Biyani's Think Tank

Concept based notes

Organisational Behaviour

(BBA-III)

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Preface

I am glad to present this book, especially designed to serve the needs of the students. The book has been written keeping in mind the general weakness in understanding the fundamental concepts of the topics. The book is self-explanatory and adopts the "Teach Yourself" style. It is based on question-answer pattern. The language of book is quite easy and understandable based on scientific approach.

This book covers basic concepts related to the microbial understandings about diversity, structure, economic aspects, bacterial and viral reproduction etc.

Any further improvement in the contents of the book by making corrections, omission and inclusion is keen to be achieved based on suggestions from the readers for which the author shall be obliged.

I acknowledge special thanks to Mr. Rajeev Biyani, *Chairman* & Dr. Sanjay Biyani, *Director* (*Acad.*) Biyani Group of Colleges, who are the backbones and main concept provider and also have been constant source of motivation throughout this Endeavour. They played an active role in coordinating the various stages of this Endeavour and spearheaded the publishing work.

I look forward to receiving valuable suggestions from professors of various educational institutions, other faculty members and students for improvement of the quality of the book. The reader may feel free to send in their comments and suggestions to the under mentioned address.
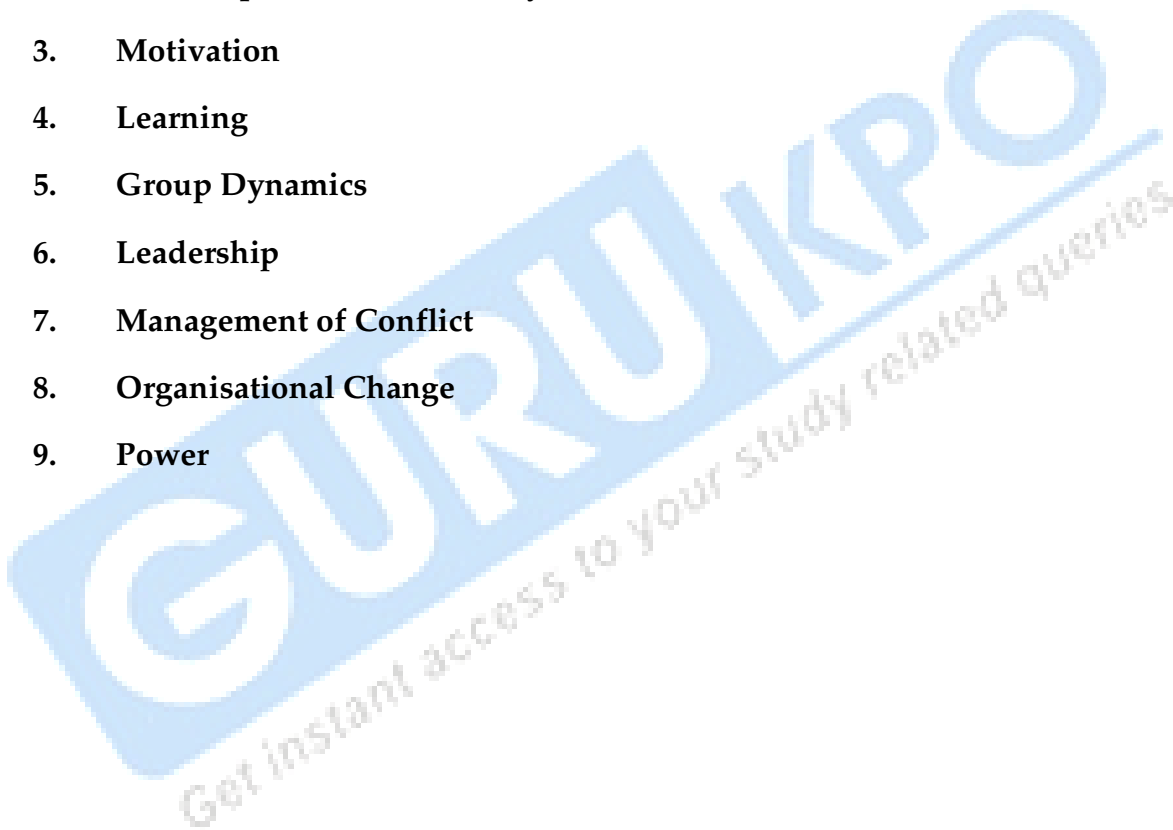
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Organisational Behaviour
BBA-III

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5. Group Dynamics : Theories of groups, group norms and roles, cohesiveness the dynamics of informal groups.

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Chapter 1
Introduction

Q.1 **What is Organizational behaviour?**

Ans. A field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups & structure have on behaviour within organisations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving an organisation's effectiveness.

Q.2 **What are the major contributing disciplines to OB?**

Ans. OB basically draws concepts and principles from behavioural sciences and the core disciplines of behavioural sciences are psychology, sociology, anthropology and social psychology. OB draws knowledge from all these disciplines but it does not draw the whole knowledge of these disciplines but only the relevant knowledge which helps in predicting and directing human behaviour in the organisation. The contribution of core disciplines of behavioural science to OB are as follows:-

(1) Psychology: Psychology is the science that seeks to measure, explain and sometime change the behaviour of human beings. Psychologists concern themselves with studing and attempting to understand individual behaviour those who have contributed and continue to add to the knowledge of OB are learning theorists, personality theorists, counceling psychologists, and most important industrial and organisational psychologists.

Recently industrial/organizational psychologists concerned themselves with learning, perception, personality, emotions, training, leadership, effectiveness, needs and motivational forces, job satisfaction decision making processes, performance appraisals, attitudes measurement, employee-selection techniques, work design and job stress.

(2) Sociology: While psychology focuses on the individual. Sociology studies people in relation to their social environment or culture. Sociologists have contributed to OB through their study of group behaviour in organisations, particularly formal and complex organizations. Perhaps most importantly, sociology has contributed to research on organisational culture, formal organization theory and structure organization technology, communications, power and conflict.

(3) Anthropology: Anthropology is the study of societies to learn about human beings and their activities. For instance, anthropologists work on cultures and environments has helped us understand differences in fundamental values, attitudes, and behaviour between people in different countries and within

different organisations. Much of our current understanding of organisational culture, organisational environments and differences between national cultures is a result of the work of anthropologists or those using their methods.

(4) Social psychology : Social psychology blends concepts from both psychology and sociology, though it is generally considered a branch of psychology. It focuses on people's influence on one another. One major area receiving considerable investigation from social psychologists has been change- "how to implement it and how to reduce barriers to its acceptance". In addition, social psychologists making significant contribution in the areas of measuring, understanding and changing attitudes; communication patterns; and building trust. Finally, social psychologists have made important contributions to our study of group behaviour, power, and conflicts.

Behavioral Science	Contribution	Unit of analysis	Output
Psychology	Learning, training, motivation, perception, personality, emotions, leadership, effectiveness, job satisfaction, Individual decision making, performance appraisal, attitude measurement, employee selection, work design, work stress.	Individual	Study of Organizational Behaviour
Social Psychology	Behavioural change, attitude change, communication group processes, group decision making, Communication power, conflict, inter group behaviour	Group	
Sociology	Formal organisation theory organisational technology organisational change organisational culture		
Anthropology	Comparative values comparative attitudes, cross-cultural analysis	Organisation system	
	Organisational culture organisations environment power		

Q.3   What roles does OB play in today's business organisations?

Ans.   OB offers several ideas to management as to how human factor should be properly emphasized to achieve organisational objectives. Human factor is not merely an instrument in the organisation but the very core of organisational existence. Since organisation is the interaction of persons, they should be given adequate importance in managing the organization. This becomes more important because of the changing dimensions of human behaviour, changing from money motivated behaviour to multimotivated behaviour. Organisational behaviour helps the managers in the following areas:-

(1) Understanding Human Behaviour -

For shaping human behaviour in definite direction for achieving certain predetermined objectives, managers must know how the people in the organisation behave. OB provides way for understanding human behaviour in all the directions in which human beings interact. Thus, behaviour can be understood at the individual level, interpersonal level, group level, and intergroup level.

(1) Individual Level – The behaviour of human beings as a social man is the first issue in behavioural science. It provides for analysing why and how an individual behaves in a particular way. Human behaviour is a complex phenomenon and is affected by a large number of factors- psychological, social, cultural and others. OB integrates these factors to provide simplicity in understanding human behaviour.

(2) Interpersonal Level – Human behaviour can be understood at the level of interpersonal interaction. Such interpersonal interaction is normally in paired relationship which represents man's most natural attempt at socialization. When one focuses on the influence of one's peer and its affect in working relationship, or examines the superior – subordinate relationships, it is obvious that the two-person is inevitable in the organisation. OB provides means for understanding the interpersonal relationship in the organisation. Analysis of reciprocal relationship, role analysis, and transactional analysis are some of the common methods which provide such understanding.

(3) Group Level – Though people interpret anything at their individual level, they are often modified by group pressure which, thus, becomes a force in shaping human behaviour. Thus individuals should be studied in group also. Research in group dynamics has contributed vitally to OB and shows how a group behaves in terms of its norms, cohesion, goals, procedures, communication pattern, leadership and membership. These research results are furthering managerial knowledge ofunderstanding group behaviour which is very important for organisational morale and productivity.

(4) Intergroup Level – The organisation is made up of many groups that develop a complex of relationship to build its process and substance. Understanding of

the effect of group relationships is important for managers in today's organisation. Intergroup relationships may be in the form of cooperation or competition the cooperative relationships help the organisation in achieving its objectives. The cooperative relationships help the organisation in achieving its objectives. OB provides means to understand and achieve cooperative group relationships through interaction, rotation of members among groups, avoidance of win-lose situation, and focus on total group objectives.

Controlling and Directing Human Behaviour –

After understanding the mechanism of human behaviour, managers are required to control and direct the behaviour so that it confirms to standards required for achieving organisational objectives. For this purpose, OB helps managers in many areas: use of power and sanction, leadership, communication and building organisational climate conducive for better interactions.

(1) Use of Power and Sanction- Organisational behaviour can be controlled and directed by the use of power and sanction which are formally prescribed by the organisation. Power is referred to as capacity of an individual to take certain action and may be utilized in many ways. Mere use of power and sanction in the organisation is not enough for directing human behaviour. OB explains how various means of power and sanction can be utilized so that both organisational and individual objectives are achieved simultaneously.

(2) Leadership- OB brings new insights and understanding to a manager and analyses which style is more appropriate in a given situation. Thus managers can adopt styles keeping in view the various dimensions of organisations, individuals, and situations.

(3) Communication – Communication is the building block of an organisation. It is communication through which people come in contact with others people in the organisation, particularly at higher level spend considerable time in communicating to achieve organisational effectiveness, the communication must be effective. The communication process and how it works in interpersonal dynamics has been evaluated by OB. The factors that affect communication have been analysed so as to make it more effective.

(4) Organisational Climate – It refers to the total organizational situations affecting human behaviour. Organisational climate time a systems perspective and affects human behaviour. OB suggests the approach to create organisational climate in totality rather than merely improving the physiological conditions or increasing employee satisfaction by changing isolated work processes satisfactory working conditions, adequate compensation, and the necessary equipments for the job are viewed as only small part of the requirements for sound motivational climate. It greater importance are the creation of an atmosphere of effective supervision, the opportunity for the realisation of personal goals, congenial relations with others at the work place, and a sense of

accomplishment. Thus OB has discovered a new approach of managing people in the organisation.

Organisational Adaptation

Organisations as dynamic entities are characterized by pervasive change. In this age of environmental variability, the real job of a manager is to provide continuity in organisations because the organisations have to adopt themselves to the environmental changes by making suitable internal arrangements. However, such organisational arrangements are mostly resisted by the internal people. Thus, managers have to face dual problems: identifying need for change and then implementing the change without adversely affecting the need for satisfaction of organisational people. It is also the essence of managing change. Management of changes is seen as a self- perpetrating ever evolving phenomenon.
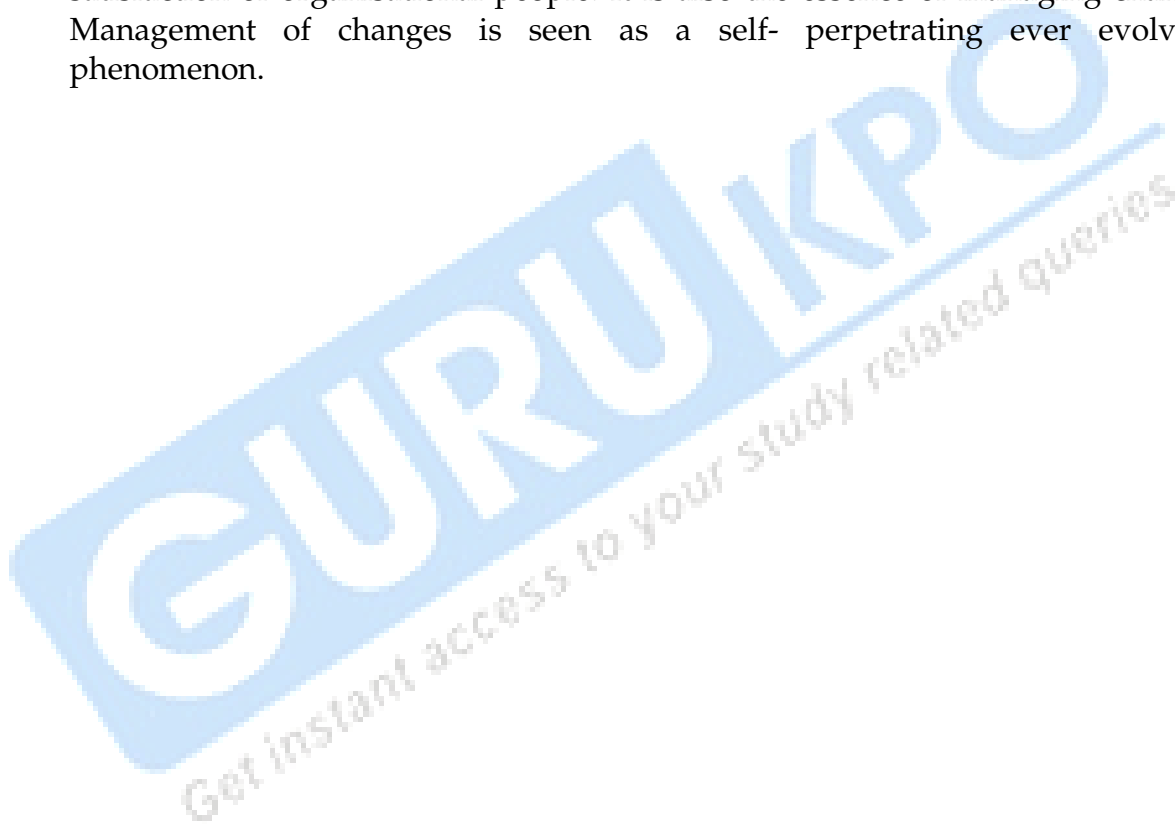
Chapter 2

Understanding Self
(Perception & Personality)

Understanding Self Perception :

Q.1 **What is social perception? What are the categories of factors influence our perception of another person?**

Ans. **Social Perception –** The process of interpreting information about another person virtually all management activities rely on perception. It appraising performance, managers use their perceptions of an employee's behavior as a basis for the evaluation.

