney hierarchy” -a strict up-and-down arrangement with workers at the bottom and managers at the top-that is often too cumbersome to solve problems workers deal with every day. Well-run super groups manage themselves, arrange their work schedules, set their productivity quotas, order their own equipment and supplies, improve product quality, and interact with customers and other super groups.

Super groups seem to work as well in the service and finance sectors as they do in manufacturing. They can be created to work on a specific project or problems, or they can become a permanent part of the company’s work force. The super group concept is central to the organization.

Super groups are not all “rose and rainbows”, however. From simple problems, such as those encountered in assembly-line production, the supergroup may be too much. Super groups make the most sense when there is a complex problem to solve or layers of progress-delaying which management need to cut through; the key concept here is cross-functionalism. And supergroups are not the right choice for every company culture. Middle managers can feel threatened by supergroups because they leave fewer rungs on the corporate ladder to move up.

Organizing a corporation into supergroups is a long, complex process that may take years. A Harvard Business School study found that it is easier to start a new plant with supergroups than it is to convert an existing plant into, supergroups. Still, some experts think that supergroups may turn out to be the most productive business innovation of the 1990.

2) SELF-MANAGED GROUPS

Super groups that manage themselves without any formal supervision are called **self-managed groups** or **self-managed work groups.** These teams usually have the following characteristics.

* The team has responsibility for a “relatively whole task”

* Team members each possess a variety of task-related skills

* The team has the power to determine such things as work methods, scheduling, and assignment of members to different tasks

* The performance of the group as a whole is the basis for compensation and feedback

The presence of such groups in industry means individual strategies for completing tasks are replaced by group methods for job accomplishment.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS

The first step in learning to manage groups effectively is to become aware of their characteristics -that is, the way they develop:

(1) Leadership roles

(2) Group Norms and

(3) Group Cohesiveness

LEADERSHIP ROLES

The formal leader of a group is usually appointed or elected. Informal leaders, on the other hand, tend to emerge gradually as group members interact. The man or women who speaks up more than the others, who offers more and better suggestions than anyone else, or who gives direction to the group's activities usually becomes the informal leader. This occurs not just in informal groups, but even in formal groups, where such a self-confident, assertive individual may develop into a rival of the formally chosen leader, thereby weakening the leader's hold on team members.

LESSON 2: STAGES OF TEAM DEVELOPMENT

More than two decades ago, B. W. Tuckman suggested that small groups move through five stages as they develop:

(1) Forming
(2) Storming
(3) Norming
(4) Performing

(5) Adjourning

(1) FORMING: During the initial stage, the group forms and learns what sort of behavior is acceptable to the group. By exploring what does and not work, the group sets implicit and explicit ground rules that cover the completion of specific tasks as well as general group dynamics. By and large, this stage is a period of both orientation and acclimation.

(2) STORMING: As group members become more comfortable with one another, they may oppose the formation of a group structure as they begin to assert their individual personalities. Members often become hostile and even fight ground rules set during the forming stage.

(3) NORMING: At this time, the conflicts that arose in the previous stage are addressed and hopefully resolved. Group unity emerges as members establish common goals, norms, and ground rules. The group as whole participates, not merely a few vocal members. Members begin to voice personal opinions and develop close relationships.

(4)PERFORMING: Now that structural issues have been resolved, the group begins to operate as a unit. The structure of the group now supports and eases group dynamics and performance. The structure becomes a tool for the group's use instead of an issue to be fought over. Members can now redirect their efforts from the development of the group to using the group's structure to complete the tasks at hand.

(5) ADJOURNING: Finally, for temporary groups such as task forces, this is the time when the group wraps up activities. With disbandment in mind, the group's focus shifts from high task performance to closure. The attitude of members varies from excitement to depression.

Tuckman does not suggest that all groups adhere strictly to such a framework, but that, in many cases, the framework can explain why groups experience difficulty. For example, groups that to perform without storming and norming will often find only short-lived success, if that.

(2) **GROUP NORMS**

Over time, group members form norms-expectations about how they and the other members will behave. Some of these norms are carried over from society in general, such as dressing "properly" for work or showing up on time. Others are particular to the group and its special goals, such as questioning "traditional ideas" in a task group charged with launching a new product. When an individual breaks with team norms, the other members will probably pressure that individual to conform. Methods of enforcing conformity range from gentle ridicule to criticism, sarcasm, ostracism, and even physical harassment for serious violations, such as being a "rate buster" on the assembly line. Conforming to norms can be extremely useful.

Advantages:

(1) Because norms answer many questions about how we should behave toward one another on a day-to-day basis,

(2) Conformance frees us to concentrate on other tasks.

Disadvantages**:**

(1) But conformity can be negative if it stifles initiative and innovation,

(2) Holding back the group's performance, Solomon Asch showed this negative power in classical set of experiments.

Asch told his subjects he was simply testing their visual judgment. People in a group were shown one card with lines of varying lengths and then asked to say out loud, one by one, which of the lines was the same length as the single line on a comparison card. The lines were in fact drawn so that the correct response was obvious. What Asch did not tell his subjects was that all but one person in the group was working with him. Their task was to give the same, wrong answer. The question was what the others would then say. On about 35 percent of the trials, the unwitting, others conformed to the group and gave the wrong-answer-even though the correct answer was obvious. However, when the experiment was varied so that even one of Asch's confederates failed to follow the majority, the others' tendency to conform dropped noticeably.

What do these findings mean for the manager who wants to brings out the best in a work team? First, you must realize that as manager, you will be in a good position to set norms that discourage too much conformity. You can do this by what you do (for example, by questioning assumptions), by what you say (perhaps you can begin each meeting by stressing the importance of independent thinking), and by what you reward (for instance, by rewarding innovation over conformity).

(3) GROUP COHESIVENESS

The solidarity, or cohesiveness**,** of a group is an important indicator of how much influence the group has over its individual members. The more cohesive the group-the more strongly members feel about belonging to it-the greater its influence. If the members of a group feel strongly attached to it, they are not likely to violate its norms.Group cohesiveness also plays a role in small companies. "Group cohesiveness is critical in helping the individual feel good about his or her contribution to the effort", noted James R. Idstein, controller of Kane Graphical Corporation. Such Groups often have less tension and hostility and fewer misunderstandings than less cohesive groups do. Additionally, studies have found that cohesive groups tend to produce more uniform output than less cohesive groups, which often have problems with communication and cooperation.

When cooperation is especially vital-for instance, in meeting strategic goals managers have **four ways to improve cohesiveness:**

(1) Introduce competition

(2) Increase interpersonal attraction

(3) Increase interaction and

4) Create common goals common fates for employees.

(1) INTRODUCE COMPETITION. Conflict with outside individuals or other teams increases group cohesiveness.

(2) INCREASE INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION. People tend to join groups whose members they identify with or admire. Thus, an organization may want to begin by trying to attract employees who share certain key values.

(3) INCREASE INTERACTION. Although it is not often possible for people to like everyone they work with, increased interaction can improve camaraderie and communication.

(4) CREATE COMMON GOALS AND COMMON FATES. Some have proposed that a group's effectiveness is a function of three variables:

(1) Task interdependence
(2) Potency
(3) Outcome interdependence.

Task interdependence is the extent to which a group's work requires its members to interact with one another. A high level of task interdependence increases the group's Sense of potency which is the shared belief of a group that it can be effective. Outcome interdependence is the degree to which the consequences of the group's work are felt by all the group's members.

How astute managers can create successful groups.

(1) Managers must first give each group a charter-a clear and achievable set of objectives. A strategic planning group, for example, might be chartered to devise a five-year company plan.
(2) Because groups should be given flexibility in arranging their own affairs, the manager should "concentrate on getting the charter right and not on details of how a group organizes itself".
(3) The members of the group should decide how much task interdependence their work requires.
(4) However, the members must believe the organization has given them sufficient resources skills, money, flexibility-to fulfill the charter.

(5) In addition, manager must strive to create a sense of outcome interdependence. If the members of a group do not share some common fate, they will have little sense of belonging. Group bonuses or peer evaluation can help create this sense of common fate. Rewards do not have to take the form of money. In fact, recognition can be as strong as or stronger than money.

(6)It is important to remember that the effectiveness of group is affected by the national culture.

MAKING GROUPS EFFECTIVE

COMMITTEES (formal)

Many managers joke-or moan-about committees being big time-wasters. In reality, a committee or task force is often the best way to pool the expertise of different members of the organization and then channel their efforts toward effective problem solving and decision making. In addition, these formal groups let members learn how their work affects others, increasing all members' willingness and ability to coordinate their work for the organization's good. Also, committee can serve as "incubators" for young executives, teaching them to think beyond the needs and concerns of their own work unit.

(1) GUIDELINES FOR COMMITTEES

Because committee differ greatly in their functions and activities, one set of guidelines will not be appropriate for all cases. For example, a highly directive committee responsible for communicating instructions from top management to subordinates should be managed differently from a committee whose major task is to solve complex managerial problems.

The following suggestions apply to problem-solving committees, which must be managed flexibly if their members' skills are to be used most effectively.

FORMAL PROCEDURES.

Several formal procedures are useful in helping committees operate effectively.

* The committee's goals should be clearly defined, preferably in writing. This will focus the committee's and focus discussion of what the committee is supposed to do.

* The committee's authority should be specified. Is the committee merely to investigate, advise, and recommend, or is it authorized to implement decisions?

* The optimum size of the committee should be determined. With fewer than 5 members, the advantages of teamwork may be diminished. Potential group resources increase as group size increases. Size will vary according to circumstances, but for many tasks the ideal number of committee members ranges from 5 to 10. With more than 10 to 15 members, a committee usually becomes unwieldy, so that it is difficult for each member to influence the work.

* A chairperson should be selected on the basis of his or her ability to run an efficient meeting-that is, to encourage the participation of all committee members, to keep meetings from getting bogged down in irrelevancies, and to see that the necessary paperwork gets done. (Appointing a permanent secretary to handle communications is often useful).

* The agenda and all supporting material for the meeting should be distributed to members before the meeting to permit them to prepare in advance. This makes it more likely they will be ready with informed contributions and will stick to the point.

* Meetings should start and end on time. The time when they will end should be announced

at the outset.

(2) FOCUSING GROUPS ON PERFORMANCE

In an important study of teams in today's organizations, John Katzenbach and Douglas Smith developed a common sense understanding of what makes groups work. They suggest that, first and foremost, performance challenges are the best way to create groups, and that "group basics including size, purpose, goals, skills, approach, and accountability" are often overlooked. The basic building blocks of groups are: (1) The skills of the group members (2) Accountability of the group and (3) Commitment of the group members.

Finally, they claim that a few simple rules can greatly enhance group performance, especially when applied to groups at the top of an organization.

(1) First, group work assignments need to address specific, concrete issues rather than broad generalizations.

(2) Second, work has to be broken down and assigned to subgroups and individuals. Groups are not the same as "meetings".

(3) Third, group membership must be based on what each member can achieve and the skills that each has, rather than on the formal authority organizational position of the person.

(4) Fourth, each group member has to do roughly the same amount of work, or inevitably there will be differing commitments to the outcomes.

(5) Fifth, groups will work only if the traditional hierarchical pattern of communication and interaction is broken down. It is not the position you hold that is important but what you can contribute to the group.

(6) Finally, top management groups have to work together like all other groups, focusing on their task and fostering an environment of openness, commitment and trust.

(3) CONFLICT WITHIN GROUPS

Conflicts emerge not only between groups but also within groups. In an important book entitled paradoxes of Group Life, Kenwyn Smith and Divid Berg proposed a new way to understand such intragroup (within-group) conflicts. Most people think that conflicts must be managed and resolved, but Smith and Berg suggest that such conflicts are essential to the very concept of group life. They see this insight as a paradox, and they identify seven paradoxical aspects of groups:

(1) Identify

(2) Disclosure

(3) Trust

(4) Individuality

(5) Authority

(6) Regression and

(7) Creativity.

(1) The paradox of identity is that groups must unite people with different skills and outlooks precisely because they are different, while those people usually feel that the group diminishes their individuality.

(2) The paradox of disclosure is that all though the members of a group must disclose what is on their minds if the group is to succeed, fear of rejection makes them disclose only what they think others will accept. Likewise,

(3) The paradox of trust is that "for trust to develop in group, members must trust the group" in the place; at the same time, "the group must trust its members, for it is only through trusting

that trust is built."

(4) The paradox of individuality means that a group can derive its strength only from the individual strengths of members who, when they participate fully in its work, might feel that their individuality has been threatened.

(5) The paradox of authority is that the group derives its power from the power of its individual members, but in joining the group, members diminish their individual power by putting it at the group's disposal.

(6) The paradox of regression stems from the fact that all though individuals usually join groups hoping to "become more" than they were before they joined, "the group asks them to be less so that the group can become more" In this sense, the group counters the individual desire to progress with pressure to regress.

(7) The paradox of creativity is that although groups must change in order to survive, change means the destruction of the old as well as the creation of the new. Thus, any refusal to destroy limits the group's creative potential.

Smith and Berg conclude if a group cannot use conflict to its advantage, it cannot grow: "If group members could learn to treat conflict as endemic to groupness, a natural consequence of "differences attempting to act in an integrated way", they would understand that group conflict is "just in the nature of things, like the wetness of water and the warmth of sunlight".

What is group building?

Analyzes the activities, resource allocations, and relationships of a group to improve its effectiveness. This technique can be used, for example, to develop a sense of unity among members of a new committee. Group building can be directed at two different types of groups or working groups: (1) An existing or permanent group made up of a manager and his or her employees, often called a family group; (2) Or a new group that either has been formed to solve a specific problem or has been created through a merger or other structural change in the organization, which we will call a special group.

For both kinds of groups, group building activities aim (1) Diagnosing barriers to effective group performance, (2) Improving task accomplishment (3) Improving relationships between group members (3) And improving processes operative in the group, such as communication and task assignment. Table below summarizes these activities for both

(1) Family groups and

(2) Special groups

Group Building Activities

GROUP BUILDING ACTIVITY	FAMILY GROUPS	SPECIAL GROUPS
(1) Diagnosis	Diagnostic meetings: “How are we doing ?	Diagnostic meetings “Where would we like to go?

(2) Task Accomplishment Problem solving, decision Special problems, role and making, role clarification, goal clarification, resource goal setting, etc. utilization, etc.

(3) Building and maintaining Focus on effective interpersonal Focus on interpersonal or inter relationships, including unit conflict underutilization of boss-subordinate and peer members as

resources.

(4) Management of Focus on understanding Communication, decision making group process.

(5) Role analysis and Techniques used for role Techniques used for role clarification role negotiation clarification and definition.

Diagnostic meetings may involve the total group or several subgroups and require only a brief time-a day or less-to identify strengths and problem areas. Actual team building requires a subsequent longer meeting, ideally held a way from the workplace. The consultant interviews participants beforehand and organizes the meetings around common themes. The group proceeds to examine the issues, rank them in order of importance, study their underlying dynamics, and decide on a course of action to bring about those changes perceived as necessary. A follow-up meeting at a later time may then evaluate the success of the action steps.

IMPORTANCE OF INTERGROUP RELATIONS

To permit an organization's managers to assess the health of the organization and set up plans of action for improving it, the confrontation meeting may be used. This is a one-day meeting of all an organization's managers is which they discuss problems, analyze the underlying causes, and plan remedial actions. The confrontation meeting is typically used after a major organizational change, such as a merger of the introduction of a new technology.

LESSON 3: GROUP BEHAVIOUR

Introduction

The study of groups in work situation has been an important activity of behavioral scientists ever since the pioneering work of the Hawthorne Researchers over fifty years ago. The outcome of numerous studies into different aspects of the behaviour of groups is a considerable store of useful and practicable knowledge about the working of groups. Typical areas of research have included the study of group effectiveness, inter-groups competition, and group cohesiveness.

The most important factors in the behaviour of groups are :

(1) Group size

(2) Group leadership

(3) Group cohesiveness

(4) Nature of the group/Motivation of group members

(5) Group norms

(6) Individual roles in the group

(7) Group environment

(8) Nature of group's task.

Previous lessons have dealt with various aspects of leadership, tasks and environment, and whilst these factors cannot be ignored, this lesson focuses attention on the other factors, such as group cohesiveness and roles within groups. It concludes with a summary of recent research into teams and team building.

Groups at work are formed as a direct consequence of an organization's need to differentiate itself. Differentiation or specialization involves not only the breaking down of the organization into functions. A group is basically a collection of individuals, contributing to some common aim under the direction of a leader, and who share a sense of common identity. Thus, a group is more than an aimless crowd of people waiting in an airport lounge or at a bus stop. A group has some central purpose, temporary or permanent, and a degree of self-awareness as a group. In the work situation, most tasks are in fact undertaken by groups and teams, rather than by individuals. Groups are also widely used for solving problems, creating new ideas, making decisions and coordinating tasks.

These group functions are what the organization itself needs to fulfill its purpose. However, individuals themselves need groups. Groups provide stimulus, protection, assistance and other social and psychological requirements. Groups therefore can work in the interest of organizations as a whole as well as in the interests of individual members.

One of the earliest distinctions to be made between groups (arising from the Hawthorne investigations) was between formal and informal groups. Formal groups were those set up by the management of an organization to undertake duties in the pursuit of organization goals. Some writers have described formal groups as official groups, to avoid the confusion that can arise when describing groups operating in an informally structured organization (eg: an organic type of organization). Such groups may be informal in the sense that they have few rules, enjoy participative leadership and have flexible roles. Nevertheless they are completely official. What is meant by informal organizations are those groupings which the employees themselves have developed in accordance with their own needs. These, of course, are unofficial. Every organization has these unofficial groups, and research has shown how important they are for organizational effectiveness.

Groups Norms & Group Cohesiveness

Group development process:

A useful way of looking at the development of group was devised by B. Tuckman (1965), who saw groups as moving through four key stages of development. Later (1977) he added a fifth stage. The final model can be summarized as follows:

Stage 1-**Forming:** Finding out about the task, rules and methods; acquiring information and resources; relying on the leader.

Stage 2-**Storming:** Internal conflict develops; members resist the task at the emotional level.

Stage 3-**Norming:** Conflict is settled, cooperation develops; views are exchanged and new standards (norms) developed.

Stage 4-**Performing:** Teamwork is achieved, roles are flexible; solutions are found and implemented.

Stage 5-**Adjourning:** Group disperses on completion of tasks.

Group norms can be seen to develop at Stage 3 in the above analysis. Norms, in this context, are common standards of social and work behaviour which are expected of individuals in the group. Once such norms are influenced by organizational factors such as policies, management style or superiors, and rules and procedures. They are also influenced by individual employees, whose standards may or not be in line with those of the official organization. For Example, a group norm for the young men in an engineering workshop could be to follow a fashion of wearing long hair. This could conflict with organizational norms concerning the safety of employees in the workplace. Another example of a conflict between official and unofficial group norms can be drawn from a situation where a group itself decides to operate a certain level of output over a given time, regardless of targets set by the management in their search for increased efficiency and productivity. The ideal situation, from an organization's point of view, is attained when the unofficial norms of the group are in harmony with the official norms of the organization. There is no doubt that part of the leadership role of a manager is to secure this harmony in his or her own section.

Group-->--Section-->--Department-->--Division-->--whole Organization

Tuckman's analysis of group development can be compared with that of Woodcock (1979), who has made a particular study of teams and their development. Woodcock also sees a four-stage stage sequence of development as follows:

Teams:

1. The Undeveloped Team : Feelings are avoided, objectives are uncertain, the leader takes most of the decisions.

2. The Experimenting Team :Issues are faced more openly, listening takes place, the group

may become temporarily introspective.

3. The Consolidating Team: Personal interaction is established on a cooperative basis, the task is clarified, objectives agreed and tentative procedures implemented.

4. The Mature Team: Feelings are open, a wide range of options considered, working methods are methodical, leadership style is contributory, individuals are flexible and the group recognizes its responsibility to the rest of the organization.

The key point made by these analyses of team or group development is that effectiveness (see below) is an outcome which develops over time, as the group begin to understand what is required of them and how they can utilize the knowledge, skills and attributes of the individual members in fulfilling group and individual goals. On the way to achieving effectiveness, groups will undoubtedly face uncertainty, if not conflict, but these processes have to be seen as necessary costs of achieving both harmony and purposeful behaviour.

