

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

Coimbatore - 641021.

(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

M.Com (2017 - 2019)

LECTURE PLAN

Sub Code: 17CMP106

Sub Name: Organization Behaviour

UNIT – I

S No.	Lecture Duration (Period)	TOPICS TO BE COVERED	SUPPORT MATERIAL
1	1	Organizational Behaviour <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction 	T1:34,T1:45
2	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meaning • definition 	W1,T1:67
3	1	Nature	W1
4	1	Scope of Organizational Behaviour	W2
5	1	Importance of Organizational Behavior	W1
6	1	Fundamental Aspects Of Organizational Behavior	W1
7	1	Disciplines contributing to Organizational Behavior	R1:2829
8	1	Role of Organizational Behavior	W1
9	1	Foundations of Organizational Behavior	R1:712
10	1	Implications of Hawathorne Experiments	R1: 714
11	1	Conclusion of Hawathorne Experiments	R1:716
12	1	Recapitulation	
		Important Questions Discussion	
		Total No .Of Hours	12

UNIT – II

S No.	Lecture Duration (Period)	TOPICS TO BE COVERED	SUPPORT MATERIAL
1	1	Individual Difference <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Introduction	W1
2	1	Nature	W1
3	1	Causes	W1
4	1	Models of Man	R1:45-60
5	1	Perception introduction	R1 :50- 52
6	1	Perceptual Process	R1:53-60
7	1	Factors affecting perception	R1: 65-69
8	1	Perceptual Selectivity	R1: 72-74
9	1	Distortion in Perception	W1
10	1	Personality	W2
11	1	Determinants of Personality	W2
12	1	Recapitulation	
		Important Questions Discussion	
		Total No .Of Hours	12

UNIT – III

S No.	Lecture Duration (Period)	TOPICS TO BE COVERED	SUPPORT MATERIAL
1	1	Attitude <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Introduction	T1:144-145
2	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Meaning, Definition, Concepts	R1:193-196
3	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Theories of Attitude Formation	T1:145-146
4	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Factors in Attitude Formations	T1: 200-201
5	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Attitude Change.	T1: 203-204
6	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Stress – introduction	T1:211
7	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Stress meaning	T1:212
8	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Causes of Stress	T1:213-215
9	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Effects of Stress	T1:215-216
10	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Stress Coping Strategies	T2:227-247
11	1	– Individual and Organizational;	W2
12	1	Recapitulation	
		Total No .Of Hours	12

UNIT – IV

S No.	Lecture Duration (Period)	TOPICS TO BE COVERED	SUPPORT MATERIAL
1	1	Group Dynamics introduction	T2:321-326
2	1	Concepts	T2: 322-324
3	1	Features of Group	T2: 324-326
4	1	Types of Groups – Formal and Informal Groups	T2: 325-330
5	1	Causes of Informal Organizations	T2:331-338
6	1	Factors affecting informal organization	T1:343-349
7	1	Types of Industrial Organization	T2:175-185
8	1	Effects of Informal Organization	T1:358-372
9	1	Group Cohesiveness	R1:411-414
10	1	Important factors of group cohesiveness	R1:415 – 423
11	1	Advantages and disadvantages	R1: 424-430
12	1	Recapitulation	
		Important Questions Discussion	
		Total No .Of Hours	12

UNIT – V

S No.	Lecture Duration (Period)	TOPICS TO BE COVERED	SUPPORT MATERIAL
1	1	Organizational Conflicts	W1
2	1	Functional and Dysfunctional Aspects of Conflicts	W2
3	1	Role Conflicts	T1:497-500
4	1	Types of role conflict	T1: 501-505
5	1	Interpersonal Conflict	T1:512-520
6	1	Characteristics of Conflict	T1: 521-524
7	1	Conflict Management	T1:525-535
8	1	Conflict Management Techniques	W1
9	1	Recapitulation	
10	1	Important Questions Discussion	
11	1	Previous ESE Question Paper Discussions	
12	1	Previous ESE Question Paper Discussions	
Total No .Of Hours			12

Text Book

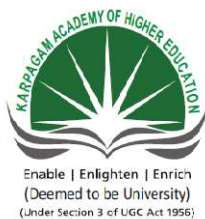
1. Aswathappa, K. (2012). *Organizational Behaviour*. Mumbai, Himalaya Publishing House.

References

2. Steven Mc Shane (2014). *Organizational Behaviour*. New Delhi, Tata Mc Graw Hill Publishing Company Limited.
3. Stephen Robbins (2013). *Organizational Behaviour*. New Delhi, Prentice Hall of India Private Limited.