Three major categories of factors influence our perception of another person:

(1) Characteristic of the perceiver – Several characteristics of the perceiver can affect social perception. One such characteristic is *familiarity* with the target. When we are familiar with person, we have multiple observations on which to base our impression of him or her. If the information we have gathered during these observation is accurate. We may have an accurate perception of the other person. Familiarity does not always mean accuracy, however sometimes we know a person well, we tend to screen out information that is inconsistent with what we believe the person is like. This is particular danger in performance appraisals where the rater is familiar with the person being rated.

The perceiver's *attitudes* also affect social perception. Suppose you are interviewing candidates for a very important position in your organisation– a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male. You may feel that women are not capable of holding their own in tough negotiations. This attitude will doubtless affect your perceptions of the female candidates you interview.

Characteristics of the Target –

Characteristics of the target, who is the person being perceived, influence social perception. *Physical appearance* plays a big role in our perception of other the perceiver will notice the targets physical features like height, weight, estimated age, race and gender. Clothing says a great deal about a person. A loud person, one who dresses out landishly, a very tall person, or a hyperactive child will be noticed because she provides a contrast to what is commonly encounter. Interviewers rate attractive candidates more favorably, and attractive candidates

are awarded higher starting salaries. People who are perceived as physically attractive face stereotypes as well.

Verbal Communication from targets also affects out perception of them. we listen to the topics they speak about, their voice tone and their accent and make judgements based on this input.

Non Verbal Communication conveys a great deal of information about the target. Eye contact, facial expressions, body movements, posture all are deriphered by the perceiver in a attempt to form an impression of the target. It is interesting that some non verbal signals mean very different things in different cultures. Facial expressions, however, seem to have universal meanings. Individuals from different cultures are able to recognize and decipher expressions the same way.

The *intentions* of the target are inferred by the perceiver, who observed the target's behavior. We may see our boss appear in our office doorway and think, "Oh no! she's going to give me more work to do." In this case, the perceiver's interpretation of the target's intentions affects the way the perceiver views the target.

Characteristics of the Situation –

The situation in which the interaction between the perceiver and the target takes place has an influence on the perceivers impression of the target the social context of the interaction is a major influence. Meeting a professor in his or her office affects your impression in a certain way that may contrast with the impression you would form had you met the professor in a local restaurant. In Japan, social context is very important business conversations after working hours or at lunch are taboo.

The *strength of situational cues* also affects social perception, some situations provide strong cues as to appropriate behaviour. In these situations, we assume that the individual's behaviour can be accounted for by the situations, and that it may not reflect the individual's disposition. This is the *discounting principle*.

With this we can see that characteristics of the perceiver, the target and the situation all affect social perception. It would be wonderful if all of he had accurate social perception skill.

Q.2 **What do you mean by perceptual selectivity? What are the factors which influence perceptual selectivity?**

Ans. Perception is a selective process and as the people can seen of only limited amount of information in the environment, they are characteristically selective. By selection, certain aspects of stimuli are screened out and others are admitted, those which are admitted remain in the awareness of the people and those which are screened out fall below the threshold. **For example,** When people read a

newspaper, they do not read the entire newspaper but only those news which interest them. similar things happen in other cases too this is known as perceptual selectivity.

This is caused by a variety of factors which may be grouped into two categories:

(1) External factors in perceptual selectivity:-

The external factors consists of environmental influences and are in the form of the characteristics of perceptual inputs or stimuli. These characteristics may distinguish a particular stimuli from other stimulus of the same group. Such characteristics may be in the form of size, intensity, repetition, novelty and familiarity, contrast and motion their impact on the perceptual selectivity is as follows:

(1) Size – Size is a characteristics which may affect the perceptual selectivity by affecting the attraction of the perceiver. Generally, bigger is the size of perceived stimulus, higher is the probability that it attracts the attention of the perceiver and he may select it for perception.

(2) Intensity – The intensity principle of attention states that the more intense the external stimulus is, the more likely it is to be perceived. A loud sound, strong odour or bright light.

(3) Repetition – The repetition principle states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention getting than a single one. Repetition increases people's sensitivity or alertness to the stimulus. Advertisers use this principle by repeated advertisement of the same product to attract people's attention. In the organisational context, repeated instruction, even for the routines work, is based on this principle.

(4) Novelty and Familiarity – This principle states that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as attention getter. New object or events in familiar setting or familiar object or events in new sitting draw better attention.

(5) Contrast – This principle states that external stimuli which stand against the background, or which are not what people are expecting, receive more attention. Letters of bold types, persons dressed differently than others, buildings of different colour in the same locality, etc get more attention. Contrast is a kind of uniqueness which can be used for attention getting.

(6) Motion – Motion principle states that a moving object draws more attention as compared to a stationary object. Workers may pay more attention to the materials being moved by them on a conveyor belt as compared to the maintenance needs of a machine lying next to them.

All these factors are related to stimuli. While the factors affect perceptual selectivity, their uses should be made properly, otherwise, negative consequences may emerge.

(2) Internal Factors in Perceptual Selectivity –

While external factors are related to environmental stimuli, internal factors are related to the individual's complex psychological make up. People generally select those stimuli and situations from the environment that appeal to or are compatible to, their personality, motivation, and other personal factors. There are a number of such factors-self concept, beliefs, expectations, inner needs, response disposition, response salience and perceptual defence which filter the stimuli which do not suit the people.

(1) Self Concept – They way a person views the world depends a greater deal on the concept or image he has about himself. This concept plays an internal role in perceptual selectivity. It can be thought of as an internal form of attention getting and is largely based on the individual's complex psychological make-up knowing one self makes it easier to see other accurately. People's own characteristics affect the characteristics which they are likely to see in others. They select only that aspects which they find match with their characteristics.

(2) Beliefs – A person's beliefs have profound influence on his perception. Thus, a fact is conceived not on what it is but what a person believes it to be. The individual normally censors stimulus inputs to avoid disturbance of his existing beliefs. This is referred to as maintainence of cognitive consistency. Katz argues that (i) an individual self censors his intake of communications so as to shield his beliefs and practices from attack. (ii) an individual seeks out communications which support his beliefs and practices; and (iii) the latter is particularly true when the beliefs and practices in question have undergone attack or the individual has otherwise been made of them.

(3) Expectations – Expectations are related with the state of anticipation of a particular behaviour from a person, even in the organisational setting, expectations affect people's perception. Though such expectations may change because of direct contact, and expectations may fall near actual but a mental set about beliefs, expectations and values filters perception and may be lasting and difficult to change.

(4) Inner Needs – The need is a feeling of tension or discomfort when one thinks he is missing something or when he feels he has not quite closed a gap in his knowledge. People with different needs usually experience different stimuli. Similarly, people with different needs select different items to remember or respond to, when people are not able to satisfy their needs, they are engaged in wishful thinking which is a way to satisfy the needs not in real world but in imaginary world, the day dreaming. According to Freud, wishful thinking is the means by which the Id, a part of personality, attempts to achieve tension reduction.

(5) Response Disposition – Response disposition refers to a person's tendency to perceive familiar stimuli rather than unfamiliar ones. Thus, a person will perceive the things with which he is familiar.

(6) Response Salience – Response salience is the set of dispositions which are determined not by the familiarity of the stimulus situations, but by the person's own cognitive predispositions. Thus, a particular problems in an organization may be viewed as a marketing problem by marketing personnel, a control problem by accounting people and human relations problem by personnel people. It indicates that type of response salience which people have affects their perception the reason for this phenomenon lies in the background of the people for which they are trained. They are trained to look at the situation from one point of view only, not from other point of view.

(7) Perceptual Defence – Perception defence refers to the screening of those elements which create conflict and threatening situation in people. They may even perceive other factors to be present that are not a part of the stimulus situations. Perceptual defence is performed by –

(1) denying the existence or importance of conflicting information.

(2) distorting the new information to match the old one, or

(3) acknowledging the new information but treating it as a non-representative exception.

Q.3. **Explain the nature and importance of perception.**

Ans. **The Nature and Importance of Perception:** The key to understanding perception is to recognize that it is a unique *interpretation* of the situation, not an exact recording of it. In short, perception is a very complex cognitive process that yields a unique picture of the world, a picture that may be quite different from reality. Applied to organizational behavior, an employee's perception can be thought of as a filter. Becauseperception is largely learned, and no one has the same learning and experience, then every employee has a unique filter, and the same situations/stimuli may produce very different reactions and behaviors.

Recognition of the difference between this filtered, perceptual world and the real world is vital to the understanding of organizational behavior. A specific example would be the universal assumption made by managers that associates always want promotions, when, in fact, many really feel psychologically *forced* to accept a promotion. Managers seldom attempt to find out, and sometimes associates themselves do not know, whether the promotion should be offered. In other words, the perceptual world of the manager is quite different from the perceptual world of the associate, and both may be very different from reality. One of the biggest problems that new organizational leaders must overcome are the sometimes faulty or negative perceptions of them. If this is the case, what can

be done about it? The best answer seems to be that a better understanding of the concepts involved should be developed. Direct applications and techniques should logically follow complete understanding. The place to start is to clearly understand the difference between sensation and perception and have a working knowledge of the major cognitive subprocesses of perception.

Understanding Self Personality:

Q.4 **What are the various personality theories?**

Ans. The most logical grouping of theories of personality seems to be into psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, trait and self theories.

(1) Psychoanalytic theory – This is based on the motion that man is motivated more by unseen forces than he is controlled by conscious and rational thought. Clinical techniques were used primarily to develop psychoanalytic theory freud noted that his patients' behaviour could not always be consciously explained this clinical finding led him to conclude that major motivating force in man was unconscious framework. This framework contains three aspects, though inter-related but often conflicting. These are id, ego and superego. They are so interrelated that they can only be artificially separated for individual strictly and analysis.

(1) The Id – The id is the source of psycho energy and seeks immediate gratification biological or insticntual needs. Freud believed that instinct could be classified under life instincts and death instincts. Life instinsts are hunger, thirst and sex; the energy involved in their activity is libido. The id operates on what is called the pleasure principle, i.e., it arts to avoid tensions and seeks immediate pleasure. Many of its impulses are not acceptable to the values of organised society. For example, when an individual is thirsty his id would urge him to grab something to drink. It doesn't matter how the drink was acquired.

(2) Ego – The ego comes into being because of the limitations of the id in dealing with the real world through learning and experiences. The ego is the conscious and logical part of human personality and is associated with the reality principle, which is capable of postponing the release of tension until that time when it will be effectively directed at coping with the external environments the ego is said to be the executive of the personality.
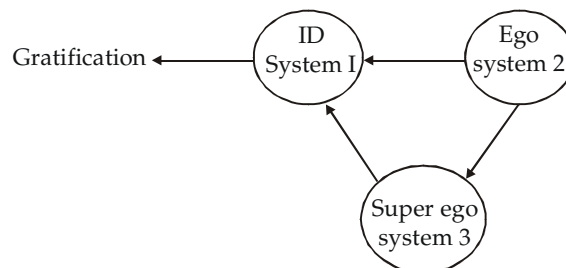
Interrelationships among the Id, Ego and Super ego

(3) The Super Ego – The super ego represents social and personal norms and serves as an ethical constraint on behaviour. It can best be described as the conscience. The super ego provides norms to ego to determine what is wrong or right. However, a person is not aware of the working of the superego, and conscience is developed by absorption of cultural values and norms of society.

