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Third Semester

BBA (G)

Organizational Behaviors

Course Code: BBA (G) – 201   L: 4   T/P: Credits: 4

The course aims to provide basic concepts, theories and techniques in the field of human behaviour at the individual, group and organizational levels.

Contents

UNIT 1: Introduction: Concept and nature of Organizational behaviour; Contributing disciplines to the field of O.B.; O.B. Models; Need to understand human behaviour; Challenges and Opportunities.

UNIT 2: Individual Behaviour: Self Concept; Ability; Learning – theories and reinforcement schedules; Values and Attitudes; Personality – determinants and traits; Emotions; Perception – Process and errors.

Interpersonal Behaviour: Johari Window; Transactional Analysis – ego states, types of transactions, life positions, applications of T.A.

UNIT 3: Group Behaviour & Team Development: Concept of Group and Group Dynamics; Types of Groups; Formal and Informal Groups; Theories of Group Formation; Group Norms, Group Cohesiveness; Group Think and Group Shift. Group Decision Making; Inter Group Behaviour; Concept of Team Vs. Group; Types of teams; Building and managing effective teams.

UNIT 4: Organization Culture and Conflict Management: Organizational Culture; Managing Conflict – Sources, types, process and resolution of conflict; Managing Change; Managing across Cultures; Empowerment and Participation.

Unit-1

Introduction

Organization: Organizations are defined as collectivities....that has been established for the pursuit of relatively specific objectives on more or less continuous basis.

A social unit of people systematically structured and managed to meet a need or to pursue collective goals on a continuing basis.

Function of management

Manager is that individual who achieves goals through other people. The basic functions are as follows:

1) **Planning:** A process that includes defining goals, establishing strategy and developing plans to coordinate activities.
2) **Organizing**: Determining what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who reports to whom, and where the decisions are to be made.
3) **Leading:** A function that includes motivating employees, directing others, selecting the most effective communication channels and resolving conflicts.
4) **Controlling:** Monitoring activities to ensure they are being accomplished as planned and correcting any significant deviations.

Role of Managers

1) **Interpersonal Roles**
   i. Figurehead: Symbolic head; required to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature.
   ii. Leader: Responsible for motivation & direction of employees.
   iii. Laison: Maintains a network of outside contacts who provide favors and information.
2) **Informational Roles**
   i. Monitor: Receives wide variety of information; serve as nerve centre of internal & external information of the organization.
   ii. Disseminator: Transits information received for outsiders to members of the organization.
   iii. Spokesperson: Transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans, policies, actions and results, serve as expert on organization's industry.
3) **Decisional Roles**
   i. Entrepreneur: Searches organization and its environment for opportunities and initiatives projects to bring about change.
   ii. Disturbance Handler: Responsible for corrective action when organization faces important, unexpected disturbances.
   iii. Resource allocator: Makes or approves significant organizational decisions.

iv.   Negotiator: Responsible for representing the organization at major negotiations.

Skills of Managers

1) Technical Skills: Specialized knowledge (machines, equipment, processes)
2) Human skills: Communication, motivation, understands others, delegations.
3) Conceptual Skills: Analyze and diagnose complex situation.

Organizational Behavior

Organizational Behavior is the study of individuals and their behavior within the context of the organization in a workplace setting. It is an interdisciplinary field that includes sociology, psychology, communication and management.

Organizational Behavior (OB) is the study and application of knowledge about how people, individuals, and groups act in organizations. It interprets people-organization relationships in terms of the whole person, whole group, whole organization, and whole social system. Its purpose is to build better relationships by achieving human objectives, organizational objectives, and social objectives.

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

Organizational Behavior is concerned with the study of behavior and attitudes of man in an organizational settings; the organization's effect on his perceptions, feeling and actions; and particularly on his behavior for the achievement of the organization's purposes.

OB seeks to emphasize the understanding of behavior in organizations so as to develop competencies in foreseeing how people are likely to behave. This knowledge may then help in controlling those behaviors that are not befitting the objectives of the organizations.

Features/Nature of Organizational Behaviour

1. A separate field of study - Organizational Behaviour is a separate field of study. Many researches and analysis have been done in this field. But it is not still accepted as a science. There is no foundation of basic concepts that may guide its development as a science. Therefore, it will be appropriate to call it a field of study rather than discipline.

2. It is an applied science - The aim of OB it to solve problems of organizations related with human behaviour aspect. Therefore, applied researches are concentrated, in place of fundamental researches. Though many of the researches may be carried in laboratory, but the behaviour of an individual cannot be analyzed in laboratory. Therefore, Organizational Behaviour is both science as well as art.

3. Goal Oriented/Oriented towards organizational objectives - Since OB is applied science it is oriented towards organizational goals. Sometimes there may be conflict of organizational goals with individual goals. In that case, both the objectives are achieved simultaneously.

4. Interdisciplinary Approach - Organizational Behaviour is interdisciplinary in nature. It is based on behavioural and social sciences that contributes to the subject. It applies from these disciplines ideas that will improve the relationships between people and organization.

5. Focus Attention On people - OB focus the attention on people. It is based on the concept that need and motivation of the people should be given priority. if the people are given proper environment and working condition, they are creative, independent and capable of achieving organizational objectives.

6. Normative Science - OB is a normative science. It just not only defines the cause and effect relationship but also suggests how the results of various researches can be applied to get organizational results. What acceptable by society is not defines positive science, but it is done by normative science.

7. A Total system Approach- OB is a total systems approach wherean the living system of an organization is viewed as an enlargement of a man. A system approach is an integrated approach which takes into account all the variables affecting organizational functioning.

Levels of Analysis

OB focuses on three levels of analysis:

Individual level

In individual level organizational behavior involves the study of learning, perception, creativity, motivation, personality, turnover, task performance, cooperative behavior, deviant behavior, ethics, and cognition. At this level of analysis, organizational behavior draws heavily upon psychology. Study of behaviour of an individual working in the organization is also known as **Micro Organizational Behavior.**

Group level

At the group level of analysis, organizational behavior involves the study of group dynamics, intra- and inter group conflict and cohesion, leadership, power, norms, interpersonal communication, networks, and roles. At this level of analysis, organizational behavior draws upon the sociological and socio-psychological sciences. Understanding of group dynamic is essential to reduce conflicts and improve morale and productivity. This is also known as **Meso Organizational Behavior.**

Organizational level

At the organization level of analysis, organizational behavior involves the study of topics such as organizational culture, organizational structure, cultural diversity, inter-organizational cooperation and conflict, change, technology, and external environmental forces. At this level of

analysis, organizational behavior draws upon anthropology and political science. This is also known as **Macro Organizational Behavior.**
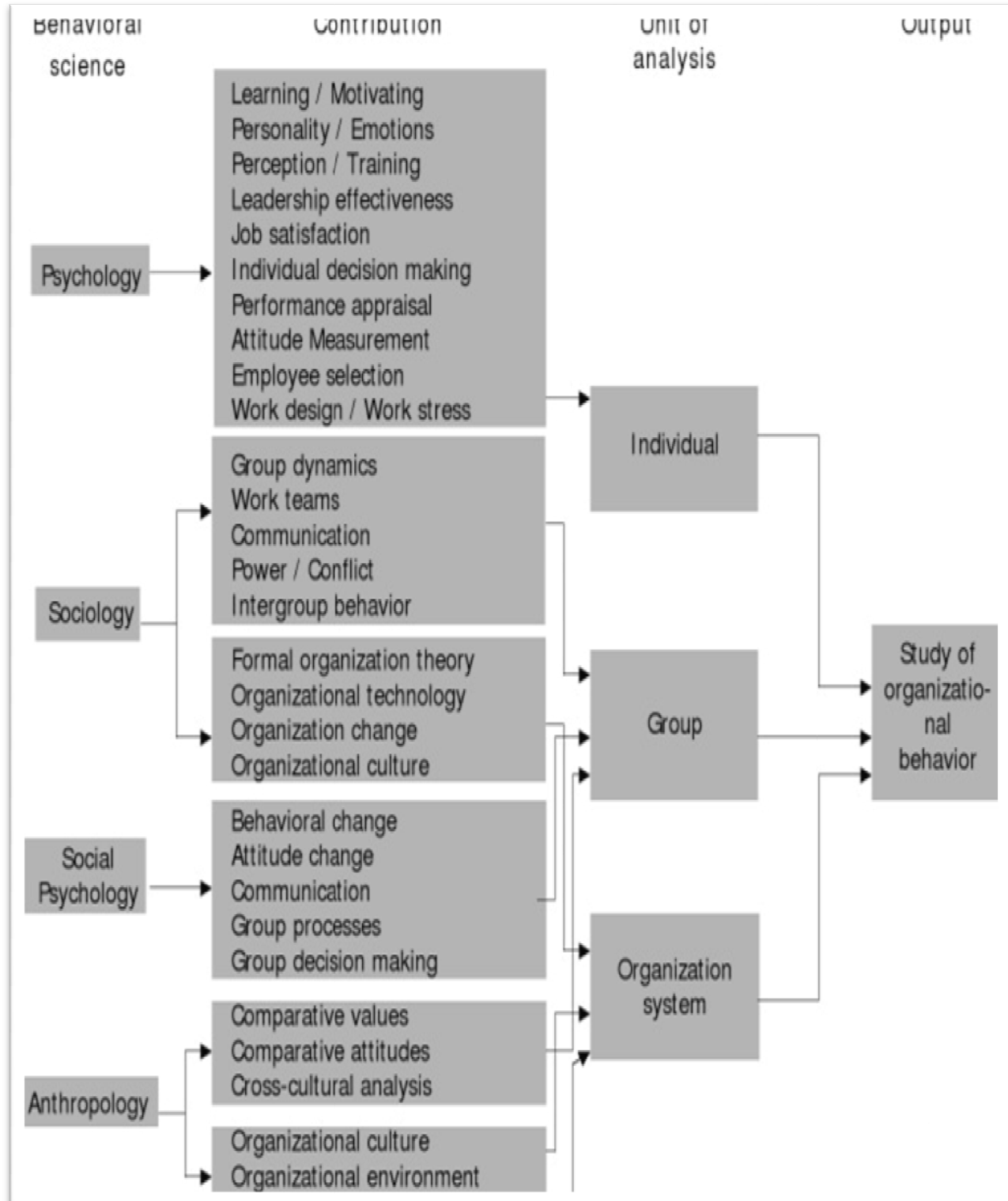
Disciplines Contributing to OB

1) **Psychology:** Psychology is defined as the study of human behavior which tries to identify the characteristics of individuals and provides an understanding why an individual behaves in a particular way. Thus psychology provides us with useful insight into areas such as human motivation, perceptual processes or personality characteristics.

2) **Sociology:** Sociology is the study of social behavior, relationships among social groups and societies, and the maintenance of social order. The main focus of attention is on the social system. This helps us to appreciate the functioning of individuals within the organization which is essentially a socio-technical entity.

3) **Social Psychology:** Social psychology is the study of human behavior in the context of social situations. This essentially addresses the problem of understanding the typical behavioral patterns to be expected from an individual when he takes part in a group.

4) **Anthropology:** Anthropology is the science of mankind and the study of human behavior as a whole. The main focus of attention is on the cultural system, beliefs, customs, ideas and values within a group or society and the comparison of behavior amongst different cultures in the context of today's organizational scenario. It is very important to appreciate the differences that exist among people coming from different cultural backgrounds as people are often found to work with others from the other side of the globe.

5) **Economics:** Any organization to survive and sustain must be aware of the economic viability of their effort. This applies even to the non-profit and voluntary organizations as well.

6) **Political Science:** Although frequently overlooked, the contributions of political scientists are significant to understand arrangement in organizations. It studies individuals and groups within specific conditions concerning the power dynamics. Important topics under here include structuring of Conflict, allocation of power and how people manipulate power for individual self-interest etc.

Disciplines Contributing to OB

Behavioral science	Contribution	Unit of analysis	Output
Psychology	Learning / Motivating Personality / Emotions Perception / Training Leadership effectiveness Job satisfaction Individual decision making Performance appraisal Attitude Measurement Employee selection Work design / Work stress	Individual	Study of organizational behavior
Sociology	Group dynamics Work teams Communication Power / Conflict Intergroup behavior Formal organization theory Organizational technology Organization change Organizational culture	Group	
Social Psychology	Behavioral change Attitude change Communication Group processes Group decision making	Organization system	
Anthropology	Comparative values Comparative attitudes Cross-cultural analysis Organizational culture Organizational environment		

Human behavior

Human behavior refers to the range of behaviors exhibited by humans and which are influenced by culture, attitudes, emotions, values, ethics, authority, rapport, hypnosis, persuasion, coercion and/or genetics.