Group cohesiveness refers to the ability of the group members to stick together. It also applies to the ability of a group to attract new members. A very cohesive group will demonstrate strong loyalty to its individual members and strong adherence to its established norms. Individuals who cannot accept these norms are cast out from the protection of the group. The sending of individuals 'to Coventry' as a result of some dispute within the group is an example of this behaviour. As Tuckman's analysis shows, cohesiveness develops over time. A newly-formed group has little cohesiveness.

There are several factors which can help cohesiveness to develop in a group. These include the following:

- Similarity of work
- Physical proximity in the workplace
- The work-flow system
- Structure of tasks
- Group size (smaller rather than larger)
- Threats from outside
- The prospect of rewards
- Leadership style of the manager

• Common social factors (age, race, social status etc.)

In general, the reasons why people do develop into closely knit groups are threefold: because of those things they have in common, because of pressures from outside the group, and because of their need to fulfill their social and affiliation needs.

Group Effectiveness

Group effectiveness has to be considered in at least two dimensions:

(1) Effectiveness in terms of task accomplishment, and

(2) Effectiveness in terms of the satisfaction of group members.

Clearly, the official organization view of effectiveness is more concerned with output, efficiency and other benefit, than with satisfying the need of individuals. By comparison an individual's view of effectiveness is more concerned with personal success in his role and personal satisfaction from being a member of a team. Looking at the issue in ideal terms, effectiveness is achieved when the needs and expectations of the organization are one and the same as the needs and expectations of individuals.

In his classic work,' The Human Side of Enterprise' (1960), Douglas McGregor provided a perceptive account of the differences between effective and ineffective groups. A summary of the most important features he noted appears below:

Effective groups

1. Informal relaxed atmosphere.
2. Much relevant discussion with high degree of participation.
3. Group task or objective clearly understood.
4. Members listen to each other.
5. Conflicts is not avoided, but brought into the open and dealt with.
6. Most decisions are reached by general majorities.
7. Ideas are expressed freely and openly.
8. Leadership is not always with the chairman.
9. The group examines its own progress and bahaviour.

Ineffective groups

1. Bored or tense atmosphere.

2. Discussion dominated by one or two people and often irrelevant.
3. No clear common objective.
4. Members tend not to listen to each other.
5. Conflict is either avoided or develops into open warfare.
6. Simple majorities are seen as basis for group decisions, which the minority have to accept.
7. Personal feelings are kept hidden and criticism is embarrassing.
8. Leadership is provided by chairman.
9. The group avoids any discussion about its own behaviour.

McGregor's view of effective groups corresponds to Tuckman's Stages 3 and 4, ie Norming and Performing. The features of ineffective groups are closer to Tuckman's Stage 2, i.e. Storming. A difference between McGregor and Tuckman seems to be that the former sees some groups as fixed in their poor behaviour, whereas the later implies that groups tend to move out of the ineffective stages into more effective behaviour.

The major influences on group effectiveness can be broken down into two minimum categories:

(1) Immediate constraints

eg: (a) group size (b) nature of task (c) skills of members and (d) environmental factors

(2) Group motivation and interaction

The basic difference between the two categories is that (a) represents things that cannot be changed in the short-term, and that (b) represents behaviour that (potentially) can be changed in the short-term.

Let us now look at points in each of these categories.

(1) Immediate Constraints

There are four particularly influential constraints. These are as follows:

(1) Group size - small groups tend to be more cohesive than larger groups; small groups tend to encourage full participation; large groups contain greater diversity of talent.

(2) Nature of task - in work-groups, the production system, including the type of technology used, has a major effect on groups, eg: high-technology plant often disperses

employees into isolated couples incapable of forming satisfactory groups. Where group tasks are concerned with problem-solving, decision, making or creative thinking, different member talents may be required along with a variety of leadership styles. A further aspect of task is the time factor, ie: urgency tends to force groups to be task and action-oriented.

(3) Skills of members - the personalities concerned the variety of knowledge and skills available cannot be changed overnight. A knowledgeable group, skilled at group working, is much more likely to succeed in their tasks, than an inexperienced group. Equally a group with a wider range of talents in its midst tends to be more effective than a group with a narrow range of talents.

(4) Environmental factors - these include physical factors, such a working proximity, plant or office layout. In general, close proximity aids group identity and loyalty, and distance reduces them. Other environmental issues include the traditions of the organization and leadership styles. Formal organizations tend to adopt formal group practices. Autocratic leadership styles prefer group activities to be directed. Most participative styles prefer greater sharing in groups.

The important point about this immediate constraint is that they establish the scenario for the operation of the group. If the expectations and behaviour of the members match this scenario, then the group will tend to perform very effectively. By contrast, if there is a considerable mis-match, the chances of the group succeeding in its objectives will be slight.

(2) Group Motivation and Interaction

Group motivation-the level of motivation in the group will be a decisive factor in effectiveness. High motivation can result from members' perception of the task, and their role in it, as being of importance. Standards of performance are essential to motivation, together with adequate and timely feedback of results. Individuals also need to feel satisfied with membership of the group. Where these features are absent, motivation will tend to blow.

Group interaction- this depends mainly on factors such as leadership, individual and group motivation, and appropriate rules and procedures. The key to success in leadership is to obtain the best 'mix' of attention to task and attention to people, taking the total situation into account. The ability of the leader in a group to obtain the commitment of his team to achieving the task (team spirit) will result in a high degree of collaboration. Where interaction is high people tend to be more open, and more comfortable with the pursuit of the task. All groups need some modus operandi. This might consist of a few simple rules and procedure to control decision-making and conflict, for example. Alternatively, as in formal committees quite complex procedures may apply in order to encourage control interaction.

The items discussed here are essentially about actual behaviour in a group. This behaviour is part of a dynamic, or constantly changing, process within the group, which can be influenced by individuals in response to issues that have occurred whilst undertaking the task.

Thus, even where the immediate constraints impose tight restrictions on behaviour the group can still be effective if they can be motivated to work together to achieve their objectives.

Group Behaviour & Group Roles

An area of considerable interest to behavioral scientists for many years has been the process of interaction within groups.

Various Designs to make people aware of their behaviour in groups

(1) This area of study was first opened up by Professor Kurt Lewin in the United States in the mid 1940s with the use of so-called 'T-group' as a device for the study of inter-personal relations within groups. The T-group approach is based on unstructured, leader-less groups whose 'task' is to study their own behaviour and provide feedback to individual group members. The emphasis in such groups is on the 'here and now' situation and the thoughts and feelings generated by it. Each group is aided by a tutor or consultant, whose task it is to help the group with the feedback aspects. As a basis for developing information about the working of groups, the T-group method has been immensely useful. As a practical training method, however, the approach has proved less than popular on account of the threats posed to individuals by the exposure of their beliefs, attitudes and feelings to people with whom they have to work.

(2) Coverdale training is another approach aimed at throwing light on the behaviour of group members. The name is derived from the author of this approach, which is based on examining group processes during the progress of a series of practical tasks. Unlike T-group, Coverdale exercises are structured events. Having discussed questions of how the initial task was planned and organized and how people felt about it, the experience is utilized to

improve task effectiveness and member satisfaction for the next exercise, and so on until the series of tasks is completed. By using practical tasks as a vehicle for the real issue of assessing group interaction, much of the threatening nature of group process analysis disappears. Unlike in T-groups, the tutor, or trainer, plays a key role in briefing the group for its tasks and in directing the development of feedback by means of questions and comments at the end of each exercise.

(3) Other approaches, designed to make people aware of their behaviour in groups, use questionnaires and (4) rating scales to enable participant to record their feelings, perception and ideas about the group and its behaviour. (5) Among such approaches is the Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton, which is shown in figure A (see the attached sheet).

(6) One of the most useful attempts to develop categories of behaviour, especially verbal behaviour, in groups was that of R. F. Bales (1950). In several studies of small groups, Bales and his colleagues were able to generate a list of frequent behaviour categories to enable them to observe behaviour in a way that was relevant and consistent. Some examples of the categories were as follows:

- Shows solidarity
- Agrees
- Gives suggestion
- Gives opinion
- Asks for orientation
- Asks for suggestion
- Shows antagonism

These categories were grouped according to whether they furthered the task functions or whether they aided inter-personal relations, or socio-emotional functions, as Bales called them. Bales' ideas have been adapted by a number of British researchers, notably Rackhman and Morgan (1977).

(7) Rackhman and Morgan (1977), have used their version as the basis for improving skills in interpersonal relationships. Their list utilizes the following categories of possible behaviour in groups:

- Proposing (concepts, suggestions, actions)

- Building (developing another's proposal)
- Supporting (another person of his concepts)
- Disagreeing
- Defending/attacking
- Blocking/Difficulty stating (with no alternative offered)
- Open behaviour (risking ridicule and loss of status)
- Testing understanding
- Summarizing
- Seeking information
- Giving information
- Shutting out behaviour (eg interrupting, talking over)
- Bringing in behaviour (involving another member)

Experience in the use of such categories can enable observers of group behaviour to give constructive and relevant feedback to group members, instead of rather generalized descriptions of what has appeared to have taken place.

Categories of behaviour are a key element in distinguishing roles in groups. Feedback to groups can help the members to see what kind of role they played in the proceedings. Role is not quite the same as position (or job). The latter is concerned with the duties and rights attached to a particular job title. The former is concerned with how the job is performed, and is affected by the expectations of superiors, of organizational policies, of colleagues and subordinates as well as the expectations of the jobholder himself. This web of relationships has been called the role-set.

In any group activity a number of roles are likely to be performed - for example:

(1) Role of leader

(2) Role of peacemaker

(3) Role of ideas person

(4) Role of humorist and

(5) Role of devil's advocate to name but a few.

In informal groups many roles may emerge in line with individual personality and know-how. In formal groups many roles are already defined, such as:

(1) Role of chairman

(2) Role of secretary

(3) Role visiting expert and others.

Sometimes members of a group experience a conflict of roles. For example, a union representative may feel a conflict between his or her need to fulfill a spokesman role for constituents, and the need to act responsibly as an employee of the company. Sometimes the chairman of a committee stands down temporarily from the chair in order to express a deeply felt personal view about an issue in which he or she ha an interest. This action prevents undue role conflict on the question of impartiality from the chair.

Roles are influenced considerably by organization cultures. In one organization managers may be expected to take a directive style in the management of their subordinates. Anything in the form of participation would be viewed as weak management. In another organization the dominant climate could well be democratic and participatory. In this kind of organization a directive style would be seen as quite out-of-place. Some organizations operate different cultures in different departments. Production departments, for example, tend to be task-oriented and directive in style, whereas research and development departments tend to be more considerate of people’s needs, and less directive.

Competition between Groups

So far we have been discussing behaviour within groups. Another important aspect of group behaviour is intergroup relations. Since every organization is made up of a number of different groups of employees, the question of collaboration between groups is vital for obtaining an overall balance in the social system. As Lawrence and Lorsch were at pains to point out integration is as crucial to organizational success as differentiation.

Advantages of Group formation:

(1) Breaking an organization down into smaller units (work groups), in order to cope adequately with the diversity of tasks that face it, creates opportunities to develop task interests and (2) special know-how/specialization of the group.

Disadvantages of Group formation:

(1) At the same time it also creates rivalries between various groups and

(2) Competing interests which can be damaging to the organization's mission.

An understanding of the consequences, good and bad, of intergroup competition can, therefore, be of considerable help to an organization's management.

Intergroup competition:

The first systematic study of intergroup competition was made many years ago by Sherif and colleagues in the United States. They organized a boys' camp in such a way that two deliberately-created groups were formed for the experiment. Various devices were used to encourage the development of separate identities between the two groups. As the camp progressed, a number of interesting changes took place both within and between the groups.

Within groups:

Collections of individuals, with no special ties with each other, grew into closely-knit groups; the group climate changed from being play oriented to work-oriented, and leadership tended to become more autocratic, each group became more highly structured and put a much greater emphasis on loyalty and conformity.

Between groups:

Each group began to see the other group as "the enemy" hostility between groups increased whilst communication between them decreased; stereotyped opinions of the other side began to emerge, especially negative stereotypes.

A further of the Sherif study concerned the effects of winning or losing in an intergroup competition. This again provided some fascinating material for the researchers. Winning tended to maintain or even strengthen group cohesiveness, but reduced the motivation to fight; winning also caused a move away from task-orientation towards greater concern for individual needs. Losing tended to lead to a disintegration of the group, and the search for scapegoats both within and outside the group; tasks needs became even more important to the loser; losing, however, forced groups to reevaluate their view of themselves and eventually come to a more realistic assessment of what changes were required to make the group effective.

Intergroup competition, as was noted above; has its advantages and disadvantage.
Advantages of intergroup competition/competition between groups:
(1) The prima advantages are that a group develops a high regard for its task functions.

Disadvantages of intergroup competition/competition between groups:

(1) The main disadvantages are that groups develop competing or conflicting goals, and

(2) That intergroup communication and cooperation breaks down.

Conflict resolution between groups/inter group conflict resolution

Since the Sherif study, several researchers have followed up with studies of conflict resolution between groups. The general conclusions are that to reduce the negative side effects of intergroup competition, an organization would need to:

(1) Encourage and reward groups on the basis of their contribution to the organizational as a whole, or at least, to large parts of it, rather than on individual group results;

(2) Stimulate high interaction and communication between groups, and provide rewards for intergroup collaboration;

(3) Encourage movement of staff across group boundaries for the purpose of increasing mutual understanding of problems; and

(4) Avoid putting neighboring groups into a situation where they are competing on a win-lose basis for resources or status, for example.

Not all conflict is harmful. On the contrary, disagreement is an essential element in working through problems and overseeing difficulties. The conflict of ideas when put to the service of organization or group goals is in fact the sign of a healthy organization. What is to be avoided is the point-scoring conflict that develops between groups who see their relative success and status against their neighbors as being more important than the pursuit of the common good.

LESSON 4: TEAM BEHAVIOUR

Teams & Team-Building

-Groups and Teams are different

A team, according to Adair (1986), is more than just a group with a common aim. It is a group in which the contributions of individuals are seen as complementary. Collaboration, working together, is the keynote of a team activity. Adair suggests that the test of a good (ie effective) team is:

"Whether ...its members can work as a team while they are apart, contributing to a sequence of activities rather than to a common task, which requires their presence in one place at one time"

What we have described in this lesson are the key variables that determine the relative effectiveness of groups in achieving their goals and satisfying the needs of their members. These variables have to be addressed if there is to any chance of building a successful team.

What, then, are the characteristics of effective teamwork?
Research suggests that they are as follows:

(1) Clear objectives and agreed goals
(2) Openness and confrontation
(3) Support and trust
(4) Cooperation and conflict
(5) Sound procedures
(6) Appropriate leadership
(7) Regular review
(8) Individual development

(9) Sound intergroup relations

Adair emphasizes the importance of careful selection of team members. They key factors here for individuals are not only technical or professional competence, but also the ability to work as a team member, and the possession of 'desirable personal attributes' such as willingness to listen, flexibility of outlook, and the capacity to give and accept trust.

Long-term research into management team-skills has been carried out by R. M. Belbin and colleagues (1981).

The result showed that a manager's team behaviour fell into one or more of eight fairly distinct team roles, as follows:

Team Roles for a manager:

(1) Chairman

An individual who can control and coordinate the other team members, who recognizes their talents but is not threatened by them, and who is concerned with what is feasible rather than what is exciting or imaginative.

(2) Shaper

This is another leader role, but one in which the role holder acts much more directly to shape the decisions and thinking of the team.

(3) Innovator

This type of person provides the creative thinking in a team, even if a concern for good ideas over shadows his ability to be sensitive to other people's needs.

(4) Monitor/Evaluator

The strength of this role lies in the holder's ability to analyze issues and suggestions objectively.

(5) Company Worker

Whilst the first four roles provide the major inspiration and leadership, this role provides for implementation of ideas by the role holder's ability to translate general ideas and plans to practice.

(6) Team Worker

This role meets the needs of the team for cohesiveness and collaboration, for role-holders tend to be perceptive of peoples needs and adapt at supporting individuals.

(7) Resource Investigator

A person in this role looks for resources and ideas outside the team with the aim of supporting the teams' efforts.

(8) Completer

This is an individual whose energies are directly primary to the completion of the task, and who harness and anxiety and concern towards getting the job done on time and to a high standard.

Individual managers are likely to be predisposed to behaving in one predominant role, even though they may show tendencies towards others. The dominant role is closely linked to particular reasoning abilities and personality characteristics. But is also affected by the priorities and processes of a manager's job.

An effective team is one that is likely to have a range of roles present in its make up. Scientists concluded that the ideal team would be composed one chairman or one shaper, Innovator, one monitor/evaluator and one or more company workers, team workers, resource investigators or completers. Since ideal conditions are rarely present managers have to build their teams from amongst the people they have and encourage a greater degree of role flexibility. However manager can benefit from understanding the distinction between the roles and making an assessment of the roles-strengths of his own staff. Knowing what to expect as well as what not to expect from the colleagues enables the managers to head off potential tensions or even group break down.

Primary Groups and Secondary Groups

What is a Primary Group?

A primary group consist of one's family, immediate family etc. One parents, family members, uncles, aunts etc.

-Cohesiveness

-Togetherness

-Bonds between the group members are strong

-Difficult to disperse

-Interdependence strong among group members

What is Secondary Group?

A secondary group consists of one's friends, colleagues in the organization, subordinates, peers and superiors etc.

-Comparatively cohesiveness is less

SWOT Analysis, Stereotyping, Departmentalization and Groups/Teams

(1) How to do a SWOT Analysis

S - Strengths
W - Weaknesses
O - Opportunities
T - Threats

Do a SWOT Analysis you and your school.

(2) What is stereotyping?

Definition: Stereotyping means a set of beliefs about characteristics about people in a particular group that is generalized to all members of the group.

ex: If I believe through my personal experience that generally short people are cunning, stereotyping means now I apply this belief of mine to all short people and believe that all short people are cunning.

(3) Departmentalization

Advantages of Departments/Departmentalization

(1) It groups people with particular type of skills together

(2) Easy to manage a group organized as a department

(3) Easy to communicate

(4) Results in specialization of skills

(5) Creates variety of jobs

(6) People work together to make decisions

(7) Responsibility/accountability can be held easily

(8) Promote teamwork

Disadvantages of Departments/Departmentalization

(1) Expensive/high administration costs

(2) Based on formal authority

(3)Facilitates bureaucratic set up

(4) Distinguish between a Group and a Team

(1) A team is more objective oriented than a group

(2) A team has no duplication of skills unlike in a group

(3) In a group members share a common interest whereas in a team members share a common objective

(4) A team is much more effective than a group

LESSON 5: LEADERSHIP

Defining leadership

We will define managerial leadership as the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members.

There are four important implications of our definition.

(1) First, leadership involves other people - employees or followers. By their will

willingness to accept directions from the leader, group members help define the leader's status and make the process possible: without people to lead, all the leadership qualities of a manager would be irrelevant.

(2) Second, leadership involves an unequal of power between leaders and group members. Group members are not powerless; they can and do shape group activities in a number of ways. Still, the leader will usually have more power.

Where does a manager's power come from?

- Reward power
- Coercive power
- Legitimate power
- Referent power, and
- Expert power

The greater the number of these power sources available to the manager, the greater his or her potential for effective leadership. Yet it is a commonly observed fact of organization life that managers at the same level-with the same amount of legitimate power differ widely in their ability to use reward, coercive, referent, and expert power.

(3) Thus, a third aspect of leadership is the ability to use the different forms of power to influence follower's behaviors in a number of ways. Indeed, leaders have influenced soldiers

to kill and leaders have influenced employees to make personal sacrifices for the good of the company. The power of influence brings us to the fourth aspect of leadership.

(4) This fourth aspect combines the first three and acknowledges that leadership is about values. Some argues that the leader who ignores the moral components of leadership may well go down in history as a bad leader. Moral leadership concerns values and requires that followers be given enough knowledge of alternatives to make intelligent choice when it comes time to respond to a leader's proposal to lead. As noted some argued, 'We don't learn ethics from people who sermonize or moralize or try to preach to us about ethics; we learn ethics from the people whom we admire and respect, who have power over us. They're the real teachers of ethics. It is very important for leaders and role models, whether they be sports figures or politicians, to make positive statements of ethics, if they're not hypocritical.