Website References

- W1: <http://www.NPTL.com>
- W2: <http://www.MBANOTES.EDU.IN>



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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

First Internal Test Answer Key

PART –A (20*1=20 Marks)

Multiple choice Questions

1. Human Relations Theory
2. The building
3. Motivation
4. Professor Elton Mayo
5. Group
6. Behaviour
7. Individual, group, organisation, environment
8. Perception
9. Perception
10. 1924-1927
11. 1927-19328
12. 1928-1930
13. 1931-1932
14. It is important to watch people to make them more productive
15. Promotion
16. Interpersonal level
17. Individual level
18. Group level
19. Intergroup level
20. Communication .

PART –B (3*2=6 Marks)

21. Attitude

Attitude is the abstract learnt reaction or say response of a person's entire cognitive process over a time span.

22. Perception

Perception is an intellectual process of transforming sensory stimuli into meaningful information. It is the process of interpreting something that we see or hear in our mind and use it later to judge and give a verdict on a situation, person, group, etc.

23. Individual Difference

Individual differences stand for the variation or deviations among individuals in regard to a single characteristic or number of characteristics.

PART –C (3*8=24 Marks)

24.a.Role of Organisational Behavior

Understanding Human Behavior:

Organisations are people and without people there would be no organisations. If the managers are to understand the organisations in which they work, they must first understand the people who make up the organisations. Organisational behaviour is the tool, which helps the managers in understanding human behaviour in all the directions in which the human beings interact.

(i) Individual Behaviour:

(ii) Interpersonal Behaviour:

(iii) Group Behaviour:

(iv) Inter Group Behaviour:

. Influencing the Human Behavior:

objectives. Managers can influence the behaviour through control and direction.

1. Leadership:

2. Motivation:

3. Communication:

4. Organisational Change and Development:

5. Organisational Climate:

b. Disciplines Contributing to the Organization Behavior Field

There are some important disciplines to the organizational behavior field which developed it extensively. Due to an increase in organizational complexity, various types of knowledge are required and help many ways.

1. Psychology.
2. Sociology.
3. Social Psychology.
4. Economics.
5. Anthropology.
6. Political Sciences.

25. a . The implications of Hawthorne experiment.

The Hawthorne studies have been described as the most important social science experiment ever conducted in an industrial setting, yet the studies were not without their critics. It started on a good basis by trying to define the influence of the social, physical and psychological environment on the industrial workers. This breakthrough would have been of a great importance if the investigators have been more careful about the weak points they did. They should have tried to work on a single measurement as the total output of the workers in order to be more specific in their claims and they should not have limited their studies to a small group on the contrary they would have enlarge the groups and diversify them in order to be able to generalize their conclusions and achieve a great scientific value. If these critics were taken into consideration in the first place, Hawthorne studies would have been applicable at all times and taken as a reference concerning the relationships between the social, physical, psychological environment and workers' productivity.

b. Determinants of personality.

1. Heredity : Human behaviour is partly affected by heredity. The parent's qualities are passed on to the children through the molecular structure of genes located in the chromosomes. In our day to day life, so many times we use the term "Like father like son" as "Like Mother like daughter".

2. Environment : All personality traits are not determined by heredity. Environment also plays a very important role in the development of personality of a person. Environment comprises of culture, family, social and situational factors.

(a) **Culture :** Culture is sum total of learned believes, values and customs. Cultural factors

(b) **Family :** Families influence the behaviour of a person especially in the early stages. Thenature of such influence will depend upon the following factors :

(i) Socio-economic level of the family

(ii) Family size

(iii) Birth order

26. a. Models of Individual Behavior in an Organization

1. Rational Economic Man:

From the organisational perspective, managers had, for a long time, viewed their employees as rational beings who are primarily motivated by money. They took the 'ECONOMIC MAN' and 'RATIONAL MAN' approach to understand and predict the human behaviour. This model is based on classical organisation theory.

2. Social Man:

With the passage of time, the advocates of human relations school recognized that there is a lot more to human behaviour than just being social man economic and rational. Advocates of this school considered the worker as a social man. They recognized that man is a part of the social group he is influenced by the social forces and seeks satisfaction of the needs which are related to the maintenance of his social relationships. Eltan Mayo conceived the concept of the social man when he carried out Hawthorne studies during 1927-32.

3. Organisational Man:

Organisation man is an extension of social man. The concept of organisation man was introduced by William Whyte. He believed that it is very important for a person to be loyal to the organisation and cooperative with the fellow workers. Any person who believes in this value system and acts in this way is an organisation man. The basis of this concept is and that every individual should sacrifice his individuality for the sake of the group and the organisation.