The psychoanalytic theory of freud is based on theoretical conception, rather than a measurable item for scientific verification. The theory does not give a total picture of behavior emerging from the personality. However this theory gives an important insight into personality structure and the idea of unconscious motivation which can be used by behavioral scientists.

(2) Socio-psychological theory – Socio – psychological theory recognises the interdependence of individual and society. The individual strives to meet the needs of the society, while society helps the individual to attain his goal. Out of this interaction, the personality of an individual is determined. Thus the theory is not exclusively sociological but rather a combination of two.

Socio-psychological theory differs from psycho-analytic in two respects. *First*, social variables, and not the biological instincts, are the important determinants in shaping personality. *Second*, behavioural motivation is conscious, man knows his needs and wants, and his behaviour is directed to meet these needs.

The theorists accepts that socio-psychological factors determine personality, however, there is no general agreement as to the relative importance of social variables. For example, from an emphasised the importance of social context, while Sullivan & Horney stressed interpersonal behaviour, and Adeer employed different variables. Horney's model suggests that human behaviour results from three predominant interpersonal orientations-complaints, aggressive, and detached. Complaint people are dependent on other people and move toward others. Aggressive people are motivated by the need for power & move against others. Detached people are self-sufficient and move away from others. Socio-psychological theory offers, to a very great extent, the answer to the problems of emergence of personality, particularly in terms of the influence of social factors in shaping personality. The managers in the organisations can take clue from this theory in shaping the behaviour of their employees. However, they cannot get a total picture of human behaviour as determined by personality.

Trait Theory – Trait factor theory presents a quantitative approach to the study of personality. This theory postulates that an individual's personality is composed of definite predispositional attributes called traits. A trait may be defined as any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Thus traits can be considered as individual variables there are basically three assumptions of this theory –

1. Traits are common to many individuals and vary in absolute amounts between individuals.

2. Traits are relatively stable and exert fairly universal effects on behaviour regardless of the environmental situation. Thus a consistent functioning of personality variables is predictive of a wide variety of behaviours.

3. Traits can be inferred from the measurement of behavioural indicators.

Two most widely trait theories come from the work of Allport and Cattell. Allport bases his theory on the distinction between common traits and personal dispositions. Common traits are used to compare people. He has identified six categories of values: religious, social, economic, political, aesthetic, and theoretical for comparative purpose. Besides the common traits, there are personal dispositions which are completely unique. These are cardinal (most pervasive), central (unique and limited in number) or secondary (peripheral). This uniqueness emphasises the psychology of the individual that Allport has developed.

Cattel has developed a similar set of traits through the construction of tests and the determination of factors or traits families which may emerge from these psychological measures. However, he has taken a different approach from Allport. He has identified two categories of traits- surface traits and source traits. He determined thirty-five surfacetraits by finding cluster of traits that are correlated. For example, wise-foolish, affectionate-cold, honest dishonest and so on. Such traits lie on the surface of the personality and are largely determined by the underlying source traits. He identified twelve sourcetraits. Examples of such traits are affectothymia (good nature & trustfulness) versus sizothymia (critical and suspicious); ego strength (maturity & realism) versus emotionality & neuroticism (immaturity and evasiveness); dominance versus & submissiveness, sergcancy (cheerfulness & energy) versus (depressed & subdued feelings).

Trait theory gives recognition to the continuity of personality. This theory is based on personality research. In this research, typical study attempts to find a relationship between set of personality variables and assorted behaviour. This contributes personality tests to the behavioural science. However, this theory is very descriptive rather than analytical and is a long way from being comprehensive theory of personality.

Self Theory – Self theory, termed as organismic or field theory, emphasises the totality and interrelatedness of all behaviours. Carl Rogers self theory of personality is very relevant in organisational behaviour. He defines the self concept as organised consistent, conceptual, gestalt composed of perceptions of the 'I' or 'me' & the perceptions of the relationships of the 'I' or 'me' to others and to various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions. These are four factors in self concept.

(1) Self image – The self image is the way one sees oneself. Every person has certain beliefs about who or what he is; taken together, these beliefs are a person's self-image or identity. Erikson has defined identity as "a life- long

development largely unconscious to the individual & his society." Its roots go back all the way to the first self recognition in the baby's earliest exchange of smiles, there is something of a self-realisation coupled with a mutual recognition.

(2) Ideal-self – The ideal-self denotes the way one would like to be the ideal-self differs from self-image in the fact that the self-image indicates the reality of a person as perceived by him, while ideal-self indicates the ideal position as perceived by him. Thus, there may be a gap between these two characteristics. The ideal self is important in stimulus selectivity because a person will select those stimuli for processing which fit in with the characteristics of his ideal-self.

(3) Looking glass-self – This is the perception of a person about how others are perceiving his qualities & characteristics. This is the perception of others perception, that is, the way one thinks people perceive about him and not the way people actually see him. The looking glass-self is predominantly a social product which emerges from face to face interaction with others from the very beginning of the life. This interaction is directed towards cues about how others see him as an individual. Thus, beliefs about self are in large measures a reflection of other's perception about the person.

(4) Real-Self – This is what one really is. The first three aspects of self-concept are the functions of individual perception and they may be same as real-self or different from it. An individual's self-image is confirmed when other person's responses to him indicate their beliefs about who and what he corresponds with. In the face of feedback from the environment, the person re-evaluates himself and readjusts his self-image to be more consistent with the cues he was receiving. Thus, there is a mutual recognition of his real-self, and the validity of his self image is confirmed.

A person's self-concept gives him a sense of meaningfulness & consistency. Gellerman observes that "the average individual is not particularly well acquainted with himself, so to speak, but he remains quite faithful to his not-so-accurate image of himself & thereby acquires some consistency." In analysing organisation behaviour, the self-concept plays a very significant role. A person perceives a situation depending upon his self-concept which has a direct influence on his behaviour. This implies that person with a different self-concept needs different types of managerial practices.

Q.5 State the factors which serves as determinants of personality.

Ans. Personality represents a process of change & it relates to the psychological growth & development of individuals while it may be possible to detect underlying personality characteristics, these characteristic may be useful only at that point of time and only for a limited number of situations. Therefore, it becomes important to know the factors that cause a given personality to change or develops. These factors can be classified into four broad categories.

(1) Biological factors – The general characteristics of human biological system influence the way in which human being tends to sense external event data, interpret & respond to them.

(1) Heredity – Heredity is the transmission of the qualities from ancestors through a mechanism lying primarily in the chromosomes of the germcells. Heredity predisposes to certain physical, mental & emotional states. It has been established through research on animals that physical and psychological characteristics can be transmitted through heredity. However, such a conclusive proof is not available for human beings though psychologists and geneticists have drawn the conclusion that heredity plays an important role in personality.

(2) Brain – Physiologists & psychologists have studied the structure of human brains have divided it into two parts – left hemisphere which lies in the right side of the body and right hemisphere which lies in the left side of the body. Depending on the structure of the brain, an individuals personality develops.

(3) Physical features - An individual's external appearance which is biologically determined, is an important ingredient of personality. In a narrow sense, personality is referred to physical features of a person. A person's physical features have some influence on his personality because he will influence others and in turn will affects his self concept Mussen observes that "a child's physical characteristics may be related to his approach to the social environment, to the expectancies of others, & to their reaction to him these in turn, may have impact on personality development." Similarly, the rate of physical maturation also affects personality because persons of varying maturity are exposed to different physical & social situations & activities differently.
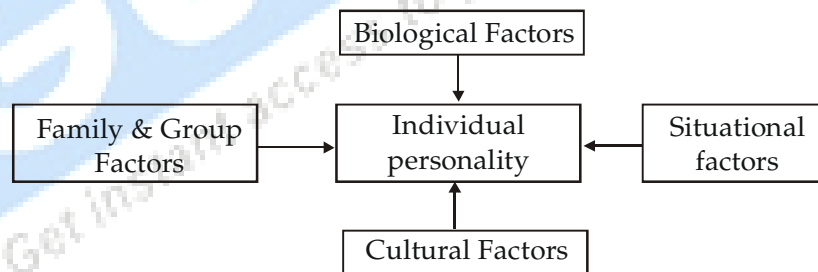
Determinants of personality

Family & social factors – The development of the individual proceeds under the influence of many socialising forces & agencies, from nuclear family to more distant or global groupings. Family and social groups have their impact through socialization & identification processes.

(1) Socialisation – is a process by which an individual infant acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potential, ties that are open to him at birth, those behaviour patterns that are customary & acceptable according to the

standards of his family & social groups. Socialisation process starts with initial contact between mother & her new infant.

(2) Identification process – occurs when a person tries to identify himself with some person whom he feels ideal in the family. Generally, a child in the family tries to behave like his father or mother. The identification process can be examined from three different perspectives.

(a) identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour between child & model.

(b) identification can be looked as the child's motives or desires to be like the model.

(c) it can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

Socialization & identification process are influenced by –

(1) Home environment – Total home environment is a critical factor in personality development. For example, children with markedly institutional upbringing or children in a cold, unstimulating home have a much greater potential to be emotionally maladjusted than children raised by parents in warm loving & stimulating environment. The key variable is the type of environment that is generated for the child.

(2) Family members – Parents & other family members have strong influence on the personality development of the child. Parents have more effect on the personality development as compared to other members of the family. The study by Newcomb showed the high correlation between attitudes of parents and children was higher than that between the children and their teachers. Besides parents, siblings (brothers & sisters) also contribute to personality.

(3) Social groups – Besides a person's home environment & family members, there are other influences arising from the social placement of the family as the person is exposed to agencies outside the home, particularly the school, friendship, & other work groups. Similarly, socio-economic factors also affect personality development.

Cultural Factors –

Culture is the underlying determinant of human decision making. It generally determines attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition & cooperation. Each culture expects & trains its members to behave in the ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experience & situations he is likely to encounter & the values & personality characteristics that will be reinforced & hence learned. Despite the importance of cultural contribution to the personality, a linear relationship cannot be established between personality & a given culture. One problem stems

from the existence of numerous sub cultures within a given cultures. Thus, workers are not influenced by the same culture as managers are.

Situational Factors –

The S-O-B-C model of human behaviours considers the situations under which the behaviour is occurring. Milgrains research study suggests that very powerful role the situation may play in human personality. On the basis of his research study, he states that a situation exerts an important pressure on the individual. It exercises constraints or provide push. In certain circumstances, it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his actions. For example, a worker whose personality history suggests that he had need for power and achievement, may become frustrated and react apathetically & aggressively if he is put in a bureaucratised work situation. Thus, he may appear lazy & trouble maker though his personality history may suggests that he is very hard working & striving to get ahead. Thus, because of changed situation, his personality composition changes this aspect is very important for organisational behaviour because a manager has control over the organisational situation.

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODEL
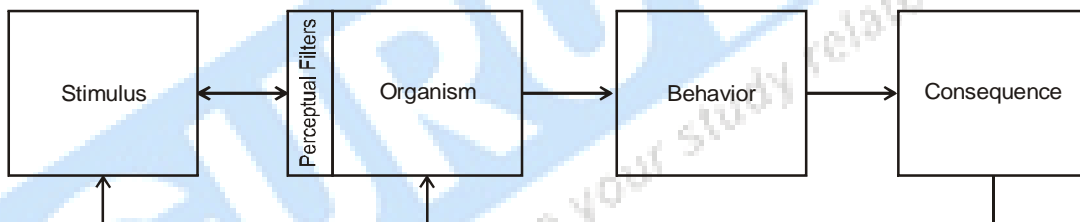
The Environment

Overt and covert stimuli that are present in the evironment.

Overt Stimuli: Observable cues in the environment that trigger behaviour.

Covert Stimuli: Cues in the environment that are not consciously noticed.

The Individual

Perceptual Filters
Sensory Screens:
  Seeing
  Hearing
  Feeling
  Smelling
  Testing
Emotional Screens:
  Personality
  Self-concept
  Attitudes
  Beliefs
  Habits

Learning Motivation

Individual Behaviour

Overt and covert responses and patterns of behavior.

Overt Response: Open and observable behaviour.

Covert Response: Hidden, concealed, or secret kinds of behaviour.

Results of Behaviour

Positive Result (+)

Consequence that results in satisfaction and a desire to repeat the behaviour.

Negative Result (-)

Consequence that results in dissatisfaction and a desire to not repeat the behaviour.

Q.6 **What are the major factors which shape the personality of an individual?**

Ans. Managers should learn as much as possible about personality in order to understand their employers. Hundreds of personality characteristics have been identified. We have selected five characteristics because of their particular influences on individual behaviour in organizations. Locus of control, self-esteem, self-monitoring, & positive/negative affects and big five personality traits because these.

(1) Locus of Control – An individual's generalized belief about internal (self) versus external (situation or others) control is called locus of control.

(1) Internal locus of control – People who believe they control what happens to them are said to have an internal locus of control.

(2) External Locus of control – People who believe that circumstances or other people control their face have an external locus of control.

Research on locus of control has strong implications for organizations.

Internal have been found to have higher job-satisfaction, to be more like to assume managerial positions and to prefer participative management styles. Internals have been shown to display higher work motivation, hold stronger beliefs that effort leads to performance, receive higher salaries & display less anxiety than externals.

Knowing about locus of control can prove valuable to managers. Because internals believe they control what happens to them, they want to exercise control in their work environment. Allowing internals considerable voice in how work is performed is important. Internals will not react well to being closely supervised. Externals, in contrast, may prefer a more structured work setting, & they may be more reluctant to participate in decision making.