Leadership & Management

It is worth noting that although leadership is highly related to and important to management, leadership and management are not the same concepts. To dramatize the difference, leadership writers had said that most organizations are over managed and under led. A person can serve as an effective manager-a good planner and a fair, organized administrator-but lack the motivational skills of a leader. Others can serve as effective leaders-skilled at inspiring enthusiasm and devotion-but lack the managerial skills to channel the energy they arouse in others. Given the challenges of dynamic engagement into day's organization world, many organizations re putting a premium on managers who also possess leadership skills.

Leadership Theories

(1) The great man theory/approach

The great man approach said leaders are born to families of leaders and they are not made.

(2) The trait theory/approach

The first systematic effort by psychologists and other researchers to understand leadership was the attempt to identify the personal characteristics of leaders(traits). This approach assumed that leaders share certain inborn personality traits.

In searching for measurable leadership traits, researchers have taken two approaches:

(1) Comparing the traits of those who have emerged as leaders with the traits of those

who have not; (2) comparing the traits of effective leaders with those of ineffective leaders.

(1) Comparing the traits of those who have emerged as leaders with the traits of those who have not;

However, they have largely failed to uncover any traits that clearly and consistently distinguish leaders from followers. It is true that leaders have been found to be brighter, more intelligent, and more self confident than non leaders. They also tend to be taller. But although millions of people have these traits, most of them will never attain leadership positions. And many indisputable leaders have not had these traits-Abraham Lincoln, for example, was moody. Napoleon was rather short. It is also possible that individuals become more as assertive and self-confident once they occupy a leadership position, so some of the traits identified may be the results of leadership experience rather than the causes of leadership ability. Although personality measurements may one day become exact enough to isolate leadership traits, the evidence thus so far suggests that people who emerge as leaders possess no single constellation of traits that clearly distinguishes them from non leaders.

The issue is also clouded by the question of cultural bias. For example, tallness has long been associated with American leaders. Does this mean that tallness is a leadership trait?

(2) Comparing the traits of effective leaders with those of ineffective leaders

Attempts to compare the characteristics of effective and ineffective leaders-the second category of leadership trait studies - are more recent and fewer in number, but they, too have generally failed to isolate traits strongly associated with successful leadership. One study did find that intelligence, initiative, and self-assurance were associated with high managerial levels and performance. However, this study also found that the single most important factor related to managerial level and performance was the manager's supervisory ability-that is, his or her skill in using supervisory methods appropriate to the particular situation.

Some researchers have also found that although women are still less likely than men to emerge as leaders, they are just as effective when they do. Even though an increasing number of people believe in equality of ability and opportunity, persistent, often unconscious, sexual stereotyping continues to hamper the recognition of women as potential leaders. Women who do become leaders, however, not only perform as well as male leaders according to objective measures, but also are generally perceived as equally effective by their employees.

Racial stereotyping, of course, is another problem when attempting to identify the connections between traits and leadership qualities, because leadership qualities may go unrecognized and untapped because of racial stereotyping.

(3) The behavioral theory/approach

When it became evident that effective leaders did not seem to have a particular set of distinguishing traits, researchers tried to isolate the behaviors characteristic of effective leaders. Hence they tried to define leadership based on behaviour not traits.

In other words, rather than try to figure out who effective leaders are, researchers tried to determine what effective leaders do-how they delegate tasks, how they communicate with and try to motivate their followers or employees, how they carry out their tasks,(identify their behaviour) and so on. Behaviors, unlike traits, can be learned, so it followed that individuals trained in appropriate leadership behaviors would be able to lead more effectively. These researchers have focused on two aspects of leadership behavior: I

(1) Leadership functions and

(2) Leadership styles.

(1) Leadership functions

Researchers exploring leadership functions came to the conclusion that to operate effectively groups need someone to perform two major functions:

- Task-related or problem-solving functions and
- Group-maintenance or social functions

Group maintenance functions include such actions as mediating disputes and ensuring that individuals feel valued by the group.

An individual who is able to perform both roles successfully would be an especially effective leader. In practice, however, a leader may have the skill or temperament or time to play only one role. This does not mean that the group is doomed, though. Studies have found that most effective groups have some form of shared leadership: one person (usually the manager or formal leader) performs the task function, while another member performs the social function.

(2) Leadership styles

The two leadership functions-task-related and group-maintenance-tend to be expressed in two different leadership styles.

- Managers who have a task-oriented style closely supervise employees to be sure the task is performed satisfactorily. Getting the job done is given more emphasis than employees' growth or personal satisfaction.

- Managers with an employee-oriented style put more emphasis on motivating rather than controlling subordinates. They seek friendly, trusting, and respectful relationships with employees, who are often allowed to participate in decisions that affect them. Most managers use at least a little of each style, but put more emphasis on either tasks or employees. Fist theorists describe the various factors thought to influence a manager's choice of leadership style. While they personally favored the employee-centered style, they suggested that a manager consider three sets of “forces” before choosing a leadership style: - forces in the manager, - forces in employees and - forces in the situation.

- **Forces in the manager**

How a manager leads will undoubtedly be primarily influenced by his or her background, knowledge, values, and experience (forces in the manager). For example, a manager who believes that the needs of the individual must come second to the needs of the organization is likely to take a very directive role in employees activities.

- **Forces in employees**

But employees must also be considered before mangers can choose an appropriate leadership style. According to some writers, a manager can allow greater participation and freedom when employees ask for independence and freedom of action, want to have decision-making responsibility, identify with the organization’s goals, are knowledgeable and experienced enough to deal with a problem efficiently, and have experiences that lead them to expect participative management. Where these conditions are absent, managers might need initially to adopt a more authoritarian style. They can, however, modify their leadership behavior as employees gain in self-confidence, skill, and organizational commitment.

- Forces in the situation

Finally, a manager's choice of leadership style must address such situational force such as the organization's preferred style, the size and cohesiveness of a specific work group, the nature of the group's tasks, the pressures of time, and even environmental factors- all of which may affect organization member's attitudes to authority. Most managers, for example, lean toward the leadership style favored by the organization's top ranking executives.

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY STUDIES & UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN STUDIES

Tannenbaum and Schmidt, along with other early researchers, thought leadership style was a "zero sum" game: The more (a) task-oriented a manager, the less (b) human relationship-oriented he or she could be. Subsequent research was undertaken to determine which of those two leadership style produces the most effective group performance.

(1) THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY STUDIES

At Ohio State University, researchers studied the effectiveness of what they called:

(a) Task-oriented leadership behaviour and

(b) Employee-oriented leadership behavior

They found, as might be expected, that employee turnover rates were lowest and employee satisfaction highest under leaders who were rated high in employee-oriented leadership behavior. Conversely, leaders who were rated low in employee-oriented leadership behavior and high in task-oriented leadership behaviour had high grievance and turnover rates among their employees.

Interestingly, the researchers also found that employees' ratings of their leaders' effectiveness depended not so much on the particular style of the leader or on the situation in which the style was used.

For an example, Air Force commanders who rated high on employee-oriented leadership behavior were rated as less effective than task oriented commanders. It is possible that the more authoritarian environment of the military, coupled with the air crews' belief that quick, hard decisions are essential in combat situations, caused people-oriented leaders to be rated less effective. On the other hand, nonproduction supervisors and managers in large companies were rated more effective if they high ranked high in employee-oriented leadership behavior.

Leadership expectations differ globally as well, even in the military. In 1956 the Egyptians army was routed by the much smaller Israeli army, even though the Egyptians were better equipped and far better positioned geographically. An analysis of the confrontation revealed that the Israeli army was built on what might be called Theory Y values: Soldiers were treated and taught to treat others humanely, hierarchy played a greatly reduced role, cross-communications flourished, coordination was high, and intra-organizational rivalries were at a minimum. Because all were working for the end goals, the job of the high command was leadership, not direction.

(2) UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN STUDIES

Researchers at the University of Michigan found a different result. They distinguished between

(a) Production-centered managers and

(b) Employee-centered managers

Production-centered managers set rigid work standards, organized tasks down to the last detail, prescribed work methods to be followed, and closely supervised employees, work.

Employee-centered managers encouraged employee participation in goal setting and other work decisions and helped ensure high performance by inspiring trust and respect.

The Michigan studies found that the most productive work group tended to have leaders who were employee-centered rather than production-centered. They also found that the most effective had supportive relationships with their employees, and encouraged employees to set and achieve high performance goals.

CONCLUSION FROM THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY STUDIES & UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN STUDIES

THE MANAGERIAL GRID

One conclusion from the Ohio State University and Michigan University studies is that leadership style might not be based on one style. Both task orientation and employee orientation are not only possible, but could be crucial to superior performance.

Blake and Mouton Grid/Leadership Grid/Managerial Grid

The Managerial Grid, developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton to help measure a manager's relative concern for people and tasks, reflects this two styles of leadership. The managerial Grid identifies a range of management behaviors based on the various ways that task-oriented and employee-oriented styles (each expressed as a continuum on a scale of 1 to 9) can interact with each other (see figure B).

(1) Style 1-1: Thus, Style 1,1 management, at the lower left-hand corner of the grid, is management with-low concern for people and low concern for tasks or production. This style is sometimes called laissez-faire management because the leader does not take a leadership role.

(2) Style 1-9: Style 1,9 management is country club management- high concern for employees but low concern for production.

(3) Style 9-1: Its opposite, Style 9,1 management, is task or authoritarian management - high concern for production and efficiency but low concern for employees.

(4) Style 5-5: Style 5,5 is middle-of-the-road management -an intermediate amount of concern for both production and employee satisfaction.

(5) Style 9-9: Style 9,9 is called team or democratic management -a high concern for both production and employee morale and satisfaction. The presence of this category contrasts with the earlier assumption that leaders had to have one orientation or the other. Blake and Mouton argue strongly that Style 9,9 is the most effective management style. They believe this leadership approach will, in almost all situations, result in improved performance, low absenteeism and turnover, and high employee satisfaction. The Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid is widely used as a training device for managers.

(4) The contingency/situation theory/approach

This theory said that leadership nothing but leading according to the demands of particular situations.

Researchers using the trait and behavioral approaches showed that effective leadership depended on many variables, such as organizational culture and the nature of tasks. No one trait was common to all effective leaders. No one style was effective in all situations.

Researchers therefore began trying to identify those factors in each situation that influenced the effectiveness of a particular leadership style. Taken together, the theories resulting from this research constitute the contingency approach to leadership.

Four of the more recent and well known contingency/situation models of leadership

(1) HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL

One of the major contingency approaches to leadership is situational leadership model**,** which holds that the most effective leadership style varies with the "readiness" of employees. Hersey and Blanchard define readiness as desire for achievement., willingness to accept responsibility, and task-related ability, skill and experience. The goals and knowledge of followers are important variables in determining effective leadership style.

They believe that the relationship between a manager and follower moves through four phases as employees develop, and managers need to vary their leadership style.

(a) High amount of task behaviour and low human relationship by manager

In the initial phase of readiness high amounts of task behavior by the manager is most appropriate Employees must be instructed in their tasks and familiarized with the organizations' rules and procedures. A nondirective manager would cause anxiety and confusion in new followers.

(b) **High amount of task behaviour and high human relationship by manager**

As followers begin to learn their tasks, tasks-behavior remains essential because they are not able to function without the structure. However, the leader's trust in and support employees increases as the leader becomes familiar with them and wishes to encourage further efforts on their part. Thus, the leader needs to increase relationship behavior.

(c) **High human relationship and low amount of task behaviour by manager**

In the third phase, employees have more ability and achievement motivation begins to surface and they actively begin to seek greater responsibility. The leader will no longer need to be as directive (indeed, close direction might be resented). However the leader will still have to be supportive and considerate in order to strengthen the followers' resolve for greater responsibility.

(d) **Low human relationship and low amount of task behaviour by manager**

As followers gradually become more confident, self-directing, and experienced, the leader can reduce the amount of support and encouragement. In this fourth phase, followers no longer need or expect direction from their manager. They are increasingly on their own.

This situational leadership model has generated interest because it recommends a leadership type that is dynamic and flexible rather than static. The motivation, ability, and experience of followers must constantly be assessed to determine which style combination is most appropriate under flexible and changing conditions. If the style is appropriate, according to Hersey and Blanchard, it will not only motivate employees but will also help them develop professionally. Thus, the lead we who wants to develop followers, increase their confidence, and help them learn their work will have to shift style constantly.

(2) LEADERSHIP STYLE AND THE WORK SITUATION: THE FIEDLER MODEL

One of the most thoroughly researched contingency models was developed by Fred E. Fiedler. Fiedler's basic assumption is that it is quite difficult for managers to alter the management styles that made them successful.

In fact, Fiedler believes, most managers are not very flexible, and trying to change a manager's style to fit unpredictable or fluctuating situations is inefficient or useless. Since styles are relatively inflexible, and since no one style is appropriate for every situation, effective group performance can only be achieved by matching the manager to the situation or by changing the situation to fit the manager.

For example, a comparatively authoritarian manager can be selected to fill a post that requires a directive leader, or a job can be changed to give an authoritarian manager more formal authority over employees.

What differentiates his model from the others is the measuring instrument he used. Fiedler measured leadership style on a scale that indicated "the degree to which a man described favorably or unfavorably his Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC)" - the employee with whom the person could work least well.

This measure locates an individual on the leadership-style continuum. According to Fiedler's findings, "a person who describes his least preferred co-worked in a relatively favorable manner tends to be, human relations-oriented, and have good feelings about his men.

But a person who describes his least preferred co-worked in an unfavorable manner who has what we have come to call -a low LPC rating-tends to be managing, task controlling, and less concerned with the human relations aspects of the job.

High-LPC Managers:

According to Fiedler, then, high-LPC managers want to have warm personal relations with their co-workers and will regard close ties with employees as important to their overall effectiveness.

Low-LPC Managers:

Low-LPC managers, on the other hand, want to get the job done. The reactions of employees to their leadership style is not important to them. The need to maintain production is important to them. Low-LPC managers who feel that a harsh style is necessary to maintain production and will not hesitate to use it.

Fiedler has also identified three 'leadership situations' that help determine which leadership style will be effective:

(a) Leader-member relations situation
(b) The task structure situation and
(c) The leader's position power situation

(a) Leader-member relations situation

The quality of leader-member relations is the most important influence on the manager's power and effectiveness. If the manager gets along well with the rest of the group, if group members respect the manager for reasons of personality, character, or ability, then the manager might not have to rely on formal rank or authority. On the other hand, a manager who is disliked or distrusted may be less able to lead informally and could have to rely on formal directives to accomplish group tasks.

(b) The task structure situation

Task structure is the second most important variable in the leadership situation. A highly structured task is one for which step-by-step procedures or instructions are available. Group members therefore have a very clear idea of what they are expected to do. But when tasks are unstructured, as in committee meetings, group member roles are more ambiguous.

(c) The leader's position power situation

The leader's position power is the final situation. Some positions, such as the presidency of a firm, carry a great deal of power and authority. The chairperson of a fund-raising drive, on the other hand, has little power over volunteer workers. Thus, high-position power simplifies the leader's task of influencing others, while low-position power makes the leader's task more difficult.

Fiedler then went on to specify eight possible combinations of above three situations.

Using these (a) eight categories of leadership situations and his (b) two types of leaders-high-LPC leaders and low-LPC leaders-Fiedler reviewed studies of over 800 groups to see which type of leader was most effective in each situation.

Among the group he studied were basketball teams, executive training workshops, and Air Force and tank combat crews. He found that low-LPC leaders-those who were task-oriented or authoritarian-were most effective in extreme situations: situations in which the leader either had a great deal of power and influence. High-LPC leaders-those who were employee-oriented-were most effective in situations where the leader had less power and influence.

(3) A PATH-GOAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

Like other contingency approaches, the path-goal model of leadership tries to help us understand and predict leadership effectiveness in different situations.

The path-goal approach is based on the motivation, which states that an individual's motivation depends on his or her expectation of reward or attractiveness of the reward. Although managers have a number of ways to motivate employees, The most important is their ability to provide rewards and to specify what employees must do to earn them. Thus, managers determine the availability of "goals" (rewards) and the "paths".

This suggests that a manager's leadership style influences the rewards available to employees, as well as employees' perceptions of the path to those rewards.

An employees-centered manager: for example, will not only offer pay and promotion, but also support, encouragement, security etc.

A task-oriented manager: on the hand, will offer a less set of rewards. Employees of a task-oriented manager will know exactly what productivity or performance level they must attain to get bonuses, or promotions.

Evans believes that the most effective leadership style according to a situation

depends on the types of rewards they can offer.

(4) THE VROOM-YETTON AND VROOM-JAGO MODELS

The classic Vroom-Yetton approaches to situational leadership included a concern for both:

(a) The quality and

(b) The acceptance of decisions.

(5) The dynamic engagement theory/approach

Writing in the spirit that we call "dynamic engagement" two writers have opened up a new line of inquiry in leadership research by going back to basics and trying to catalog five fundamental practices that leaders use to get extraordinary things done.

(1) Challenge things

(2) Inspiring others to share a vision

(3) Action oriented

(4) Set an example

(5) Encourage others

LESSON 6: THE FUTURE OF LEADERSHIP THEORY

(1) TRANSFORMATIONAL/CHARISMATIC LEADERS

Are leaders who, through their personal vision and energy, inspire followers and have a major impact on their organizations: also called charismatic leaders? They have a very high level of referent power. (Power these leaders get because others to refer them or follow their approach.

Charismatic leaders have very high levels of referent power and that some of that power comes from their need to influence others. The charismatic leader has “extremely high levels of self confidence, and conviction. Charismatic leader communicate a vision or higher level goal that captures the commitment and energy of followers. They are careful to create an image of success and competence and to exemplify in their own behavior the values they believe in. They also communicate high expectations for followers and confidence that followers perform up to those expectations.

Transformational leaders and their followers pursue a vision. The deeds of Winston Churchill, Mahatma Gandhi, and Martin Luther King are examples, we are well aware that the ability to inspire great commitment, sacrifice, and energy is no guarantee that the cause or vision is a worthwhile one. Adolf Hitler was also known for his charisma-and for the tragedies his leadership brought to his followers and others. Transformational leaders find meaning and excitement in their work lives, but they can pose great dangers if their goals and values are opposed to the basic tenets of civilized society.

(2) TRANSACTIONAL LEADERS

Are leaders who determine what subordinates need to do to achieve objectives, and help subordinates become confident that they can reach their objectives, these leaders are objective oriented?

CHALLENGES TO LEADERSHIP THEORY

The example of Hitler has led some people to suggest that we question all leaders' motives.

A PSYCHOANALYTIC APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

To understand why some people become leaders, some argue, we need to take a psychoanalytic view. This view, originated by Sigmund Freud, holds that much of human behavior is shaped by unconscious efforts to satisfy unfulfilled needs and drives.

THE ROMANCE OF LEADERSHIP

A second challenge to traditional theories of leadership focuses on the followers-the people who look to leaders for guidance. In this view, followers have developed romanticized, or idealized, views of what leaders do, what they can accomplish and how they can affect followers' lives. These romantic views have evolved because we turn to leaders to simplify our lives.

What is Leadership? Definition

Leadership is a process where two or more people interact with each other in which one influences the behaviour of the other in order to achieve Goal/Goals.

Important Characteristics of the above Definition:

*Leadership is a Process

-It is a ongoing or continuing thing

*Interactive Process of Influence

-Two or more People/ Group of People

-Leadership always emerges in a Group

-You can't be a Leader to yourself

*Goal/Goals

-It involves achievement of certain Goal/Goals

Distinguish Management from Leadership

What is Management?

Definition: It is the Process of Achieving Organizational Goals through engaging in the four major functions of Planning, Organizing, Leading and Controlling.

What is Leadership?

Definition: Leadership is a process where two or more people interact with each other in which one influences the behaviour of the other in order to achieve Goal/Goals.

Today we have enough Managers who know MANAGEMENT. Therefore today we need

Managers who are LEADERS and who knows LEADERSHIP

Therefore

Manager--------->------- Management----------->-------A Good Manager

Manager--------->-------Management------------>-------A Good Manager

	+	+
	Leadership	Leader

*** Still you can be a Manager without a being a Leader. But today we need Managers who are also Leaders**

Today's Managers

- Must be Managers

- Must be Leaders

Leadership Power

Leaders have Power. They get Power through an Influential Process**.**

What is Power?

Is it Pressure? (Power is not Pressure)

Definition

Can Influence, ex: A Foreman can be a Leader (Because he has Power or Can Influence others)

Leadership Power

Leaders have Power

-From where does Leaders get Power?