4. The Self Actuating Man:

The concept of self actuating man is a further extension of social man and the organisation man models. The social man concept assumes that the formation of social groups is the basis of satisfaction for the individuals. But as against this the self actuating man assumes that man's inherent need is to use his capabilities and skills in such a way that he should have the satisfaction of creating certain things. The earlier models do not allow him to satisfy his self actuating needs.

5. Complex Man:

Complex man presents the real picture of human picture of human behavior. All the previous models make very simplistic assumptions about people and their behaviour.

b.Causes Of Individual Differences

The followings are the main causes of individual differences:

1. Hereditary (Nature)

Individuals have various endowments, abilities, and capacities provided by hereditary. Which decide the path of progress and development of an individual.

1. Hereditary also put limits upon individuals' **growth and development** in various dimensions.
2. Hereditary also contributes to sex, intelligence, and other specific abilities.

2. Environment (Nurture)

Environment also plays key role in individual differences. No person from birth to death gets the same environment. Individual differences occur on the basis of stimulation received by individual from his or her internal and external environment. This may include family set up, peer group, economic statues, education etc.



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
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Coimbatore – 21
(For the candidates admitted from 2016 onwards)
DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE (CA)

SUBJECT : ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOUR

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP105

CLASS : I M.COM

SECOND INTERNAL TEST ANSWER KEY

PART –A

1. Competition as a whole
2. Destruct
3. Long term
4. Dignity and Sincerity
5. A means to reduce employee stress
6. The success of an organization
7. intergroup conflict
8. Conflict
9. The first and second choices
10. Goal achieving behaviors
11. Input output relation
12. a means to reduce employee stress
13. Motivational style and Situational favorableness
14. Autocratic
15. Edwin Locke
16. Long term proposition
17. Organizational effectiveness
18. Situational approach
19. The success of an organization
20. Concern for people and production

PART –B (3*2=6 Marks)

21. Stress.

Stress is defined in terms of how it impacts physical and psychological health; it includes mental, physical, and emotional strain. Stress occurs when a demand exceeds an individual's coping ability and disrupts his or her psychological equilibrium.

22. Organization

It is a group of people who are collected to work for a common goal with collective efforts. Organization works through two concepts i.e coordination and delegation among its group members. Delegation is necessary to allocate group members with equal work according to their capability, and coordination is required to achieve organizational goal with precision.

23. Differentiate formal & Informal groups.

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	FORMAL GROUP	INFORMAL GROUP
Meaning	Groups created by the organization, for the purpose of accomplishing a specific task are known as Formal Groups.	Groups created by the employees themselves, for their own sake are known as Informal Groups.
Formation	Deliberately	Voluntarily
Size	Large	Comparatively small.
Life	Depends on the type of group.	Depends on the members.
Structure	Well Defined	Ill Defined
Importance is given to	Position	Person
Relationship	Professional	Personal

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	FORMAL GROUP	INFORMAL GROUP
Communication	Moves in a defined direction.	Stretches in all the directions.

PART –C (3*8=24 Marks)

24. a Causes of Stress

There may be numerous conditions in which people may feel stress. Conditions that tend, like death of near one, usually stressors combine to press an individual in a variety of ways until stress develops. The various stressors can be grouped into four categories: individual, group, organizational, and extra organizational. Within each category, there may be several stressors. Through, stressors have been classified into these categories, all eventually get down to the individual level and put stress on stress on individuals

b. Role Conflict

Role conflict occurs when employees experience incompatible work demands. It is a widely studied variable in the occupational stress literature, where it is considered to be a stressor. A stressor is any part of the work environment that requires an adaptive response from employees and has the capacity to produce poor health. In addition to role conflict, other stressors include role ambiguity (i.e., the extent to which one's role requirements are unclear), mistreatment at work, and unreasonable workload. The negative health outcomes produced by stressors, such as anxiety, depression, and physical symptoms, are called strains. Role conflict is associated with a number of strains.

25. a. The functions of conflict

The conflict which supports the goals of a group and also improves its performance is known as a functional or a positive conflict. The functional conflict is helpful in the achievement of the goals of a group as it aids in

b. Attitude

An attitude is generally defined as the way a person responds to his or her environment, either positively or negatively.

- **Formation/Sources of Attitudes:**

Attitudes refer to the feelings and beliefs of "individuals or groups of individuals. But the question is how these feelings and beliefs developed? The point which has been stressed by many people is that attitudes are acquired, but not inherited. A person acquires these attitudes from several sources.