(2) Self esteem – Self-esteem is an individuals general feeling of self worth.

Individuals with higher self-esteem have positive feelings about themselves, perceive themselves to have strengths as well as weaknesses & believe their strength are more important than their weaknesses. People with high self-esteem perform better & are more satisfied with their jobs. When they are involved in a job search, they seek out higher status jobs. A work team made up of individuals with high self-esteem is more likely to be successful than a team with low self-esteem.

Individual with low self esteem view themselves negatively they are more strongly affected by what other people think of them.

Self-esteem may be strongly affected by situations. Success tends to raise self esteem, whereas, failure tends to lower it. Given that high self esteem is generally a positive characteristic, managers should encourage employees to raise their self-esteem by giving them appropriate challenges & opportunities for success.

(3) Self monitoring – A characteristics with great potential for affecting behaviour in organizations is self monitoring. The extent to which people base their behaviour on cues from people & situations.

High self monitors pay attention to what is appropriate in particular situations and to the behaviour of other people and they behave accordingly. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. High self monitors are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public persona & their private self. *Low self monitors,* can't disguise themselves in that way they tend to display their true dispositions & attitudes in every situations, hence, there is high behavioural consistency between who they are & what they do.

The evidence indicates that high self-monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behaviour of others & are more capable of conforming than are low self monitors they also receive better performance ratings, are more likely to emerge as leaders, and show less commitment to their organizations. In addition, high self monitoring managers tend to be more mobile in their careers, receive more promotions and are more likely to occupy central positions in an organizations.

(4) Positive /Negative Affect – Individuals who focus on the positive aspects of themselves, other people, & the world in general are said to have positive affect. Interviewers who exhibit positive affect evaluate job candidates more favourably than do interviewers whose effect is neutral. Employees with positive affect are absent from work less often.

Those who accentuate the negative in themselves, others & the world are said to possess negative affect. Individuals with negative affect report more work stress. Individual affect also influences the work group. Negative individuals, affect produces negative group affect, and this leads to less cooperative behaviour in the work group.

Positive affect is a definite asset in work settings. Managers can do several things to promote positive affect, including allowing participative decision making & providing pleasant working conditions. We need to know more about inducing positive affect in the work place.

(5) Big Five personality Traits –

In recent times, researchers have identified five fundamentals traits that are specially relevant to organizations. Because these five traits are so important & they are currently receiving so much attention, they are now called the big five personality traits. Each of these five personality traits has two external points – high & low. These five traits are as follows–

(1) Agreeableness

(2) Conscientiousness

(3) Emotional stability

(4) Extroversion

(5) Openness

In general, experts agree that personality traits closer to the left end of each dimension are more positive in organizational setting, whereas traits closer to the right are less positive. A brief description of these traits is presented below:

(1) Agreeableness – Agreeableness refers to a person's ability to get along with others. Agreeableness causes some people to be gentle, cooperative, forgiving, understanding & good matured in dealing with others. It seems likely that *highly agreeable* people are better in developing good working relationships with coworkers, subordinates, superiors, whereas *less agreeable* persons are not likely to have good working relationships.

(2) Conscientiousness – Conscientiousness refers to a number of goals on which a person focuses his attention. Persons who focus on relatively few goals at a time are likely to be organised, systematic, careful thorough and disciplined, they tend to focus on small number of goals at one time. Persons with less conscientiousness tend to pursue a wider array of goals and as a result, to be more disorganised, careless & even irresponsible as well as less thorough and self disciplined. More conscientious persons tend to be higher performers than less conscientiousness persons in a variety of jobs.

<div align="center">Agreeableness</div>

High agreeableness   Less agreeableness

<div align="center">Conscientiousness</div>

High   Low

<div align="center">Emotional stability</div>

High   Low

<div align="center">Extroversion</div>

Extroversion   Introversion

<div align="center">Openness</div>

More openness   Less openness

Big five personality characteristics

Model of How big five Traits influences OB Criteria

Big Five Trait	Why it is relevant?	What does it Affect?
Emotional stability	• Less negative thinking and fewer negative emotions. • Less Hyper vigilant	• Higher job satisfaction. • Lower stress levels
Extroversion	• Better interpersonal skills • Greater social dominance • More emotionally expressive	• Higher performance • Enhanced leadership • Higher job and life satisfaction.
Openness	• Increased learning • More creative • More flexible & autonomous	• Training performance • Enhanced leadership • More adaptable to change
Agreeableness	• Better liked • More compliant and conforming.	• Higher performance • Lower levels of deviant behaviour
Conscientiousness	• Greater effort & persistence • More drive and discipline • Better organized and planning.	• Higher performance • Enhanced leadership • Greater longevity

(**3) Emotional stability –** People who score high or emotional stability are happier than those who score low. of Big five traits, emotional stability is strongly related to life satisfaction, job-satisfaction and low stress levels. People low on emotional stability are hyper-vigilant(looking for problems) and high scores are associated with fewer health complaints. One upside of low emotional stability, however is that when in a bad mood, such persons make faster and better decisions than emotionally stable people in bad moods.

(**4) Extroversion** – Degree of extroversion reflects a person's comfort level with relationships. There may be persons with either introversion or extroversion features compared to introverts, extroverts tend to be happier in their jobs and in their lives as a whole. They experience more positive emotions than do introverts and they more freely express these feelings. They also tend to perform better in jobs that require significant interpersonal interaction. Extroversion is a relatively strong predictor of leadership emergence in groups. One downside of extroversion is that they are more impulsive than introverts; they are more likely to be absent from work and engage in risky behaviour.

(5) Openness – Openness refers to a person's rigidity of beliefs and range of interests. Individuals who score high on openness to experience are more creative in science and in art than those who score low. because creativity is important to leadership, open people are more comfortable with ambiguity and change than are those who score lower on this traits and are more likely to be effective leader. As a result open people cope better with organizational change and are more adaptable in changing contexts.

The big five personality traits still continue to attract both researchers and managers. The framework of big five traits has its potential value as it encompasses an integrated set of traits that appear to be valid predicators of certain behaviours in certain situations. According to Mount et al. "managers who can both understand the framework and assess these traits in their employees are in a good position to understand how and why they behave as they do." However, applying this framework in their organisations, Indian managers should take adequate precaution to ensure that possession of higher degree of these traits is really in tune with their organisational requirements.

Chapter 3
Motivation

Q.1   **Explain the motivation process?**

Ans.   The term motivation can be traced to the Latin word *movere*, which means "to move". This meaning is evident in the following comprehensive definition: *motivation* is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates a behavior or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. Thus, the key to understanding the process of motivation lies in the meaning of, and relationships among, needs, drives, and incentives.

Needs set up drives aimed at incentives; this is what the basic process of motivation is all about. In a systems sense, motivation consists of these three interacting and interdependent elements:

Needs – Drives – Incentives

1. Needs – Needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance. For example, a need exists when cells in the body are deprived of food and water or when the personality is deprived of other people who serve as friends or companions. Although psychological needs may be based on a deficiency, sometimes they are not. For example, an individual with a strong need to get ahead may have a history of consistent success.

2. Drives – With a few exceptions, drives or motives (the two terms are often used inter-changeably), are set up to alleviate needs. A physiological drive can be simply defined as a deficiency with direction. Physiological and psychological drives are action oriented and provide an energizing thrust toward reaching an incentive. They are at the very heart of the motivational process. The examples of the needs for food and water are translated into the hunger and thirst drives, and the need for friends becomes a drive for affiliation.

3. Incentives – At the end of the motivation cycle is the incentive, defined as anything that will alleviate a need and reduce a drive. Thus, attaining an incentive will tend to restore physiological or psychological balance and will reduce or cut off the drive. Eating food, drinking water, and obtaining friends will tend to restore the balance and reduce the corresponding drives. Food, water, and friends are the incentives in these examples.

These dimensions of the basic motivation process serve as a point of departure for the content and process theories of work motivation. After discussion of primary, general, and secondary motives, those work-motivation theories that are more directly related to the study and application of organizational behavior and human resource management are examined.

Q.2 Explain Primary and Secondary Motives.

Ans. Primary Motives–Psychologists do not totally agree on how to classify the various human motives. It they would acknowledge that some motives are unlearned and physiologically based. Such motives are variously called *physiological, biological, unlearned or primary*. The last term is used here because it is more comprehensive than the others. However, the use of the term *primary* does not imply that these motives always take precedence over general and secondary motives. Although the precedence of primary motives is implied in some motivation theories, there are many situations in which general and secondary motives predominate over primary motives. Common examples are celibacy among priests and fasting for a religious, social or political cause. In both cases, learned secondary motives are stronger than unlearned primary motives.

Two criteria must be met in order for a motive to be included in the primary classification: It must be unlearned, and it must be physiologically based. Thus defined, the most commonly recognized primary motives include hunger, thirst, sleep, avoidance of pain, sex, and maternal concern. Although these very basic physiological requirements have been equated with primary needs over the years, just like personality traits discussed in the last chapter, there is recent recognition given to the role that the brain may play in people's motives. The "hard-wiring" of emotional needs would meet the primary criteria of being unlearned and physiologically based. Neuropsychologists are just beginning to do research on the role the brain plays in motivation, but potential applications to the workplace are already being recognized. For example, Coffman and Gonzalez-Molina note: "What many organizations don't see- and what many don't want to understand – is that employee performance and its subsequent impact on customer engagement revolve around a motivating force that is determined in the brain and defines the specific talents and the emotional mechanisms everyone brings to their work. However, even though the brain pathways will be developed in different ways and people develop different appetites for the various physiological motives because people have the same basic physiological makeup, they will all have essentially the same primary needs. This is not true of the learned secondary needs.

General Motives: A separate classification for general motives is not always given. Yet such a category seems necessary because there are a number of motives that lie in the gray area between the primary and secondary classifications. To be included in the general category, a motive must be unlearned but not physiologically based. Whereas the primary needs seek to reduce the tension or stimulation, these general needs induce the person to increase the amount of stimulation. Thus, these needs are sometimes called "stimulus motives." Although not all psychologists would agree, the motives of

curiosity, manipulation, activity, and possibly affection seem best to meet the criteria for this classification. An understanding of these general motives is important to the study of human behavior-especially in organizations. General motives are more relevant to organizational behavior than are primary motives.

The Curiosity, Manipulation, and Activity Motives: Early psychologists noted that the animals used in their experiments seemed to have an unlearned drive to explore, to manipulate objects, or just to be active. This was especially true of monkey that were placed in an unfamiliar or novel situation. These observations and speculation about the existence of curiosity, manipulation, and activity motives in monkeys were later substantiated through experimentation. In this case, psychologists feel completely confident in generalizing the results of animal experiments to humans. It is generally recognized that human curiosity, manipulation, and activity drives are quite intense; anyone who has reared or been around small children will quickly support this generalization.

Although these drives often get the small child into trouble, curiosity, manipulation, and activity, when carried forward to adulthood, can be very beneficial. If these motives are stifled or inhibited, the total society might become very stagnant. The same is true on an organizational level. If employees are not allowed to express their curiosity, manipulation, and activity motives, they may not be motivated. For example, sticking an employee behind a machine or a desk for eight hours a day may stifle these general motives. There is even recent research indicating that not allowing these types of motives to be expressed and fulfilled may have more serious consequences. A university of Texas study found that people who spent most of their lives in a job they had little control over had a 43 percent higher risk of dying prematurely, and those who did boring, passive work had a 35 percent greater chance of earlier death.

The Affection Motive: Love or affection is a very complex form of general drive. Part of the complexity stems from the fact that in many ways love resembles the primary drives and in other ways it is similar to the secondary drives. In particular, the affection motive is closely associated with the primary sex motive on the one hand and with the secondary affiliation motive on the other. For this reason, affection is sometimes placed in all three categories of motives and some psychologists do not even recognize it as a separate motive.

Affection merits specific attention because of its growing importance to the modern world. There seems to be a great deal of truth to the adages, "Love makes the world go round" and "Love conquers all." In a world where we suffer from interpersonal, intraindividual, and national conflict, and where quality of life, family values, and human rights are becoming increasingly important to modern society, the affection motive takes on added importance in the study of human behavior in general and organizational behavior in particular.

Secondary Motives: Whereas the general drives seem relatively more important than the primary ones to the study of human behavior in organizations, the secondary drives are unquestionably the most important. As a human society develops economically and becomes more complex, the primary drives, and to a lesser degree the general drives, give way to the learned secondary drives in motivating behavior. With some glaring exceptions that have yet to be eradicated, the motives of hunger and thirst are not dominant among people living in the economically developed world. This situation is obviously subject to change; for example, the "population bomb", nuclear war, or the greenhouse effect may alter certain human needs, and further breakthroughs in neuropsychology may receive more deserved attention. But for now, the learned secondary motives dominate the study and application of the field of organizational behavior.

The learning concepts: In particular, the learning principle of reinforcement is conceptually and practically related to motivation. The relationship is obvious when reinforcement is divided into primary and secondary categories and is portrayed as incentives. Some discussions, however, regard reinforcement as simply a consequence serving to increase the motivation to perform the behavior again, and they are treated separately in this text. Once again, however, it should be emphasized that although the various behavioral concepts can be separated for study and analysis, in reality, concepts like reinforcement and motivation do not operate as separate entities in producing human behavior. The interactive effects are always present.