The behavior of people (and other organisms or even mechanisms) falls within a range with some behavior being common, some unusual, some acceptable, and some outside acceptable limits. In sociology, behavior in general is considered as having no meaning, being not directed at other people, and thus is the most basic human action. Behavior in this general sense should not be mistaken with social behavior, which is a more advanced action, as social behavior is behavior specifically directed at other people. The acceptability of behavior is evaluated relative to social norms and regulated by various means of social control.

The behavior of humans is studied by the academic disciplines of psychiatry, psychology, social work, sociology, economics, and anthropology.

Human behavior is experienced throughout an individual's entire lifetime. It includes the way they act based on different factors such as genetics, social norms, core faith, and attitude.

Need to understand Human Behaviour

Before we proceed to understand human behavior, it is better to know what the term **behavior'** means. Behavior can be defined as a response/s which is observed directly/indirectly. Direct observation is possible by studying the responses of people to a work environment. Indirect observations are decision making processes and attitudes, in terms of results or how people describe them verbally.

It is the behaviour of an individual that depicts the personality and attitude of that individual in any place; it may be organization, social network or family... But talking about importance of Human behavior in an organization, it is very important to maintain a good and healthy behaviour in an organization as it's the ones behaviour that depicts the relation of an employee with his coworkers, subordinates, seniors or Bosses. Behaviour of an individual shows the dedication of the employee towards his work, organization. a good and healthy behaviour can prove fruitful in terms of promotions, job recognition, Increments or appraisals. but at the same time bad behaviour can be opposite.

Human behavior is very much unpredictable. In behavior we cannot assume one set pattern of behavior. Lavitt classified behavior as: (i) Caused behavior, (ii) Motivated behavior, (iii) Goal oriented behavior. From these observations it can be understood that behavior is a dependent factor. By understanding behavior one can predict, direct, change and control behavior of individuals or group. There are generally four basic assumptions regarding nature of people: individual differences, a whole person, caused behavior (motivation) and value of the person (human dignity). With the following descriptions you will be able to understand the concept better.

Dan's analyses the nature of people in terms of four assumptions.

1. Individual Differences

Behavior is the result of interaction between individual characteristics and the characteristics of the environment in which the behavior occurs.

Each person has a unique combination of characteristics. Some of these characteristics are present from birth; others develop over time. These can be called as inherited and learned characteristics. Although there are some inherited characteristics, but these are very few, and not so significant. Learned characteristics are very important. Individual differences can be because of environment, personal and psychological factors. It is also due to physical and social factors. Learned characteristics are acquired as people grow, develop and interact with their environments.

2. A whole person

When an employee works in an organization, the organization takes care of that person by making him effective as a worker and as a person.

3. Caused Behavior (Motivation)

People's behavior is need based. By fulfilling these needs he is motivated positively and there occurs effective performance. So the management in the organization has to take care of these needs in order to have an effective performance. The management can show them how certain actions will increase their need fulfilment and if not; how it decreases their need fulfilment.

4. Value of the Person (Human Dignity)

People have to be treated with respect and as individuals and they can not be treated like machines as how scientific management use to treat them. By recognising them and treating them with uniqueness the value of the person gets increased. By this we can understand how the concept of treating human beings from machines to human capitals have evolved.

If one accepts the fact that human skill development is necessary then managers and leaders must have necessary understanding in order to influence the behavior of other people. It was felt that the managers acquire three levels of expertise. Firstly they have to understand the past and current behavior, so that they are able to predict behavior and than they learn to direct change, and control behavior.

OB provides way for understanding human behavior in all the directions in which human being interact. Thus, behavior can be understood at

- Individual Level
- Interpersonal Level
- Group Level
- Intergroup Level

Models of OB

There are four major models or frameworks that organizations operate out of:

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

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

Supportive - The basis of this model is leadership with a managerial orientation of support. The employees in turn are oriented towards job performance and participation. The employee need that is met is status and recognition. The performance result is awakened drives. There is a participation and involvement in decision making. In this model, communication is two way.

Collegial - The basis of this model is partnership with a managerial orientation of teamwork. The employees in turn are oriented towards responsible behavior and self-discipline. The employee need that is met is self-actualization. The performance result is moderate enthusiasm. Employees are self motivated.

Models of Organizational Behavior

5 Models of Organizational behavior

	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial	System
Basis of model	Power	Economic resources	Leadership	Partnership	Trust, community, meaning
Managerial orientation	Authority	Money	Support	Teamwork	Caring, compassion
Employee orientation	Obedience	Security and benefits	Job performance	Responsible behavior	Psychological ownership
Employee psychological result	Dependence on boss	Dependence on organization	Participation	Self-discipline	Self-motivation
Employee needs met	Subsistence	Security	Status and recognition	Self-actualization	Wide range
Performance result	Minimum	Passive cooperation	Awakened drives	Moderate enthusiasm	Passion and commitment to organizational goals

Challenges and opportunities for OB

1. Responding to Globalization

a. <u>Increased foreign assignments</u>: Transferred to your employer's operating division in another country, Once there, you'll have to manage workforce, aspiration from employees, and attitudes from those you are used to back home

b. <u>Working with People from different cultures:</u> Working with bosses, peers and other employees who were born and raised in different culture, to work effectively with them you've to understand how their culture, geographic and religion have shaped them

c. <u>Coping with anti capitalism backlash</u>: "soak the rich" means fine should be charged with respect of income you earn. Managers at global companies have come to realize that economic values are not universally transferable, need to modify by managers to reflect economic values in those countries they're working.

d. <u>Overseeing movement of jobs to countries with low- cost labour</u>: In a global economy, jobs tend to flow to places where lower cost provide business firms with a comparative advantages

e. <u>Managing people During the war on terror</u>: An understanding of OB topics such as emotions, motivation, communication and leadership can help managers to deal more effectively with their employees' fear about terrorism

2. Improving quality and productivity: By using self-directed work teams, streamlining processes and implementing continuous improvement program must be a model of manufacturing efficiency.

3. Managing workforce Diversity

a) Embracing diversity: The challenge for organization is to make themselves more accommodating to diverse groups of people by addressing their different lifestyle, family needs, and work styles.

b) Changing demographics

4. Improving customer service: OB can contribute to improving an organization' performance by showing that how employees' attitude and behavior are associated with customer satisfaction

5. Stimulating innovation and changes:

- Must foster innovation and master the art of change.
- Maintain the flexibility and improve quality.
- To stimulate employees creativity and tolerance to change.

6. Working in networked organizations: Computerization, the internet, and the ability to link computers within organizations and between organizations have created a different workforce for many employees-a networked organization. Global working through one link i.e. INTERNET, technology changes the people to work together and communicate at thousand miles, people can work from their home and non office locations.

7. Creating a positive work environment: Human strength, vitality, right person appointed at right place, effort on what good for organization.

8. Improving ethical behaviour:

- Writing and distributing codes of ethics to employees.
- Offering seminars, workshops and training programs on improving OB.
- Provide in house advisors in dealing with ethical issues.

9. Empowerment of Employees:

- Decision making is being pushed down to the operating level.
- Managers give up control, employees control their work themselves, make appropriate decisions.
- Using of self managed team.

10. Work Life Balance: Flexible Working hours, reporting time, creating opportunities for employees, job security, design workplace and jobs.

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UNIT-2

Biographical Characteristics

Finding and analyzing the variables that have an impact on employee productivity, absence, turnover, and satisfaction is often complicated. Many of the concepts—motivation, or power, politics or organizational culture—are hard to assess. Other factors are more easily definable and readily available—data that can be obtained from an employee's personnel file and would include characteristics such as:

• Age

• Gender

• Marital status

• Length of service, etc.

Age

1. The relationship between age and job performance is increasing in importance.
   • First, there is a widespread belief that job performance declines with increasing age.
   • Second, the workforce is aging; workers over 55 are the fastest growing sector of the workforce.
2. Employers' perceptions are mixed.
   • They see a number of positive qualities that older workers bring to their jobs, specifically experience, judgment, a strong work ethic, and commitment to quality.
   • Older workers are also perceived as lacking flexibility and as being resistant to new technology.
   • Some believe that the older you get, the less likely you are to quit your job. That conclusion is based on studies of the age-turnover relationship.

3. It is tempting to assume that age is also inversely related to absenteeism.
   • Most studies do show an inverse relationship, but close examination finds that the age absence relationship is partially a function of whether the absence is avoidable or unavoidable.
   • In general, older employees have lower rates of avoidable absence. However, they have higher rates of unavoidable absence, probably due to their poorer health associated with aging and longer recovery periods when injured.

4. There is a widespread belief that productivity declines with age and that individual skills decay over time.
   • Reviews of the research find that age and job performance are unrelated.
   • This seems to be true for almost all types of jobs, professional and nonprofessional.

Gender

1. There are few, if any, important differences between men and women that will affect their job performance, including the areas of:
    *   Problem-solving
    *   Analytical skills
    *   Competitive drive
    *   Motivation
    *   Sociability
    *   Learning ability

2. Women are more willing to conform to authority, and men are more aggressive and more likely than women to have expectations of success, but those differences are minor.

3. There is no evidence indicating that an employee's gender affects job satisfaction.

4. There is a difference between men and women in terms of preference for work schedules.
    *   Mothers of preschool children are more likely to prefer part-time work, flexible work schedules, and telecommuting in order to accommodate their family responsibilities.
5. Absence and turnover rates
    *   Women's quit rates are similar to men's.
    *   The research on absence consistently indicates that women have higher rates of absenteeism.
    *   The logical explanation: cultural expectation that has historically placed home and family responsibilities on the woman.

Marital Status

1. There are not enough studies to draw any conclusions about the effect of marital status on job productivity.
2. Research consistently indicates that married employees have fewer absences, undergo fewer turnovers, and are more satisfied with their jobs than are their unmarried coworkers.
3. More research needs to be done on the other statuses besides single or married, such as divorce, domestic partnering, etc.

Tenure

1. The issue of the impact of job seniority on job performance has been subject to misconceptions and speculations.
2. Extensive reviews of the seniority-productivity relationship have been conducted:
    *   There is a positive relationship between tenure and job productivity.
    *   There is a negative relationship between tenure to absence.

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- Tenure is also a potent variable in explaining turnover.
- Tenure has consistently been found to be negatively related to turnover and has been suggested as one of the single best predictors of turnover.
- The evidence indicates that tenure and satisfaction are positively related.

ABILITY

Ability is competence to perform an observable behavior or a behavior that results in an observable product.

It may be An individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job.

Ability may include:

- Ability to pay
- Intelligence
- Skill
- Expertise
- Aptitude
- Physical ability

Values

VALUES define what we accept as good, right or acceptable. We may have our own personally thought-out and constructed values but many of the values we accept are socially or culturally constructed. Society develops a value system or a set of values and conveys these to us through schools, governments, churches, the media, the family etc. Nationalities often have different values which mean communication between nations is sometimes difficult. We value the freedom of people to have as many children as they wish while China has introduced the value of a one child limit because the value of inhibiting population growth is more important to them.

When writing about values , remember generally, values cannot be one-word statements. To say that the text values truth does not really identify the particular value regarding truth that the text encourages us to accept. Also to say we have a value of being anti-war leads to a contradiction. Values are what we consider 'valuable beliefs' therefore we can't have a negative value. If we value the right to life then our attitude will be anti-war. If we value the innocence of childhood, then our attitude will be against exploiting children. If we value freedom to then our attitude will be against the idea of 'freedom from' (The Handmaid's Tale).

Values are encompassing concepts. American Management Association indicated that values are at the core of personality, and that they are ,powerful, though silent force affecting behavior. Values are so embedded that it can be inferred from people's behavior and their expressed attitudes. But values are a strong force in people. What may `appear' to be strange behavior in an employee can make sense if managers understand the values underlying that behavior.

Rokeach (1973) " values represent basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence."

Rokeach divided values into two broad categories: `Terminal values" relate to ends to be achieved e.g. comfortable life, family security, self-respect and sense of accomplishment. `Instrumental values' relate to means for achieving desired ends, e.g. ambition, courage, honesty and imagination. Terminal values reflect what a person is ultimately striving to achieve, whereas instrumental values reflect how the person get there.

Values are so embedded that it can be inferred from people's behavior and their perception, personality and motivation. They generally influence behavior. They are relatively stable and enduring. This is because, the way in which they are originally learned.

Allport (1951) identified six types of values.

Theoretical - Places high importance on the discovery of truth through critical and rational approach.

Economic - Emphasises to be useful and practical.

Aesthetic - Places the highest value on form and harmony.

Social - The highest value is given to the love of people.

Political - Places emphasis on acquisition of power and influence.

Religious - Concerned with the unity of experience and understanding of the cosmos as a whole.