-Somebody has to give Power to Leaders

Explanation

Application of above in your Organization

Managers get Power from the Organization (Group), Leaders get Power from the Group

Use of Power

Managers use Power as Authority, Leaders use Power as Influence

Manager **--------->-------** Boss?

Manager**--------->-------** Leader?

How does a Leader get Power from the Group?

-By giving Power to the Group **Leader gets Power from the** Group

Explanation

(How does a Leader gives Power to the Group?)

How does a Leader gets Power from the Group?

-By giving Power to the Group Leader gets Power from the Group

Explanation

(How does a Leader gets Power by giving Power to the Group)

The Process of Leadership

Group

Leader gets Power from ---->-----Can Influence -------->-----Leader gives Power to
the Group the Group

Power

Leader

<u>Application of above in your Organization in an Organization</u>

Hierarchy

(ex: Chairman, Managing Director, General Manager/Chief Executive Officer)

Power

Boss (Manager)

Authority

Group

Can Influence

Leader gets Power from the Group -------->----- Power -------->----- Leader gives Power to the Group

Leader

Managers should focus more on becoming Leaders

-Giving Power to the Group

- Satisfying group (employee) expectations

If Managers do not satisfy Group (Employee) Expectations	---->---	The Group (Employees) don't know what to do	--->---	Confidence of Group (Employees) very Low	-->---	No Power given by the MGR

ex: No Clear instructions, No opportunities given-No promotions, etc.

In an Organization

A Leader who gets Power from the Group may use it to :-

(1) Achieve Organizational Goal/Goals

- **To be the Market Leader**
- **To have the Highest Profits**

(2) Achieve Personal Goals

- **Recognition**
- **Status**

- **Promotion**
- **Job Satisfaction**
- **Growth**
- **Acceptance**
- **Wealth**

- Therefore a Leader will be a SUCCESSFULL Person

A Leader’s Vision

What is a Vision ?

Definition: A Picture of what you want to be in distant future

Importance of Leadership Vision

-Leaders must have a Vision

-They work towards realizing their Vision

How to make Vision a reality

- A Leader’s Vision cannot become a Reality unless he shares it with the Group

- Share - What I enjoy you also enjoy
- Sharing the Vision - My Vision is your Vision too

- A Leader has to inspire followers of that Group to internalize (Put inside) his Vision. When that internalization takes place the Group becomes the people who are sharing that Vision.
  - To Share/Continue the Vision Communicate it to the Group
    - Leaders must have the capability of effective Communicating of the Vision

      (Human skills)
  - Leader also needs the Co-operation of the Group

Organizational Vision

- Importance of Top Management sharing the Vision for the Company with Middle Level Managers
- Importance of Middle Level Managers sharing the Vision for the Company with Supervisory Managers
- Importance of Supervisory Managers sharing the Vision for the Company with Workers

-All level of Managers Plan, Organise Lead and Control to ensure that Organizational Vision

(Goal/Goals) achieved

-Importance of sharing the Vision with employees to make it a Reality

-Inspiring your subordinates

Leadership Theories

Many Theories of Leadership developed with aim of defining leadership.

(1) Great Man Theory

(2) The Traitist Theory

(3) Situation Theory

(4) Functional Leadership Theory

(1) Great Man Theory

- According to this Theory Leaders are Born in Families of Leaders
  - According to Great Man Theory by looking at a Person you can tell whether he/she

will be a

Leader in future

- However subsequently people found that this Theory is not correct
  - Because born to Great Leaders were rogues
  - Leaders were not always born to Great Leaders

(2) The Traitist Theory

- According to this Theory Leaders have some Traits or Special Characteristics such as :
  - Courage
  - Honesty
  - Communication Skills
  - Decision Making Skills
  - Motivation
  - Intelligence
  - Human Relations Skills

- However subsequently people found that this Theory is also not correct
  - Because people who were not honest became Leaders

- Also people with no Courage or Intelligence became Leaders

As a result subsequently this Theory was amended to say that Leaders have some Universal Traits

(Traits common among all Leaders)

- Such Universal Traits (Traits common among all Leaders) identified are:
  - Intelligence
    - Leaders are Intelligent
    - or More Intelligent (Need not brilliant)
  - Intrinsic Motivation
    - Leaders are people Motivated by Inner Motivation
    - ex: Inner Motivation ex: Always achieve something (Not only wealth)
  - Human Relations Skills
  - Leaders have a wide variety of Interests
    - ex: Can speak on anything

(3) Situation Theory

- According to this Theory Leaders emerge when certain situations create conditions for their emergence

- If not for the situation these Leaders would not have emerged
    - Specially according to the Situation (ex: suffering) it is easy to Share the Vision of a Leader
        - Political Leaders
        - Examples from Our Country
            - Situations: No jobs/food

- **What about Religious Leaders? Are they Situation Leaders?**

(4) Functional Leadership Theory

- According to this Theory Leaders are people who focus their attention on

  (1) Task (Objectives)

  (2) The needs of the Individuals and

  (3) The needs of the Group

    - Therefore Functional Leaders focus on :
        - Task (Objective)

- Needs of the Individuals
- Needs of the Group
  - How? - By Inspiring Individuals & the Group

Leadership Power

(1) Legitimate Power/Position Power

- Certain Legal Power given to you
  - Right to give Command
  - Right to receive Obedience

(2) Reward Power

- The Power to grant Favours or Rewards
  - Monetary Rewards
    - ex: Bonus, Incentives
  - Non Monetary Rewards
    - ex: Promotions

(3) Coercive Power

- Power to Punish, Instil some Fear, Force

(4) Expert Power

- Means a very wide Knowledge Base

- Knowledge is Power (saying)
  - ex: He can understand technological Processes of the Company as well

(5) Reference Power

- Is the Power which makes others/followers to refer him
- A Leadership Power that arouse other's popular enthusiasm
  - Charismatic/Charisma
    - ex: In family our father was our hero - He was the standard for us

All of above Power should be used with Skill (with care)

Above Power results in 3 things:

(1) Commitment

(2) Complaisance

(3) Resistance

What Power results in Commitment

(1) Expert Power (2) Reference Power

Ex: Understanding People ex: Honesty

What Power results in Complaisance

(1) Legitimate/Position Power (2) Reward Power

Ex: Welfare ex: Rewards

What Power results in Resistance

(1) Coercive Power

Ex: Force

- As said earlier Power should be used with Skill (with care)

Use Skills to:

Turn:

- <u>Resistance to Complaisance</u>
    - Coercive Power----->------Complaisance

How ?

- Make him feel he did a wrong thing and Punishment was justly desired
- Make him say - " I am sorry - I did the wrong thing "
- Counseling

Turn:

- <u>Complaisance to Commitment</u>
    - Legitimate/Position Power---->-----Commitment

How?

- ex:- Not - Nimal submit me the Production or Accounts Report before 4.00 pm

  But - Nimal please give me the Production or Accounts Report before 4.00 pm because I have to submit it to GM at 4.30 pm

Turn:

<u>- Reward Power---->-----Commitment</u>

How?

- Reward people for efficiency, effectiveness so that they will be more committed to their work in future

Important

- Expert Power
    - Carefully nurture
    - Upgrade your Knowledge Base - in all areas
    - Keep updating your Knowledge with emerging trends
        - Developments in the Computer field

- Reference Power
    - Carefully use
    - The day you do something wrong (ex: Being dishonest) you will lose all your Reference Power
    - Stick to your Position /Principles. Make sure you won't sacrifice your Principles -

      Principle Centered

Different Leadership Styles

(1) Authoritarian Style

- Autocrat type ex: I tell, you do

(2) Laissez Faire Style/Hands off Leadership Style

- You allow people to do what they want to do (least regulation)

  ex: During British Rule in Plantation Areas of Sri Lanka

(3) Democracy Style

- Reach decisions on Consultation, Compromise and Consensus

When above Styles are best

(1) Authoritarian Style

- Can use this Style when there is an emergency
  - ex: A Fire
- Authoritarian Style Leaders are very efficient
- Some love Authoritarian Style Leaders because they can show results - fast
- This is the 02nd Best Leadership Style all round

(2) Laissez Faire Style/Hands off Leadership Style

- Can use this Style when experts handle work
- Also if your Workers/Subordinates are dedicated
- Least Regulations
- This is the least Best Leadership Style all round

(3) Democracy Style

- Can use this Style when your Organization/Environs are stable
- Satisfying all
- This is the Best Leadership Style all round

-So you as Good Managers must change Leadership Styles depending on:

(1) Task (Objectives)

(2) People and

(3) Situation

Try to be resilient

A Case Study on Leadership - Lee Iacocca: The ‘Rambo‘of Corporate America

Lee Iacocca, the Chairman of Chrysler Corporation, has become a bigger - than - life American folk hero in the tradition of John Wayne or Rambo. Following a long career at Ford, Iacocca joined Chrysler in 1980. But the Chrysler that he took over appeared only weeks away from bankruptcy. It was a big over staffed, inefficient company that had a history of producing unexciting cars of dubious quality. In four years Iacocca achieved one of the most incredible turnaround ever achieved in a large U. S. Corporation. In 1984 alone, Chrysler earned $ 2.4 billion, more than it earned in its previous 58 years of existence combined.

How did Iacocca, and the team he put together at Chrysler, do it? The answer is good management!

Iacocca himself was a visible and charismatic leader. He identified a clear mission for Chrysler. He appointed the official spokesperson for the company. He took the initiative to replace almost all the senior management with proven winners he had worked with Ford previously. Iacocca took upon himself to talk up the company to the public and to his employees. He was able convince the Government to grant a large sum as loan without any collateral to receive the seriously ailing Chrysler. In the minds of Chrysler employees, it's

Iacocca who gets the credit for turning the company around and saving their jobs. He was able to persuade the workers to accept lower wages and he himself took a dollar a month as his salary. The employees shared his vision that he would turn the company around sooner than later. When Iacocca took over, one of his first priorities was to stem the out flow of cash. This demanded dramatic cuts in costs. He streamlined the company by selling some of the loss making divisions. He reduced Chrysler's fixed cost by nearly 25% by pruning the ranks of workers and managers. He succeeded in improving employee productivity to the point the company could build 19.9 vehicles per employee annually in contrast to 10.2 in 1980. Iacocca sought to gain efficiencies by standardizing parts.

Competition from Ford and General Motors required Chrysler to implement comprehensive programmes to improve quality. Chrysler's management was keenly aware that the reason the Japanese had made such strong inroads in the U. S. markets was because they produced car of very high quality at prices that were equal to or less than those charged by U. S. manufacturers. Chrysler's management responded by immediately introducing high quality standards in the design of the basic cars and then investing heavily in quality control equipment and personnel. The company also altered its executive bonus plans to reward quality, productivity and market share in addition to profits. Executives now lose 25% of their bonuses for each category in which the company fails to meet its objectives.

LESSON 7: COMMUNICATION

Introduction

The issue of communication is vital one for any organization. It is worth considering for a

moment what is the meaning of so important a concept.

Communication Definition

Communication is the process of creating, transmitting and interpreting, ideas, facts, and opinions and feeling it is a process that is essentially a sharing one -a mutual interchange between two or more persons. In organizations, communication is generally thought of in terms of:

1. The media of communication, eg memos, reports. Letters etc.
2. The skills of communication, eg giving instructions, interviewing, chairing meetings etc. and
3. The organization of communications, eg the chain of command, briefing groups, committees etc.

Formal communication/official communication

These three aspect sum up the formal communication present within the organization, and must be distinguished from the informal aspects of communication, such as the so called 'grapevine' (rum our, gossip ect).

Informal communication

Formal communication must be distinguished from the informal aspects of communication, such as the so called 'grapevine' (rumour, gossip etc).

Importance of formal communication

The rest of this lesson is concerned with formal, or official, communication. Particular topics to be examined include communication flows, communication media, barriers to communication and the use of committees. In effect, the lesson deals with the communications questions that face practically every organization:

¨ What do we need to communicate?
¨ When should we communicate?
¨ To whom should we communicate?
¨ How should we communicate?

The flow of communications in organizations

The communication network of most organizations consists of vertical lines of communication providing upwards and downwards means of transmitting information, with a few integration mechanisms such as committees built across these lines. Some organization also provides lateral lines of communication, which are seen as having equal importance with the vertical.

Mechanistic (bureaucratic) organizations

As we saw earlier, mechanistic (bureaucratic) organizations tended to adopt vertical lines of communication and interaction.

Organic organizations

Whereas organic organizations tend to adopt lateral lines

Matrix structured organizations

We saw, also, that matrix-type structures contain both vertical and lateral lines of communication.

What is vertical communication ?

The greatest tendency in most organizations is for communication to be thought of in terms of vertical interaction.

VERTICAL COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Downward communication

In particular, management communicates policies, plans, information and instructions downwards. The downwards communication is achieved by means of the management chain, while the upwards communication is achieved by work-group meetings, by joint consultation machinery and by grievance procedures.

Upward communication

Employees communicate ideas, suggestions, comments and complaints upwards.

Vertical communication

Vertical communication tends to be dominated by what flow in the downward direction.

Lateral communication

The flow of information across the organization is rarely comparable with the vertical flow. However, every organization has to make some arrangements for coordinating the efforts of more than one department or section, and this may be done by means of interdepartmental meetings or committees. This is a rational and controlled approach to the problem of integration. It represents about the least that organizations can do to set up lateral lines of communication. Where an organization is more organic in its operation, it tends to make greater use of lateral flows of information between people in the same specialism or working on similar tasks, for example. Much of the information flowing between such groups is highly technical or task-orientated and facilitates cooperation between groups. Such information in only passed up the line if it is of particular significance, or where it comes under the category of "need to know" for the manager concerned. Organizations which operate a system of 'management by exception' are able to make wider use of lateral forms of communication compared with organizations whose management insist on being kept fully in the picture all the time.

Managing by exception implies a high degree of delegation, where, once responsibilities have been fixed and standards of performance agreed, the managers concerned will only ask for information if (a) there is a problem or (b) it is time for a periodic review of progress.

Centralized (leader-dominated) channels of communication

Research work that has been carried out on groups at work suggests that, for simple problems, the quickest and most accurate results will be obtained by means of centralized (leader-dominated) channels of communication.

Decentralized communication channels

Conversely, for complex problems, the most acceptable are likely to come from decentralized communication channels, where is greater encouragement to share facts, views and feelings. The most frequent channel-alternatives that have been tested are shown in attached figure A.

The wheel represents the most centralized communication channel with its obvious leader or coordinator at the centre of relationships. By contrast, the circle and, especially, the all-channel networks rely on decentralized channels with shared leadership. The chain and 'Y' networks are basically hierarchical and not decentralized. Organic organizations would show a preference for all-channel networks, mechanistic (bureaucratic) organizations would tend to use the chain, the "Y' and the wheel.

Different Communication Media.

The media of communication help to answer the question how should we communicate? The media can be divided into two main groups: (1) written methods and (2) oral methods.

(1) Written methods:

These are principally:

(1) Letters

(2) Memos

(3) Reports

(4) Notices and

(5) Printouts

Advantages:

By comparison with oral methods, the written word is more permanent and less liable to misinterpretation. It also encourages the sender of a message to think about it before dispatch.

Disadvantages:

The disadvantages are that written communication takes longer to effect than oral methods, and is still liable to misinterpretation despite the efforts of the writer to be clear and logical.

(2) Oral methods:

These are usually:

(1) Meetings of one kind or another, and

(2) Telephone conversations.

Advantages and Disadvantages:

Oral communication may often lack the considered nature of written communication, but it does have the advantage of being reinforced by various forms of nonverbal behaviour such as facial expressions, gestures and body posture. One of the major difficulties associated with oral communication is its transience-the spoken work is a sound, and lasts only so long as it takes to pronounce it. Thus people are often able to deny, or to qualify what they have, in fact, said. This is one of the main reasons for the importance of minutes at a committee meeting - to provide a true and correct record. It also explains the growing use of audiovisual methods to capture spoken words and accompanying expressions every bit as much as the written word.

In practical business there are two examples of communication methods which are especially widely used, and deserve further comment now:

(1) Written Reports

(2) Talks or Presentations.

Meetings, and in particular committee meetings, will be looked at later in the lesson.

(1) Reports

A written report is basically the outcome of a study of the facts and implications of a particular situation. It is intended to summarise the facts of the situation, relate them to what the organization is currently doing, draw appropriate conclusions and make useful recommendations. Reports can range from the short-one-page summary to the detailed work running into several thousand words. Whether long or short, a report is usually set out in the following format:

Title of Report :
Terms of Reference
Introductory Comments
Findings
Implications for the Organization
Conclusions
Recommendations or Proposals
Name of author (s)
Date
Appendices (longer reports only)

Typical report layout

Layouts such as above enable report-writers to assemble their data and their ideas into a logical order. This is an important point for any report, as is clarity and conciseness of expression. A clear, well-argued report will stand a far higher possibility of acceptance than one which is rambling and verbose, however relevant its content.

(2) Presentations

Most managers are called upon from time to time to make a presentation to their colleagues or their superiors. Presentations are widely used in selling situations, and in management planning exercises; they are also used when formally introducing major reports or when introducing new ideas or proposals to colleagues.

There are three key elements in any presentation:

* Preparation * Content *Delivery

Preparation:

Preparation is a vital prerequisite for any presentation. The person making the presentation needs to consider the content of his talk and its delivery.

Content:

So far as content is concerned, this is primarily a question of considering what to include and what to leave out, taking into account the needs and prior knowledge of the audience. Top management groups, or example, are mainly interested in the salient features of an idea or proposal, together with a summary of its principal benefits and disadvantages.

Operational levels of management generally require more detailed information and will respond to a more technical approach than their senior counterparts.

Delivery:

The question of how to deliver the presentation again depends largely on the nature of the audience. Some groups will not be satisfied with anything less than a brilliant display of wit and ingenuity, others will be quite satisfied with a low-key, but extremely relevant, demonstration. One point that is always helpful, whatever the audience, is the use of visual aids. There is hardly a presentation that does not benefit enormously from visual illustration.

Visual aids that are most frequently employed include:

(1) Flip charts (2) overhead transparencies (3) films (video and cine) and (4) models or (5) physical examples of an item.

A code of good practice in the making of presentations could be as follows:

(i) Consider your audience and their needs.
(ii) Assemble your facts and ideas in the light of (1) above and taking account of the complexity of the material.
(iii) Develop sufficient and suitable visual aids.
(iv) Consider what other information should be made available (drawings, specifications, reports etc.)
(v) Tell your audience what you are going to tell them, tell, them and then tell them what you have told them.
(vi) Be enthusiastic about the subject (unless this would be completely inappropriate, eg the announcement of a new redundancy plan).

(vii) Be natural, ie if you are a quiet person, then be quietly enthusiastic

(viii) Maintain eye contact with you audience.

(ix) Be prepared for questions both during and at the end of your presentation.

Barriers to effective communication

There are numerous barriers to communications, and some of the most important ones are discussed briefly below:

(1) Individual bias and selectivity

ie we hear or read what we want to hear or see. People are often unaware of their bias until it is brought to their attention. Much of the bias is to do with cultural background and personal value-systems.

(2) Status differences ie subordinates may well read more than was intended into a superior's message. By contrast, superiors may listen less carefully to information passed up the line by subordinates. People at all levels may be reserved about passing information upwards, in case they incur criticism. One of the reasons for the relative failure of the "open door' policy of communication adopted by many managers is that it relies on subordinates overcoming

both their natural reserve and the status barriers of the organization.

(3) Fear and other emotional overtones can cloud the communication message

If a person has bad news to pass on, which is almost certain upset the recipient, they will tend to avoid the whole truth and be content to pass on part of the message only. This issue of emotional barriers is particularly relevant in the handling of grievances. Angry people do not make good listeners, and thus any manager dealing with a deeply-felt grievance must allow for a period of 'cooling off" before expecting to make any headway with a solution. Indeed, it is now recognized that it is precisely in the area of the emotions that human beings appear to be worst at sharing, ie communicating. Not surprisingly, this is an area of attention in Organization Development programs, especially in relation to how conflict can be handled in a team.

(4) Lack of trust is another important barrier to effective communication

If we are not sure of someone, we tend to hold back in our communication with that person. His mistrust may arise because of doubts about the recipient's motives or his ability to grasp what is being said.