A motive must be learned in order to be included in the *secondary* classification. Numerous important human motives meet this criterion. Some of the more important ones are power, achievement, and affiliation, or, as they are commonly referred to today. *N pow : n Ach,* and *n Aff*. In addition, especially in reference to organizational behavior security and status are important secondary motives.

The Power Motive: The power motive is discussed first because it has been formally recognized and studied for a relatively long time. The leading advocate of the power motive was the pioneering psychologist Alfred Adler. Adler officially broke his close ties with Sigmund Freud and proposed an opposing theoretical position. Whereas Freud stressed the impact of the past and of sexual, unconscious motivation, Adler substituted the future and a person's over whelming drive for superiority or power.

To explain the *power need-* the need to manipulate others or the drive for being in charge of others- Adler developed the concepts of *inferiority complex* and *compensation.* He felt that every small child experiences a sense of inferiority. When this feeling of inferiority is combined with what he sense as an innate (inborn) need for superiority, the two rule all behavior. The person's lifestyle is characterized by striving to compensate for feelings of inferiority, which are combined with the innate drive for power.

Although modern psychologists do not generally accept the tenet that the power drive is inborn and thus dominant, in recent years it has prompted renewed interest. The quest for power is readily observable in modern American society. The politician is probably the best example, and political scandals make a fascinating study of the striving for and the use of power in government and politics. However, in addition to politicians, anyone holding a responsible position in business, government, unions, education, or the military may also exhibit a considerable need for power. The power motive has significant implications for organizational leadership, as well as the informal, political aspects of organizations. Practitioner-oriented literature stresses the value of empowering employees and the use of power rewards (let employees make choices, set their own goals, and increase their responsibility) to motivate employees. Social which is often a characteristic of effective leaders, is devoted to developing true respect from followers and is in conjunction with the leader's vision. Personal more oriented toward the ability to dominate others and to do so for the persons of the leaders.

The Achievement Motive: Whereas the power motive has been recognized and discussed for a long time, only recently has there been any research activity. The opposite is true of the achieve motive. Although it has not been recognized for as long as the other motives, no known about achievement than about any other motive because of the tremendous an of research that has been devoted to it over the years. *Achievement* may be define the degree to which a person wishes to accomplish challenging goals, succeed in competitive situations, and exhibit the desire for unambiguous feedback regarding performance. An individual with a high need for achievement has higher levels of each element of the definition.

The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) has proven to be a very effective too researching achievement. The TAT can effectively identify and measure the achievement motive. The test works in the following manner. One picture in the TAT shows a young man plowing a field; the sun is about to sink in the west. The person taking the test supposed to tell a story about what he or she sees in the picture. The story will pro the person's major motives. For example, the test taker may say that the man in the untrue is sorry the sun is going down because he still has more land to plow and he was to get the crops planted before it rains. Such a response indicates high achievement low achiever might say that the man is happy the sun is finally going down so that can go into the house, relax, and have a cool drink. The research approach to achievement has become so effective that it is often cited by psychologists as a prototype how knowledge and understanding can be gained in the behavioral sciences.

David C. McClelland, a recently deceased Harvard psychologist, is most closely associated with study of the achievement motive, and as Chapter 13 indicates, he also considerable research on power as well. McClelland thoroughly investigated and were about all aspects of *n. Ach* (achievement). A clear profile of the

characteristics of the his achiever has emerged out of this extensive research. The derived specific characteristics of high achievers are summarized in the following sections.

Moderate Risk Taking: Taking moderate risks is probably the single most descriptive characteristic of the person possessing high *n Ach*. On the surface it would seem that a high achiever would take high risks. However, once again research provides insights that are different from a seem ingly commonsense explanation. The ring-toss game can be used to demonstrate risk taking behavior. It has been shown that when ring tossers are told that they may stand anywhere they want to when they toss the rings at the peg, low and high achievers behave quite differently. Low achievers tend either to stand very close and just drop the rings over the peg or to stand very far away and wildly throw the rings at the peg. In contrast high achievers almost always carefully calculate the exact distance from the peg that will challenge their own abilities. People with high *n. Ach* will not stand too close because it would, be no best of their ability simply to drop the rings over the peg. By the same token, they will not stand ridiculously far away because luck, not skill, would then determine whether the rings landed on the peg. In other words, low achievers take either a high or low risk, and high achievers take a moderate risk. This seems to hold true both for the simple children's game and for important adult decisions and activities in today's organizations.

Need for Immediate Feedback: Closely connected to high achievers' taking moderate risks is their desire for immediate feedback. People with high *n. Ach* prefer activities that provide immediate and precise feedback information on how they are progressing toward their goals. Some hobbies and vocations offer such feedback, and others do not. High achievers generally prefer hobbies such as wood working or mechanics, which provide prompt, exact feedback. They tend to shy away from the coin-collecting types of hobbies, which take years to develop. Likewise, high achievers tend to gravitate toward, or at least to be more satisfied in, jobs or careers, such as sales or certain managerial positions, in which they are frequently evaluated by specific performance criteria. On the other end of the scale, high *n. Ach* persons are generally not to be found, or tend to be frustrated, in research and development or teaching vocations, where feedback on performance is very imprecise, vague, and long range. **Satisfaction with Accomplishments**

High achievers find accomplishing a task intrinsically satisfying in and of itself; they do not expect or necessarily want the accompanying material rewards. A good illustration of this characteristics involves money, but not for the usual reasons of wanting money for its own sake or for the material benefits that it can buy. Rather, high *n. Ach* people look at money as a form of feedback or measurement of how they are doing. Given the choice between a simple task

with a good payoff for accomplishment and a more difficult task with a lesser payoff, other things being equal, high achievers may choose the latter.

Preoccupation with the Task

Once high achievers select goals, they tend to be totally preoccupied with their tasks until they are successfully completed. They cannot stand to leave a job half finished and are not satisfied with themselves until they have given their maximum effort. This type of dedicated commitment is often reflected in their outward personalities, which frequently have negative effects on those who come into contact with them. High achievers often strike others as being unfriendly and as "loners." They may be very quiet and may seldom brag about their accomplishments. They tend to be very realistic about their abilities and do not allow other people to get in the way of their goal accomplishments. Obviously, with this type of approach, high achievers do not always get along well with other people. Typically, high achievers make excellent salespersons but seldom good sales managers. There is some research evidence that cooperative efforts may be more effective than the competitive, individualistic efforts characteristic of high achievers. Also, high achievers are likely to enjoy jobs with pay incentives that are clearly linked to performance and situations in which managers set challenging goals that, when reached, result in tangible rewards.

The accompanying Application Example: High Achievers in Action provides common strategies entrepreneurs use to start new businesses. Almost all such entrepreneurs have a relatively high need for achievement.

Another interesting aspect of the achievement literature examines the effects of national achievement motives on economic growth. In one study, stories from children's primary school readers were compared across the dimensions of *n. Ach* portrayed in the stories and indices of economic growth. In that study, and in others, a greater emphasis on achievement of young people was related to stronger economic growth in the years that followed. Given the reported (but largely unsupported) concern associated with lower levels of achievement in today's so-called X-generation, this finding is particularly noteworthy.

The Affiliation Motive

Affiliation plays a very complex but vital role in human behavior. *Affiliation* may be defined as the degree to which people seek approval from others, conform to their wishes, and avoid conflicts or confrontations with others. Those with high needs for affiliation express the greatest desire to be socially accepted by others. Sometimes this affiliation motive is equated with social motives and/or group dynamics. As presented here, the affiliation motive is neither as broad as is implied by the definition of social motives nor as comprehensive or complex as is implied by the definition of group dynamics.

The study of affiliation is further complicated by the view that some behavioral scientists hold that it is an unlearned motive. Going as far back as the Hawthorne

studies, the importance of the affiliation motive in the behavior of organizational participants has been very clear. Employees, especially rank-and-file employees, have a very intense need to belong to, and be accepted by, the group. Recent research continues to show the impact that affiliation has on work motivation and outcomes such as turnover.

The Security Motive

Security is a very intense motive in a fast-paced, highly technological society such as is found in modern America. The typical American can be insecure in a number of not only terrifying world events, but also areas of everyday living-for example, being liable for payments on a car or house, keeping a lover's or a spouse's affections, staying in school, getting into graduate school, or obtaining and/or keeping a good job. Job insecurity, in particular, has a great effect on organizational behavior. On the surface, security appears to be much simpler than other secondarymotives, for it is based largely on fear and is avoidance oriented. Very briefly, it can be said that people have a learned security motive to protect themselves from the contingencies of life and actively try to avoid situations that would prevent them from satisfying their primary, general, and secondary motives.

In reality, security is much more complex than it appears on the surface. There is the simple, conscious security motive described above, but there also seems to be another type of security motive that is much more complicated and difficult to identify. This later form of security is largely unconscious but may greatly influence the behavior of many people. The simple, conscious security motive is typically taken care of by insurance programs, personal savings plans, and other fringe benefits at the place of employment. An innovative company such as the Washington, D.C-based insurance company Consumers United Group never lays off its employees and has a minimum annual salary designed to give a family a secure, decent living. On the other hand, the more complex, unconscious security motive is not so easily fulfilled, but may have a greater and more intense impact on human behavior. Although much attention has been given to the simple security motive, much more understanding is needed concerning the role of the unconscious, complex security motive.

The Status Motive

Along with security, the status or prestige motive is especially relevant to a dynamics society. The modern affluent person is often pictured as a status seeker. Such a person is accused of being more concerned with the material symbols of status-the right clothes, the right car, the right address, and a swimming pool or the latest computer software and telecommunication equipment- than with the more basic, human –oriented values in life. Although the symbols of status are considered a unique by –product of modern society, the

fact is that status has been in existence since there have been two or more persons on the earth.

Status can be simply defined as the *relative* ranking that a person holds in a group, organization, or society. Under this definition, any time two or more persons are together, a status hierarchy will evolve, even if both seem to have equal attributes. The symbols of status attempt to represent only the relative ranking of the person in the status hierarchy. The definition also corrects the common misconception that status means "high status". Everyone has status, but it may be high or low, depending on how the relative positions are ranked.

How are status positions determined? Why is one person ranked higher or lower than another? In the final analysis, status determination depends on the prevailing cultural values and societal roles. Status-determining factors generally have quite different meanings, depending on the values of the particular culture. An example of the impact of cultural values on status is the personal qualities of people. In some cultures, the older people are, the higher their status. However, in other cultures, once a person reaches a certain age, the status goes downhill. It must be remembered that such cultural values are highly volatile and change with the times and circumstances. There are also many sub cultures in a given society that may have values different from the prevailing values of society at large and correspondingly different statuses.

Q.3 Explain the VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY" port-Lawler Model & equity theory.

Ans. VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY – This theory is based on motivation process. Vroom's expectancy theory has its roots in the cognitive concepts in the choice behaviour and utility concepts of classical economic theory. People will be motivated to do things to achieve some goals to the extent that they expect that certain actions on their part will help them to achieve the goal. Vroom's model is built around the concepts of value, expectancy and force; its basic assumption is that the choice made by a person among alternative courses of action is lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behaviour. Various terms used in Vroom's model are explained below.

1. Valence – Valence means the strength of an individual's preference to a particular outcome. Other terms equivalent to valence used invarious theories of motivation are incentive, attitude and expected utility. In order for the valence to be positive for individual he must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining it, a valence of zero occurs when the individual is indifferent towards the outcome; and the valence is negative when the individual prefers not attaining the outcome to attaining it.

2. Instrumentality – Hunt & Hill have exemplified it by promotion motive. For example, assume that an individual desires promotion & feels that superior

performance is very strong factor in achieving that goal. His first level outcome is then superior, average, or poor performance. His second-level outcome is promotion the first level outcome of high performance, thus acquires a positive valence by virtue of the expected relationship to the preferred second-level outcome of promotion. In this case, the person would be motivated for superior performance because of his desire to be promoted. The superior performance (first level outcome) is being instrumental in obtaining promotion (second level outcome).

Expectancy – Another factor in determining the motivation, i.e. the probability that a particular action will lead to outcome. Expectancy is different from instrumentality input into valence expectancy differs from instrumentality in that it relates efforts to first level outcomes whereas instrumentality relates first and second level outcomes to each other. Thus expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a particular first-level outcome.

Implications of the theory – One of the important features of this theory is that it recognizes individual difference in work motivation and suggests that motivation is a complex process. It also clarifies the relationship between individual and organisational goals. Hunt & Hill point out that instead of assuming that satisfaction of a specific need is likely to influence organizational objectives in a certain way. We can find out how important to the employees are the various second level outcomes (worker goals), the instrumentality of various first-level outcomes (organisational objectives) for the attainment & expectancies that are held with respect to the employee's ability to influence the first-level outcomes.

(2) Porter – Lawler Model of Motivation- They proposes a multivariate model to explain the complex relations that exists between job attitudes & job performance. Their model encounters some of the simplistic traditional assumptions made about the positive relationship between satisfaction & performance. The various elements of this model are –

1. Effort – Effort refers to the amount of energy exerted by an employee on a given task. Perceived reward probability refers to the individual's perception of the probability that differential rewards depend upon differential amount of efforts. These two factors value of reward and perception of effort reward probability – determine the amount of effort that the employee will put in.

2. Performance – Performance is determined by the amount of effort and the ability and role perception of the individual. Thus, if an individual has little ability and inaccurate role perception his performance may be ineffective inspite of his putting in great efforts.