People in different occupations place different importance on the six value types. The knowledge that people have different types of values has led a few of the more progressively managed organizations to initiate efforts to improve the values - job fit in order to enhance employee performance and satisfaction. Texas Instruments for instance, has developed a programme to diagnose different value types and to match properly these types with appropriate work environments within their company.

Characteristics of Values

1. Part of culture: values are elements of culture and culture is the complex of values, ideas, attitude and other meaningful symbols to shape human behaviour.

2. Learned responses: unlike other animals human beings have to learn almost everything about how to be human from experience. Individuals are encultured or socialized i.e. the responses of a set of culture become his own set of response tendencies.

3. Inculcated: values are inculcated and are passed from generation to generation by specific group and institutions.

4. Social phenomenon: values are social phenomenon i.e cultural habits are shared by aggregates of people living in organized society. An individual's way of thinking and behaving is not culture rather group behavior constitutes culture.

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5. Gratifying responses: values exist to meet the biological and other needs of the individuals in the society. Thus elements in the culture becomes extinguished when they no longer are gratifying to members of the society.

Attitude

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

An attitude is defined as, "a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object".

Attitude is the combination of beliefs and feelings that people have about specific ideas, situations or other people. Attitude is important because it is the mechanism through which most people express their feelings.

Attitudes are evaluative statement concerning objects, people or events. Attitude reflects how one can feels about something. Attitude affects behaviour of an individual by putting him ready to respond favorably or unfavorably to things in his environment. The process of learning attitudes starts right from childhood and continues throughout the life of a person.

COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE

Attitude has three components, which are as follows:

• Cognitive component

• Affective component

• Behavioral component

Cognitive Component: This involves a person's belief / knowledge about an attitude object. For example: "I believe spiders are dangerous". It refers that's part of attitude which is related in general know how of a person, for example, he says smoking is injurious to health. Such type of idea of a person is called cognitive component of attitude.

Affective component: This involves a person's feelings / emotions about the attitude object. For example: "I am scared of spiders". This part of attitude is related to the statement which affects another person. For example, in an organization a personal report is given to the general manager. In report he point out that the sale staff is not performing their due responsibilities.

Behavioral Component: The way the attitude we have influences how we act or behave. For example: "I will avoid spiders and scream if I see one". The behavioral component refers to that part of attitude which reflects the intension of a person in short run or in long run.

For example, before the production and launching process the product. Report is prepared by the production department which consists of their intention in near future and long run and this report is handed over to top management for the decision.

Factors in Attitude formation

All attitudes are learned, and our attitudes vary based on our experiences and learning environment. One way in which our attitudes are formed is through social learning, which involves the influences of family, peers, colleagues, and institutions. Following are the factors which affect the formation of attitude:

- Family
- Reference group
- Society
- Personality
- Situation

Relationship between attitude and behavior

Attitude and behavior are two quite different things. Attitude is a person's inner thoughts and feelings, while behavior is usually an outward expression of attitude, but the two are not always related. The association between attitudes and behaviors intrigues researchers. Attitude enactment is not as simple as thinking positively to produce positive results. The degree to which our behavior matches our attitudes has to do with relevance, personality factors, and social context.

For instance, psychopaths are people whose attitudes are composed of low morality. However, this does not mean that they always commit immoral acts. Psychopaths are usually intelligent, so they know that even though there will be no moral consequences for them, there will still be legal consequences to deal with. This knowledge, in addition to their attitude, governs their behavior.

When a person's attitude and behavior differ, dissonance will likely result, and a change in attitude or behavior will be the probable outcome.

Relevant attitude for organization

1. **Job Satisfaction :** Job satisfaction is the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. There are several measures of job satisfaction. One of the most widely used measures is the Job Descriptive Index. Job satisfaction correlates with several other outcomes, including organizational citizenship behavior – behavior that is above and beyond the call of duty.

2. **Organizational Commitment:** Organizational commitment is the strength of an individual's identification with an organization. There are three kinds of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to an

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employee's intention to remain in an organization because of a strong desire to do so. Organizational commitment is the individual's feeling of identification with and attachment to an organization.

3. **Job Involvement:** Involvement refers to a person's willingness to be a team member and work beyond the usual standards of the job. An employee with little involvement is motivated by extrinsic motivational factor and an employee with strong involvement is motivated by intrinsic motivational factors.

Theories of attitude formation

Theories of attitude formation may broadly be classified into three categories:

1. Cognitive consistency theory

2. Functional theory

3. Social judgment theory

1. **Cognitive consistency theory:** There are four important theories under this group:

   a. **Balance theory:** the basic model of balance theory has been provided by Heider. The theory is concerned with consistency in the judgment of people or issues that are linked with some form of relationship. there are three elements in the attitude formation-:

      - **the person**

      - **other person**

      - **impersonal entity**

      Two generic types of relationship are considered to exist between the elements: linking or sentiment relations and unit relations. the linking relation encompass all forms of sentiments of effect, while unit relationships express the fact that two elements are perceived as belonging together. Both linking and unit relation can be positive & negative. in a three element systems, balance exist if all three relations are positive or if two relations are negative & one is positive. Imbalance exists if all three relations are negative or if two relations are positive & one is negative. Balance states are stable & imbalance states are unstable.

   b. **Congruity theory:** Osgood & Tannenbaum have proposed the congruity theory of attitude which is similar to the balance theory. The focus of the theory is on changes in the evaluation of a source and a concept that are linked by an associative or dissociative assertion. Congruity exist when a source or concept that are positively

associated have exactly the same evaluation & when a source and concept that are negatively associated have exactly the opposite evaluation attached to them. Congruity is a stable state and incongruity is a unstable one.

c. **Affective cognitive consistency theory:** this theory propounded by Rosen berg is concerned with the consistency between persons over all attitudes or effect towards an object or issue and his believes about its relationship to his more general value. He has related attitudes to one aspect of cognitive structure- means – end relationship between the object or issue and the achievement of desired and undesired value of goals. This theory is also called structural because it is concerned mainly with what happens with in the individual when an attitude changes.

d. **Cognitive dissonance theory:** the cognitive dissonance theory proposed by Festinge. This theory deals with relationship a person's ideas have with one another. it states that there are three type of relationships between all cognitions:

- Dissonance: cognitions are dissonant whenever they are incompatible or if they are opposed to, once experience about the relationship of event.

- Consonance: cognitions are consonant when one follows from the other on the basis of logic or experience.

- Irrelevance: cognitions are totally irrelevant when two events are not interrelated.

2. **Functional theory:** functional theory considers how attitudes and efforts are related to the motivational structure of the individual. The theory focuses on the meaning of the influence situation in terms of both the kind of motive i.e aroused and the individual's method of coping & achieving his goals. an understanding of the functions served by attitudes is important for attitude change procedures since a particular method may produce change in individuals whose attitudes serve one particular function but may produce no change in an opposite direction in individuals for whom the attitudes serve different function.

3. **Social judgment theory:** this theory formulated by Sherif & Hoveland, attempts to explain how existing attitudes produce distortion of attitudinally related objects and how these judgments mediate attitude change. Accordingly a person's own stand on an issue that is initial attitude serve as an anchor for the judgment of attitudinally related stimuli.

Personality

The term personality is derived from the Latin word persona meaning a mask. Personality represents the overall profile or combination of stable psychological attributes that capture the unique nature of a person. Personality is a patterned body of habits, traits, attitudes and ideas of an individual as these are organized externally into roles and statuses and as they relate internally to motivation, goals and various aspects of selfhood.

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Maddi defines personality as, "A stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behavior and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment".

Personality - All our behaviour is somewhat shaped by our personalities. – a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person's whole psychological system. It is the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others. Some aggregate whole that is greater than the sum of its parts

Personality concept

1. Behaviour involves a complex interaction of the person and the situation.
2. Personality represents personal characteristics that lead to a consistent pattern of behaviour.
3. Personality describes people commonalities and differences.
4. Personality is stable over time.

According to Gordon Allport, "The dynamic organization within an individual of that psychological system that determine his unique adjustment to his environment."

Determinants of Personality

- Biological Factors
- Cultural Factors
- Family Factors
- Social Factors
- Situational Factors

Biological Factors

1. Heredity
   - It refers to physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent.
   - It plays an important part in determining an individual's personality.
   - Heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structures of the genes, which are located in the chromosomes.
   - Recent research studies shows that young children lend strong support to the power of heredity and finding shows that some personality traits may be built into the same genetic code that affects factors like height and hair color.
2. Brain
   - Brain is the second biological approach to determine personality.
   - It plays an important role in determining personality.
   - Depending on the structure of the brain, an individual's personality develops.

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- Electrical Stimulation of the Brain (ESB) and Split brain psychology results indicates that a better understanding of human personality and behavior might come from a closer study of the brain.
- The definite areas of the human brain are associated with pain and pleasure.

3. Physical Features
- It is third biological approach to determine personality.
- It is vital ingredient of the personality, it focus an individual person's external appearance which also determined the personality.
- Physical features like tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white. These physical features will be influenced the personal effect on others and also affect self concept of individual.
- A child's physical characteristics may be related to approach to the social environment, to the expectancies of others and their reactions to him.

Cultural Factors

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

Family Factors

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

Social Factors

- Social factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality.
- It involves the reorganization of individual's in an organization or society.
- It refers to acquiring of wide range of personality by acquiring and absorbed by themselves in the society or an organization.
- Socialization process is starting from home and extending to work environment in an organization or society.

- It focuses on good relationships, cooperation, coordination and interaction among the members in the society or an organization or a family.
  In totally, environment factors consist of cultural factors, family factors, and social factors.

Situational Factors

- Situational factors also influence to determine of personality.
- Situational factors are very important to change the individual behavior in a different circumstance at different situations, it also influence to personality of individual person.
- In general term, personality is stable and consistent and it does change in different situations.
- The Interaction of Personality and Situational Factors are outlined:
  - ✓ Strong situational pressures : Personality may not predict behavior (Example: enforcement of rules)
  - ✓ Weak Situational pressures : Personality may predict behavior (Example: Customer sales representative)
- A strong situation can overwhelm the effects of individual personalities by providing strong cues for appropriate behavior.

Personality Traits

From OB point of view, following classification of personality traits is relevant:

1. Big 5 Personality Traits
2. Other personality traits

Big Five Personality Traits

- ✓ **Extroversion**: A personality dimension that describes the degree to which someone is sociable, talkative, and assertive. They seek outward interaction. They are more successful in sales activities, publicity department, public relations.
- ✓ **Agreeableness**: A personality dimension that describes the degree to which someone is good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, understanding and trusting. Highly agreeable people are better in developing good working relationship with coworkers, subordinates, superiors.
- ✓ **Conscientiousness**: A personality dimension that describes the degree to which someone is responsible, careful, disciplined, dependable, persistent, and achievement oriented. They tend to focus on small numbers of goals at one time.
- ✓ **Emotional stability**: A personality dimension that describes the degree to which someone is calm, enthusiastic, and secure (positive) or tense, nervous, depressed, and insecure (negative).
- ✓ **Openness to experience**: A personality dimension that describes the degree to which someone is imaginative, artistically sensitive, and intellectual.

Other Personality Traits

1. **Self Concept and Self esteem:** Self concept defines themselves as to who they are and their identity. Self-esteem denotes the extent to which individuals consistently regard themselves as capable, successful, important and worthy individuals. Self-esteem is an important personality factor that determines how managers perceive themselves and their role in the organization. Individuals with a high self-esteem will try to take on more challenging assignments and be successful. Thus, they will be enhancing their self-concept i.e., they would tend to define themselves as highly valued individuals in the organizational system. The higher the self-concept and self-esteem, the greater will be their contributions to the goals of the organization, especially when the system rewards them for their contributions.

2. **Type A and B Personalities:** Type A persons feel a chronic sense of time urgency, are highly achievement-oriented, exhibit a competitive drive, and are impatient when their work is slowed down for any reason. Type B persons are easy-going individuals who do not feel the time urgency, and who do not experience the competitive drive. Type A individuals are significantly more prone to heart attacks than Type B individuals.

3. **Risk Propensity:** Risk-propensity is the decree to which an individual is willing to take chances and make risky decisions. A manager with a high-risk propensity might be expected to experiment with new ideas and to lead the organization in new directions. In contrast, a manager with low risk propensity might lead to a stagnant and overly conservative organization.

4. **Machiavellianism:** It refers to manipulation of others as a primary way of achieving one's goals. An individual tends to be Machiavellian, if he tends to be logical in assessing the system around, willing to twist and turn facts to influence others, and try to gain control of people, events and situations by manipulating the system to his advantage

5. **Locus of Control:** Locus of control means whether people believe that they are in control of events, or events control them.
   Internal Locus of Control: Those who have internal locus of control believe that they control and shape the course of events in their lives.
   External Locus of Control: External locus of control tend to believe that events occur purely by chance or because of factors beyond their own control.