(5) Verbal difficulties are a frequent source of confusion and misunderstanding

These may arise because of the sheer lack of fluency on the part of the sender, or because of the use of jargon (specific application of words in technical and professional contexts), or perhaps because of pitching the message at too high a level of understanding. In terms of written words, the barriers are usually those associated with long-windedness, ie a failure to get to the point quickly and concisely.

(6) Other important barriers to communication include information overload (where a person is overloaded with memos, reports, letters telephone messages etc.), inadequate machinery for communication (committees, briefing groups, joint consultation meetings etch) and sheer lack of practices in the skills of communicating.

Overcoming, or at least reducing the effects of, barriers to communication mainly consist in finding answers to the issues raised in the paragraph above.

Improvements in communication can be made by adopting a strategy of:

(i) Ensuring that employees are made aware of communication problems

(ii) setting up appropriate machinery for communication (upwards, downwards and laterally), and

(iii) Training employees in relevant techniques of communication.

Particular mechanisms which have been widely adopted include:

(1) **Downward communication**

* Briefing Groups (where team leaders brief their immediate staff events)
* Staff Meetings (where all staff in one unit from one site are brought together)
* Bulletins, Notices and Circulars

(2) Upwards communication

* Joint Consultation committee (where management and staff meet to consult about issues)
* Suggestions Schemes

* Trade union channels (via shop stewards, negotiating committees etc.)

* Grievance Procedure

(3) Lateral communication

* Interdepartmental Committees

* Special Project Groups

* Coordinating Committees

Operation of the committee as a communication medium

Committees in Organizations

Committees are found in practically every kind of organization. They are an integral part of the operation of every public sector organization, and are almost as popular in the private sector.

What are committees?

The first thing that can be said about them is that they are formal groups with a chairman, an agenda and rules of conduct. Committees invariably have a specific task or set of tasks to achieve. These tasks are frequently, although not always, associated with decision-making. In fact, many committees are expressly forbidden from reaching decisions, eg: joint consultative committees and advisory committees. Some committees meet regularly, eg: monthly senior officers committee in a public authority or quarterly planning committees of enquiry set up by Parliament or steering committee set up to monitor short-term projects.

As was stated above, committees are formal groups. The formality of a committee is expressed by the following features:

- A chairman (or chairperson): who is responsible for ensuring (a) that the committee is conducted in accordance with the rules, and (b) that it is supplied with the necessary resources, particularly with the written information it requires to carry out its work effectively.

- A secretary: Who is the person responsible for taking the minutes of meetings, sending out the agenda and other papers, and generally acting as the administrative link with the members?

- An agenda:

Which sets out the agreed subject-matter of the meeting? Part of the chairman job before the meeting is to approve the agenda, over which he or she usually has the final word. The agenda enables committee members to know what is to be discussed and in what order, and this enables them in turn to prepare adequately before the meeting.

- The minutes of the meeting:

Which are the official record of what has taken place. They serve to remind members of important issues or decisions that were debated at the time. Since they have to be agreed by the members as a true and correct record, they are a reliable source of information both to members and outsiders alike. In local authority committees and joint union-management committees, for example, the minutes are made public for the benefit of ratepayers or union members as the case may be.

- Committee Papers and Reports:

Which provide the committee with the quality of information, which will enable it to make well-informed decisions or proposals. Reports, for example. May be purely factual, or both factual and analytical. Yet others may be innovative and imaginative. Whatever their contents and presentation, their aim is the same, ie: to provide relevant information, ideas and suggestions as the focal points for the discussion of agenda items.

-Rules of procedure:

Which are designed to promote the smooth-running of a committee and to ensure that consistency and fair play are maintained. Such rules include procedures for:

* Speaking in a debate
* Proposing motions
* Voting
* Adding emergency items to the agenda, and
* Other issues relating to the operation of the committee as a communication medium

In the light of all this formality, what are the benefits and disadvantages of committees?

The advantages can be summarized as follows:

Advantages

- Because they are organized groups, committees can undertake a larger volume of work than individuals or very small groups working in isolation

- Decision or proposals are based on a group assessment of facts and ideas, and not just on one powerful individual's preferences

- Committees can encourage the pooling of special know-how and talents possessed by individual members

- Committees act as a useful focal point for information and action within organizations

These advantages are particularly important in two respects. Firstly, the sheer size and complexity of modern organization make it increasingly impossible for isolated individual or small groups to meet the decision-demands of their organizations. Secondly, the growing pressures form all sections of the workforce for greater say in the decision making processes of their organization are creating expectation that decision-making will become more open and democratic. Committees are likely to be even more in demand as a result of these two factors.

However, it would be unrealistic to gloss over the disadvantages of committees as Communication media. The main disadvantages are as follows:

Disadvantages

- Decision-making is an altogether slower process when dominated by committees. It is also true that committee decisions may often represent compromise solutions rather than optimum solutions

- Managers may be tempted to hide behind committee decisions, where these have proved unpopular and thus abdicate their personal responsibility

- Committees sometime have tendency to get bogged down in procedural matters, which reduces the time available for the discussion of substantive issues

- Committee work demands certain skills

- Committees do not exist between meetings, and thus cannot act quickly and flexibly to meet sudden changes in a situation

On balance, committees are probably best suited to large-scale bureaucracies and organizations which have a high degree of public accountability. Smaller-scale enterprises, on the other hand, would probably benefit more from the greater flexibility obtainable from less formal processes of decision-making, such as informal management meeting and temporary project groups.

Lesson 8: The Importance of Communication

Communication is the lifeblood of an organization-and miscommunication has contributed to various damages in more than one organization. Without effective communications among Different pattern of relationships an organization will serve no one's needs very well.

THE IMPORTANCE OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Effective communication is important to managers for three primary reasons.

(1) First, communication provides a common thread for the management processes of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. Managers develop plans through communication with others at their organizations and organize to carry out those plans by

talking with other people about how best to distribute authority and design job. Managers know that motivational policies, leadership, and groups and teams are activated through the regular exchange of information. In a variation on Peters' and Waterman's concept of "management by walking around we might say that management is also a complex practice of "talking around" the organization.

(2) Second, effective communications skills can enable managers to draw on the vast array of talents available in the multicultural world of organizations. The globalization of business certainly poses a challenge to manager's communications abilities. As managers encounter customs and expressions and meanings that probably seem very foreign, they might be tempted to shy away and avoid trying to communicate. That can be a major missed opportunity. Western managers must accept that treating English as "the world's language" runs grave risks, for example.

(3) Third, it so happens that managers do spend a great deal of time communicating. Rarely are managers alone at their desks thinking, planning, or contemplating alternatives. In fact, managerial time is spent largely in face-to-face, electronic, or telephone communication with employees, supervisors, suppliers, or customers. When not conferring with others in person

or on the telephone, managers may be writing or dictating memos, letters or reports-or perhaps reading such communications sent to them. Even in those few periods when managers are, alone, they are frequently interrupted by communications.

As we mentioned earlier, Henry Mintzberg has described the manager's job in terms of three types of roles.

Eg: (1) Interpersonal Role (2) Informational Role (3) Decisional Role

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Another definition of communication

Communication is defined as the process by which people seek to share meaning via the transmission of symbolic messages.

Our working definition of communication calls attention to three essential points: (1) that communication involves people, and that understanding communication therefore involves trying to understand hoe people relate to each other; (2) that communication involves shared meaning, which suggests that in order for people to communicate, they must agree on the definitions of the terms they are using: and (3) that communication involves - symbols - gestures - sounds - letters - numbers, and - words can only represent or approximate the ideas that they are meant to communicate.

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS/COMMUNICATION MODEL

We highlight several complexities in the communications model as shown in attached Figure A:

- Encoding - Noise in communication channels and - Decoding

Communication takes place in the relationship between a sender and a receiver. Communication can flow in one direction and end there. Or a massage can elicit a response-formally known as feedback from the receiver.

Explaining the model of the communication process

(1) The Sender, Definition: Sender is the source of the message, who initiates the communication. In an organization, the sender will be a person with information, needs or desires and a purpose for communicating them to one or more other people.

(2) The Receiver, Definition: Receiver is the person whose senses perceive the sender's message. There may be a large number of receivers, as when a memo is addressed to all the members of an organization, or there may be just one, as when one discusses something privately with a colleague. The message must be crafted with the receiver's back ground in mind. An engineer in a microchip manufacturing company, for example, might have to avoid using technical terms in a communication with someone in the company's advertising department. By the same token, the person in advertising might find engineers unreceptive to communications about demographics. If the message does not reach the receiver, communication has not taken place. The situation is not much improved if the message reaches a receiver but the receive doesn't understand it. Three factors that can influence effective or ineffective communication are encoding, decoding, and noise.

(3) Encoding, Encoding takes place when the sender translates the information to be transmitted into a series of symbols. Encoding is necessary because information can only be transferred from one person to another through representation or symbols. Since communication is the object of encoding, the sender attempts to establish “mutuality” of meaning with the receiver by choosing symbols, usually in the from of **(a) words and (b) gestures,** that the sender believes to have the same meaning for the receiver. Lack of mutuality is one of the most common causes of misunderstanding or failure of communication.

In Bulgaria and some parts of India and East Africa, for example, “yes” is indicated with a side-to-side shake of the head; “no” is indicated with a nod. Visitors who do not share these symbols can quickly experience, or cause, bewilderment when they talk with citizens of these areas. Misunderstandings may also result subtler differences in mutuality.

Gestures too may be subject to different interpretations. A worker in a noisy factory may convey to a co-worker that he wants a machine to be shut off by drawing his hand, palm down, across his neck in a “cutthroat” gesture. If one walked up to police officer and made the same gesture a different reaction might result. Even raising one’s eyebrows can have varying meanings, expressing surprise in one context and skepticism in another.

(4) Decoding, Decoding is the process by which the receiver interprets the message and translates it into meaningful information. It is a two-step process. The receiver must (a) first perceive the message, then (b) interpret it.

Decoding is affected by: (1) the receiver's past experience (2) personal assessments of the symbols and (3) gestures used, (4) expectations (people tend to hear what they want to hear), and (5) mutually of meaning with the sender. In general, the more the receiver's decoding matches the sender's intended message, the more effective the communication has been. Physical proximity-can set the stage for greater mutuality between sender and receiver over time.

(5) Noise, Definition: Noise is any factor that disturbs, confuses, or otherwise interferes with communication. Noise can arise along what is called the communications channel or method of transmission such as (suchasair for spoken words or paper for letters). Noise may be (a) internal (as when a receiver is not paying attention) or

(b) External (as when the message in distorted by other sounds in the environment). Noise can occur at any stage of the communication process. It is particularly troublesome in the encoding or decoding stage.

Since noise can interfere with understanding, managers should attempt restrict it to a level that permits effective communication. It can be very tiring to listen to employees who speak softly on a noisy assembly line or to try to conduct a conversation over telephone. Physical discomfort such as hunger, pain, or exhaustion can also be considered a form of noise and can interfere with effective communication. The problems are made worse, of course, by a message that is excessively complex or unclear to being with.

(6) Channel, Definition: Is the method of transmission (such as air for spoken words or paper for letters)

(7) Perception

IMPROVING COMMUNICATIONS PROCESSES

The difference between effective and ineffective communication can be traced to how well the communicating parties deal with four aspects of the communications process;

(1) Perception differences

(2) Emotions

(3) Inconsistencies between verbal and nonverbal communications, and

(4) Prior trust (or distrust) between the paries

(1) DIFFERING PERCEPTIONS

This is one of the most common communication barriers. People who have different backgrounds of knowledge and experience often perceive the same phenomenon from different perspectives. Suppose that a new supervisor compliments an assembly-line worker for his of her efficiency and high-quality work. The supervisor genuinely appreciates the worker's efforts and at the same time wants to encourage the other employees to emulate his or her example. Others on the assembly line, however, may regard the worker's being singled out for praise. They may react by teasing or being openly hostile.

- **Language differences**: are often closely related to differences in individual perceptions. For a message to be properly communicated, the words used must mean the same thing to sender and receiver. Suppose that different departments of a company receive a memo stating that a new product is to be developed in "a short time". To people in the finance department, "a short time" might mean two or three years, whereas the sales department might think of "a short time" as a few weeks.

- **Gender difference:** The communications and styles between genders has been the topic of much recent research. In the last decade research has shown that women and men in our culture use distinctive styles of speech and tend to play different roles when speaking to each other. These differences can lead to miscommunication and conflict. For instance, it was noted that women who speak directly and assertively may be ostracized as "unfeminine" by both men and women.

OVERCOMING DIFFERING PERCEPTIONS

(a) To overcome differing perceptions and languages, the message should be explained so that it can be understood by receivers with different views and experiences. Whenever possible, we should learn about the background of those with whom we will be communicating. Empathizing -seeing the situation from the other person's point of view - and delaying reactions until the relevant information is weighed will help to reduce ambiguity. When the subject is unclear, asking questions is critical.

(b) Overcoming language difference: To overcome language differences, it is particularly helpful to ask the receiver to confirm or restate the main points of the message. When all members of an organization or group are going to be dealing with a new terminology, it may be worthwhile to develop a training course of instruction to acquaint them with the new topic. Receivers can be encouraged to ask questions and to seek clarification of points that are unclear.

(c) It is also helpful to remain sensitive to the various alternative ways of phrasing a message.

(d) Once, again, seemingly simple changes in the physical office environment can promote relationships in which different perceptions are available for all to see and work through. Communal areas can be created in the office that allow and encourage informal, friendly, conversation.

(2) EMOTIONAL REACTIONS

Emotional reactions-anger, love, defensiveness, hate, jealousy, fear, embarrassment-influence how we understand others' messages and how we influence others' with our own messages. If, for example, we are in an atmosphere where we feel threatened with loss of power or prestige, we may lose the ability to gauge the meanings of the messages we receive and will respond defensively or aggressively.

The best approach to dealing with emotions is to accept them as part of the communication process and to seek to understand them when they cause problems. Before a crisis, managers can try to anticipate their employees' emotional reactions and prepare to deal with them. Also, they can think about their own moods and how they influence others.

(3) INCONSISTENCIES BETWEEN VERBAL AND NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

We often think of spoken and written language as the primary medium of communication, but the message we send and receive are strongly influenced by such nonverbal factors as body movements, clothing, the distance we stand from the person we are talking to, our posture, gestures, facial expression, eye movements, and body contact. Even when our message is as simple as "God morning" we can convey different intents by our nonverbal communication. A busy manager who does not want to be disturbed might respond to an employee's greeting without looking up from his or her work, for example.

The keys to eliminating inconsistencies in communication are being by aware of them and guarding against sending false messages. Gestures, clothes, posture, facial expression, and other powerful nonverbal communications should be understood in equal terms with verbal communication. Analyzing the nonverbal communication of other people and applying what is learned to oneself in one's dealings with other is helpful.

(4) PRIOR TRUST OR (DISTRUST) BETWEEN THE PARTIES

A receiver's trust or distrust of a message is, to a large extent, a function of the credibility of the sender in the mind of the receiver. A sender's credibility is affected by circumstances in the context in which he or she sends the message. Here is where the history of a work relationship comes to bear on communications. If an employee or contractor has repeatedly experienced unmet promises from a manager, that manager's communication effectiveness to these people can be eroded. In some cases, the fact that a message comes from manager will enhance its credibility. In other cases, it can have the opposite effect.

Again, the time and place in which this is happening is crucial. In general, a manager's credibility will be high if he or she is perceived by others as knowledgeable, trustworthy, and sincerely concerned about the welfare of others. Credibility is the result of a long-term process in which a person's honesty, fair-mindedness, and good intentions are recognized by others. There are few shortcuts to creating a trusting atmosphere. A good rapport with the people with whom one communicates with can only be developed through consistent performance.

COMMUNICATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

All the factors we have discussed in relation to interpersonal communication also apply to communication within organizations, which also involves getting an accurate message from one person to another (or perhaps to several people). However several factors unique to organizations influence the effectiveness of communication in organizations. Note, the connection between organizational communication and concepts that we discussed earlier such as organizational structure, authority etc. These Management researchers have long followed the proposition that organizations are necessary to help people communicate.

Open, effective communication can be a considerable asset to an organization. Employees should receive honest, straightforward communication from management and work with management in cohesive teams that communicate openly and often.

FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Four factors influence the effectiveness of organizational communication:

(1) The formal channels of communication
(2) The organization's authority structure
(3) Job specialization and
(4) Information ownership

FORMAL CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION.

A formal channel of communication that is endorsed, and probably controlled, by managers.

Examples include (a) newsletters (b) regular memos and (c) reports, and (d) staff meetings.

Formal channels of communication influence communication effectiveness in two ways.

(1) First, the formal channels cover an ever-widening distance as organizations develop and grow. For example, effective communication is usually far more difficult to achieve in a large retail organization with widely dispersed branches than in a small department store.

(2) Second, the formal channels of communication can inhibit the free flow of information between organizational levels. An assembly-line worker, for example, will often communicate problems to a supervisor rather than to the plant manager.

While this accepted restriction in the channels of communication has its advantages (such as keeping higher-level managers from getting bogged down in information), it also has its disadvantages (such as some times keeping higher-level managers from receiving information they should have).

(2) AUTHORITY STRUCTURE.

The organization's authority structure has a similar influence on communication effectiveness. Status and power differences in the organization help determine who will communicate comfortably with whom. The content and accuracy of the communication will also be affected by authority differences. For example, conversation between a company president and a clerical worker may well be characterized by somewhat strained politeness and formality.

(3) JOB SPECIALIZATION

Job specialization usually facilitates communication within differentiated groups. Members of the same work group are likely to share the same jargon, time horizons, goals, tasks, and personal styles. Communication be between highly differentiated groups, however, is likely to be inhibited.

(4) INFORMATION OWNERSHIP

The term information ownership means that individuals possess unique information and knowledge about their jobs. For example, a darkroom employee may have found a particularly efficient way to develop photo prints. Such information is a form of power for the individuals who possess it. They are able to function more effectively than their peers. Many individuals with such skills and knowledge are unwilling to share this information with others. But still, ownership can be shared.

VERTICAL COMMUNICATION, LATERAL COMMUNICATION & INFORMAL COMMUNICATION

Vertical Communication

Consists of communication up and down the organization's chain of command.

Downward Communication

Downward communication starts with top management and flow through management levels to line workers and nonsupervisory personnel. The major purposes of downward communication are to advise, inform, direct, instruct, and evaluate employee and to provide organization members with information about organizational goals and policies.

Upward Communication

The main function of upward communication is to supply information to the upper levels what is happening at the lower levels. This type of communication includes (a) progress reports (b) suggestions (c) explanations and (e) requests for aid or decisions.

PROBLEMS OF VERTICAL COMMUNICATION

(1) Problems with Downward Communication

Downward communication is likely to be (1) filtered, (2) modified, or (3) halted at each level as managers decide what should be passed down to their employees.

(2) Problems with Upward Communication

Upward communication is likely to be (1) filtered, (2) condensed, or (3) altered by middle managers who see it as part of their job to protect upper management from nonessential data originating at the lower level. (4) In addition, middle managers may keep information that would reflect unfavorably on them from reaching their managers. Thus, vertical communication is often at least partially inaccurate or incomplete.

Two-thirds of a manager's communications take place with higher-ranking and lower-ranking people in the organization.

Problems in downward communication exist when managers do not provide employees with the information they need to carry out their tasks effectively. Managers are often overly optimistic about the accuracy and completeness of their downward communication. In fact, they can fail to pass on important information (such as a higher-level change in policy) or to instruct employees adequately on how to perform their duties. This lack of communication is sometimes deliberate, as when managers withhold information to keep employees dependent on them. The net effect of incomplete downward communication is that employees can feel confused, uninformed, or powerless and might fail to carry out their tasks properly.

Lateral Communication

Usually follows the pattern of work flow in an organization, occurring between members of work groups, between one work group and another, between members of different departments, and between line and staff employees.

Lateral Communication and co-ordination of departments in an organization:

The main purpose of lateral communication is to provide a direct channel for organizational coordination and problem solving. In this way, it avoids the much slower procedure of directing communications through the chain of command. An added benefit of lateral communication is that it enables organization members to form relationships with their peers. As we have seen, these relationships are an important part of employee satisfaction. The large amount of lateral communication that takes place outside the chain of command often occurs with the knowledge, approval, and encouragement of managers who understand that lateral communication may help relieve their communication burden and also reduces inaccuracy by putting irrelevant people in direct contact with each other.