3. Rewards – Performance is seen as leading to intrinsic rewards (such as sense of accomplishment and actualization) and extrinsic rewards (such as working conditions and status). However, the intrinsic rewards are much more likely to

produce attitudes about satisfaction that are related to performance. In addition, the perceived equitable rewards vitally affect the performance satisfaction relationship.

4. Satisfaction – Satisfaction derived from the extent to which actual reward fall short, meet or exceed the individual's perceived level of equitable rewards. If it exceeds, the individual will feel satisfied if less than equitable rewards, he will be dissatisfied.

Thus, this provides two implications – (1) satisfaction is only in part determined by actual rewards. (2) Satisfaction is more dependent on performance than performance is an satisfaction.

Implication of the theory – Porter & Lawler point out those variables presumed to affect performance turned out to show relations to performance and those variables presumed to result from performance also typically were related to performance. The model suggests that managers should carefully assess their reward structures & that through careful planning & clear definition of role requirements, the effort-performance – reward – satisfaction system should be integrated into an entire system of managing.

Equity theory – This theory was propounded by J.S. Adams. It is based on the assumption that members of an organisation experience strong expectations of justice, balance and fairness in treatment by the organisation. When a person feels that he is being treated unfairly by the organisation, these feelings can have a variety of adverse effects on the person's motivation and performance on the job. The equity theory of motivation helps in understanding both the causes & the consequences of feelings of inequitable treatment among organisation members.

According to equity theory, two variables are important, i.e. inputs & outcomes. Inputs are the efforts & skills which a member of an organisation perceives that he puts into his job. Outcomes are the rewards which the member receive from the organisation & his job. Inputs & outcomes are important elements in the exchange relationship between the organisation & its members. When the individual finds equity in the situation or feels that he receives from the organisation in terms of treatment & compensation is fair in terms of the effort & skills he contributes to the organisations he is satisfied with the arrangement and is normally committed to the organisation and its goals.

Four terms are important in the theory.

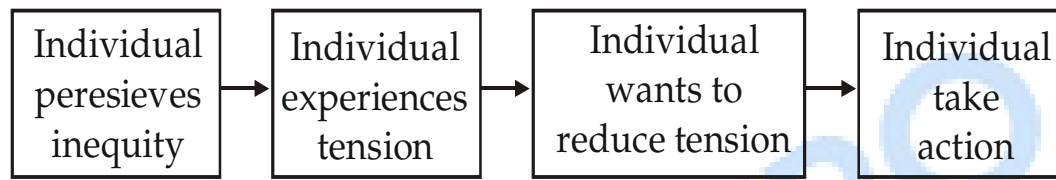**1. Person** – The individual for whom equity or unequity exists.

2. Comparison other – Any group or individual used by a person as a referent regarding inputs & outcomes.

3. Input – Characteristics which individuals brings with them to the job: education, skills, experience, and the like.

4. Outcomes – Pay promotion & fringe benefits received from a job.

The theory proposes that the motivation to act develops after the person compares inputs/outcomes with the identical ratio of the relevant other. Inequity is defined as the perception that person's job input/outcomes ratio is not equal to the inputs/outcomes ratio of the comparison other.

The basic equity proposal assumes that upon feeling inequity, the person is motivated to reduce it. Further the greater the felt inequity, the greater the felt inequity. The greater the motivation to reduce it. Thus equity as motivation force will act as follows:

Individual peresieves inequity	→	Individual experiences tension	→	Individual wants to reduce tension	→	Individual take action

When attempting to reduce inequity, the person may try a number of alternative, some of which are

1. Altering his or her inputs.

2. Altering his or her outcomes.

3. Distorting his or her inputs & outcomes cognitively.

4. Leaving the field.

5. Trying to alter or cognitively distort input & outcomes of the comparison other, or force him or her to leave the field.

6. Changing the comparison other.

$$\frac{0}{1_A} < \frac{0}{1_B} \rightarrow \text{Inequity due to being under rewarded.}$$

$$\frac{0}{1_A} = \frac{0}{1_B} \rightarrow \text{Equity}$$

$$\frac{0}{1_A} > \frac{0}{1_B} \rightarrow \text{Inequity due to being over rewarded.}$$

Where I_A is employee & …….is relevant others. If he perceives his ratio to be equal to that of the relevant other with whom he compares himself a state of equity is said to exist. He perceives his situation as fair-that justice prevails. When he sees the ratio as unequal, he experience equity tension. Where he see himself as under rewarded, the tension creates anger, when over rewarded, the

tension creates guilt. This negative state of tension provide the motivation to do something to correct it.

Implication of the theory

Contributions

1. The theory makes managers realise that equity motive tends to beone of the most powerful motives of the people in the people in the organisation. Therefore, equity concept should be given adequate considerations in designing motivation system. "Equal pay for equal work" principle is based on this theory.

2. Feelings or perceptions in equity are important factor in work setting. Therefore, management should take this aspect into consideration & attempt should be made to develop the perceptual skills of people.

Difficulties – There are practical difficulties in applying equity theory due to many qualitative & cognitive factors involved.

1. It is difficult to assess the perception of people about inputs/outcomes relationships.

2. Equity is a matter of comparison. The relevant question in this context is: "how does a person choose the comparison person." the process by which the person decides whom to compare himself with is not clearly understood yet.

Q.4   Explain Mc Clellend's theory of needs.

Ans.   McClelland's theory of needs was developed by David McClellard & his associates the theory focuses on three needs, defined as follows:

- Need for Achievement (n Ach) is the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed.

- Need for Power (n Pow) is the need to make others behave in a way in which they would not have behaved otherwise.

- Need for affiliation (in Aff) is the desire for friendly & close interpersonal relationships.

He contented that individuals acquire these needs from the culture of a society by learning from the events that they experience, particularly in early life. Once learned, these needs may be regarded as personal predispositions that affect the way people perceive work (and others) situations and that influence their pursuit of certain goals.

Critical Appraisal: This theory has significant implication for managers. If the management can identify the need, it can motivate the people by imparting, training, improving its selection & placement procedure & few organizations

have been willing to invest time & resources in measuring McCulland's concept. The model has the following limitations:

(1) High achievement seekers expect similar results from other & cannot be effective managers.

(2) The use of protective techniques is objectionable.

(3) Achievement motivation training is time consuming the various needs do not motivate workers.

Q.5   **Explain Alderfer's ERG Theory.**

Ans.   **Alderfer's ERG Theory –** It is an extension of Maslow's need Hierarchy & Herberg's two factor theory of motivation particularly the former. He believes that there is a value in categorising needs & that there is a basic distinction between lower-order needs & higher order needs. Based on the impirical evidences, he has found that there seems to be some overlapping between physiological, security and social needs. Also, the lines of demarcation between social, esteem, achievement needs are not clear. Based on these observations, he has categorized the various needs into three categories –

(1) Existence needs – Existence needs include all needs related to physiological & safety aspects of an individual thus, existence need group physiological and safety needs of Maslow into one category as these have similar impact on the behaviour of the individual.

(2) Relatedness needs – Include a person's need to interact with other people, receive public recognition, and feel secure around people.

(3) Growth needs – Consists of a person's self esteem through personal achievement as well as the concept of self actualization presented in Maslow's model.

ERG theory states that an employee's behaviour is motivated by more than one need level. Thus you might try to satisfy your growth needs even though your relatedness needs are not completely satisfied. However, ERG theory applies the satisfaction- progression process described in Maslow's need Hierarchy model, so lower needs tend to dominate aperson's motivation unit they are satisfied. As existence needs are satisfied for example, relatedness needs become more important.

ERG theory includes a frustration- regression process, where by those who are unable to satisfy a higher need become frustrated & regress back to next lower need level. For instance, if existence and relatedness needs have been satisfied, but growth need fulfillment has been blocked, we become frustrated and relatedness needs will again emerge as the dominant source of motivation.

ERG theory has received better research support than Maslow's need hierarchy mainly because human need cluster more neatly around the three categories proposed by Alderfer than the five categories in Maslow's hierarchy. The combined process of satisfaction progression & frustration regression also provide a more complete explanation of why employee needs change over time. However, scholars increasingly doubt that human beings inherently have the same needs hierarchy. Instead, some argue that people prioritize their needs around their personal values. Other suggest that people change their needs priority as they alter their personal and social identity. Specifically employees tend to be driven by growth needs when they see themselves as unique and by relatedness needs when they define themselves in terms of their group memberships.

Comparison of the two theories

Maslow's Needs Hierarchy	Alderfer's ERG Theory
Self-actualization Esteem	Growth
Belonging net	Relatedness
Safety Physiological	Existence

Chapter 4
Learning

Q.1 What is learning, and what are the major theories of learning?

Ans. "Learning is the process by which new behaviours are acquired. It is generally agreed that learning involves changes in behaviours, practising new behaviours, 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 siologist 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 learn to produce to the CS, i.e., Salivation.

A simple surgical procedure permitted Pavlov to measures accurately the amount of saliva secreted by a dog, he noticed a great deal of salivation (UR). On the other hand when he merely rang a bill (neutral stimulus), the dog had no salivation. Thus, it was established that ringingof bell was having no effect on the salivation of dog. In the next step, Pavlov accompanied meat with ringing of the bell. On this, dog salivated, this experiment was repeated several times. After that, Pavlov rang the bell without presenting the meat. This time, the dog salivated to the bell alone which was originally a neutral stimulus having no effect on the behaviour (salivation). In the new situation, the dog had become classically conditioned to salivate (CR) to the sound of the bell (CS). Pavlov went beyond the simple conditioning of his dogs to salivate to the sound of the bell. He next paired a black square with the bell. After a number of trails with this pairing, the dogs salivated to the black square with the bell. The original conditioned stimulus (bell) had become a reinforcing conditioned stimulus for the new CS (black square). This was called second order conditioning, Pavlov could go for third-order conditioning but not more. However, most behavioural scientists agree that human beings are capable of being conditioned higher than the third order.

1. Before conditioning

    Meat (US) Salivation (UR)

    Bell (Neutral stimulus) No response

2. During Conditioning

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

3. After conditioning

    Bell (CS) Salivation (CR)

(2) Cognitive Learning Theory : Cognitive theory of learning is based on te cognitive model of human behaviour. Cognition referes 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 organises 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.

1. Stimulus (S) leads to another stimulus or S-S, rather than the classical S-R or the operant R-S explanations; and

2. Learning consists of a relationship between cognitive environmental cues and expectation, and behaviour is goal directed.

Cognitive theory of learning has a number of implications. Most of the early human relations training programmes were based on this concept. Various training programmes were designed strengthen the relationship between cognitive cues (Organisational, supervisory, & job procedure) & worker expectations (incentive payments for good performance). In the context of the modern OB, this theory has relevance in the field of motivation as it is a cognitive process. Thus, various expectancy theories of motivation derive clues from cognitive theory of learning.

(3) Social Learning theory – Social learning theory combine and integrates both behaviouristic and cognitive concepts and emphasises the integrative nature of cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants. This theory agrees with some parts of behavioural & 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.

Modelling processes – The modeling processes essentially involve observational learning. Learning can take place through imitating others.

According to social learning theory, learning occurs in two steps –

(1) The person observes how others act & then acquires a mental picture of the act & its consequences (reward & punishments).

(2) The person acts out the acquired image & if the consequences are positive, he will tend to do it again. If the consequences are negative, the person will not do it again.

If we take the second step of learning, we find that there is a tie-in with operant conditioning. But because there is cognitive, symbolic representation of the modeled activities instead of discrete response consequence connections in the acquisition of new behaviour by theperson, modeling goes beyond the operant conditioning explanation. A simple example of this phenomenon is that people learn that "fire burns the body" is learned from others & not necessarily by touching the fire.

Modelling Applications – Modelling has some practical applications in developing desirable behaviours in the organisations. People behave not necessarily according to the prescribed mode of behaviour but they engage in the types of behaviour which are demonstrated by their seniors. Here, the role of practice is more important than percept. Luthans & kreitner have suggested a modeling strategy to improve organisational performance which has the following steps.

1. Precisely define the goal or target behaviour that will lead to performance improvement.

2. Select the appropriate model and modelling medium.

3. Make sure the employee is capable of meeting the technical skill requirements of the target behaviour.

4. Structure a favorable learning environment which increases the probability of attention & reproduction.

5. Model the target behaviour & carry out supporting activities, such as role playing clearly demonstrate the positive consequence of the modelled target behaviour.

6. Positively reinforce reproduction of the target behaviour both in training & back on the job.

7. Once the target behaviour is reproduced, maintain & strengthen it, first with a continuous, schedule of reinforcement & later with an intermittent schedule.

Q.2 **What is the concept of reinforcement? Its application in behaviour modification?**

Ans. 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 anenvironmental event that follows a response. In general, motivation is an internal explanation of behaviour whereas reinforcement is an external explanation of behaviour.

Application in Behaviour Modification – Reinforcement is very important for learning because behavioural response is conditioned by reinforcement. Some learning theorists consider that learning does not involve reinforcement. For example, Mendick comments that "all that is necessary for an association to develop between a stimulus and a response is that they occur together frequently. Reward does not seem to be necessary. When reward is used conditioning proceeds for more rapidly and with greater vigour." This suggests that though reinforcement is not necessary for learning, its preserve increases the learning this is so because when a behaviour is reinforced, a person tend to repeat the same response, he was emitting at the time of reward. This increases the probability of that response being emitted when reward is presented again over a period of time, the person may learn to associate the behavioural response with the reward.