Perception

Perception is a complex cognitive process and differs from person to person. People's behavior is influenced by their perception of reality, rather than the actual reality.
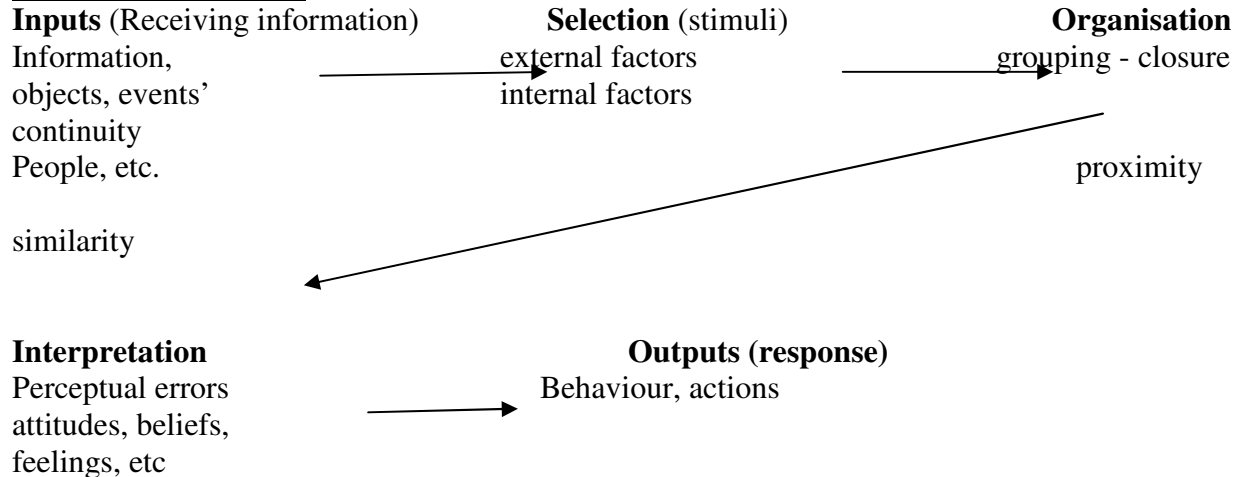Perceptual information is gathered from > Sight > hearing > Touch > taste > smell
"Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environments."
"Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment – seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting, and smelling. The study of these perceptional processes shows that their functioning is affected by three classes of variables – the objects or

events being perceived, the environment in which perception occurs, and the individuals doing the perceiving."

Perception is the process of receiving information about and making sense of the world around us. It involves deciding which information to notice how to categorize this information and how to interpret it within the framework of existing knowledge.

Process of Perception

Inputs (Receiving information)   **Selection** (stimuli)   **Organisation**
Information,   external factors   grouping - closure
objects, events'   internal factors
continuity
People, etc.   proximity

similarity

Interpretation   **Outputs (response)**
Perceptual errors   Behaviour, actions
attitudes, beliefs,
feelings, etc

1. **Receiving Information:** Information can receive by the sense organs (Eyes, ear, nose, tongue, skin). Information can be of any person, event or objects.
2. **Selection of Stimuli:** It is the process of filtering information received by our senses. After receiving the stimuli from the environment, some are selected for further processing while others are screened out because it is not possible for a person to select all stimuli which he sees in the environment. Selection can based on two factors:
a) External factors – size, intensity, contrast, motion, repetition, novelty, familiarity,
   Size: The larger the size, the more likely it is to be perceived. The tallest person in the office will invariably be noticed.
   Intensity: The more intense an external factor (bright light, loud noise, high pitch sound etc.) the more likely it is to be perceived. One may notice that the TV commercials always have high pitch as compared to normal telecast.
   Contrast: External factors that stand out against the background or things that are not which people expect are more likely to be perceived.
   Motion: A moving factor is more likely to be perceived than stationary factor. Films (motion pictures) attract people more than a static picture.
   Repetition: A repeated factor is more likely to be noticed. Marketing managers use this principle in trying to get attention of the prospective customers.
   Novelty and familiarity: Either novelty or familiarity will can attract attention. People would quickly notice a person riding an elephant on a busy street in Delhi. On the other hand, one is likely to spot a familiar face in a crowd or a familiar voice even if there is a lot of noise and confusion.
b) Internal factors – personality, learning, motivation, needs, interest.

Personality: Personality has an interesting influence on what and how people perceive. For example, conscientious people tend to pay more attention to external environmental cues than does a less conscientious person. Less conscientious persons are impulsive, careless, and irresponsible. They see their environment as hectic and unstable which affects the way they make perceptual selections. On the other hand, more conscientious people organize their perceptions into neat categories, allowing them to retrieve data quickly and in an organized manner. In other words, they are careful, methodical, and disciplined in making perceptual selections.

Learning: Learning determines the development of perceptual sets. A perceptual set is an expectation of a particular interpretation based on past experiences with the same or an identical object. In organizational settings, past experiences of the managers and employees influence their perceptions to a great extent.

Motivation: A person's most urgent needs and desires at any particular time can influence perception. People perceive things that promise to help satisfy their needs and that they have found rewarding in the past. Also, according to Pollyanna principle, people process pleasant event more efficiently and accurately than they do unpleasant events. For example, an employee who receives both positive and negative feedback during the appraisal meeting may more easily and clearly remember the positive statements than the negative ones.

3. **Organisation:** In this step all factors which are noticed are organized in such a form to interpret and to make sense out of that. The various forms of organizing stimuli are figure-background, similarity, continuity, proximity, closure.

   Figure-ground: Perceived objects stand out as separable from their general background.

   Closure: An individual may perceive a whole while one actually does not exists. The person's perceptual process closes the gaps that are unfilled by from sensory inputs.

   Continuity: An individual tend to perceive continuous lines/patterns. This leads to inflexible thinking on the part of organizational members (both managers and employees). Thus, only the obvious, continuous patterns or relationships are perceived.

   Proximity: A group of stimuli that are close together will be perceived as a whole pattern of parts belonging together.

   Similarity: The greater the similarity of stimuli, the greater is the tendency to perceive them as a common group.

4. **Interpretation:** The perceptual inputs that have been organized will have to be interpreted by the perceiver so that he can sense and extract some meaning of what is going on in the situation. There are chances of misinterpretation. In interpreting, the perceiver may commit mistake in perceiving because of several reasons (errors of perception).

5. **Responding:** These outputs may be in the form of actions like development of attitudes, opinions, beliefs, impression about the stimuli under consideration.

Errors of Perception

Common perceptual distortions seen in my organization are:

1. Stereotypes and Prototypes
2. Halo Effects
3. Selective Perception

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4. Contrast Effects
5. Projections
6. Recency effects
7. First Impression

Stereotyping

When we judge someone on the basis of our perception of the group to which he or she belongs we are committing a common error of perception called stereotyping.

- Individuals are grouped on the basis of race, gender, education, region, occupation, etc.,
- Inferences are made that all members of the group have the same characteristics
- Expectations on these generalizations are made to interpret the behaviour of individual members of the groups
- We maintain the stereotypes by exaggerating the frequency of stereotypic behaviours the others show, inaccurately explaining the behaviours and separating them from our own.
- The 3 more common types of stereotype are on the basis of race, age and sex roles.

Ex: All Muslims are not terrorists.

Halo Effects

Under halo effect, a person is perceived on the basis of a single trait. It generally occurs during performance appraisal where the supervisor rates an employee on the basis of only one trait e.g. intelligence, punctuality, cooperativeness appearance etc.

Projection

It is the tendency of seeing one's own traits in others. Thus, individuals project their own feelings, personality characteristics attitudes, or motives onto others. Projection may be especially strong for undesirable traits that the perceivers possess but fail to recognize in themselves. People whose personality traits include stinginess, obstinacy, and disorderliness tend to rate others higher on these traits than do people who do not have these traits.

First impression error

The tendency to form lasting opinions about an individual based on initial perceptions. People may hold a long-term view about a person or thing based on first impression.

Contrast error

People tend to compare among the available resources and thus arrive at a conclusion that might be far from the objective reality. It occur when an individual is compared to other people on the same characteristics on which the others rank higher or lower.

Recency effect

When the most recent information dominates perception of others. When a manager evaluates an employee's performance, the most recent performance dominates so if the last thing the employee did was sign a big contract with a supplier than the manger will have a very positive impression of the employee.

Selective Perception

Selective perception is the personal filtering of what we see and hear so as to suit our own needs. Much of this process is psychological and often unconscious. Have you ever been accused of only hearing what you want to hear. In fact, that is quite true. We simply are bombarded with too much stimuli every day to pay equal attention to everything so we pick and choose according to our own needs.

Factors affecting perception
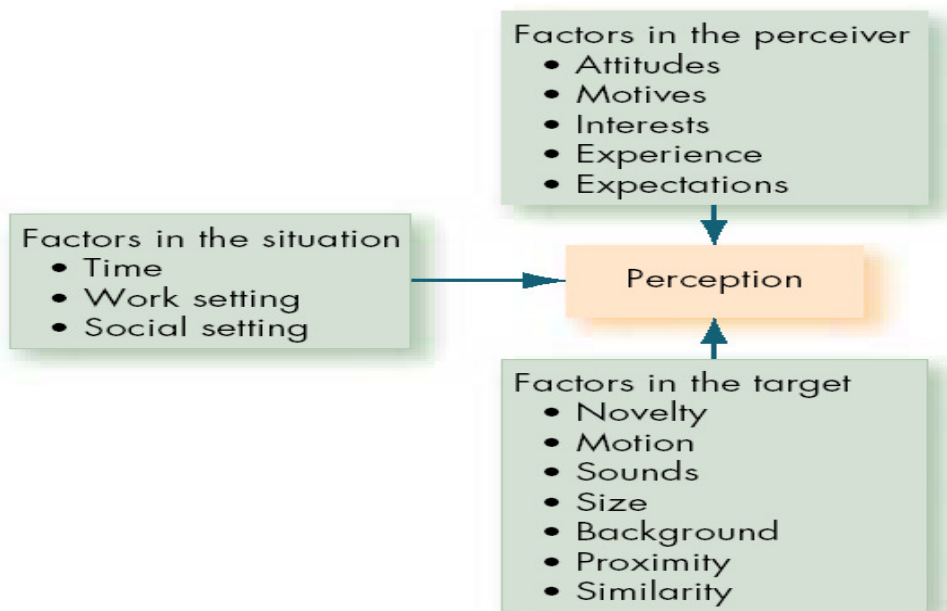
EMOTIONS

The analysis of emotions has been ineffectual up till now since they are very difficult to identify, except for a few such as fear and anger. Many years ago I began an intense psycho-analysis (which I did on my own). It took me five years of constant awareness to finally identify the range of emotions that I usually experience.

The peculiarity of any particular emotion is that, whilst it is just an emotion, it is nevertheless intimately associated with specific mental attitudes and ideas that have become characteristic of that emotion.

In general, I found that each emotion acts as a nucleus for pre-set ideas about the world. This fact gives rise to a notable phenomenon. As one emotion fades away and the next one is generated, so the ideas in a person's mind **automatically change**: the fresh emotion brings with it its associated ideas.

A person is always experiencing some emotion at any time, since when the present emotion fades away so another emotion will take its place and be felt by him /her. No single emotional response can be permanent. When any emotion, such as anger, is experienced the person can stay angry only for some time; eventually the anger will fade away and a fresh emotion will arise.

Understanding the nature of emotions has profound implications for philosophy. In particular, the development of self-awareness that this study produces can remove a lot of confusion from such philosophical ideas as the nature of reality, language, morality, free will, and the pursuit of truth.

Characteristics of Emotions
1) Caused by specific event.
2) Very brief in duration.
3) Specific and numerous in natures.
4) Usually accompanied by distinct facial expressions.
5) Action oriented in nature.
6) Emotions are never neutral.

Types of Emotions
There are 18 most commonly seen and experienced emotions. They are,
1-anger
2-contempt
3-enthusiasm
4-envy
5-fear
6-frustration
7-joy

8-pride

9-surprise

10-disappointment

11-embarrassment

12-disgust

13-happiness

14- Hate

15-jealousy

16-love

17-pride

18-sadness

Learning – theories and reinforcement schedules

"Learning is the process by which new behaviors are acquired. It is generally agreed that learning involves changes in behaviors, practicing new behaviors, and establishing permanency in the change." Mitchell

Three theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behaviour. These are –

(1) Classical conditioning – Classical conditioning grew out of experiments to teach dogs to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell, conducted in the early 1900s by Russian Psychologist sinologist Ivan Pavlov. Four elements are always present in classical conditioning. These are -

i. **Unconditioned stimulus (US**) – Like food which invariably causes to react in a certain way i.e., salivation.

ii. **Unconditioned response (UR)** – Takes place whenever the US is presented, i.e., whenever the dog is given food (US), it salivates.

iii. **Conditioned stimulus (CS) –** The object that does not initially bring about the desired response like the sound of the bell.

iv. **Conditioned response (CR)** – A particular behaviour that the dog learns to produce to the CS, i.e., Salivation.