26. a. Causes of Informal Organization.

1. Companionship
2. Sense of Identification
3. Source of Information
4. Job Satisfaction
5. Protection of Members
6. Outlet for Frustration
7. Perpetuation of Cultural Values
8. Generation of New Ideas

b .Write a short note on group cohesiveness.

Group cohesiveness can be defined as a group session where in which; group of people connects them with the help of similar interest and program. Moreover, it is a process where a group of people for a group or a team consider their similar interest and ability.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE**SUBJECT : Organizational Behavior****SEMESTER : I****SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106****CLASS : I M.COM****Unit – I**

Organizational Behaviour – Nature – Disciplines contributing to Organizational Behavior – Role of Organizational Behavior – Foundations of Organizational Behavior – Implications of Hawthorne Experiments

Text Book

1. Aswathappa, K. (2012). *Organizational Behaviour*. Mumbai, Himalaya Publishing House.

References

1. Steven Mc Shane (2014). *Organizational Behaviour*. New Delhi, Tata Mc Graw Hill Publishing Company Limited.
2. Stephen Robbins (2013). *Organizational Behaviour*. New Delhi, Prentice Hall of India Private Limited.

Website References

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2. W2: <http://www.MBANOTES.EDU.IN>

What Is Organizational Behavior

Organizational Behavior has included two terms in it. Therefore, these two terms should be detailed first before diving into the title in question.

Organization: It is a group of people who are collected to work for a common goal with collective efforts. Organization works through two concepts i.e coordination and delegation among its group members. Delegation is necessary to allocate group members with equal work according to their capability, and coordination is required to achieve organizational goal with precision.

Behavior: It is a verbal or physical response shown by a person as a consequence of the impact of his/her surroundings. Individual Behavior varies in accordance with their mental reactivity to particular circumstances because of their deeply imbibed morals and value system.

Organizational Behavior: Organizational Behavior is the observation of individual and/or group Behavior in response to the other individuals or group as a whole. It studies Behavior of people or group to know their attitude towards particular circumstances.

Fundamental Aspects Of Organizational Behavior:

There are various aspects of Organizational Behavior which it has to deal with, to know the soul of particular Organization. Below mentioned are some of the fundamental aspects of Organizational Behavior-

1) People: This element is the soul of the Organization because people work to achieve the target of Organization and Organization works to fulfill the needs of individual or group of individuals. The word 'people' can be anyone who is working inside the Organization, like employees or any external person like supplier, customer, auditor, or any government official.

2) Structure: It is the body of the Organization which is to be taken care of to bring coordination between different levels of Organization, because Organization does not work aloof and is dependent on people which again work on the concept of division of labor. So, there is always a hierarchy in Organization which if not properly dealt with can mess the system because of nil scrutiny and flow of control.

3) Technology: Organizations work on technologies to help people in efficiently doing their work. Same technology does not apply to each Organization but different Organizations demand different technologies for their different line of businesses e.g bank needs mediating technology which connects customers and bankers, Manufacturing companies need long linked technology because of their assembly line process, and hospitals work on intensive technology because of their responsibility to provide specialized services in terms of doctors and medical equipments.

4) Environment: Organizations are influenced by the environment in which they work, at a substantial level. Environment is important to Organizations because of the following factors:

- Supply and demand comes from this environment.
- Human resource, competitors, government agencies, unions, and political parties comes from environment in which Organization is surviving.
- The Organizations have to follow rules and regulations fostered by this environment.

Importance of Organizational Behavior:

1. It builds better relationship by achieving people's, organizational, and social objectives.
2. It covers a wide array of human resource like behavior, training and development, change management, leadership, teams etc.
3. It brings coordination which is the essence of management.
4. It improves goodwill of the organization.
5. It helps to achieve objectives quickly.
6. It makes optimum utilization of resources.
7. It facilitates motivation.
8. It leads to higher efficiency.

9. It improves relations in the organization.
10. It is multidisciplinary, in the sense that applies different techniques, methods, and theories to evaluate the performances.

Limitations of Organizational Behavior:

1. **Behavioral bias:** It further causes dependence, dis-contentment, indiscipline, and irresponsibility.
2. **Law of diminishing returns:** It says that beyond a certain point, there is a decline in output even after each additional good or positive factor.
3. **Unethical practices and manipulation of people:** Knowledge of motivation and communication acquired can be used to exploit subordinates in an Organization by the manipulative managers.