INFORMAL COMMUNICATION

One type of informal communication, not officially sanctioned, is the grapevine**.** The grapevine within organization is made up of several informal communication networks that overlap and intersect at a number of points-that is, some well-informed individuals are likely to belong to more than one informal network. Grapevines do not take in to account rank or authority and can link organization members in any combination of directions -horizontal, vertical, and diagonal.

In addition to its social and informal communication function, the grapevine has several work-related functions. For example, although the grapevine is hard to control, it often operates much faster than formal communication channels. Managers may use it to distribute information through planned "leaks".

COMMUNICATION BY ORGANIZATIONAL

Organizations also pay attention to the messages they send to external stakeholders, such as customers and others in the environment.

TECHNOLOGY AND NEW COMMUNICATIONS PRACTICES

Managers and management researchers alike have long believed that information is a primary source of power and that communications processes are ways to maintain control over what happens at organizations

As long as the important information at an organization was stored in a central computing system managed by the staff functions of accounting and finance, such information control through communications is easy. Modern technology can challenge all that. Information technology has changed how people communicate.

This has altered, the way many organizations are managed. One of the elements of this challenge was the personal computer. The personal computer broke the firm grip of the organization's central computer system (and related staff functions) on the flow of information at organizations. Greater still has been the technological effect of computer networking on organizational communications. The personal computer put greater power on more people's desks. But those people frequently worked in isolation from other personal computer users.

Instead of managing data, computers are being used, in effect, to manage networks of relationships between people.

Electronic mail (or E-mail) is one kind of new technological capability. E-mail users send messages between each other's computers.

The organizational challenge posed by computer networks should not be underestimated. For one thing, there is still much to be gained by communicating with other people face-to-face. Important nonverbal cues and voice inflections are "cleansed" if the message is sent electronically.

IMPACT OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY ON COMMUNICATION IN ORGANIZATION

AND THE FUTURE

Electronic Communication media

-Computer networking

-Internet/E-Mail

-Mobile communications

Importance of Management Information Systems (MIS)

Computers

-Palm top computers

-Lap top computers

-Personal Computers

-Mini Computers

-Mainframe Computers

-Super Computers

LESSON 9: COMMUNICATION FOR MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

Communication Process

It is the process of passing information and meaning from one person to another. It involves at least two People: a sender and a receiver. The sender develops and transmits a message to the receiver. The purpose is to achieve a common understanding between the sender and the receiver.

Communication for managerial effectiveness

Capability of achieving desired results

- Getting activities completed -Results in right things

Communication for managerial effectiveness

Means Communication must result in somebody doing something

What are the things that we communicate in life?

- Opinions/Views
- Ideas
- Feelings/Emotions
- Information
- Plans/Policies

Job Requests

We all spend much of our time Communicating. We get plenty of practice. Yet it is surprising how often we are not completely effective.

Importance of communication in an organization

- **A manager accomplishes most activities in an organization through communication**
    - Decisions are made by managers and must be communicated
    - Plans are developed and must be communicated
    - The manager must communicate to function as a leader

- **A study has shown that managers spend more than 75% of their time Communicating**

--Reading

--Writing

--Listening

--Speaking

--The basic unit of communication in an organization is the link between middle level managers and subordinates

-- Middle level managers communicate to their subordinates and receive messages from them

-- To be effective as a manager, you need to be an effective communicator

Today's Managers ---------->------------ **Management (Manager)**

Leadership (Manager + Leader)

Communication (Manager + Leader + Communicator)

Purpose of communication

- Build good relationships (common understanding)

In effective communication process: -

(1) Information must be received (Gain attention)

- In public meetings/presentations
    - You start with an opening statement

Ex: - Poem, Idiom

(2) Shared understanding

- Shared understanding
  - Means my understanding is also your understanding

(3) Accepted

- Other people must accept what you have communicated. To gain acceptance you have to communicate in a very persuasive manner

(4) Action

- Means your communication must result in somebody doing something
- You want other person to carry out what you have asked

In an organization:

In **organizations** with large number of internal customers (employees) it is important to have a **good communication** (good understanding/good relationship) with **employees**

Communication in organizations

(1) Formal communication (2) Informal communication

(1) Formal Communication

- Flows through formally established channels
  - Formal Channels very slow - ex: - from GM/CEO to Workers
- Concerned with work-related matters

CHAIRMAN

GM/CEO

(General Manager/Chief Executive Officer)

Snr.DGM

(Senior Deputy General Manger)

DGM	DGM	DGM
(Deputy General Manager)	(Deputy General Manager)	

AGM
(Assistant General Manager)

Chief Manager

Senior Manager

Manager

Executives

Officers

Workers

(2) Informal Communication

- Flows through informal channels

- Informal channels very fast - ex :- Office Assistant to Executives
- May or may not be work-related matters

CHAIRMAN

GM/CE

(General Manager/Chief Executive Officer)

Snr.DGM

(Senior Deputy General Manger)

DGM (Deputy General Manager) DGM (Deputy General Manager) DGM

AGM

(Assistant General Manager)

Chief Manager

Senior Manager

Manager

Executives

Officers

Workers

Important:

- **Both formal communication & informal communication are important**
    - A Manager needs to be able to use both effectively
        - Ex: Managers can use informal channels (Informal communication) to test the mood of employees in the organization

Formal Communication

This flows in three directions:

(1) Downward communication

(2) Upward communication

(3) Sideways communication/Lateral communication

(1) Downward communication

- Downward communication flows from top management to middle level management to supervisory management and to workers
- Majority of downward communication however takes place middle level management downwards. These are generally oral

What flows through downward communication?

Job instructions

- Job instructions are very important because this is actually communication to subordinates telling them what is expected from them by you. Therefore job instructions must be given clearly

Therefore Job Instructions must be:-

- **Focused** ex: Kamal clean the Office

- **Job rationale (Reason)**
    - This is telling why is the Job important and how it is connected to other jobs

      Ex: - Kamal if you don't clean the office properly our customers will stop coming here

  - So now he thinks he is very responsible

- **Now this job rationale will result in:**

- **Acceptance**
    - When job rationale is given he will accept

- **Suggestions**
    - When accepted this will result in suggestions from your subordinates

      Ex: - Good if we can do like this….

- **Feedback**

- You must give a feedback to your subordinates

  Ex: - Very good work done!

(2) Policies and Procedures must be communicated

A Policy (Definition): A broad framework/parameters of principles that would guide the organization than specifically stating what should or should not be done

Ex: Welfare policy, Promotion policy, Transfer policy (Apart from legal requirements)

- If employees don't know Organization's policies it could lead to unrest
- Workers fight always for equity

A Procedure (Definition) : Is a series of interrelated sequential steps that a manager can use for responding to a structured problem

- Therefore all policies and procedures must be communicated
- Specially policies of a company must be written down manually and made available for everybody to read

(3) Managerial indoctrination

What is Indoctrination?

Means putting inside a doctrine to others so that they behave like as you want.

What is Managerial indoctrination?

Means internalizing various objectives of the organization among its employees.

- By Repetition
- Company Song
- Company Uniforms

Importance of downward communication

- People want and need information relevant to their jobs
- If they don't get this information through formal channels (Downward communication) they will either
    - Make assumptions
    - Turn to Informal communication channels

(2) Upward communication

- Upward communication flows from workers to supervisory management to middle level management and to top management
- It is often difficult to obtain effective upward communication, particularly in large organizations. Lower level employees are often unwilling or afraid to express their ideas
- Filtering process in upward communication
    - All bad things filtered and a rosy picture is given
        - Ex: How is your work? Fine sir, No problem

Importance of upward communication

(1) To know what exactly subordinates are doing

- To make sure downward communication is understood

(2) To bring out unsolved work problems

- Ex: Wrong methods, Use of wrong machines

(3) Ideas and suggestions will come up from bottom to top

(4) To know how subordinates think and feel about organization and their jobs

Therefore how to encourage upward communication/relationship in an organization.

- **Only through open relationship**
  - To have an open relationship it is important that you reward any disclosures/good work

When above happens:

The filter Will get removed ---->--- Subordinates will have trust on you as managers ------->------ Free upwards communication by subordinates

- **Some organizations have tried to improve upward communication by using :**
  - Suggestion boxes
  - Group meetings
  - Employee letters etc.

Important:

- Most of the upward communication must take place between middle level managers and their subordinates. Their relationship is the key to effective upward communication in organizations

(3) Lateral communication/sideways communication

- Sideways communication/lateral communication helps to co-ordinate the activities/tasks of different departments and is necessary to remove obstructions faced by them

- For this it is very important to have open communications
- Departments should not work alone but as members of a team
- Sideways communication/lateral communication may be face-to-face or through some types of formal communication systems

Sideways communication/lateral communication avoids:

(1) Interdepartmental conflicts

Interdepartmental Conflicts could arise as a result of:-

- Resource allocations
- Work procedures

(2) Interpersonal conflicts

Informal Communication

- Informal communication in an organization
- There is a great deal of Informal communication in organizations
- ‘Grapevine’ - A network of informal communication
- Grapevines are present in all organizations, moving up, down, and across departments
- Grapevines flourish because communication is a natural human tendency
- Types of Information carried by grapevines
- Work related
- People related

Managers should be able to use informal communication in an organization effective through practice of his/her skills

Two types of organizations

- **Formal organizations**
  - Made up of divisions, departments and sections

- **Informal organizations**
  - Made up of people with similar religions, cultural and social links

The Communication process

- Whether formal or informal the communication process is still the same

Perception or **Frame of reference**

Sender ---->---Encoding -->---Code--->---Channel---->----Decode--->-- Receiver

Noise

> Feedback <

The Communication process

What is a Process?

An ongoing, continuing, circular activity

- For the communication process first there should be a Sender and a Receiver

(1) Sender: Is also called the source

(2) Encoding: Putting abstract things to Symbols

(3) Code: After Encoding the messages have be coded

1) **Language**
   - Anything written or spoken

2) Non verbal

- Anything neither written nor spoken
- Includes facial expressions, gestures, postures, body movements, distance, time, eye contact etc.

3) Vocal/para language

- volume, voice quality, speed, emphasis, pitch, pause

Credibility order of above

- **Number One -** Non verbal
  - actions speak louder than words
  - We cannot hide our face
  - Credibility percentage - 55%
- **Number two** - Vocal/para language
  - Voice is important, to a certain extent. It can tell how genuine you are
  - Credibility percentage - 38 %
- **Number three** - language

- Credibility percentage - 7%

(4) Channel:

(1) Face to Face

- Present session
- Can use all of above codes
- This gives lot of reaction
- Helps to get immediate feedback

(2) Telephone

- Here we can use only language and vocal/para language
- Helps to get some feedback

(3) Telegram

(4) Memo, Letters

(5) Facsimile

(6) Telex

(7) E-Mail

(5) Decode: This is giving an interpretation to sender's Message by the receiver

(6) Receiver: The person/group to whom the message is targeted

(7) Feedback: This can be a return communication

- Did the receiver understand the message or not ?
- Did the Receiver get the meaning of the sender's original idea ?

(8) Perception/Frame of reference

Definition

It is the process by which an individual selects, organizes and Interprets information he/she gets from the environment through his/her five sensors to create a meaningful picture of the world around him.

- Six sensors - Sight, Hearing, Taste, Feelings, Smell and Mind

Perception explanation

- **Our interpretations influenced by attitudes, experience, physical conditions etc.**

(9) Noise: Are distortions during the Communication Process

- Physical noise
  - Explosion or a Barrier
- Misunderstanding (Psychological)

Importance of Language Skills in Effective Communication

- Language Skills also plays an important part in effective communication. Some people seem to know just how to phrase things to get their ideas across, while others have a great deal of difficulty expressing themselves

The difference between Facts and Inference/Judgment

Facts	**Inference/Judgment**
(1) Facts can be made only after observation	(1) May be made anytime

or experience

(2) Facts limited to what have been observed	(2) Inferences/Judgments extend beyond observation
(3) Facts can be offered by observer only	(3) Inferences/Judgments can be offered by anyone
(4) Facts may refer to past or present	(4) But Inferences/Judgments may refer to anytime, past, present or future

We often as Managers make Mistakes or Inferences/Judgments which cloud the Facts or Reality

Ex: Loud Noise

Fact	**Inference/Judgment**
I heard a loud sound similar to an explosion	Bomb!

In human relations movement, according to Fred Luthans three major events took place, describe these with suitable examples.

According to Fred Luthans three events are

(a) The great depression

(b) The Hawthorne experiments and

(c) Rise of trade unionism

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

The economy was operating in the high gear just before the thundering financial crash occurred in 1929.the production and the organization specialists had achieved great result s prior to the crash. After the crash the management began to realize the production could no longer be the only major responsibility of management. Marketing, finance and more importantly personnel were also required in order for a business to survive and grow. The depression‘s due to unemployment, discontent and insecurity brought and cope with. Personnel department were either created or given more importance and most managers now began to develop a new awakened view of the human aspects of their jobs. Thus human relations took an added significance, as an indirect, and in some cases direct.

THE RISE OF TRADE UNIONISM

Another important factor contributing factor to the rise of human relations role of management was the organized labour movement. Although labour unions were in existence in America as early as 1792, it was not until the passage of Wagner act in 1935 that the organized labor movement made an impact on management. In India, though workers unions existed since the later half of the 19th centaury, they operated under terrible legal constraints. It was only in 1926 with passage of trade union act 1926 that the manager began realizing that the trade union had come to stay in spite of the wishes of the managers or for that matter management. The only go to avoid any portable friction with the trade union was to understand the human relations role of the management

HOWTHORNE EXPERIEMENTS

Western electric co. conducted Hawthorn works a research program in the work situations which affects the morale and productive efficiency of workers. During research the company was aided by suggestion of Prof. Elton mayo and his associates from Harvard University. Because large part that Harvard played in the project it is often referred to as the Hawthrone-Harward experiments or studies The Hawthorne studies represents the pioneer attempts to make a systematic and intensive study of the human factor and to demonstrate the utmost complexity in work setting where people interact in small groups under varied organizational conditions. Like any experiments design the researchers manipulated the independence variable (illumination) to observe its effects on the dependent variable and attempted to hold other factors under control. The following are the broad segments of the study

a) Illumination experiments (1924-1927)

To study the effects of changed illuminations on work, some groups of employee were formed in one group the illumination remained unchanged throughout the experiments whereas in other group (experimental group) the illumination was enhanced in intensity. Meanwhile the productivity in experimental group showed an improvement. But strangely the output of the control also went up. The researchers then preceded to decreases the illumination for the experimental group. The output went up. Everybody recognized there wads something much more important other than wages, hours, working condition, which influences the productivity.

(d) Relay room experiments

The relay room experiments were initiated in 1927 represents the actual beginning of the Hawthorne studies. Taking a clue from illumination experiments the research continued taking 2 girls for the experiments. These girls were asked to choose other 4 girls and, made a small group of 6.the group was employed in assembling telephone relays. The experiments started by introducing numerous changes each of which continued for a test period ranging from four to twelve weeks. Under normal working conditions with a forty eight hour week and no rest pauses, each girl produced 2400 relays week. These girls were then placed on piece of work basis for 8 weeks and productivity increased. Next, two five minutes rest pauses introduced and afterwards increased to n10 minutes. Productivity increased sharply. Company provided hot meal free of charge, the productivity increased. After all these amenities withdraw and girls returned to their normal working condition with 48hours/week, and no free meals. But still the productivity was highest. The productivity increased because of girls attitudes towards their works. The group developed a sense of responsibility and self discipline

*Second relay room and mica splitting test room experiments.

In the mica splitting study, although the isolated test room conditions of the original relay study were reproduced, the workers were engaged under their normal individual piece rate plan rather than small group incentive schemes employed with the lay room experimental subjects. As result the productivity increased 15% during the period of 14 months.

(d) Mass interviewing program

Another major aspect of the Hawthorne studies consisted of 21000 interviews carried out during1928 to 1930.the original objective was to explore information, wich could be used to improve supervisory training. Initially these interviews were conducted by means of direct questioning. But this method had disadvantage of simply yes or no response. Thus the method has changed to non directive interviewing where the interviewer was to listen instead of talk, argue or advice, and take on the role of confidant.

(e) Bank wiring room study:

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

In this experiment 14 men were chosen for bank wiring. This was the process where two lose wire ends were soldered. In that 9 were wiremen, 3 solder man, 2 inspectors. The job involved attaching wires to switches for certain parts of telephone equipment. The study involved no experimental changes once it had started it were carried out by 2 persons-an observer and an interviewer. The interviewer remained as an outsider and his task was to explore as much possible by interviewing the individual worker .he carried his work in strict confidence, privately and in different part of the company. He never entered wiring room. the result of the bank wiring room which are marked apposite to those obtained relay room, revealed that this small group of workers emerged as a team with informal leaders who had come up spontaneously. The group was indifferent towards the financial incentives of the factory .the output was neither more nor less. This implies that it would be irrational to break up these groups.

Define organizational behavior, what are the basic assumptions which you come across during the study of this subject.

Organizational behavior is the study of what people think, feel and do in and around organizations. It explores individual emotions and behavior, team dynamics and the systems and structures of organizations. Organizational behavior seeks to provide an understanding of the factors necessary for managers to create an organization that is more "effective" or "successful" than its competitors.

It is the study of the performance of individuals and groups in different structures and cultures within the work place.

According to Keith Davis “organizational behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organizations. It is human tool for the human benefit. It applies broadly to behavior of people in all type of organization such as business, government, schools, etc. it helps people, structure, technology, and the external environment blend together in to an effective operative system”.

Fred Luthans defines organizational behavior as “understanding, predicting and controlling human behavior at work”.

Stephen Robins defines as a “field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have an organization for the purpose of applying such knowledge improving an organization's effectiveness".

THE BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ARE:

- An industrial enterprise is an organization of the people.
- These people are motivated to work effectively.
- The goals of employers and employees are not necessarily coincide.
- The policies and the procedure adopted in an enterprise may influence people in the directions not always foreseen by the policy makers.

A Enumerate the basic fundamental concepts of organizational behavior .also give out various 4 models with facets one can read in this subject study every discipline of study has certain set of individual concepts. They are the foundation stones on which the entire edifice of the discipline is developed. In the discipline of accountancy the fundamental concepts is "for every debit entry there will be a credit entry". In the natural science the fundamental concepts is the concepts of uniformity of nature. In simple word we can explain fundamental concepts of, organizational behavior revolve around the nature of human being and the nature of organization. These fundamental concepts help manager understand some basics of human behavior at work the discipline of organizational behavior has fundamental concepts revolving round the nature of people and the nature of organizational. The concepts dealing with the nature of individual are four. They are

1) Individual difference

2) Whole person

3) Motivation

4) Human dignity

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE:

In spite of all the human being similar everyone is different. Everyone has a different gift of nature. Different quality of intelligence, Different perception and the different ways of behavior. The concept tells that every person is an entity in him. When it comes to human behavior there cannot be a prescriptive solution. Every person is to be treated differently even though two people have the same behavioral problems. The concept tells that manager that he had better be aware of his own stereotype. This concept not only tells that a manger should treat every person as an entity in himself but he should also examine his own stereotypes.

WHOLE PERSON:

In olden day's employee were referred to as hands implying that the organization hires only the hands of man. Nothing can be farther from the truth. An organization hires not only the hands of employee but hires complete men with all his pluses and minuses. At the same since a person performs many roles at the same times the happenings is one role are bound to affects the behavior in other roles of the person. The concept tells the manager than when it comes to behavioral problems, he must also take into account the other roles of the person. If the whole person is to be developed than only the benefits will extend beyond the organizational to the entire society. In which the employee lives.

MOTIVATION:

THE concept reminds the manger of the law enunciated by Newton that every action has an equal and opposite reaction. This means the manager, by his own behavior, can cause an employee behave in a particular way. Is he is respectful to his employee they are bound to be respectful to him not otherwise

HUMAN DIGNITY:

This concept is of different order from other three because it is more an ethical philosophy that a scientific conclusion. It confirms that people are to be treated differently from other factors of production. Because they are of higher order, they want to be treated with respect of dignity, when every one, the employee, the manager as the CEO of an organization is engaged in the same pursuit. The pursuit of enabling their organization to achieve the objections for it has come in existence. Thus they are on the equal footing. The concept tells that every person should be respected simply because he happens to be an employee just as the manager is.

Describes the theory of unconscious behavior as shaped by Sigmund Freud. Give out the characteristics of needs or motives which are directed to satisfy by human behavior.