   1. before conditioning

   Meat (US) Salivation (UR); Bell (Neutral stimulus) No response

   2. during Conditioning

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Meat (US) + Bell (CS) Salivation (UR)

3. after conditioning

Bell (CS) Salivation (CR)

(2) Cognitive Learning Theory: Cognitive theory of learning is based on the cognitive model of human behaviour. Cognition refers to an individual's ideas, thoughts, knowledge, interpretations & understanding about himself & his environment.

Cognitive theorists argue that the learner forms a cognitive structure in memory, preserves and organizes information about the various events that occur in a learning situation. For example in his famous pace-learning experiment, Tolman trained a rat to turn right in a "T' maze in order to obtain food. Then he started the rat from the opposite part of the maze; according to operant conditioning theory, the rat should have turned right because of past conditioning. But the rat, instead, turned towards where the food have been placed this phenomenon forced Tolman to conclude that the rat formed a cognitive map to figure out how to get the food and reinforcement was not a precondition for learning to take place thus, in learning.

(3) Social Learning theory: Social learning theory combines and integrates both behaviouristic and cognitive concepts and emphasizes the integrative nature of cognitive, behavioral and environmental determinants. This theory agrees with some parts of behavioral & cognitive theories but finds that these theories do not explain the processes and elements there in fully. It posits that learning can also takes place via modeling.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement can be defined as anything that increases the strength of response & tends to induce repetitions of the behaviour that preceded the reinforcement. Sometimes, reinforcement is equated with motivation as reinforcement plays important role in motivation reinforcement is an environmental event that follows a response. In general, motivation is an internal explanation of behaviour whereas reinforcement is an external explanation of behaviour.

Principles of Reinforcement

a) Skinner identified two types of reinforcing events - those in which a reward is given; and those in which something bad is removed. In either case, the point of reinforcement is to increase the frequency or probability of a response occurring again.

i. **Positive reinforcement** - give an organism a pleasant stimulus when the operant response is made. For example, a rat presses the lever (operant response) and it receives a treat (positive reinforcement

ii. **Negative reinforcement** - take away an unpleasant stimulus when the operant response is made. For example, stop shocking a rat when it presses the lever (yikes!)

b) Skinner also identified two types of rein forcers

   i. Primary reinforce - stimulus that naturally strengthens any response that precedes it (e.g., food, water, sex) without the need for any learning on the part of the organism. These rein forcers are naturally reinforcing.

   ii. secondary/conditioned reinforce - a previously neutral stimulus that acquires the ability to strengthen responses because the stimulus has been paired with a primary reinforce. For example, an organism may become conditioned to the sound of food dispenser, which occurs after the operant response is made. Thus, the sound of the food dispenser becomes reinforcing. Notice the similarity to Classical Conditioning, with the exception that the behavior is voluntary and occurs before the presentation of a reinforce.

Schedules of Reinforcement

There are two types of reinforcement schedules - continuous, and partial/intermittent (four subtypes of partial schedules)

a) Fixed Ratio (FR) - reinforcement given after every N th responses, where N is the size of the ratio (i.e., a certain number of responses have to occur before getting reinforcement).

For example - many factory workers are paid according to the number of some product they produce. A worker may get paid $10.00 for every 100 widgets he makes. This would be an example of an FR100 schedule.

b) Variable Ratio (VR) - the variable ration schedule is the same as the FR except that the ratio varies, and is not stable like the FR schedule. Reinforcement is given after every N th response, but N is an average.

For example - slot machines in casinos function on VR schedules (despite what many people believe about their "systems"). The slot machine is programmed to provide a "winner" every average N th response, such as every 75th lever pull on average. So, the slot machine may give a winner after 1 pull, then on the 190th pull, then on the 33rd pull, etc...just so long as it averages out to give a winner on average, every 75th pull.

c) Fixed Interval (FI) - a designated amount of time must pass, and then a certain response must be made in order to get reinforcement.

d) Variable Interval (VI) - same as FI but now the time interval varies.

Johari Window

The Johari Window model consists of a foursquare grid (think of taking a piece of paper and dividing it into four parts by drawing one line down the middle of the paper from top to bottom, and another line through the middle of the paper from side-to-side). This is shown in the diagram below:
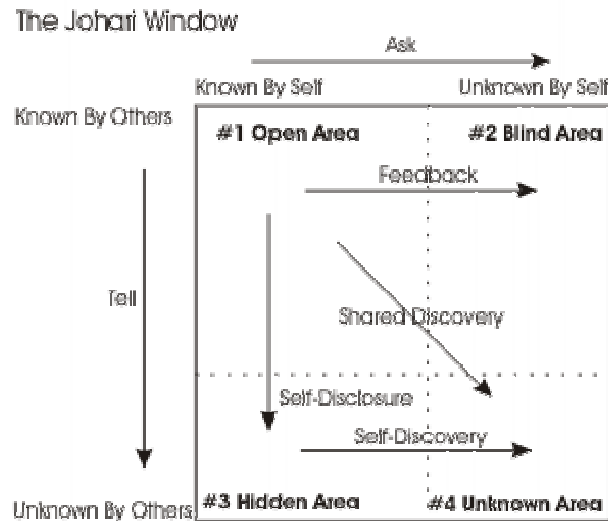
Using the Johari model, each person is represented by their own four-quadrant, or four-pane, window. Each of these contains and represents personal information – feelings, motivation, etc. – about the person, and shows whether the information is known or not known by themselves or other people.

The four quadrants are:

Open area – "I know, you know."

Blind Area – "I don't know what you know."

Hidden Area – "I know about it, you don't know about it."

Unknown Area – "I don't know, you don't know it."

Transactional Analysis

➤A system of psychotherapy based on the analysis of transactions and chains of transactions which occur during treatment sessions.

➤A theory of personality based on the study of specific ego states.

In simple words: Transaction analysis is a kind of psychotherapy that (among other things) analyses our everyday communication - why do we say things we say, how do we say them and what made us say that. It uses simple words such as child, parent and adult (these are the names of our three ego states) to describe seemingly complicated processes in our mind.

Types of Ego States

Parent

This is our ingrained voice of authority, absorbed conditioning, learning and attitudes from when we were young. We were conditioned by our real parents, teachers, older people, next door neighbours, aunts and uncles, Father Christmas and Jack Frost. Our Parent is made up of a huge number of hidden and overt recorded playbacks. Typically embodied by phrases and attitudes starting with 'how to', 'under no circumstances', 'always' and 'never forget', 'don't lie, cheat, steal', etc, etc. Our parent is formed by external events and influences upon us as we grow through early childhood. We can change it, but this is easier said than done.

Child

Our internal reaction and feelings to external events form the 'Child'. This is the seeing, hearing, feeling, and emotional body of data within each of us. When anger or despair dominates reason, the Child is in control. Like our Parent we can change it, but it is no easier.

Adult

Our 'Adult' is our ability to think and determine action for ourselves, based on received data. The adult in us begins to form at around ten months old, and is the means by which we keep our Parent and Child under control. If we are to change our Parent or Child we must do so through our adult.

In other words:

- Parent is our 'Taught' concept of life
- Adult is our 'Thought' concept of life
- Child is our 'Felt' concept of life

Life Positions

- The concept of life positions is another basic idea from transactional analysis theory. Life positions works with the assumption that we choose very early on in our life, before age 2, a basic stance towards ourselves and other people. It represents the fundamental stance a

person takes about the essential value he or she perceives in him or herself and other people. Once a child has taken up a favorite position, they're likely to construct the rest of their world view to match that life position. One could therefore also see a life position as one of the first script decisions a person makes.

- Another way of saying the same thing is that our life position is like a set of glasses through which we see the world. If we end up with gray tinted glasses the whole world will look gray to us. If they are clear, we can see ourselves and the world as things are, good and bad, but mostly all sorts of colors and shapes.
- The following diagram is called "The OK Corral" by Franklin Ernst (with some of my own adaptations). It shows the four basic life positions we can assume:
- 1 "'I am ok, you are ok," which is short for "I am ok with myself and with you too."
- 2 "I am ok, you are not ok," short for "I am ok, but I can't rely on or trust you. I feel there is something wrong with other people around me."
- 3 "I am not ok, you are ok," short for "There is something fundamentally wrong with me, but everybody else is ok."
- 4 "I am not ok, you are not ok," short for "There is something fundamentally wrong with me and other people are unreliable, untrustworthy, wrong in some way too."
- It's easy to see that the best place to come from is "'I am ok, you are ok!"

I am not ok, you are ok (Therefore the best I can do is to get away from others or hide myself) DEPRESSIVE POSITION	I am ok, you are ok (Therefore you and me can get on with being open with each other) GOOD LIFE POSITION
I am not ok, you are not ok (Therefore there is no hope. I can never be ok nor could you give me what I need) FUTILE POSITION	I am ok, you are not ok (Therefore I best get rid of you to be ok) PARANOID POSITION

Applications of T.A.

Stroking – Stroking is defined as any act of recognition for another. People seek stoking in their interaction with others. It applies to all type of recognition, such as physical, verbal and eye contact between people. Strokes may be positive, negative, or mixed.

Positive strokes, when they are received contribute to a person's sense being OK.

Negative stokes hurt physically or emotionally and make us feel OK about ourselves. There also is a difference between conditional and unconditional strokes. Conditional strokes are offered to employees if they perform correctly or avoid problems. A Regional manager may promise" I will give you a choice posting if you achieve the targets of advances, deposits and recovery and turn

although they may make a person feel good (for example, "you're a good officer").

Benefits of TA – Organizations that have used TA approach were found moderately successful training in TA can give employees fresh insights into their own personalities, and it also can help them to understand why others sometimes respond as they do. A major benefit is improved interpersonal communication. Employees in organization can sense when crossed communication occurs and then take steps to restore complementary communication, preferably in the Adult-to-Adult pattern. The result is a general improvement in interpersonal transactions.

Group decision making

Decisions are taken to support organizational growth. The whole fabric of management, i.e. its day to day operation is rightly built on managerial decisions.

According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary the term decision making means - the process of deciding about something important, especially in a group of people or in an organization.

Trewatha & Newport defines decision making process as follows: "Decision-making involves the selection of a course of action from among two or more possible alternatives in order to arrive at a solution for a given problem".

Decision making process

1. Defining the problem
2. Gathering information and collecting data
3. Developing and weighing the options
4. Choosing best possible option
5. Plan and execute
6. Take follow up action

Groups do not exist in isolation; they are usually embedded in a network of relationships with other groups. At work, there are a variety of groups representing different functional, professional, departmental and economic interests. Though not inevitable, it is often the case that when such divisions between groups become salient, conflict follows.

The perception among individuals of membership of a common group causes members to stereotype themselves. They see themselves as less differentiated than they actually are on dimensions such as goals, personality traits, motives and values. This process, termed depersonalization, enables in group members to perceive themselves as a cohesive social unit.

In addition, in group favoritism can occur when members tend to favour each other over out group members. This can get to the point where it is unjustified and unreasonable and becomes in group bias. Functional theorists would argue that the solution of intergroup conflict lies in contriving conditions in which shared goals can be perceived. An example of this would be reducing conflict between managerial groups by drawing attention to outside competition and thus a threat to the shared interest of survival. Social identity theorists suggest that conflict is resolved by uncovering the factors in situations that trigger intergroup behaviour rather than interpersonal behaviour.

Intergroup behaviour

An organization consists of many groups created formally or informally. Since the organization is a system, these groups cannot remain independent. Thus there is interdependence among groups. The nature of such interdependence varies in different relationship & can be classified into four categories:

a. **Pooled interdependence:** groups that rely on each other only because they belong to the same parent organization have pooled interdependence.

b. **Sequential interdependence:** it occurs when one group's operations precede and act as prerequisite for the second groups.

c. **Reciprocal interdependence**: groups where the operations of each precede and act as prerequisites to the functioning of the other have reciprocal relationship, such as union & management relationship where both depend on each other.

d. **Team interdependence:** where multiple groups interact, reciprocal interdependencies may be multiplied. In this case, each group's operations precede & act as requisites for every other group's operation when their functioning is considered overtime.

Team vs. Group

In a group each member is responsible for only their own individual contributions. He or she achieves outcomes or makes their contribution to the organization in (relative) isolation.