Characteristics of Organisational Behavior:**1. Behavioural Approach to Management:**

Organisational behaviour is that part of whole management which represents the behavioural approach to management. Organisational behaviour has emerged as a distinct field of study because of the importance of human behaviour in organisations.

2. Cause and Effect Relationship:

Human behaviour is generally taken in terms of cause and effect relationship and not in philosophical terms. It helps in predicting the behaviour of individuals. It provides generalizations that managers can use to anticipate the effect of certain activities on human behaviour.

3. Organisational Behaviour is a Branch of Social Sciences:

Organisational behaviour is heavily influenced by several other social sciences viz. psychology, sociology and anthropology. It draws a rich array of research from these disciplines.

4. Three Levels of Analysis:

Organisational behaviour encompasses the study of three levels of analysis namely individual behaviour, inter-individual behaviour and the behaviour of organisations themselves. The field of organisational behaviour embraces all these levels as being complementary to each other.

5. A Science as well as an Art:

Organisational behaviour is a science as well as an art. The systematic knowledge about human behaviour is a science and the application of behavioural knowledge and skills is an art. Organisational behaviour is not an exact science because it cannot exactly predict the behaviour of people in organisations. At best a manager can generalize to a limited extent and in many cases, he has to act on the basis of partial information.

6. A Body of Theory, Research and Application:

Organisational behaviour consists of a body of theory, research and application which helps in understanding the human behaviour in organisation. All these techniques help the managers to solve human problems in organisations.

7. Beneficial to both Organisation and Individuals:

Organisational behaviour creates an atmosphere whereby both organisation and individuals are benefitted by each other. A reasonable climate is created so that employees may get much needed satisfaction and the organisation may attain its objectives.

8. Rational Thinking:

Organisational behaviour provides a rational thinking about people and their behaviour. The major objective of organisational behaviour is to explain and predict human behaviour in organisations, so that result yielding situations can be created.

Nature of Organisational Behavior:

Organisational behaviour in the study of human behaviour in the organisations. Whenever an individual joins an organisation he brings with him unique set of personal characteristics, experiences from other organisations and a personal background. At the first stage organisational behaviour must look at the unique perspective that each individual brings to the work setting.

The second stage of organisational behaviour is to study the dynamics of how the incoming individuals interact with the broader organisation. No individual can work in isolation. He comes into contact with other individuals and the organisation in a variety of ways. The individual who joins a new organisation has to come into contact with the co-workers, managers, formal policies and procedures of the organisation etc.

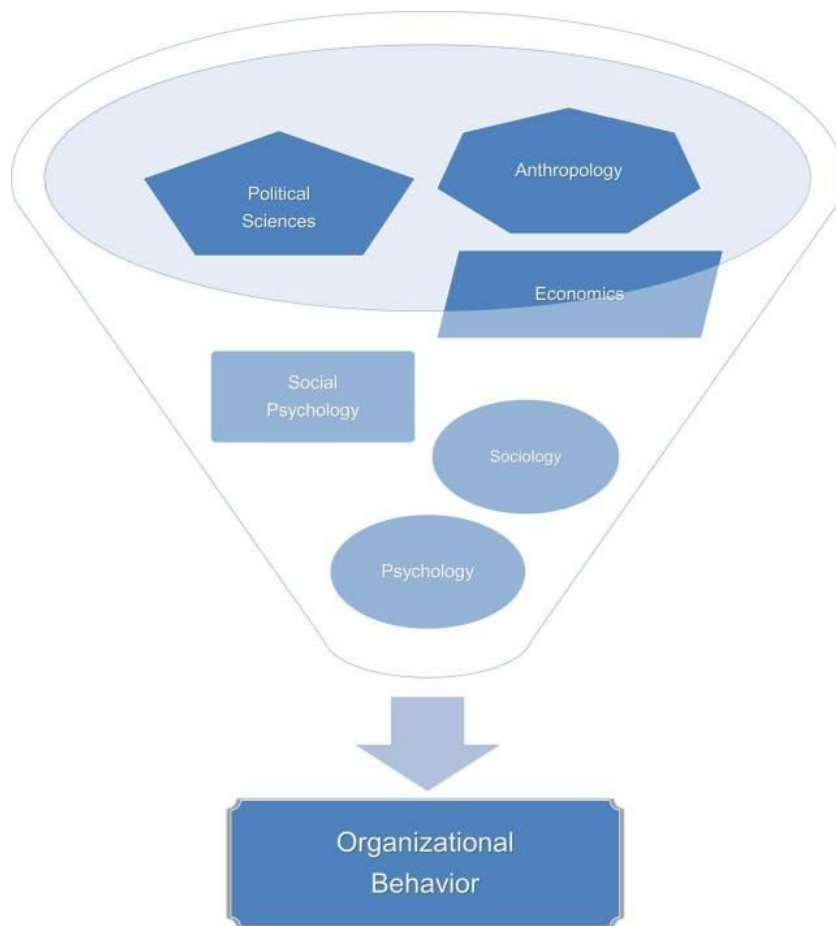
Over the time, he is affected by his work experience and the organisation as well as his personal experiences and maturity. On the other hand, the organisation is also affected by the presence or absence of the individual. Thus, it is essential that OB must study the ways in which the individuals and organisation interact with each other.