The concepts of motivation are the central part of organizational behavior. Whenever a Certain behavior is be encouraged is be encouraged give rewards. Whenever a certain behavior is to be discouraged, give punishment. But human behavior is not always motivated either by rewards or by punishment or both. Much of the human behavior is instinctively based. The instincts behavior may be jealously, love, anxiety, fear, lust ext.

Implicit in the industrial approach to human behavior is the hint that human behavior is unconscious behaviorist was Sigmund Freud (1856-1939, Sigmund Freud, physiologist, medical doctor, psychologist and father of psychoanalysis, is generally recognized as one of the most influential and authoritative thinkers of the twentieth century) However, who shaped the theory of unconscious behavior. Freud's theory of the unconscious, then, is highly deterministic, a fact which, given the nature of nineteenth century science, should not be surprising. Freud was arguably the first thinker to apply deterministic principles systematically to the sphere of the mental, and to hold that the broad spectrum of human behavior is explicable only in terms of the (usually hidden) mental processes or states which determine it. Thus, instead of treating the behavior of the neurotic as being causally inexplicable - which had been the prevailing approach for centuries - Freud insisted, on the contrary, on treating it as behavior for which is meaningful to seek an explanation by searching for causes in terms of the mental states of the individual concerned. Hence the significance which he attributed to slips of the tongue or pen, obsessive behavior, and dreams - all, he held, are determined by hidden causes in the person's mind, and so they reveal in covert form what would otherwise not be known at all. This suggests the view that freedom of the will is, if not completely an illusion, certainly more tightly circumscribed than is commonly believed, for it follows from this that whenever we make a choice we are governed by hidden mental processes of which we are unaware and over which we have no control.

The postulate that there are such things as unconscious mental states at all is a direct function of Freud's determinism, his reasoning here being simply that the principle of causality requires that such mental states should exist, for it is evident that there is frequently nothing in the conscious mind which can be said to cause neurotic or other behavior. An 'unconscious' mental process or event, for Freud, is not one which merely happens to be out of consciousness at a given time, but is rather one which cannot, except through protracted psychoanalysis, be brought to the forefront of consciousness. The postulation of such unconscious mental states entails, of course, that the mind is not, and cannot be, identified with consciousness or that which can be an object of consciousness - to employ a much-used analogy, it is rather structurally akin to an iceberg, the bulk of it lying below the surface, exerting a dynamic and determining influence upon the part which is amenable to direct inspection, the conscious mind Deeply associated with this view of the mind is Freud's account of the instincts or drives. The instincts, for Freud, are the principal motivating forces in the mental realm, and as such they 'energies' the mind in all of its functions. There are, he held, an indefinitely large number of such instincts, but these can be reduced to a small number of basic ones, which he grouped into two broad generic categories, Eros (the life instinct), which covers all the self-preserving and erotic instincts, and Thanatos (the death instinct), which covers all the instincts towards aggression, self-destruction, and cruelty.

Thus it is a mistake to interpret Freud as asserting that all human actions spring from motivations which are sexual in their origin, since those which derive from Thanatos are not sexually motivated - indeed, Thanatos is the irrational urge to destroy the source of all sexual energy in the annihilation of the self. Having said that, it is undeniably true that Freud gave sexual drives an importance and centrality in human life, human actions, and human behavior which was new (and to many, shocking), arguing as he does both that the sexual drives exist and can be discerned in children from birth (the theory of infantile sexuality), and that sexual energy (libido) is the single most important motivating force in adult life. However, even here a crucial qualification has to be added - Freud effectively redefined the term 'sexuality' here to make it cover any form of pleasure which is or can be derived from the body. Thus his theory of the instincts or drives is essentially that the human being is energized or driven from birth by the desire to acquire and enhance bodily pleasure.

Freud reasoned that human behavior is like an iceberg. Only small part of which is visible. However, the part of iceberg, which is not seen, controls the seen part. According to him human personality are always conflicting with three constructs. The final outcome, which is the observable behaviour, is the product of this conflict. So he got an idea that this is the reason why many a times a human can not verbalize his motivations.

Modern psychologists are prepared to recognize the existence of unconscious behavior. But not like Freud. They believe human behavior is sparked by motive. A motive is felt need. Human behavior is directed to satisfy these needs or motives. They have five characteristics.

(a) The need having the highest strength dominates the human behavior.

(b) A need once satisfied ceases to influence behavior.

(c) When a need is satisfied, it gives rise to new need.

(d) needs are recurrent in nature.

(e) Needs are ubiquitous. Psychologists do not totally agree on how to classify various human motives. However some psychologists tend to classify motives according as to weather they are unlearned or learned weather they are psychologically based.

Defense mechanism serve as an important function of keeping the human personality integrated; bring out these dense mechanism including the psychological process with illustration

Defense mechanism is the behavior occurring to deal with frustration. Frustration occurs when need fulfillment is continually blocked or when ones self image are in jeopardy. Defense mechanisms are unconscious behavior. The defense mechanisms serve an important function of keeping the human personality integrated.

- Rationalization is giving pseudo justification to explain ones failures. The common examples are sour grapes or a bad workman quarreling with his tools.

- Certain patterns of behavior are learnt during the childhood that are subsequently, in the adult age, replaced by the behaviors acceptable by the society. A superior getting angry with his subordinate and throwing files at him or a person throwing a pen because of the ink not flowing, are the examples of this defense mechanism
- Aggression is also known as emotional transference. A superior scolding his subordinate because of something happening at homes is the example of this defense mechanism.
- As long as a person is in his imaginary castle he is unhappy but some time or the other he has to come down to the mother earth. When he comes out of the imaginary world the problem starts pinching him again. The increased frequency of fantasizing is a signal that one had better seek some help from a psychiatrist.
- Resignation, flight or withdrawal is a complete surrender to the problem situation. This is accepting a situation and ceasing any efforts to deal with the problem.

Describes the theory of unconscious behavior as shaped by Sigmund Freud. Give out the characteristics of needs or motives which are directed to satisfy by human behavior

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Implicit in the industrial approach to human behavior is the hint that human behavior is unconscious behaviorist was Sigmund Freud (1856-1939, Sigmund Freud, physiologist, medical doctor, psychologist and father of psychoanalysis, is generally recognized as one of the most influential and authoritative thinkers of the twentieth century) However, who shaped the theory of unconscious behavior. Freud's theory of the unconscious, then, is highly deterministic, a fact which, given the nature of nineteenth century science, should not be surprising. Freud was arguably the first thinker to apply deterministic principles systematically to the sphere of the mental, and to hold that the broad spectrum of human behavior is explicable only in terms of the (usually hidden) mental processes or states which determine it. Thus, instead of treating the behavior of the neurotic as being causally inexplicable - which had been the prevailing approach for centuries - Freud insisted, on the contrary, on treating it as behavior for which is meaningful to seek an explanation by searching for causes in terms of the mental states of the individual concerned. Hence the significance which he attributed to slips of the tongue or pen, obsessive behavior, and dreams - all, he held, are determined by hidden causes in the person's mind, and so they reveal in covert form what would otherwise not be known at all. This suggests the view that freedom of the will is, if not completely an illusion, certainly more tightly circumscribed than is commonly believed, for it follows from this that whenever we make a choice we are governed by hidden mental processes of which we are unaware and over which we have no control.

The postulate that there are such things as unconscious mental states at all is a direct function of Freud's determinism, his reasoning here being simply that the principle of causality requires that such mental states should exist, for it is evident that there is frequently nothing in the conscious mind which can be said to cause neurotic or other behavior. An 'unconscious' mental process or event, for Freud, is not one which merely happens to be out of consciousness at a given time, but is rather one which cannot, except through protracted psychoanalysis, be brought to the forefront of consciousness. The postulation of such unconscious mental states entails, of course, that the mind is not, and cannot be, identified with consciousness or that which can be an object of consciousness - to employ a much-used analogy, it is rather structurally akin to an iceberg, the bulk of it lying below the surface, exerting a dynamic and determining influence upon the part which is amenable to direct inspection, the conscious mind Deeply associated with this view of the mind is Freud's account of the instincts or drives.

The instincts, for Freud, are the principal motivating forces in the mental realm, and as such they 'energies' the mind in all of its functions. There are, he held, an indefinitely large number of such instincts, but these can be reduced to a small number of basic ones, which he grouped into two broad generic categories, Eros (the life instinct), which covers all the self-preserving and erotic instincts, and Thanatos (the death instinct), which covers all the instincts towards aggression, self-destruction, and cruelty. Thus it is a mistake to interpret Freud as asserting that all human actions spring from motivations which are sexual in their origin, since those which derive from Thanatos are not sexually motivated - indeed, Thanatos is the irrational urge to destroy the source of all sexual energy in the annihilation of the self. Having said that, it is undeniably true that Freud gave sexual drives an importance and centrality in human life, human actions, and human behavior which was new (and to many, shocking), arguing as he does both that the sexual drives exist and can be discerned in children from birth (the theory of infantile sexuality), and that sexual energy (libido) is the single most important motivating force in adult life.

However, even here a crucial qualification has to be added - Freud effectively redefined the term 'sexuality' here to make it cover any form of pleasure which is or can be derived from the body. Thus his theory of the instincts or drives is essentially that the human being is energized or driven from birth by the desire to acquire and enhance bodily pleasure.

Freud reasoned that human behavior is like an iceberg. Only small part of which is visible. However, the part of iceberg, which is not seen, controls the seen part. According to him human personality are always conflicting with three constructs. The final outcome, which is the observable behaviour, is the product of this conflict. So he got an idea that this is the reason why many a times a human can not verbalize his motivations.

Modern psychologists are prepared to recognize the existence of unconscious behavior. But not like Freud. They believe human behavior is sparked by motive. A motive is felt need. Human behavior is directed to satisfy these needs or motives. They have five characteristics.

(a) The need having the highest strength dominates the human behavior.

(b) A need once satisfied ceases to influence behavior.

(c) When a need is satisfied, it gives rise to new need.

(d) needs are recurrent in nature.

(e) Needs are ubiquitous. Psychologists do not totally agree on how to classify various human motives. However some psychologists tend to classify motives according as to weather they are unlearned or learned weather they are psychologically based.

Define mechanism serve as an important function of keeping the human personality integrated; bring out these dense mechanism including the psychological process with illustration

Defense mechanism is the behavior occurring to deal with frustration. Frustration occurs when need fulfillment is continually blocked or when ones self image are in jeopardy. Defense mechanisms are unconscious behavior. The defense mechanisms serve an important function of keeping the human personality integrated.

- Rationalization is giving pseudo justification to explain ones failures. The common examples are sour grapes or a bad workman quarreling with his tools.
- Certain patterns of behavior are learnt during the childhood that are subsequently, in the adult age, replaced by the behaviors acceptable by the society. A superior getting angry with his subordinate and throwing files at him or a person throwing a pen because of the ink not flowing, are the examples of this defense mechanism
- Aggression is also known as emotional transference. A superior scolding his subordinate because of something happening at homes is the example of this defense mechanism.
- As long as a person is in his imaginary castle he is unhappy but some time or the other he has to come down to the mother earth. When he comes out of the imaginary world the problem starts pinching him again. The increased frequency of fantasizing is a signal that one had better seek some help from a psychiatrist.
- Resignation, flight or withdrawal is a complete surrender to the problem situation. This is accepting a situation and ceasing any efforts to deal with the problem.

Discusses the major differences between content and process work theories. Explain

Abraham Maslow's theory of need –hierarchy.

LESSON10: CONTENT AND PROCESS OF WORK THEORIES

CONTENT THEORY:

The content theories are concerned with identifying the needs that people have and how needs are prioritizes. They are concerned with types of incentives that drive people to attain need fulfillment.

1) Maslow's Hierarchy of needs theory

2) Alderfer ERG theory

3) Herzberg Two-factor theory

Maslow's Hierarchy of needs (in order)

Hierarchy of human needs (theory of human needs) introduced the concept of self-actualization and the potential for people to experience self-fulfillment in their work. Lower order and higher order needs affect workplace behavior and attitudes.

Lower order needs:

Deficit principle

• A satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior.

Progression principle

• A need at one level does not become activated until the next lower level need is satisfied.

Alderfer ERG theory:

Developed by Clayton Alderfer.

– Three need levels:

1) Existence needs—desires for physiological and material well-being.

2) Relatedness needs—desires for satisfying interpersonal relationships.

3) Growth needs—desires for continued psychological growth and development.

ERG theory?

1) Any/all needs can influence behavior at one time.

2) Frustration-regression principle.

3) An already satisfied lower level need becomes reactivated when a higher level need is frustrated.

Herzberg Two-factor theory

– Developed by Frederick Herzberg.

– Hygiene factors:

• Elements of the job context.

• Sources of job dissatisfaction.

– Satisfier factors:

1) Elements of the job content.

2) Sources of job satisfaction and motivation.

McClelland Acquired needs theory

– Developed by David McClelland.

– People acquire needs through their life experiences.

– Needs that are acquired:

1) Need for Achievement (nAch)

2) Need for Power (nPower)

3) Need for Affiliation (nAff)

Need for Achievement (nAch)

• Desire to do something better or more efficiently, to solve problems, or to master complex tasks

– Workers high in (nAch) prefer work that:

1) Involves individual responsibility for results.

2) Involves achievable but challenging goals.

3) Provides feedback on performance.

Need for Power (nPower)

• Desire to control other persons, to influence their behavior, or to be responsible for other people.

• Personal power versus social power.

– Workers high in (nPower) prefer work that:

• Involves control over other people.

• Has an impact on people and events.

• Brings public recognition and attention.

Need for Affiliation (nAff)

• Desire to establish and maintain friendly and warm relations with other persons.

– Workers high in (nAff) prefer work that:

• Involves interpersonal relationships.

• Provides for companionship

• Brings social approval.

PROCESS THEORIES

This theory provides a much sounder theoretical explanation of work motivations. The process theories are concerned with identifying the variables that go into motivation and more importantly how they are related to one another. Unlike the content theory these expectancy models are relatively complex and difficult to translate into actual practice. They have generally failed to meet the goals of prediction and control of organization behavior. The expectancy model of vroom and the extensions and the refinements provided by the porter and Lawler help explain the important cognitive variables and how they related to one another in the process of work motivation

Types of process theories:

1) Equity theory. 2) Expectancy theory. 3) Goal-setting theory.

ABRAHAM MASLOW'S THEORY:

One of the many interesting things Maslow noticed while he worked with monkeys early in his career was that some needs take precedence over others. For example, if you are hungry and thirsty, you will tend to try to take care of the thirst first. After all, you can do without food for weeks, but you can only do without water for a couple of days! Thirst is a "stronger" need than hunger. Likewise, if you are very thirsty, but someone has put a choke hold on you and you can't breathe, which is more important? The need of breathe.

Maslow took this idea and created his now famous hierarchy of needs. Beyond the details of air, water, food, and sex, he laid out five broader layers: the physiological needs, the needs for safety and security, the needs for love and belonging, the needs for esteem, and the need to actualize the self, in that order.

1. The physiological needs. These include the needs we have for oxygen, water, protein, salt, sugar, calcium, and other minerals and vitamins. They also include the need to maintain a pH balance (getting too acidic or base will kill you) and temperature (98.6 or near to it). Also, there's the needs to be active, to rest, to sleep, to get rid of wastes (CO2, sweat, urine, and feces), to avoid pain, and to have sex. Quite a collection! Maslow believed, and research supports him, that these are in fact individual needs, and that a lack of, say, vitamin C, will lead to a very specific hunger for things which have in the past provided that vitamin C -- e.g. orange juice. I guess the cravings that some pregnant women have, and the way in which babies eat the most foul tasting baby food, support the idea anecdotally.

2. The safety and security needs. When the physiological needs are largely taken care of, this

second layer of needs comes into play. You will become increasingly interested in finding safe circumstances, stability, and protection. You might develop a need for structure, for order, some limits. Looking at it negatively, you become concerned, not with needs like hunger and thirst, but with your fears and anxieties. In the ordinary American adult, this set of needs manifest themselves in the form of our urges to have a home in a safe neighborhood, a little job security and a nest egg, a good retirement plan and a bit of insurance, and so on.

3. The love and belonging needs. When physiological needs and safety needs are, by and large, taken care of, a third layer starts to show up. You begin to feel the need for friends, a sweetheart, children; affectionate relationships in general, even a sense of community. Looked at negatively, you become increasing susceptible to loneliness and social anxieties. In our day-to-day life, we exhibit these needs in our desires to marry, have a family, be a part of a community, a member of a church, a brother in the fraternity, a part of a gang or a bowling club. It is also a part of what we look for in a career.

4. The esteem needs. Next, we begin to look for a little self-esteem. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs, a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, fame, glory, recognition, attention, reputation,

appreciation, dignity, even dominance.

The higher form involves the need for self-respect, including such feelings as confidence, competence, achievement, mastery, independence, and freedom. Note that this is the "higher" form because, unlike the respect of others, once you have self-respect, it's a lot harder to lose! The negative version of these needs is low self-esteem and inferiority complexes. Maslow felt that Adler was really onto something when he proposed that these were at the roots of many, if not most, of our psychological problems. In modern countries, most of us have what we need in regard to our physiological and safety needs. We, more often than not, have quite a bit of love and belonging, too. It's a little respect that often seems so very hard to get! All of the preceding four levels he calls deficit needs, or D-needs. If you don't have enough of something -- i.e. you have a deficit -- you feel the need. But if you get all you need, you feel nothing at all! In other words, they cease to be motivating. As the old blues song goes, "you don't miss your water till your well runs dry!"

He also talks about these levels in terms of homeostasis. Homeostasis is the principle by which your furnace thermostat operates: When it gets too cold, it switches the heat on; when it gets too hot, it switches the heat off. In the same way, your body, when it lacks a certain substance, develops a hunger for it; when it gets enough of it, then the hunger stops. Maslow simply extends the homeostatic principle to needs, such as safety, belonging, and esteem that we don't ordinarily think of in these terms. Maslow sees all these needs as essentially survival needs. Even love and esteem are needed for the maintenance of health. He says we all have these needs built in to us genetically, like instincts. In fact, he calls them instinctoid -- instinct-like -- needs. In terms of overall development, we move through these levels a bit like stages. As newborns, our focus (if not our entire set of needs) is on the physiological. Soon, we begin to recognize that we need to be safe. Soon after that, we crave attention and affection. A bit later, we look for self-esteem. Mind you, this is in the first couple of years! Under stressful conditions, or when survival is threatened, we can "regress" to a lower need level. When you great career falls flat, you might seek out a little attention. When your family ups and leaves you, it seems that love is again all you ever wanted. When you face chapter eleven after a long and happy life, you suddenly can't think of anything except money. These things can occur on a society-wide basis as well: When society suddenly flounders, people start clamoring for a strong leader to take over and make things right. When the bombs start falling, they look for safety. When the food stops coming into the stores, their needs become even more basic. Maslow suggested that we can ask people for their "philosophy of the future" -- what would their ideal life or world be like -- and get significant information as to what needs they do or do not have covered. If you have significant problems along your development -- a period of extreme insecurity or hunger as a child, or the loss of a family member through death or divorce, or significant neglect or abuse -- you may “fixate” on that set of needs for the rest of your life.

This is Maslow’s understanding of neurosis. Perhaps you went through a war as a kid. Now you have everything your heart needs -- yet you still find yourself obsessing over having enough money and keeping the pantry well-stocked. Or perhaps your parents divorced when you were young. Now you have a wonderful spouse -- yet you get insanely jealous or worry constantly that they are going to leave you because you are not “good enough” for them. You get the picture. Self-actualization.

The last level is a bit different. Maslow has used a variety of terms to refer to this level: He has called it growth motivation (in contrast to deficit motivation), being needs (or B-needs, in contrast to D-needs), and self-actualization. These are needs that do not involve balance or homeostasis. Once engaged, they continue to be felt. In fact, they are likely to become stronger as we “feed” them! They involve the continuous desire to fulfill potentials, to “be all that you can be.” They are a matter of becoming the most complete, the fullest, “you” -- hence the term, self-actualization. Now, in keeping with his theory up to this point, if you want to be truly self-actualizing, you need to have your lower needs taken care of, at least to a considerable extent. This makes sense: If you are hungry, you are scrambling to get food; If you are unsafe, you have to be continuously on guard; If you are isolated and unloved, you have to satisfy that need; If you have a low sense of self-esteem, you have to be defensive or compensate. When lower needs are unmet, you can't fully devote yourself to fulfilling your potentials. It isn't surprising, then, the world being as difficult as it is, that only a small percentage of the world's population is truly, predominantly, self-actualizing. Maslow at one point suggested only about two percent! The question becomes, of course, what exactly Maslow means by self-actualization. To answer that, we need to look at the kind of people he called self-actualizers.