Individuals need not have any concern about what other members of the group achieve.

Group members are likely to develop an individual relationship with the group leader. Relationships between group leader and different individuals may vary considerably in their tone and quality.

One individual may need to be managed much more forcefully than another, for example. Other group members may not be aware of this ... and if they were, it is likely to be of little consequence to them.

Within a group there is not the interconnectedness and shared responsibility you see between team members. Each member of a group can say 'I did my best, it is not my fault that others did not pull their weight.'

Collective responsibility

In a team, such as a sports team, all the players know they are interconnected. They understand that it is the quality of their collective performance that determines the final result: success or failure.

In an effective team, each member knows that they are dependent on the other members for achieving the final result. Which means team members have an interest in helping each other where they can.

In software design projects - for example - this seems to lead to more pro-active fault-finding. That is, team members recognize their collective responsibility for the outcomes they achieve.

As a direct consequence of this the team leader will tend to relate to the team as a whole. The team leader role may become more nominal as the team gels and sets its own challenges.

In some instances, this may be too challenging for some managers or team leaders. In a positive situation, the leadership role and decision-making will adapt and accommodate. Decisions will be made differently. They will be based on their impact on the dynamics of the web of relationships between group members.

If forceful treatment is meted out to one member of a team, it is likely to have consequences for the team as a whole. This is especially the case if such treatment is perceived as unwarranted or unfair.

Positive or negative, the consequences of team leadership decisions may be magnified by the relationships between team members.

Team vs. Group: Who owns the results?

Another way of making the distinction between team leadership and group leadership is by considering who owns or is responsible for the results.

In a team it is the team leader and the team members who have a shared responsibility for the outcomes meeting target. So in a sports team, all the players and the coach share the responsibility for what happens on the pitch.

In a group - for example a group of sales people - it is usual that each member is only responsible for her own performance. The leader takes overall responsibility for the aggregated results of each individual meeting the overall sales department target.

Team vs. Group: How the behavior of members differs

Members of a team appreciate that their own (individual) success is determined by the collective performance of everyone. They have a much greater motivation to help and support those team members whose performance may fall behind ... for whatever reason.

Perhaps an under-achiever is new and needs a buddy or a mentor to help them get established. Maybe there are environmental reasons for poor results. Other members are likely to find ways to help them raise their game.

For a group member however, his status and reward depend only upon his individual performance. Generally speaking, if he gives time or resources to another group member there is no benefit in it for him.

If this effort takes his attention away from his own performance he might even suffer as a result.

Team vs. Group: How the behavior of leaders differs

How can a group leader create team results?

Experience demonstrates that teams are usually more effective than groups. If the leader of a group want to improve performance overall, he needs to find a way of the group taking shared ownership for the results.

It is likely that a shift from individual responsibility to shared responsibility can only be achieved if the pay and reward system has a significant element that is dependent on the overall outcome.

The knowledge, skills and attitudes of the leader may also need to shift significantly to be effective in this new environment.

For example, the leader may need to share all of the individuals' results with the group. The group has a right to know how others are performing if their pay depends upon it.

This may be a challenging experience for a leader who has avoided the potential emotional stress that can be caused by this level of openness. They may have found it a lot safer to keep the individual results to themselves in the past.

Team vs. Group: the emergence of self-managing teams

As groups begin to share responsibility for the overall performance, then the whole subject of self managing teams becomes a topic for exploration.

In our experience with a high performance work system in a manufacturing setting, it became clear that individuals were demanding a stronger voice: a group moved into a more democratic phase ... and began to behave much more like a team.

Individuals' rewards depended on the the performance of the group as a whole. Team members started to demand a much bigger say in those areas that have been traditionally the responsibility of the leader.

For example:

- **Recruitment** – team members wanted a say in who was allowed to join the team
- **Discipline and Firing** – team members were much less tolerant of members who broke the rules or where not up to the job
- **Training and Development** – as new skills were added to the team capability, members were keen to choose who should get them
- **Promotion** – equally team members wanted their input into who would be promoted

Team vs. Group: leadership roles emerge from the specific circumstances

Team leaders need to show their mettle at this time! Potential gains are great, but insecure managers may squander opportunities:

- Appropriate **monitoring** and **checks and balances** - yes!

- **Micro-management** and (dare we say it?) **control-freakery** - no!

Such changes may lead to qualitative shifts in performance and achievement, but can seem unpredictable and maverick in their very nature.

This kind of transition along the team vs group continuum can create a situation in which team leadership / group leadership decisions become difficult.

A management response may be to parachute in a respected technician to manage the group. The idea is that technical expertise brings respect and therefore confers the right to manage - not necessarily.

This team knows it's starting to fly ... and that feels good!

Technical leadership and other aspects may be split between two people. This can begin to multiply communication and co-ordination difficulties

Situations like this are made for leadership development coaching. As coaches, this looks to us like nothing is wrong, everything is right ... or at least has great potential.

How does coaching support managers or leaders who may be confronting a situation they've never seen before? And who may be feeling disempowered and vulnerable because of this kind of role-reversal?

The leadership development coaching process is described in the next article in this series:

Unfinished article. Next in the team vs group series is currently in preparation.

Difference between Work Groups and Teams:

Work Groups	Teams
Individual accountability	Individual and mutual accountability
Come together to share information and perspectives	Frequently come together for discussion, decision making, problem solving, and planning.
Focus on individual goals	Focus on team goals
Produce individual work products	Produce collective work products
Define individual roles, responsibilities, and tasks	Define individual roles, responsibilities, and tasks to help team do its work; often share and rotate them
Concern with one's own outcome and challenges	Concern with outcomes of everyone and challenges the team faces
Purpose, goals, approach to work shaped by manager	Purpose, goals, approach to work shaped by team leader with team members

This indicates that teams meet more often than traditional work groups. Work groups may meet periodically, based on the manager's style, primarily to hear and share information. Teams, by comparison, do much more than communicate when they meet. Team meetings are forums for planning work, solving work problems, making decisions about work, and reviewing progress. In short, meetings are vital to a team's existence.

The last item in Table 1 is crucial: Team leadership is participatory, in contrast to the primarily manager-driven nature of regular work groups. On a team, the manager or team leader frequently involves team members in helping shape the goals and plans for getting the group's work done — may as well get them involved, they've got to do the work! But in other kinds of work groups, managers more commonly work with staff individually to set goals and determine assignments.

Of course, in many cases, managers just assign work with little discussion or collaboration with the staff members. And staff is then left to figure out what's expected and how best to get it done.

Team Building

Table 2.1: Building a good team	
Always	**Never**
1. Deliver on time and alert team ASAP when unexpected delays occur.	1. Tell your teammates or leader how much time and effort you are putting into your assignment.
2. Attend all team meetings on time.	2. Assume the role of resident critic and complainer.
3. Speak up, Speak out, and interact at all team meetings.	3. Wait for someone to tell/ask you what to do next.
4. Take personal interest in planning and problem solving.	4. Delay actions and make excuses.
5. Look for ways to go-the-second-mile on your own.	5. Isolate yourself from the others.

Twelve Cs for Team Building

Executives, managers and organization staff members universally explore ways to improve business results and profitability. Many views team-based, horizontal, organization structures as the best design for involving all employees in creating business success.No matter what you call your team-based improvement effort: continuous improvement, total quality, lean manufacturing or self-directed work teams, you are striving to improve results for customers. Few organizations, however, are totally pleased with the results their team improvement efforts produce. If your team improvement efforts are not living up to your expectations, this self-diagnosing checklist may tell you why. Successful team building, that creates effective, focused work teams, requires attention to each of the following.

•**Clear Expectations**: Has executive leadership clearly communicated its expectations for the team's performance and expected outcomes? Do team members understand why the team was created? Is the organization demonstrating constancy of purpose in supporting the team with resources of people, time and money? Does the work of the team receive sufficient emphasis as a priority in terms of the time, discussion, attention and interest directed its way by executive leaders?

•**Context:** Do team members understand why they are participating on the team? Do they understand how the strategy of using teams will help the organization attain its communicated business goals? Can team members define their team's importance to the accomplishment of corporate goals? Does the team understand where its work fits in the total context of the organization's goals, principles, vision and values?

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•**Commitment**: Do team members want to participate on the team? Do team members feel the team mission is important? Are members committed to accomplishing the team mission and expected outcomes? Do team members perceive their service as valuable to the organization and to their own careers? Do team members anticipate recognition for their contributions? Do team members expect their skills to grow and develop on the team? Are team members excited and challenged by the team opportunity?

•**Competence**: Does the team feel that it has the appropriate people participating? (As an example, in a process improvement, is each step of the process represented on the team?) Does the team feel that its members have the knowledge, skill and capability to address the issues for which the team was formed? If not, does the team have access to the help it needs? Does the team feel it has the resources, strategies and support needed to accomplish its mission?

•**Charter**: Has the team taken its assigned area of responsibility and designed its own mission, vision and strategies to accomplish the mission. Has the team defined and communicated its goals; its anticipated outcomes and contributions; its timelines; and how it will measure both the outcomes of its work and the process the team followed to accomplish their task? Does the leadership team or other coordinating group support what the team has designed?

•**Control**: Does the team have enough freedom and empowerment to feel the ownership necessary to accomplish its charter? At the same time, do team members clearly understand their boundaries? How far may members go in pursuit of solutions? Are limitations (i.e. monetary and time resources) defined at the beginning of the project before the team experiences barriers and rework?

Is the team's reporting relationship and accountability understood by all members of the organization? Has the organization defined the team's authority? To implement its plan? Is there a defined review process so both the team and the organization are consistently aligned in direction and purpose? Do team members hold each other accountable for project timelines, commitments and results? Does the organization have a plan to increase opportunities for self-management among organization members?

•**Collaboration**: Does the team understand team and group process? Do members understand the stages of group development? Are team members working together effectively interpersonally? Do all team members understand the roles and responsibilities of team members? team leaders? team recorders? Can the team approach problem solving, process improvement, goal setting and measurement jointly? Do team members cooperate to accomplish the team charter? Has the team established group norms or rules of conduct in areas such as conflict resolution, consensus decision making and meeting management? Is the team using an appropriate strategy to accomplish its action plan?

•**Communication**: Are team members clear about the priority of their tasks? Is there an established method for the teams to give feedback and receive honest performance feedback? Does the organization provide important business information regularly? Do the teams understand the complete context for their existence? Do team members communicate clearly and

honestly with each other? Do team members bring diverse opinions to the table? Are necessary conflicts raised and addressed?

•**Creative Innovation**: Is the organization really interested in change? Does it value creative thinking, unique solutions, and new ideas? Does it reward people who take reasonable risks to make improvements? Or does it reward the people who fit in and maintain the status quo? Does it provide the training, education, access to books and films, and field trips necessary to stimulate new thinking?

UNIT -4

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

One of the primary responsibilities of strategic leaders is to create and maintain the organizational characteristics that reward and encourage collective effort.

A set of common understandings around which action is organized, finding expression in language whose nuances are peculiar to the group (Becker and Geer 1960).
A set of understandings or meanings shared by a group of people that are largely tacit among members and are clearly relevant and distinctive to the particular group which are also passed on to new members (Louis 1980).
A system of knowledge, of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting, that serve to relate human communities to their environmental setting.

To understand culture, we must understand all three levels, a difficult task. One additional aspect complicates the study of culture: the group or cultural unit which "owns" the culture. An organization may have many different cultures or subcultures, or even no discernible dominant culture at the organizational level. Recognizing the cultural unit is essential to identifying and understanding the culture.

Organizational cultures are created, maintained, or transformed by people. An organization's culture is, in part, also created and maintained by the organization's leadership. Leaders at the executive level are the principle source for the generation and re-infusion of an organization's ideology, articulation of core values and specification of norms. Organizational values express preferences for certain behaviors or certain outcomes. Organizational norms express behaviors accepted by others. They are culturally acceptable ways of pursuing goals. Leaders also establish the parameters for formal lines of communication and message content-the formal interaction rules for the organization. Values and norms, once transmitted through the organization, establish the permanence of the organization's culture.