The organisational behaviour must be studied from the perspective of the organisation itself because an organisation exists before a particular individual joins in and continues to exist after he or she has left the organisation. Thus, OB is the study of human behaviour in the organisation, the individual-organisation interaction and the organisation itself. And these factors are influenced by the external environment in which the individuals and the organisation exist.

Thus, we can say that we cannot study individual behaviour completely without learning something about the organisation. On the other hand, we cannot study the organisations without studying the behaviour of the individuals working in it. This is because the organisation influences and is influenced by the people working in it. Moreover, both the individuals and the organisation are influenced by the external environment. Thus, the field of organisational behaviour is a complex field. It seeks to throw light on the entire canvas of human factor in the organisations which will include the causes and effects of such behaviour.

Disciplines Contributing to the Organization Behavior Field

There are some important disciplines to the organizational behavior field which developed it extensively. Due to an increase in organizational complexity, various types of knowledge are required and help many ways.



1. Psychology.
2. Sociology.
3. Social Psychology.
4. Economics.
5. Anthropology.
6. Political Sciences.

Psychology

Psychology has perhaps the first influence on the field of organizational behavior because it is a science of behavior. A psychologist studies almost all aspects Of behavior.

Psychology deals with studying human behavior that seeks to explain and sometimes change the behavior of humans and other animals.

Psychologists are primarily interested in predicting the behavior of individuals to a great extent by observing the dynamics of personal factors, environmental and Situational factors.

Those who have contributed and continued to add to the knowledge of OB are teaching theorists, personality theorists, counseling psychologists and primary, industrial and organizational psychologist.

Some of the numerous areas of interest within the disciplines of psychology are:

- General Psychology
- Experimental Psychology
- Clinical Psychology
- Consumer Psychology
- Personality and Social Psychology
- Industrial Psychology
- Counseling Psychology
- Educational Psychology
- Consulting Psychology

Understanding Psychological principles and its models help significantly in gaining the knowledge of determinants of individual behavior such as

- the learning process,
- motivation techniques,
- personality determinants and development,
- perceptual process and its implications,
- training process,

- leadership effectiveness,
- job satisfaction,
- individual decision making,
- performance appraisal,
- attitude measurement,
- employee selection,
- job design and work stress.

Sociology

The major focus of sociologists is on studying the social systems in which individuals fill their roles. The focus is on group dynamics.

They have made their greatest contribution to OB through their study of group behavior in organization, particularly formal and sophisticated organizations.

Sociological concepts, theories, models, and techniques help significantly to understand better the group dynamics, organizational culture, formal organization theory and structure, corporate technology, bureaucracy, communications, power, conflict, and intergroup behavior.

Psychologists are primarily interested in focusing their attention on the individual behavior.

Key concepts of Sociology are;

Most sociologists today identify the discipline by using one of the three statements:

- Sociology deals with human interaction and this communication are the key influencing factor among people in social settings.
- Sociology is a study of plural behavior. Two or more interacting individuals constitute a plurality pattern of behavior
- Sociology is the systematic study of social systems:

A social system is an operational social unit that is structured to serve a purpose.

It consists of two or more persons of different status with various roles playing a part in a pattern that is sustained by a physical and cultural base.

When analyzing organizing as a social system, the following elements exist:

- People or actors
- Acts or Behavior
- Ends or Goals
- Norms, rules, or regulation controlling conduct or behavior
- Beliefs held by people as actors
- Status and status relationships
- Authority or power to influence other actors
- Role expectations, role performances, and role relationships.

Therefore, organizations are viewed by sociologies as consists of a variety of people with different roles, status, and degree of authority.

The organization attempts to achieve certain generalized and specific objectives. To attain some of the abstract ends such as the development of company loyalty, the organization's leaders appeal to the shared cultural base.

Social Psychology

It has been defined as the scientific investigation of how the thoughts, feelings, and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied the presence of others.