Implications of Classical Conditioning – Since higher- order conditioning for learning by human beings is important, its implications must be recognized. For example, higher order conditioning can explain how learning can be transferred to stimuli other than those used in the original conditioning. However, the existence of higher order conditioning shows the difficulty of tracing the exact cense of certain behaviour, as direct cause-effect relationship for a behaviour is difficult to establish. Another implication of higher-order conditioning is that reinforcement can be acquired. A conditioned stimulus becomes reinforcing under higher-order conditioning. This shows the importance of secondary rewards (higher-order – conditioning) in organisations.

Classical conditioning, though offers explanation for learning, fails to explain total behaviour of human beings. Therefore, many psychologists view that classical conditioning, though offers explanation for learning, does not explain total behaviour of human beings. Skinner, particularly feels that classical conditioning explains only respondent's reflective behaviour. People's behaviour is emitted rather than elicited and it is voluntary rather reflective. The behaviour affects, or operates on the environment. This type of behaviour is learned through operantconditioning.

Operant Conditioning – It argues that behaviour is a function of its consequences. People learn to behave to get something they want or to avoid

something they don't want. Operant behaviour means voluntary or learned behaviour in contrast to reflexive or unlearned behaviour. The tendency to repeat such behaviour is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behaviour. Therefore, reinforcement strengths a behaviour and increases the likelihood that it will be repeated.

B.F. Skinner, the Harvard psychologists argued that creating pleasing consequences to follow specific forms of behaviour would increase the frequency of behaviour. He demonstrated that people will most likely engage in desired behaviours if they are positively reinforced for doing so, that reward due most effective if they immediately follow the desired response; & that behaviour that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated. The concept of operant conditioning was part of skinner's broader concept of behaviorism, which argues that behaviour follows stimuli in a relatively unthinking manner. People learn to associate stimulus and response, but their conscious awareness of this association is irrelevant.

Cognitive Learning Theory – This theory is based on the cognitive model of human behaviour. This model draws heavily from the work done by Tolman the cognitive approach emphasise the positive and free will aspects of human behaviour. Cognition refers to an individual's ideas, thoughts, knowledge, interpretations and understanding about himself & his environment.

Basic Lows of Learning

Thorndikes laws of learning are the outgrowth of his experiments with animals. For his experiments with cats thorndike used puzzle boxes with various forms of catches for opening the doors. In one typical instance, a string was attached to the bolt. Biting or clawing it opened the door. A hungry cat was shut in such a barred wooden box and a dish of food was placed outside. To get the food the cat had to pull a wire loop that opened a door. At first the cat showed trial and error behavior. It clawed, bit and tried to reach through the bars. In its hit or miss struggle, the cat accidentally pulled the loop and got to the food. In successive trials fewer random movements were made, until finally the cat went straight to the loop. Similar results were obtained from other experiments. This is 'trial-end-error method' of learning. According to Thorndike, all learning consists in trials and errors. There is gradual elimination of wrong trials or responses and final bond is established with the right successful response. On the basis of these experiments Thorndike has propounded his famous law's of learning. The notable among those are the law of effect, the law of exercise and the law of readiness. This form of trial-and-error is also prevalent in human learning. Of all the eight laws of learning the law of effect is of the greatest importance in education.

Law of effect - In his law of effect, Thorndike states, 'when a modifiable connection between a situation and a response is made and accompanied or

followed by satisfying state of affairs, that connection's strength is increased ; when made and accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs, its strength is decreased." A learning bond is strengthened or weakened according as satisfaction or annoyance attends its performance.

The law of effect is universal in application in human learning. Original satisfies and annoyers for man are many in number. We often use reward and punishments in our class room management. This procedure is an application of the law of effect. Rewards are satisfying and punishments are annoying. Praise is satisfying and blame is annoying. Very often these are used to strengthen or weaken a modifiable bond.

Criticism-Thorndike's law of effect has been adversely criticized by many. Some are of the opinion that animals learn by self efforts. In that case knowledge of the results become secondary seldom controls the learning situation. Tolman has found afterwards that learning takes place even though food is not placed outside the puzzle box.

"Effect is considered to be a state in the learning situation. Many of our unpleasant experiences are retained in memory. This goes against the law of effect. Many psychologists regard the law effect as of secondary importance. According to one view, the learner acquires new responses primarily by doing. Rewards are regarded as useful because they end the learner's search and make repetition of the successful response more probable. The fact in this case is that, what is learned is what is associated, not what is rewarded. According to another view, the law of effect is unnecessary because latent learning shows that behaviour modification can take place without reward. Learning is far more organized, insightful and cognitive than is implied by Thorndike's law of effect.

Conclusion:- Inspite of all the criticism Thorndike's law of effect has its applicability in education. We prescribe specially designed graded text books for our pupils. While teaching we proceed from the known to the unknown andfrom to the simple to the complex. Lessons are presented with the help of various teaching aids. All these are done to minimize the difficulties of pupils and to make their learning experience satisfying and pleasurable. Modern developments in educational practice like the kindergarten method. Dalton plan are all based on the fact that the child learns best when his learning is accompanied or followed by satisfying state of affairs. The subject matter of study should be within the level of pupil's comprehension. This will initiate their self efforts. Joy in learning by doing will help the pupils. Subject matter should be meaningful and life centric. We should help the pupils. At the same time we should appreciate and praise them. Our praise and appreciation will help the pupils to learn.

Law of Exercise

Introduction : Learning is the modi9ficaiton of behaviour through expedience and training. The urge for modifying behaviour is two fold in nature. The changing environment around us sometimes prompts us to modify our behaviour, to enable us to adjest with the environment. Sometimes, change of behaviour results from some inner urges. Whatever may be the force, external or internal, which impels us to modify our behaviour, behavioural changes resulting from past experience are called learning. It is a complex mental process. Behaviours connected with learning situations are of diverse forms. This has, prompted the origin of various theories on learning. Thorndike's connectionism is an associationistic theory on learning.

Thorndike's views - according to Thorndike, learning is the establishment of bond between a stimulus and response. Thorndike conducted experiments on animal learning. Although carried out with animal subjects, his expermetns have broad and important implications for humanlearning. His fundamental laws of learning are still important in modern pedagogical theory. The trial and error method is employed in the simplest form of learning. A hungry cat was put in a barred wooden box and food was placed outside. To get the food, the cat had to turn a button, that opened the door. The cat at first showed trial and error behaviour. In its hit-or-miss struggle, the cat accidentally struck the button and got to the food. In each subsequent trials fewer fandom movements were made, until finally the cat went straight to the button. This is trial and error method of learning. On the basis of these experiments Thorndike has famous laws of learning.

His major laws of learning are the law of effect the law of exercise and the law of readiness thorndike's second major law of learning is the law of exercise. This law has parts-use and disuse. When a modifiable connection is made between a situation and a response, that connection's strength is, other things being equal, increased. This is the law of use. When a modifiable connection is not made between a situation and response over a length of time, that connection's strength is decreased. This a the law of disuse. Other things being equal, repeated exercise or use of a learning bond increases its strength. While want of exercise or disuse decreases its strength. Numerous examples of the law of use in human learning at once come to mind. Learning to swim, to ride a bicycle, to play tennis or to use a typewriter consists in getting the right movements in their proper sequence first, and then rehearsing them until they run on rapidly, smoothly and accurately. Thorndike has aimed at the effects of learning by the terms "other things being equal".

According to this law repeated exercise or use of a learning bond increases its strength. Want of exercise decreases its strength. The law of exercise has been utilized in schools. A child is taught a process of working out sums. He then works out a large number of sums from the exercises in the book. Practice and

drills in the class room are the applications of this law. The law of exercise comes to a great help in the learning of skill.

Thorndike's formulation of the law of exercise has been criticized by many as being too mechanical. It has not given adequate consideration to other factors like motives or interests. A man looks at is watch many times a day, but cannot tell(when asked) whether the numerals on the watch face are Roman of English. Many people cannot report accurately the colour or size of a paper rupee. Students do not acquire useful skills by sheer mechanical repetition. The effect of repetition must by satisfying.

So, learning by mechanical repetition should be discouraged. The subject matter should be meaningful. Effects of repeated exercises to learn should be satisfying. Spirit of learning by doing should be imbibed in the pupils. This law is not adequate to explain higher forms of learning, yet this has larger field of applicability and efficacy in many cases.

Law Readiness

Thorndike's third law is related to this first one. He has explained how pleasure, at the time of learning, is derived at the time of learning. He has also said result in the domain of education depends on learning readiness. By readiness, he stresses on biological readiness here. According to him , connection between a stimulus and response is made through never, upon which depends result of learning. He has tried to establish that a person gets pleasure if any nerve which is ready to carry a response, is allowed to do so. It, not allowed the experience of the person is just the opposite. Thorndike, later on, stresses the importance of the psycho-physical preparation. So to help the students preparation is first. The teacher, as soon as he enters in to the class room should not deal with his subject-matter to be taught. He should rather discuss about relevant points first, then proceed towards his top. So such an environment be created so that the students feel interested to learn to new topic. This preparation will help for the presentation of the subject matter. This is Thorndikes law of readiness, which is at present applied in class-room. Lesson-plant prepared by us for teaching in the class-room is called preparation. This is based on Thorndike's law of readiness.

But it cannot be said Thorndike's law are entirely flawless. Psychologists have criticized it from different angles by saying that some of these laws can explain correctly the process of learning correctly. But, in spite of that these laws are applied in the class-teachings of almost all the countries of the world ad they are practicable. They help us to control the conduct of the students in the class-room.

Chapter 5
Group Dynamics

Q.1 **What are the different theories of group formation?**

Ans. There are two theories of group formation.

(1) The five-stage model of group development.

(2) Punctuated Equilibrium Model of group.

(1) The Five-stage model of group development – Groups generally pass through a standardised sequence of their evolution. This sequence is known as Five stage model of group development. These are –

1. Forming – is characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure & leadership. At this stage people share personal information, start to accept each others & begin to turn their attention towards the group tasks members "Test the waters" to determine what types of behaviours are acceptable.

2. Storming – The storming stage is one of intragroup conflict members accept the existence of the group, but there is resistance to the constraints that the group imposes on individuality. Furthermore, there is conflict over who will control the group. When this stage is complete, there will be a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership within the group.

3. Norming – The third stage is one in which close relationships develop & the group demonstrates cohesiveness. There is now a strong sense of group identity & canaraderies. This stage is complete when the group structure solidifies & the group has assimilated a common set of expectations of what defines correct member behaviour.

4. Performing – When group members interact among themselves on the basis of norms that have emerged in the group, they learn to handle complex problems that come before the group. Functional roles are performed & exchanged as needed & tasks are accomplished efficiently.

5. Adjourning – Sooner or later, each group has to be adjourned, even the most successful groups as they have completed their mission. The adjournment phase takes place in the case of those groups which are created for some special purposes like task force, committee, etc. other types of groups like a department in an organisation run on the basis of some permanency though there may be changes in group members. After the adjournment, intense social relationship among members comes to an end. Response of group members vary in this stage. Some are upbeat, basking in the group's accomplishments. Other may be

depressed over the loss of camaradevic & friendship gained during the work group's life.
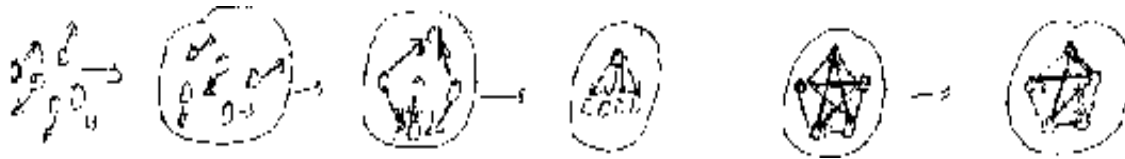
Many interpreters of the five-stage model have assumed that a group becomes more effective as it progress as through the first four stages. Although this assumption may be generally true, what makes a group effective is more complex than this model acknowledges. Under some conditions, high levels of conflict may be conducive to high group performance so we might expect to find situations in which groups in stage II out performs those in stage III or IV. Similarly, groups do not always proceed clearly from one stage to the next. Sometimes, in fact, several stages go on simultaneously, as when groups are storming & performing at the same time. Groups even occasionally regress to previous stages therefore, even the strongest proponents of the model do not assume that all groups follow its five stage process precisely or that stage IV is always the most preferable.

Another problem with the five stage model, in teems of understandingwork related behaviour, is that it ignores organisational context.