Survey respondents in their first job experience reported that the three most important socialization aids were:

* Interaction with peers

* Interaction with their supervisor

* Interaction with senior co-workers.
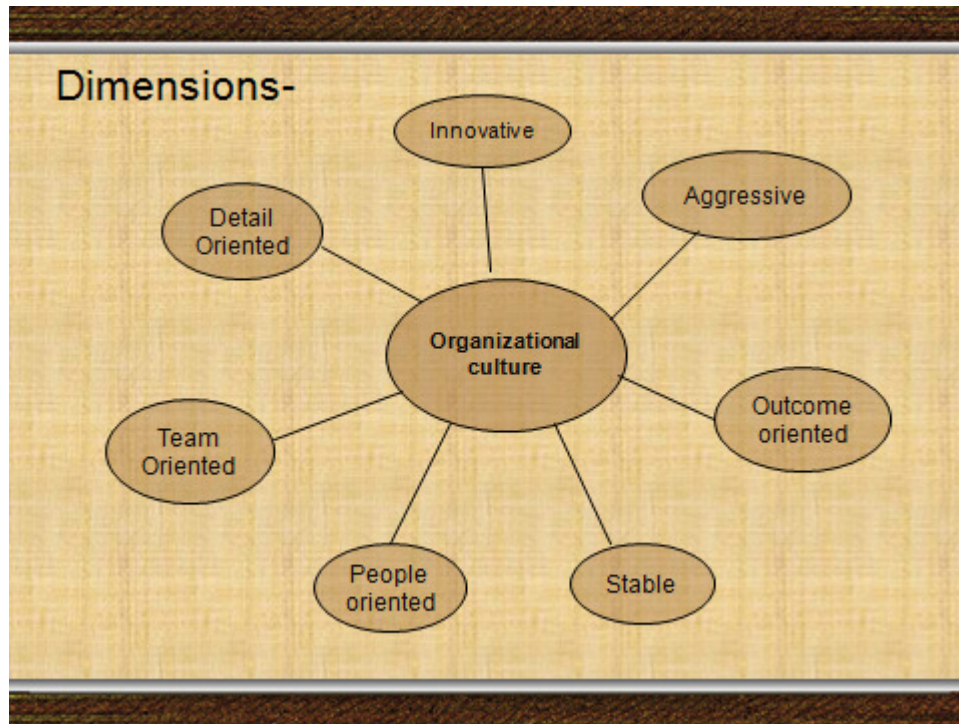
Functions Of Culture

- Defining boundaries
- Behavioral control
- Encourages stability
- Provides source of identity
- Promoting Commitment
- Shapes the attitude of employees

Managing across cultures

Culture involves the manner in which individuals imagine sense and do. It changes from one country, industry and organization to the other. From a business point off view, it is helpful to consider of culture as comprising of four different levels. These levels are of nation, business, industry and organization. Every one of these levels of culture relates with and supports to develop the others. Although globalization can denote that a number of features of culture have united across international frontiers there are even now massive dissimilarities that can influence the methods to management and consumer behavior.

A globalized strategy has to be founded on an understanding that included both cultural resemblances and differences. Culture is imperative to global organizations in different aspects especially consumer behavior and management.

In an organizational context, diversity refers to equality of opportunity and employment without any bias because of these traits. Indeed, it has become fashionable in the present scenario to have a diverse mix of employees drawn from all classes and proclivities so that the aura of correctness and humanitarianism can be actualized. However, this does not mean that organizational diversity has succeeded or it has become the norm in organizations. Rather, there are many barriers to diversity even after strenuous efforts by activists and experts and these relate to societal mindsets and personal psychological discomfort with having people drawn from diverse backgrounds working alongside.

In the United States, the government encourages and mandates organizational diversity as a matter of law and even to the extent of ensuring that, corporate not only follow the letter of the law but also the spirit of the law. This is reflected in the equal opportunity employer law, which states that organizations cannot discriminate against potential job applicants on race, gender, ethnicity, nationality, and sexual orientation. As we shall discuss in subsequent articles, each of these characteristics sets apart people from each other and hence there needs to be a mindset change apart from brining in laws that would make acceptance of diversity that much easier.

In other parts of the world, diversity is not practiced in society and let alone organizations which make a feeble attempt to enforce the rules. The reason for this is the prevailing cultural attitudes against certain sections of society, which makes it impossible for corporate to embrace diversity since they risk the wrath of the dominant cultural and societal groups. The point here is that when the entire society discriminates against say, homosexuals or lesbians, it is indeed difficult for even the best meaning of corporate leaders to buck this trend. Hence, it needs to be remembered that organizational diversity is not only about a certain organization's policies but also reflects the broader societal consensus on this issue.

Of course, this is not to say since society discriminates against ethnic minorities, corporate can do so likewise. On the other hand, there is more responsibility on corporate to follow their heart

and heed their conscience and ensure that their organizations reflect diversity. The point here is that there is a symbiotic relationship between organizations and their environment and hence both must work in tandem to resolve cultural conflicts and biases. When either is unwilling for whatever reasons, leaders must step in and ensure that diversity is encouraged for humanity's sake.

Culture management

Management in a global business will unavoidably have to take care of differences in culture such the significance given to time, the requirement for regulations in job associations and the magnitude of capacity against experience. In addition culture will have a major influence on the outlook to job of workers, facets of encouragement, devotion to the company, individual inventiveness and group dependability. While the achievement in Western organization is frequently ascribed to individual enterprise and innovation, the accomplishment in business in Asian nations is more related to a sound work ethic and organizational faithfulness.

In a global organization the top management can assume different methods to handle cultural differences. It is critical to emphasize that cultural diversity has to be seen as a basis of prospective positive force for an organization. At the same time it cam be a likely cause for conflict. Cultural differences can result in hostility in groups. But if managed properly it can be a major supply of the essential inventiveness needed by businesses in the swiftly transforming business environment to sustain competitive advantage.

Cultural diversity is thus a feature of global organizations which needs a large amount management care. Management will look for making the culture of an organization into a character that successfully assists its objectives, strategies and functions. The fact that culture cannot be described completely will make that it will be a challenge for the management to understand the notion and handle the differences existing.

Socialization

Socialization (or socialization) is a term used by sociologists, social psychologists, anthropologists, political scientists and educationalists to refer to the lifelong process of inheriting and disseminating norms, customs and ideologies, providing an individual with the skills and habits necessary for participating within his or her own society. Socialization is thus 'the means by which social and cultural continuity are attained.

Stages of Socialization

Stage 1: Investigation This stage is marked by a cautious search for information. The individual compares groups in order to determine which one will fulfill their needs (reconnaissance), while the group estimates the value of the potential member (recruitment). The end of this stage is marked by entry to the group, whereby the group asks the individual to join and they accept the offer.

Stage 2: Socialization Now that the individual has moved from prospective member to new member, they must accept the group's culture. At this stage, the individual accepts the group's norms, values, and perspectives (assimilation), and the group adapts to fit the new member's needs (accommodation). The acceptance transition point is then reached and the individual becomes a full member. However, this transition can be delayed if the individual or the group reacts negatively. For example, the individual may react cautiously or misinterpret other members' reactions if they believe that they will be treated differently as a new comer.

Stage 3: Maintenance During this stage, the individual and the group negotiate what contribution is expected of members (role negotiation). While many members remain in this stage until the end of their membership, some individuals are not satisfied with their role in the group or fail to meet the group's expectations (divergence).

Stage 4: Resocialization -If the divergence point is reached, the former full member takes on the role of a marginal member and must be resocialized. There are two possible outcomes of resocialization: differences are resolved and the individual becomes a full member again (convergence), or the group expels the individual or the individual decides to leave (exit).

Stage 5: Remembrance In this stage, former members reminisce about their memories of the group, and make sense of their recent departure. If the group reaches a consensus on their reasons for departure, conclusions about the overall experience of the group become part of the group's tradition.

Primary socialization for a child is very important because it sets the ground work for all future socialization. Primary Socialization occurs when a child learns the attitudes, values, and actions appropriate to individuals as members of a particular culture. It is mainly influenced by the immediate family and friends. For example if a child saw his/her mother expressing a discriminatory opinion about a minority group, then that child may think this behavior is acceptable and could continue to have this opinion about minority groups.

Secondary socialization Secondary socialization refers to the process of learning what is the appropriate behavior as a member of a smaller group within the larger society. Basically, it is the behavioral patterns reinforced by socializing agents of society. Secondary socialization takes place outside the home. It is where children and adults learn how to act in a way that is appropriate for the situations they are in. Schools require very different behavior from the home, and Children must act according to new rules. New teachers have to act in a way that is different from pupils and learn the new rules from people around them. Secondary Socialization is usually associated with teenagers and adults, and involves smaller changes than those occurring in primary socialization. Such examples of Secondary Socialization are entering a new profession or relocating to a new environment or society.

Anticipatory socialization Anticipatory socialization refers to the processes of socialization in which a person "rehearses" for future positions, occupations, and social relationships. For example, a couple might move in together before getting married in order to try out, or anticipate, what living together will be like.

Re-socialization Re-socialization refers to the process of discarding former behavior patterns and reflexes, accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. This occurs throughout the human life cycle. Re-socialization can be an intense experience, with the individual experiencing a sharp break with his or her past, as well as a need to learn and be exposed to radically different norms and values. One common example involves re-socialization through a total institution, or "a setting in which people is isolated from the rest of society and manipulated by an administrative staff". Re-socialization via total institutions involves a two-step process:

1) the staff work to root out a new inmate's individual identity &

2) the staff attempt to create for the inmate a new identity.

Other examples of this are the experience of a young man or woman leaving home to join the military, or a religious convert internalizing the beliefs and rituals of a new faith. An extreme example would be the process by which a transsexual learns to function socially in a dramatically altered gender role.

Organizational socialization

Organizational Socialization Chart

Organizational socialization is the process whereby an employee learns the knowledge and skills necessary to assume his or her organizational role. As newcomers become socialized, they learn about the organization and its history, values, jargon, culture, and procedures. This acquired knowledge about new employees' future work environment affects the way they are able to apply their skills and abilities to their jobs. How actively engaged the employees are in pursuing knowledge affects their socialization process. They also learn about their work group, the specific people they work with on a daily basis, their own role in the organization, the skills needed to do their job, and both formal procedures and informal norms. Socialization functions as a control system in that newcomers learn to internalize and obey organizational values and practices.

Group socialization Group socialization is the theory that an individual's peer groups, rather than parental figures, influences his or her personality and behavior in adulthood. Adolescents spend more time with peers than with parents. Therefore, peer groups have stronger correlations with personality development than parental figures do. For example, twin brothers, whose genetic make-up are identical, will differ in personality because they have different groups of friends, not necessarily because their parents raised them differently.

Entering high school is a crucial moment in many adolescent's lifespan involving the branching off from the restraints of their parents. When dealing with new life challenges, adolescents take comfort in discussing these issues within their peer groups instead of their parents.

Gender socialization Henslin contends that "an important part of socialization is the learning of culturally defined gender roles." Gender socialization refers to the learning of behavior and attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex. Boys learn to be boys and girls learn to be girls. This "learning" happens by way of many different agents of socialization. The family is certainly

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important in reinforcing gender roles, but so are one's friends, school, work and the mass media. Gender roles are reinforced through "countless subtle and not so subtle ways.

As parents are present in a child's life from the beginning, their influence in a child's early socialization is very important, especially in regards to gender roles. Sociologists have identified four ways in which parents socialize gender roles in their children: Shaping gender related attributes through toys and activities, differing their interaction with children based on the sex of the child, serving as primary gender models, and communicating gender ideals and expectations.

Racial socialization Racial socialization has been defined as "the developmental processes by which children acquire the behaviors, perceptions, values, and attitudes of an ethnic group, and come to see themselves and others as members of the group". The existing literature conceptualizes racial socialization as having multiple dimensions. Researchers have identified five dimensions that commonly appear in the racial socialization literature: cultural socialization, preparation for bias, promotion of mistrust, egalitarianism, and other. Cultural socialization refers to parenting practices that teach children about their racial history or heritage and is sometimes referred to as pride development. Preparation for bias refers to parenting practices focused on preparing children to be aware of, and cope with, discrimination. Promotion of mistrust refers to the parenting practices of socializing children to be wary of people from other races. Egalitarianism refers to socializing children with the belief that all people are equal and should be treated with a common humanity.

Planned socialization Planned socialization occurs when other people take actions designed to teach or train others—from infancy on

Natural Socialization Natural socialization occurs when infants and youngsters explore, play and discover the social world around them. Natural socialization is easily seen when looking at the young of almost any mammalian species (and some birds). Planned socialization is mostly a human phenomenon; and all through history, people have been making plans for teaching or training others. Both natural and planned socialization can have good and bad features: It is wise to learn the best features of both natural and planned socialization and weave them into our lives.

Positive socialization Positive socialization is the type of social learning that is based on pleasurable and exciting experiences. We tend to like the people who fill our social learning processes with positive motivation, loving care, and rewarding opportunities.

Negative socialization Negative socialization occurs when others use punishment, harsh criticisms or anger to try to "teach us a lesson;" and often we come to dislike both negative socialization and the people who impose it on us. There are all types of mixes of positive and negative socialization; and the more positive social learning experiences we have, the happier we tend to be—especially if we learn useful information that helps us cope well with the challenges of life. A high ratio of negative to positive socialization can make a person unhappy, defeated or pessimistic about life.