It deals with how people are affected by other individuals who are physically present or who are imagined to be present or even whose presence is implied.

In general, sociology focuses on how groups, organizations, social categories, and societies are organized, how they function, how they change. The unit of

analysis is the group as a whole rather than the individuals who compose the group.

Social Psychology deals with many of the same phenomena but seeks to explain whole individual human interaction and human cognition influences culture and is influenced by culture. The unit of analysis is the individual within the group. In reality, some forms of sociology are closely related to social psychology.

Social Psychologists study an enormous range of topics including conformity, persuasion, power, influence, obedience, prejudice, discrimination, stereotyping, sexism and racism, small groups, social categories, inter-group behavior, crowd behavior, social conflict, social change, decision making, etc.

Among them, the most important topics relevant to organizational behavior field are behavioral change, attitude change, communication, group process and group decision making. Social psychologists making significant contributions

Social psychologists making significant contributions to measuring, understanding and improving attitudes, communication patterns how groups can satisfy individual needs and group decision-making process.

Anthropology

The main aim of anthropology is to acquire a better understanding of the relationship between the human being and the environment. Adaptations to surroundings constitute culture. The manner in which people view their surroundings is a part of the culture.

Culture includes those ideas shared by groups of individuals and languages by which these ideas are communicated. In essence, culture is a system of learned behavior.

Their work on culture and environment has helped us to understand differences in fundamental values, attitudes, and behavior among people in different countries and within different organizations.

Much of our current understandings of organizational culture, environments, and differences between national cultures are the results of the work of anthropologists or those using their methodologies.

The world is the laboratory of anthropologists, and human beings must be studied in the natural habitat. Understanding the importance of studying man in natural settings over time enables one to grasp the range of anthropology.

Familiarity within some of the cultural differences of employees can lead to a greater managerial objectivity and depth in the interpretation of behavior and performance.

Anthropologists contribute to study some aspects in organizational settings – similar values, comparative attitudes, cross-cultural analysis between or among the employees.

Political Sciences

Contributions of political scientist are significant to the understanding of behavior in organizations. Political scientists study the behavior of individuals and groups within a political environment.

They contribute to understanding the dynamics of power centers, structuring of conflict and conflict resolutions tactics, allocation of power and how people manipulate power for individual self-interest.

In a business field, organizations wanted to attain supremacy in their field and indulge in politicking activities to gain maximum advantages by following certain tasks like Machiavellianism, coalition formation, malpractices, etc.

The knowledge of political science can be utilized to the study the behavior of employees, executives at micro as well as macro level.

Economics

Economics contributes organizational behavior to a great extent in designing the organizational structure. Transaction cost economics influence the organization and its structure.

Transaction costs economics implies costs components to make an exchange on the market.

This transaction cost economics examines the extent to which the organization structure and size of an organization varies in response to attempts to avoid market failures through minimizing production and transaction costs within the constraints of human and environmental factors.

Costs of transactions include both costs of market transactions and internal coordination.

A transaction occurs when a good or service is transferred across a “technologically separable barrier” Transaction costs arise for many reasons.

So we can assume that there are various types of disciplines which involve with organizational behavior. They, directly and indirectly, influence the overall activities of OB.

Role of Organisational Behavior

A. Understanding Human Behavior:

Organisations are people and without people there would be no organisations. If the managers are to understand the organisations in which they work, they must first understand the people who make up the organisations. Organisational behaviour is the tool, which helps the managers in understanding human behaviour in all the directions in which the human beings interact.

Human can be studied from the point of view of the following four levels:

(i) Individual Behaviour:

The main focus of behavioural sciences is on the study of individual behaviour. It tries to analyze why and how an individual behaves in a particular way in a given situation. The behaviour of individuals is affected by a number of psychological, social and cultural factors. The job of organisational behaviorist is to integrate these factors to help in understanding human behaviour.

(ii) Interpersonal Behaviour:

Behavioural Sciences also provide means for understanding interpersonal behaviour in the organisations. In organisations, two person relationship is inevitable. Interpersonal interaction represents man’s most natural attempt at socialization. By studying behavioural sciences, the managers can understand themselves and the others better. This will help in improving interpersonal relations also. The techniques, generally, used for studying interpersonal behaviour are study of perception, role analysis, transaction analysis etc.

(iii) Group Behaviour:

Hawthorne studies have proven that an individual behaves differently as an individual and as a member of the group. His behaviour is often modified by group norms. Group behaviour has a synergic impact on the performance. Group formation, behaviour and interactions are studied in the course of the organisational process. Management can use group dynamics for better communication, effective leadership and building high morale.