Fortunately, he did this for us, using a qualitative method called biographical analysis. He began by picking out a group of people, some historical figures, some people he knew, whom he felt clearly met the standard of self-actualization. Included in this august group were Abraham Lincoln, Thomas Jefferson, Albert Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, Jane Adams, William James, Albert Schweitzer, Benedict Spinoza, and Alduous Huxley, plus 12 unnamed people who were alive at the time Maslow did his research. He then looked at their biographies, writings, the acts and words of those he knew personally, and so on. From these sources, he developed a list of qualities that seemed characteristic of these people, as opposed to the great mass of us. These people were reality-centered, which means they could differentiate what is fake and dishonest from what is real and genuine. They were problem-centered, meaning they treated life's difficulties as problems demanding solutions, not as personal troubles to be railed at or surrendered to. And they had a different perception of means and ends. They felt that the ends don't necessarily justify the means, that the means could be ends themselves, and that the means -- the journey -- was often more important than the ends. The self-actualizers also had a different way of relating to others. First, they enjoyed solitude, and were comfortable being alone. And they enjoyed deeper personal relations with a few close friends and family members, rather than more shallow relationships with many people.

They enjoyed autonomy, a relative independence from physical and social needs. And they resisted enculturation, that is, they were not susceptible to social pressure to be "well adjusted" or to "fit in" -- they were, in fact, nonconformists in the best sense. They had an unhostile sense of humor -- preferring to joke at their own expense, or at the human condition, and never directing their humor at others. They had a quality he called acceptance of self and others, by which he meant that these people would be more likely to take you as you are than try to change you into what they thought you should be. This same acceptance applied to their attitudes towards themselves: If some quality of theirs wasn't harmful, they let it be, even enjoying it as a personal quirk. On the other hand, they were often strongly motivated to change negative qualities in themselves that could be changed. Along with this comes spontaneity and simplicity: They preferred being themselves rather than being pretentious or artificial. In fact, for all their nonconformity, he found that they tended to be conventional on the surface, just where less self-actualizing nonconformists tend to be the most dramatic. Further, they had a sense of humility and respect towards others -- something Maslow also called democratic values -- meaning that they were open to ethnic and individual variety, even treasuring it. They had a quality Maslow called human kinship or Gemeinschaftsgefühl -- social interest, compassion, humanity. And this was accompanied by a strong ethics, which was spiritual but seldom conventionally religious in nature. And these people had a certain freshness of appreciation, an ability to see things, even ordinary things, with wonder. Along with this comes their ability to be creative, inventive, and original.

And, finally, these people tended to have more peak experiences than the average person. A peak experience is one that takes you out of yourself, that makes you feel very tiny, or very large, to some extent one with life or nature or God. It gives you a feeling of being a part of the infinite and the eternal. These experiences tend to leave their mark on a person, change them for the better, and many people actively seek them out. They are also called mystical experiences, and are an important part of many religious and philosophical traditions. Maslow doesn't think that self-actualizers are perfect, of course. There were several flaws or imperfections he discovered along the way as well: First, they often suffered considerable anxiety and guilt -- but realistic anxiety and guilt, rather than misplaced or neurotic versions. Some of them were absentminded and overly kind. And finally, some of them had unexpected moments of ruthlessness, surgical coldness, and loss of humor. Two other points he makes about these self-actualizers: Their values were "natural" and seemed to flow effortlessly from their personalities. And they appeared to transcend many of the dichotomies others accept as being undeniable, such as the differences between the spiritual and the physical, the selfish and the unselfish, and the masculine and the feminine.

Enumerate Hertzberg's two factors theory of motivation including principle of job

enrichment.

The motivation-hygiene theory was proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. In the belief that an individual's relation to his or her work is a basic one and that his or her attitude toward this work can very well determine the individual's success or failure, Herzberg investigated the question "What do people want from their jobs?" he asked people to describe, in detail, situations when they felt exceptionally good or bad about their jobs. Their responses were tabulated and categorized. Herzberg suggested that certain extrinsic factors, or hygiene, (those associated with the environment surrounding a job) only have the power to de-motivate while intrinsic factors (those associated with the job itself) have the power to energize, or motivate, behavior. The extrinsic, or hygiene, factors largely correspond to Maslow's lower order physiological and safety needs. They include factors associated with job dissatisfaction such as working conditions, supervision, relations with co-workers, salary, company policy, and administration. Intrinsic factors, or motivators, largely corresponding to Maslow's higher order needs, include the work itself, responsibility, recognition for work well done, advancement, and achievement.

From a philosophical perspective, it is Herzberg's position that it is the responsibility of society's dominant institutions to provide for the growth and well being of people. In our society, one such dominant organization is the business institution. Therefore it is the responsibility of business and industry to provide the means for growth and self actualization.

Herzberg's theory thus posits that there are two classes of factors that influence employee motivation; intrinsic factors and the extrinsic factors. The intrinsic factors were also called the motivator factors and were related to job satisfaction. The extrinsic factors were called hygiene factors and were related to job dissatisfaction. Motivators (intrinsic factors) led to job satisfaction because of a need for growth and self actualization, and hygiene (extrinsic) factors led to job dissatisfaction because of a need to avoid unpleasantness. The most important part of this theory of motivation is that the main motivating factors are not in the environment but in the intrinsic value and satisfaction gained from the job itself. It follows therefore that to motivate an individual, a job itself must be challenging, have scope for enrichment and be of interest to the jobholder. Motivators (sometimes called ‘satisfiers’) are those factors directly concerned with the satisfaction gained from a job, those are

Motivators (satisfaction)

The sense of achievement and the intrinsic value obtained from the job itself

- the level of recognition by both colleagues and management
- the level of responsibility
- opportunities for advancement and
- The status provided.

Motivators lead to satisfaction because of the need for growth and a sense of self-achievement.

A lack of motivators leads to over-concentration on hygiene factors, which are those negative factors which can be seen and therefore form the basis of complaint and concern. Hygiene factors (often referred to as maintenance factors) lead to dissatisfaction with a job because of the need to avoid unpleasantness. They are referred to as hygiene factors because they can be avoided or prevented by the use of 'hygienic' methods. The important fact to remember is that attention to these hygiene factors prevents dissatisfaction but does not necessarily provide positive motivation. Hygiene factors are also often referred to as 'dissatisfies'. They are concerned with factors associated with the job itself but are not directly a part of it. Typically, this is salary, although other factors which will often act as dissatisfies include:

Hygiene factors (dis-satisfaction)

- perceived differences with others
- job security
- working conditions
- the quality of management
- organizational policy
- administration and
- Interpersonal relations.

JOB ENRICHMENT:

The idea of job enrichment is probably the most significant contribution of Herzberg's theory. Meaningful tasks allow for growth, and job enrichment is a relatively simple method for facilitating this growth: Adding different tasks to a job to provide greater involvement and interaction with the task. Adding tasks can raise the level of challenge in any particular job to a level commensurate with the abilities of an employee. It might be argued that, if a job can not be enriched and it is not challenging to the person in that position, then that person ought to be replaced by someone who will find the job challenging.

Principles of job enrichment according to Herzberg are

- . Removing some control while retaining accountability
- Increases accountability for individual own work
- Giving a person a complete natural unit of work
- Granting additional authority to an employee in his activity
- Introducing new and more difficult tasks not handled previously
- Assigning individuals specific or specialized tasks, enabling them to become experts

Motivators involved

- Responsibility and personal achievements
- Responsibility and recognition
- Internal recognition
- Growth and learning
- Responsibility, growth and advancement

Define moral, it is said, the "higher the moral the higher is the productivity". However it may not be true in all cases, illustrate this through a graph.

According to Keith Davis morale means "the attitude of the employee and groups towards their work environment and towards voluntary cooperation to the full extent of their ability in the best interests of the organization" According to Morris Viteles "Morale refers to the condition of a group where there are clear and fixed group goals that are felt to be important and integrated with individual goals .where there is confidence in the attainment of these goals and the confidence in the means of attainment in the leader, associates and finally in one self." Morale indicates the happiness of the employee with organizational environment .it also refers to the preparedness of the groups of the employee to the subordinate the individual and the group goals of the organization It represents the integration of an individual with the team and the organizational itself. Generally it can be said that morale has a positive relationship with productivity. The higher the morale the higher is the productivity.

High productivity involves a combination of ability, training, work habits, performance goals ext. curve 'A' above where morale is high but productivity is low indicates the management's failure in the proper discharge of management function: CHIEFLY THE PLANNING FUNCTION. Planning can be high in spite of morale being low because of the rigid systems and controls imposed by the management. The situation where productivity is higher in spite of morale being low or productivity being lower in spite of morale being high does not last long. In the first situation productivity is high because of the strict management controls and close supervision. it also happens in an atmosphere where the people are treated as machines. In this situation the management is apparently creating discontent in the organization which may blow up in its face. When this happens the productivity also dips. In the second situation when morale is high but productivity is high but productivity is low, slowly people distance themselves from the organization because of the disillusionment about the management abilities in this situation after sometimes the morale comes down.

This in both these situation ultimately morale as well as productivity are at their nadir. Every manager is always interested in curve B indicating high morale as well as productivity.

But morale is not static phenomenon. Today the morale high but some thing may go wrong and the morale might start coming down. In words a manager must have his fingers on the morale in the organization. No doubt a manager can know the level of morale in his organization by morale surveys. These morale surveys involve drafting of questionnaires, interview people, tabulate and analyze the data. This may be time taking process. Instead he may pay due attention to some of the morale indicators that give an idea about the status of morale at a particular time Therefore a manger has to understand some of the morale indicators in the organization. An attention these indicators may enable him to take some corrective action on time.

(a) PERCEPTION

Perception is an important cognitive process deciding how a person will behave. Through this complex process people interpret world to themselves. Perception is a unique phenomenon, influencing people behave differently. Externally stimuli selectively are affecting by such factors as the intensity, size, movement, repetition etc. Internally perceptual selectivity is influenced by learning, culture, experience, interest, motivation etc. Perception is the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking, and reacting to sensory stimuli or data.\perception is the process by which individuals organize and interpret information about his environment in order to give meaning to their environment. Kolasa defines perception as the "selection and organization of material which stems from the outside environment at one time or the other to provide the meaningful entity we experience" Perception is much more complex and much more boarder than sensation. The perceptual process can be defines as a complicated interaction of selection, organization, and interpretation of stimuli. The perceptual process overcomes the sensual process and the person "sees" the object as stationary. Perceptual process is of utmost significance in understanding human behavior. It is unique interpretation instead of a precise recording of the situation. Perception involves 5 sub processes. They are stimulus, registration, interpretation, feedback and consequence. Perception initiates with the presence of a stimulus situation. In organizational settings the superior forms the stimulus situation for the subordinate's perceptual process.

Registration involves the physiological mechanism including both sensory and neural. Interpretation is a highly crucial sub process. Other psychological process assists in perceptual interpretation.

Feedback is important for interpreting the perceptual event data. In work settings, the psychological feedback that is likely to affect a subordinates perception may be in the form of variation in the behavior of superior.

Perception ends in reaction or response, which may be in the overt or convert form. As a consequence of perception, an individual responds to work demands. These sub process indicate the complexity of perception.

(B) ATTITUDE, BELIF AND IDEOLOGY

An attitude may be defines as a tendency to react positively or negatively in regard to an object. An attitude is a cognitive element. It always remains inside a person. An attitude is always directed towards some object. The notable feature of attitude is that it varies in direction, intensity and the extent of consciousness. An attitude is a tendency in a certain way. That is a person who has an attitude has a redness or disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to anyone of large variety of related situation. Attitude is for or against things. We tend to have favorable attitudes towards sources of gratification and favorable attitudes towards sources of punishment and frustration. A belief is a judgment about something. For example a belief that the world is round is a judgment about its form. Many of our beliefs, of course are emotionally neutral. Others are definitely favorable or unfavorable towards some objectify example, a favorable attitude towards the religion may involve beliefs that the religion helps to curb delinquency, that worshippers are better citizens than are non-devotees, that people who stay away from temples are unhappy and immoral, and so on. When beliefs become organized into system, they are called ideologists.

The capitalists' ideology, for example, is asset of beliefs that a free enterprises economy is maximally productive; that competition in the long run brings down prices and raises quality; and that events in the mark places do and should determine what is produced. There are ideologies pertaining to all major institution of society, such as the family, the law, the government, and the economic system. Although these ideologies are difficult to verify, we feel strong about them and, as long as thing go well, have great confidence in them. They give us an interpretation and justification for our practice. Like religion, they are matter of faith. They give us an interpretation and justification for our practices. Like religion, they are matter of faith. They give us an interpretation and justification for our practice. Like religion, they are matter of faith. They give us social definition of reality. It is an interesting thing about human behavior that some of the beliefs that we hold most tenaciously with the strongest feelings are not readily subject to proof or disproof.

STRESS AND STATE OF EXHAUSTION

Stress management defines stress precisely as a person's physiological response to an external stimulus that triggers the "fight-or-flight" reaction. Stress is the "wear and tear" our bodies experience as we adjust to our continually changing environment; it has physical and emotional effects on us and can create positive or negative feelings. As a positive influence, stress can help compel us to action; it can result in a new awareness and an exciting new perspective. As a negative influence, it can result in feelings of distrust, rejection, anger, and depression, which in turn can lead to health problems such as headaches, upset stomach, rashes, insomnia, ulcers, high blood pressure, heart disease, and stroke. With the death of a loved one, the birth of a child, a job promotion, or a new relationship, we experience stress as we readjust our lives. In so adjusting to different circumstances, stress will help or hinder us depending on how we react to it. Stress is a condition or feeling experienced when a person perceives that “demands exceed the personal and social resources the individual is able to mobilize. Stress is a physiological abnormality at the structural or bio-chemical level caused by overloading experience. Stress is an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological and or behavioral deviations.

According to DR Pestonji the stress can be categorized as

(a) eustress (caused when person is over-joy)

(b) Distress (caused when person is suddenly very sad or angry)

(c) Hyper-work stress (causes due to hyper activity)

d) Hypo stress (this stress is caused by less than optimum activity).

Over million of years the life has changed. However the body chemistry is not changed. With the change in the life style, stress have multiplies and diversified in different forms. However the body chemistry has remained the same. The theory of “GENERAL ADAPTION SYNDROME” states that when organism is confronted with threat, the general physiological response occurs in three stages

ALARM REACTION

Resistance Reaction State of exhaustion In state of exhaustion stage, the stress has continued for some time. The body's resistance to the stress may gradually be reduced, or may collapse quickly. Generally, this means the immune system, and the body's ability to resist disease, may be almost totally eliminated. Patients who experience long-term stress may succumb to heart attacks or severe infection due to their reduced immunity. For example, a person with a stressful job may experience long-term stress that might lead to high blood pressure and an eventual heart attack

Symptoms of stress

Physical:

- Heart pounding
- Headaches
- Sweaty palms
- Indigestion
- Skin breaks out
- Shortness of breath
- holding breath
- Cold hands
- Sleeplessness
- sleep too much
- Fatigue

- Nausea
- Diarrhea
- Tight stomach
- Tight muscles
- Pain

Emotional:

- Moody
- Irritability
- depressed anxious
- Lack of sense of humor
- Abrasive
- Hostile
- Nervous
- Emotional

Mental:

- Forgetfulness
- Loss of concentration
- Poor judgment

- disorganized
- Fuzzy perception
- Confused
- Lack of interest
- Math errors
- stop thinking
- diminished fantasy life
- Negative self-talk

Best way to prevent stress

(1) Doing exercise regularly

2) Away from tobacco

3) Regular medical checkup

4) Drink lot of water

(D)LEADERSHIP AND ITS STYLES:

The successful organization has one major common attribute that sets them apart from unsuccessful organization: Dynamic and effective leadership. Leadership is a learned behavior. Rarely is one born with the ability to lead. Even charisma is learned. Though many may dream of a leadership role, it is often dismissed as "impossible." We often think of leaders as a single personality type, "born to lead." But in reality all that leaders have in common are the initiative and the desire. There is no one leadership personality. Leaders are forged from all types. Leadership is the ability to get people to follow. Leadership is more than getting people to do what is asked. A good leader motivates people to want to do what is asked. A leader must provide a clear vision, a direction. They must know where they are going and why. They must communicate that vision clearly and with a passion. The passion and logic of the vision must motivate the followers to make the vision their own. The significance of leadership also stems from the nature of human membership in the organizational settings. Keith Davis defines leadership as “ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor that binds people together and motives them towards goals.” Leadership is one form of dominance, in which the followers more or less willingly accept direction and control by another person. Leadership is practiced by leadership style. Which is the total pattern of leaders’ it represents their philosophy, skills, and attitude. Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people.

There are three different styles of leadership:

(1) Authoritarian (autocratic),

2). Participative (democratic),

3) Delegative (free reign)

Although most leaders use all three styles, one of them becomes the dominate one. Authoritarian (autocratic).

This type is used when the leader tells her employees what she wants done and how she wants it done, without getting the advice of her people. Some of the appropriate conditions to use it, when you have all the information to solve the problem, you are short on time, and your employees are well motivated. Some people think that this style includes yelling, using demeaning language, and leading by threats and abuse of power. This is not the authoritarian style...it is an abusive, unprofessional style of leadership. However, if you have the time and you want to gain more commitment and motivation from your employee, then you should use the participative style. Participative (democratic).

This type of style involves the leader including one or more employees in on the decision making process (determining what to do and how to do it). However, the leader maintains the final decision making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness; it is a sign of strength that your employees will respect. This is normally used when you have some of the information, and your employees have some of the information. This allows them to become part of the team and allows you to make a better decision. Delegative (free reign).

In this style, the leader allows the employees to make the decision. However, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made. This is used when employees are able to analyze the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to do it. You cannot do everything! You must set priorities and delegate certain tasks

(e)PATH GOAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP:

The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership was developed to describe the way that leaders encourage and support their followers in achieving the goals they have been set by making the path that they should take clear and easy. The Path-Goal Theory has a contingency perspective. But it is different from Fiedler's Contingent Theory in its focus. The Path-Goal

Theory focuses on the situation and leader behavior rather than leader personality traits. The Path-Goal Theory also depends on situational factors. Believes that a leader can change a subordinate's expectancy by clarifying the paths between the subordinate's action and the outcome, which is the goal the employee wants to achieve. Whether leader behavior can do so effectively. In particular, leaders:

- Clarify the path so subordinates know which way to go.
- Remove roadblocks that are stopping them going there.
- Increasing the rewards along the route.

Leaders can take a strong or limited approach in these. In clarifying the path, they may be directive or give vague hints. In removing roadblocks, they may scour the path or help the follower move the bigger blocks. In increasing rewards, they may give occasional encouragement or pave the way with gold. This variation in approach will depend on the situation, including the follower's capability and motivation, as well as the difficulty of the job and other contextual factors. House and Mitchell (1974) describe four styles of leadership: Supportive leadership Considering the needs of the follower, showing concern for their welfare and creating a friendly working environment. This includes increasing the follower's self-esteem and making the job more interesting. This approach is best when the work is stressful, boring or hazardous. Directive leadership Telling followers what needs to be done and giving appropriate guidance along the way? This includes giving them schedules of specific work to be done at specific times. Rewards may also be increased as needed and role ambiguity decreased (by telling them what they should be doing). This may be used when the task is unstructured and complex and the follower is inexperienced. This increases the follower's sense of security and control and hence is appropriate to the situation. Participative Leadership: Consulting with followers and taking their ideas into account when making decisions and taking particular actions. This approach is best when the followers are expert and their advice is both needed and they expect to be able to give it.

Achievement-oriented leadership

Setting challenging goals, both in work and in self-improvement (and often together). High standards are demonstrated and expected. The leader shows faith in the capabilities of the follower to succeed. This approach is best when the task is complex Supportive behavior increases satisfaction by the group, especially in stressful situations, while directive behavior is suited to uncertain and ambiguous situations. It is also proposed that leaders who have influence upon their superiors can increase group satisfaction and performance.