What is   workplace conflict?

Webster's dictionary defines conflict as a sharp disagreement or opposition of interests or ideas. Anytime people work together, conflict is a part of 'doing business'. Conflict is a normal and natural part of any workplace. When it occurs, there is a tendency for morale to be lowered, an increase in absenteeism and decreased productivity. It has been estimated that managers spend at least 25 percent of their time resolving workplace conflicts – causing lowered office performance.

Handling and resolving conflicts that arise in the workplace is one of the biggest challenges managers and employees face. Typically there are two responses to conflict: run away (avoidance) or 'battle it out'. In either case, we often feel uncomfortable or dissatisfied with the results because no resolution has been achieved. By learning to constructively resolve conflict, we can turn a potentially destructive situation into an opportunity for creativity and enhanced performance.

Sources of Conflict

There are many causes or reasons for conflict in any work setting. Some of the primary causes are:

- Poor Communication: different communication styles can lead to misunderstandings between employees or between employee and manager. Lack of communication drives conflict 'underground'.
- Different Values: any workplace is made up of individuals who see the world differently. Conflict occurs when there is a lack of acceptance and understanding of these differences.
- Differing Interests: conflict occurs when individual workers 'fight' for their personal goals, ignoring organizational goals and organizational well-being.
- Scarce Resources: too often, employees feel they have to compete for available resources in order to do their job. In a resource scarce environment, this causes conflicts – despite awareness of how scarce resources may be.
- Personality Clashes: all work environments are made up of differing personalities. Unless colleagues understand and accept each other's approach to work and problem-solving, conflict will occur.
- Poor Performance: when one or more individuals within a work unit are not performing - not working up to potential – and this is not addressed, conflict is inevitable.

Process of Conflict

he conflict process can be seen as comprising five stages (1) potential opposition or incompatibility (2) Cognition and personalization (3) intentions (4) Behavior (5) Outcome.

Stage 1: Potential opposition or incompatibility: The first step in the conflict process is the presence on conditions that create opportunities for conflict to rise. These cause or create opportunities for conflict to rise. These causes or sources of conflict have been condenses into three general categories - (1)Communications (2) Structure (3) Personal Variables.

(1)Communications: Different words connotations, jargon insufficient exchange of information and noise in communication channel are all antecedent conditions to conflict. Too much communication as well as too little communication can rely foundation for conflict.

(2)Structure: The term structure is used, in this context to include variables such as size, degree of specialization in the tasks assigned to group members, jurisdictional clarity, members/ goal compatibility, leadership styles, reward systems and the degree of dependence between groups.
The size and specialization act as forces to stimulate conflict. The larger the group and the more specialized its activities, the greater the likelihood of conflict. Tenure and conflict have been found to be inversely related,. The potential for conflicts tends to be greatest when group members are younger and when turnover is high. The greater the ambiguity in defining where responsibility for action lies, the greater the potential for conflict to emerge. Such Jurisdictional ambiguity increases inter group fighting for control or resources and territory.

(3)Personal Variables: Certain personality types- for example individuals who are highly authoritarian and dogmatic- lead to potential conflict. Another reason for conflict is difference in value systems. Value differences are the best explanations of diverse issues such as prejudice disagreements over one's contribution to the group and rewards one deserves.

Stage 2: Cognition and personalization: conflict must be perceived by the parties to it whether or not conflict exists is a perception issue. If no one is aware of a conflict, then it is generally agreed that no conflict exists. Because conflict is perceives does not mean that is personalized. For e.g. " A may be aware that B and A are in serious disagreements but it may not make A tense or nations and it may have no effect whatsoever on A's affection towards B" It is the felt level , when individuals become emotionally involved that parties experience anxiety , tension or hostility.
Stage2 is the place in the process where the parties decide what the conflict is about and emotions plays a major role in shaping perception.

Stage 3: Intentions: Intentions are decisions to act in a given way intentions intervene between people's perception and emotions and their overt behavior.
Using two dimensions cooperativeness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy the other party's concerns)and assertiveness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns)- five conflict handling intentions can be identified.

1) **Competing:** when one person seeks to satisfy his or her own interests regardless of the impact on the other parties to the conflict, he is competing.

2) **Collaborating**: A situation in which the parties to a conflict each desire to satisfy fully the concerns of all the parties. In collaborating, the intention o the parties are to solve the problem by clarifying differences rather than by accommodating various points of view.

3) **Avoiding:** a person may recognize that a conflict exists and want to withdraw from it or suppress it. Avoiding included trying to just ignore a conflict and avoiding others with whom you disagree.

4) **Accommodating**: The willingness of one partying a conflict top lace the opponent's interest above his or her own.

5) **Compromising**: A situation in which each party to a conflict is wiling to give up something.

Intentions provide general guidelines for parties in a conflict situation. They define each party's purpose. Yet people intention is not fixed. During the course of conflict, they might change because of reconceptualization or because of an emotional reaction to the behavior of other party.

Stage 4: Behavior: This is a stage where conflict becomes visible. The behavior stage includes the statements, actions and reactions made by the conflicting parties. These conflict behaviors are usually overt attempt to implement each party's intentions.

Stage 5 Outcomes: The action reaction interplay between the conflicting parties result in consequences. These outcomes may be functional in that the conflict results in an improvement in the group's performance, or dysfunctional in that it hinders group performance.

Conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decisions simulates creativity and innovations encourages interest and curiosity among group members provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released and fosters an environment of self evaluation and change.

Conflict is dysfunctional when uncontrolled opposition breeds discontent, which acts to dissolve common ties and eventually leads to the destruction of the group. Among the more undesirable consequences are a retarding of communication, reductions in group cohesiveness and subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting between members.

Conflict Management

Conflict management is the process of limiting the negative aspects of conflict while increasing the positive aspects of conflict. The aim of conflict management is to enhance learning and group outcomes, including effectiveness or performance in organizational setting. Properly managed conflict can improve group outcomes

Conflict resolution and conflict management

Conflict resolution involves the reduction, elimination, or termination of all forms and types of conflict. When people talk about conflict resolution they tend to use terms like negotiation, bargaining, mediation, or arbitration.

Businesses can benefit from appropriate types and levels of conflict. That is the aim of conflict management, and not the aim of conflict resolution. Conflict management does not imply conflict resolution.

Conflict management minimizes the negative outcomes of conflict and promotes the positive outcomes of conflict with the goal of improving learning in an organization.

Resolution of conflict

Using two dimensions cooperativeness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy the other party's concerns) and assertiveness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns) - five conflict handling intentions can be identified.

1) **Competing:** when one person seeks to satisfy his or her own interests regardless of the impact on the other parties to the conflict, he is competing.
2) **Collaborating**: A situation in which the parties to a conflict each desire to satisfy fully the concerns of all the parties. In collaborating, the intention o the parties are to solve the problem by clarifying differences rather than by accommodating various points of view.
3) **Avoiding:** a person may recognize that a conflict exists and want to withdraw from it or suppress it. Avoiding included trying to just ignore a conflict and avoiding others with whom you disagree.
4) **Accommodating**: The willingness of one partying a conflict to place the opponent's interest above his or her own.
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consequences are a retarding of communication, reductions in group cohesiveness and
subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting between members.

Managing change

Organizational change denotes any alteration which occurs in the overall work environment of
an organization.

Forces of Change:

External Factor:

1. Marketing Conditions
2. Social Changes
3. Political Force

Internal Factors:

1. Change in managerial personnel
2. Fear of Inflexibility
3. Change in operative personnel

Types of changes

- Change in the knowledge, information and techniques
- Change in the issues and problems before managers
- Change in the environment
- Change in the scope of Management
- Change in the pace of change.

Empowerment and Participation

Empowerment is the process of giving people more responsibility for how they do their jobs. It is
concerned with involvement of people in decision making. Empowerment calls for making
greater use of each individual's contribution.

According to Webster's Dictionary, the word empowerment means to give the means, ability or
authority.

According to David Clutterbuck, empowerment as finding new ways to transfer power in the hands of the people who need it most to get the job done-putting authority, responsibility, resources and rights at the most appropriate level for each task.

Empowerment means encouraging and allowing individuals to take personal responsibility for improving the way they do their jobs and contribute to the organization's goals. The practices which empower the employees include suggestion system, job enlargement, job enrichment, quality circles, self managed team, participative leadership etc.

The purpose of empowerment is to free the employees from rigorous control and give them freedom to take responsibility for their own ideas and actions, to release hidden resources which would otherwise remain inaccessible.

Empowerment should not be confused with delegation. Delegation is granting authority by a superior to a subordinate for a specific purpose such as buying specific materials from a specified vendor. But empowerment has a wider scope. The subordinate is empowered to select the type of materials from the vendor he thinks is the best.

Types of Empowerment

According to Bowen and Lawler, three types of empowerment are possible. These are as follows:

1. **Suggestions**: Employees are encouraged to contribute ideas through formal suggestion programmes or quality circles but their day-to-day work activities do not really change. They can only offer suggestions, but the power to decide and implement decisions rests with the management.
2. **Job Involvement:** Employees believe their tasks are significant, they have considerable freedom in deciding how to do the work, they get enough feedback about their performance and each handles a whole identified piece of work.
3. **High Involvement:** High involvement organizations give their lowest level employees a sense of involvement not just in how they do their jobs or how effectively their group performs, but in the total organization's performance. Employees develop extensive skills in team-work, problem solving and participate in management decisions. Hish involvement organizations often use profit sharing and employee stock option plans (ESOP)

Advantages of Empowerment

1. Improved productivity
2. Better employee morale
3. Less turnover and absenteeism
4. Greater freedom for managers
5. Higher quality services
6. Improved team work
7. Increased competitiveness
8. Increased enthusiasm

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9. The culture is likely to be co-operative and purposeful rather than blame- oriented.
10. For employees, empowerment provides a sense of high self-esteem, high degree of involvement and participation a learning environment opportunity for personal growth and development and a greater of sense of achievement.

Participation

Participation is defined by John W. Newstrom and Keith Davis as "the mental and emotional involvement of persons in group situations that encourage them to contribute to group goals and share responsibility for them." Participative managers make their subordinates feel valued by involving them in organizational activities and also by sharing responsibility with them. Thus, the important dimensions of participation are involvement, contribution, and responsibility.

Involvement: A person's mental and emotional involvement in an activity is important for true participation. People who perform any activity without emotional involvement are said to be task-involved while those who involve the entire self in an activity are said to be ego-involved. Many managers equate participation with task-involvement. They consult their subordinates through meetings but are not ready to accept and implement their ideas. These managers are unable to encourage the ego-involvement of employees in organizational activities and this leads to the imitation of participation by employees in the organization rather than true participation.

Contribution: Participation in decision making motivates employees to use their abilities and creativity to achieve organizational goals. In fact, the contribution that employees make toward accomplishing these goals in the way of ideas and suggestions enhances their motivation levels further. By understanding the path-goal relationship, employees strive to achieve organizational goals.

Responsibility: Participation generates a feeling of responsibility among employees for the activities of the organization. Participation in organizational activities makes the employees feel valued and respected and, therefore, satisfied. It encourages them to accept responsibilities and cooperate with managers to achieve the goals of the organization. By encouraging the participation of all employees in the organization, it is possible to increase the quantity and quality of output. The process of participation encourages employees to strive for positive outcomes.

The Process of Participation

The process of participation involves various participation programs to increase the involvement of employees in an organization to get a favorable outcome.

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Advantages of Participation

Participation has many direct and indirect advantages for the organization. Some of them are:

1. **Improvement in quantity and quality of output:** When employees participate in organizational activities by giving suggestions and ideas, it can help to improve the quantity and quality of output of the organization.
2. **Increase in motivational level of employees:** As participation increases the self-efficacy and job satisfaction of employees, they are motivated to improve organizational performance.
3. **Greater Commitment:** Participation allows individuals to express themselves at the work place rather than being absorbed into a complex system of rules, procedures and systems.
4. **Industrial Democracy:** Participation helps to user in an era of democracy in industry. It is based on the principle to recognition of the human factor. It tends to reduce class conflict between capital and labor. It also serves as a support to political democracy.
5. **Improved Decisions:** Participation tends to break down the barriers, and makes the information available to managers. To the extent such information alters the decisions; the quality of decisions is improved.
6. **Human Resource Development:** Participation provides education to workers in the management of industry. It fosters initiative and creativity among them. It develops the sense of responsibility.
7. **Reduced resistance to change:** When participation involves in decision making process, employees have had an opportunity to be heard. They know what to expect and why. Their resistance to change is reduced.

Types of Participation

1. Suggestions
2. Joint Consultation
3. Informative participation
4. Employees' representation on the board of Directors

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