(2) Punctuated Equilibrium Model of Group – While five-stage model of group development is applicable for most of the groups, however some types of groups, particularly temporary groups with certain deadline of work performance, do not seem to follow this model they have their unique sequencing of actions. This patterns of sequencing of actions is known as punctuated equilibrium model of group.
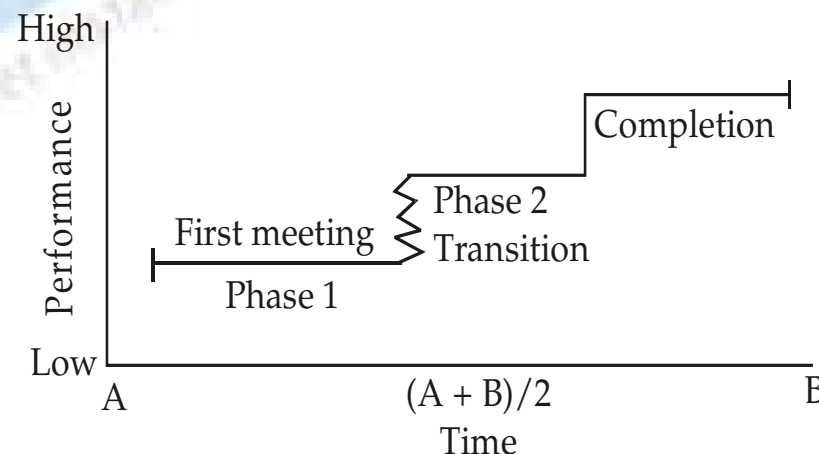
1. First Meeting – The first meeting of group members sets the group's direction. A framework of behavioural patterns & assumptions through which the group will approach its task emerges in this first meeting. Once set, the group direction becomes fixed & is unlikely be reexamined throughout the first half of the group's life. This period is characterized by inertia, that is, the group tends to stand still or become locked into a fixed course of action. Even if it gains new insights that challenge initial patterns & assumptions, the group is incapable of working on these new insights in the phase I. obviously, performance of the group tends to be low.

2. Transition – At the end of first phase which takes almost half of allotted time of project completion, transition phase begins which is characterised by a concentrated burst of activities, dropping even old patterns, & adopting new perspectives. In this phase, the group executives plans developed during this period.

3. Completion – Completion is the final phase of group actions. During this period, there is a final burst of activity that leads to completion of the work assigned to the group.

Thus, punctuated equilibrium model characteristics groups as exhibiting long period of inertia interspersed with brief revolutionary changes triggered primarily by their members awareness of time deadlines. Therefore, this model of group development does not apply to all types of groups but its application is limited to only temporary groups which work under time-constrained completion deadines.

Q.2 **What do you mean by group cohesiveness? Explain the relationship between group cohesiveness & group productivity? What are the factors which affect group cohesiveness?**

Ans. **Group cohesiveness** means the degree of attachment of the members to their group. If group cohesiveness is high, the interaction between members of the group is high & the degree of agreement in group opinion is high.

Relationship between group cohesiveness & group productivity

	High	Low
High Performance norms	High productivity	Moderate productivity
Low	Low productivity	Moderate to low productivity
	High	Low

Group cohesiveness, taken together with group norms for productivity, affects productivity. This relationship was established by Howthorne experiments long back. During this experiment, it was found that the workers tended to set their own norms of production for the group as a whole, & because of group cohesiveness, they used to stick those norms. Group cohesiveness & productivity show two type of characteristics.

1. The productivity of members of a cohesive group tends to be more uniform. This is so because high group cohesiveness promotes high control over the level of production of the individual members and this reduces variation among those members.

2. In the group with low cohesiveness, productivity tends to show wide variation among members reflecting that the group has lower social control over its members.

There may be a perception that highly cohesive group produces better results. However, this relationship is much more complex than what it appears to be, because the relationship is moderated by the degree to which the group's attitudes align with its own goals or those of the organisation of which it is a part. Thus, the relationship of cohesiveness & productivity of the group depends on the alignment of the group's attitude towards the organisational goals.

From the diagram, we may see that for high productivity, both group cohesiveness and performance norms should be high. If the performance norms are low, the group's productivity will be low in spite of high group cohesiveness. Even in the case of high performance norms, less cohesive group may produce more as compared to highly cohesive group because of lower impact of group on its individual members.

The above relationship between group cohesiveness, group norms & productivity has important implications for management. If management simply focuses its attention to have better cohesive groups, it may not be able to achieve high productivity unless it focuses its attention on group norms and their alignment with organisational goals.

Factors affecting group cohesiveness –

1. Degree of dependency on the group – The more dependent a person is on a group for some result or effect, the greater will be the group's attractiveness & consequently greater is its cohesiveness. It has been suggested that the greater the number of individual needs a group can or does satisfy, the greater is its attractiveness & its cohesiveness.

2. Size – Other things being equal, size has an inverse relationship with group cohesiveness. This is because group cohesiveness increases through interaction among group members. Thus, larger a group becomes the lesser opportunity exists for interaction among the members.

3. Homogeneity & stable membership – Groups whose members have different interests & backgrounds are often less effective in promoting their interests. Similarly, stable relationships among members enhancegroup cohesiveness. This is so because the relationships have to persist over a period of time to permit people to know one another to develop common understanding of shared goals & values.

4. Location of the group – Location of the group affects group cohesion in two ways –

1. If the group members are located *close* to each other, they interact themselves frequently & freely. Therefore, group cohesion would be high.

2. If the group is *isolated* from other groups, cohesion is high. Where the line dividing between one group & other groups does not exist, cohesion is not easy to achieve because a chain of interactions develop among members of various groups.

5. Group Status – A group with high status with success stories is more attractive to its members. Therefore, they show solidarity among themselves & group cohesion tends to be high. As against this, a group which is denounced by all tends to have less cohesion.

6. Group Leadership – The qualities of the group leader determine the extent to which the group members bind themselves with the group. If the leader is dynamic & energetic, he motivates the group members to work with 2 cal for the attachment of common goals. He tries to build & maintain high group loyalty among members.

7. Outside Pressures – Members of a group tend to herd together to face challenges from outside pressures. When there are pressures from outside, group members, tend to minimise their personal differences in order to fight the common enemy. However, it may also happen that the group is unable to bear the excessive pressures & group cohesiveness cannot be achieved to withstand such pressures.

8. Competition – Type of competition affects the group cohesiveness. Two classes of competition have different types of effects on group cohesion. These are intra group competition, i.e., among the group members & intergroup competition, i.e., competition as a whole. Competition between members of the group is usually destructive to group cohesiveness. As against this, intergroup competition brings cohesiveness in the group. Success resulting from intergroup competition increases cohesion further. However, losers in intergroup competition usually experience tension & disruptive forces which upset relationships. If the group continues after defect, a stabilisation will return near the former level.

If the above factors are positive, they may lead to higher group cohesiveness their negative features reduce group cohesiveness. In particular, French has identified three disruptive forces on group cohesion.

1. Cohesiveness declines as the members or subgroups within the group tend to use different methods to accomplish the same goals. The "how" of accomplishment of the goals is the disruptive factor here.

2. Differences regarding the goal or goals of the group can have an adverse effect on cohesiveness. Differences of this nature, however, are not as disruptive as differences about methods to achieve a single recognised goal.

3. If the goals of the individual members of group are in conflict, the cohesion of the group is lessened.

Q.3   What do you mean by group norms? How are group norms enforced?

Ans.   Norms mean acceptable standards of behaviour within a group that are shared by the group's members. Norms tell members what they ought & ought not to do under certain circumstances from an individual's standpoint, they tell what is expected of you in certain situations when agreed to & accepted by the group, norms act as a means of influencing the behaviour of group members with a minimum of external controls. Different group, communities, & societies have different norms, but they all have them.

Norms can cover virtually any aspect of group behaviour. Probably the most common group norms is a "performance norm". Work groups typically provide their members with explicit cues to how hard they should work, how to get the job done, what their level of outputs should be, what level of tardiness is appropriate. These norms are extremely powerful in affecting an individual employee's performance. They are capable of significantly modifying a performance prediction that wasbased solely on the employee's ability & level of personal motivation. Other types include "appearance norms", "social arrangement norms" & resource allocation norms".

Enforcing Group Norms – Group norms may vary from a very simple rule to very simple rule to very complex set of prescriptions & prohibitions. Group leaders can devise certain actions for the adherence to group norms, particularly those norms which are critical to the group. These actions may be of the following types:

1. Education – Adherence to group norms can be increased through educating the group members about how the group norms contribute to the achievement of group goals. They may be educated & persuaded to give up their gains in favour of group gains. Increasing each members involvement in the group's activities also helps in adherence to groups norms.

2. Surveillance – Surveillance of adherence of group norms provides clue to measure the degree of which group members adhere to norms. Such a clue helps managers to devise suitable actions for ensuring conformity to norms. If the deviation to norms cannot be detected directly some other means can be developed to measure this.

3. Warning- Deviant members can be warned of the consequences of non-adherence to group norms. Such a warning may induce the deviant members to reappraise the profit or loss from adherence or non adherence to group norms.

4. Sanction – This is the stage of taking actions against deviant members. However, sanctions have some negative consequences therefore they should be used quite judiciously. Sanctions should be used only if means of persuading deviant members are exhausted.

Q. 4 How role requirements change in different situations?

Ans. A role is a set of expected behaviour patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a second unit. The understanding of role behaviour would be tramatically simplified if each of us choose one role & "played it out" regularly & consistently. We are required to play a number of diverse roles, both on & off our jobs. In every such form of position, behaviours expected from him may be different. Thus there are certain actual behaviours & they create role identify. There are two elements that define this role identity: role perception & role expectations.

1. Role perception – An individual is expected to behave according to his own perception in the group or organisation. The person forms this perception on the basis of certain stimuli like job description, clue provided in training programmes, role narration by peers & so on. However, this perception may or may not be correct. In order to correct this perception, analysis or role expectations is required.

2. Role expectations- Role expectations are defined as how others believe one should behave in a given situation. Combining both role perception & role expectations, actual role prescription for an individual, say an employee, proceeds in the following way:

1. Initial perception of employee's own role.

2. Manager's expectations from employee based on manage – cis perception of employee's role.

3. Interaction of two sets of perception leading to develop employee's perception of the employee's role as seen by the manager.

4. Prescription of actual role of the employee.

This process takes place in the case of group members too & each member becomes clear what role one is required to perform to achieve group objectives.

Unless roles are clearified & agreed upon by group members, conflicts will inevitably arise.

Q.5 **What are dynamics of informal groups?**

Ans. **Meaning of Informal group –** It refers to natural groupings of people in the work situation.

Causes of Informal Organisation – Informal organisations is inevitable along with formal one and to obtain a total picture of any organisation one must consider the informal organisation too. The informal organisation is created because formal organisations is not complete from the participants point of view. In particular, following factors are responsible for the creation informal organisation with the formal one:

1. Desire to socialise with others – Personnel like to socialise in order to overcome the extreme specialisation of the work place as well as psychological fatigue & bored of the job because it allows to satisfy their social needs on the job. Activity assigned by formal lines of authority, perhaps, does not attract the entire attention or satisfy all the needs of the employees & they tend to activate relationships other than those formally specified in organisational settings. Physical nearness may stimulate interaction among employees placed together in an organisation. There the reason for informal organisation is social. Keith Davis has observed that along with men's technical imperative, there is also a social imperative to work together. Man is a social being. He wants to associate with others rather to work in isolated loneliness. Out of this basic drive of man, the informal organisation arises. Thus it can be said that whereas the formal organisation is rationally created for technological purposes, the informal organisations naturally arises from man's quest for social satisfaction.

2. Job specialization – Personnel concentrate on a single or a few simple tasks that leads to boredom on the job. Many of these task are performed in conjunction with some type of specialised machinery. Greater the degree of specialization, greater is the degree of routine work & greater is the degree of boredom. Consequently, greater is the degree of informal organisation. Job specialisation can create serious morale & motivational problems. Employees have little sense of accomplishment, autonomy, or identification with work. Their fragmented jobs yield both monotony & drudery. Personnel experience fatigue, characterised by feeling of meaninglessness, & are unable to related their job with final output. In such a situation, many of their higher order needs are not satisfied and they have to resort to informal interaction as an outlet for releasing such tension.

3. Escape from work environment – Personnel tend to seek escape from their jobs when their capabilities exceed than those required by the jobs. The greater

the disparity between the two. Greater is the tendency to escape from the work environment because enough time remains available for informal interaction.

4. Hierarchial control & communications – One of the inevitable characteristics of modern large organisations is the existence of hierarchy creating superior subordinate relationships & separating decision makers & decision implementers. In such hierarchical structure, there is a natural tendency of exercise of control by superiors. In a rigid control, subordinates, being unable to thwart such control, try to find the avenue where there is no such control. Moreover, if the communication downward does not carry message meaningful from the point of subordinates, they resort to seek such information from informal sources. Greater the degree of bottleneck in hierarchial communication, greater is the chance for horizontal and informal communication.

Significance of Informal Organisation – Informal organisations are quite significant because these affect the working of an organisation & its members. However, these effects produce both functional & dys functional consequences. On the one hand, informal organisations benefit both their members & the organisations as a whole, on the other, they create lot of problems in the smooth functioning of the organisation therefore, in analysing the role of informal organisations both these aspects should be considered.

Functional Aspects of informal Organisation –

Informal organisations exist because they perform certain desired functions for their members. Dubin has identified four functions of informal organisations.

(1) Informal organisations are natural units where the actual operations for getting things done are determined.

(2) They provide simultaneously the climate for experiments with new methods of work.

(3) They establish & maintain norms of behaviour for members.

(4) They provide each member with the sympathetic type of human consideration which support his self-image & his personal integrity.

Chester Barnard has identified three important functions:

(1) Means of communication, establishing norms of conduct between super subordinates & subordinates.

(2) Maintenance of cohesiveness in formal organisation by regulating the willingness to serve & the stability of objective authority.

(3) The maintenance of personal integrity or self respect & independence.

Philip Setznick emphasises modifying function of informal organisations & says that in every organisation the goals are modified, abandoned, deflected or elaborated by processes within it. These organisational processes are modified by informal organisation.