(iv) Inter Group Behaviour:

Organisations consist of a large number of groups, which leads to complexity of relationships. It is very important for the managers to understand the group relationships. The cooperation, coordination and conflicts within groups influence performances. Organisational behaviour helps the managers in achieving cooperative group relationships through interaction, rotation of members among groups, avoidance of win-lose situation and focus on total group objectives.

B. Influencing the Human Behavior:

objectives. Managers can influence the behaviour through control and direction.

After understanding the human behaviour in the organisations the next job of the manager is to influence the behaviour so that it conforms to the standards required for achieving the organisational Organisational behaviour helps the managers in influencing the behaviour in the following ways:

1. Leadership:

Leadership helps the management in bringing human behaviour in tune with the organisational requirements. An organisation must have effective leadership for its survival and growth. The leadership theories are perpetually accepted by an organisation for smooth performance of their activities. There are trait, goal and situational approaches for the development of leadership.

An organisation can achieve success only with the right type of leadership. A competent leader uses all the human and physical resources at the maximum levels for achieving the organisational goals. Leadership serves as the link among the individuals, groups and various other aspects of the organisation.

2. Motivation:

Motivation in an organisation is essential for ongoing work. Human beings work not only for money but also for getting job satisfaction. The job of a manager in the organisation is to get things done through others. He will be successful in his job when he can motivate his subordinates to work for organisational goals. Organisational behaviour helps the managers in understanding the needs and desires of the subordinates and other factors which affect their motivation. The monetary and non-monetary awards are used as incentives to motivate the subordinates.

3. Communication:

People come in contact with each other through communication, thus, communication is known as the building block of the organisation. To achieve organisational effectiveness, the communication must be effective. Behavioural sciences help in improving communication in the organisation. The communication process and how it works in interpersonal dynamics is evaluated by behavioural sciences. Organisational behaviour analyses the factors that affect communication so as to make it more effective.

4. Organisational Change and Development:

Organisational development is needed for the change and development of individuals. Organisations have to undergo changes as a result of social, technological, political and other environmental factors. The organisational change and development are successfully handled by the use of behavioural science knowledge. Change can be introduced through group dynamics and proper education of employees through effective communication. The benefits of change should be highlighted and information should be shared with all those likely to be affected by the change.

5. Organisational Climate:

Organisational climate is the sum total of all the organisational situations affecting human behaviour. Organisational behaviour views organisational climate in totality rather than merely improving physical working conditions, or increasing employees' satisfaction by changing isolated work process.

Organisational climate is the creation of an atmosphere of effective supervision, the opportunity for the realization of personal goals, good relations with others at the work place and sense of accomplishment. Organisational climate, thus, takes a systems perspective and affects human behaviour. Organisational

behaviour creates an atmosphere of participative leadership, two way communication, adequate compensation and better equipment's for the job

Foundations of Human Relations and Organizational Behavior

Introduction

At the beginning of the 20th century, companies were using scientific approaches to improve worker productivity. But that all began to change in 1924 with the start of the Hawthorne Studies, a 9-year research program at Western Electric Companies. The program, of which Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger played a major role, concluded that an organization's undocumented social system was a powerful motivator of employee behaviour. The Hawthorne Studies led to the development of the Human Relations Movement in business management. The experiment was about measuring the impact of different working conditions by the company itself (such as levels of lighting, payment systems, and hours of work) on the output of the employees. The researchers concluded that variations in output were not caused by changing physical conditions or material rewards only but partly by the experiments themselves. The special treatment required by experimental participation convinced workers that management had a particular interest in them. This raised morale and led to increased productivity. The term 'Hawthorne effect' is now widely used to refer to the behaviour-modifying effects of being the subject of social investigation. The researchers concluded that the supervisory style greatly affected worker productivity. These results were, of course, a major blow to the position of scientific management, which held that employees were motivated by individual economic interest. The Hawthorne studies drew attention to the social needs as an additional source of motivation. Economic incentives were now viewed as one factor, but not the sole factor to which employees responded.

Experiments

Illumination studies

In the early 1920s Chicago's Western Electric Hawthorne Works employed 12,000 workers. The plant was a primary manufacturer of telephones, and in 1924 the company provided a site to cooperate with the NRC on a series of test room studies to determine the relationship between illumination and worker efficiency. The basic idea was to vary and record levels of illumination in a test room with the expectation that as lighting was increased, productivity would

too. In another test room, illumination was decreased, with the correlating expectation that efficiency would decrease. The electric power industry provided an additional impetus for these tests, hoping to encourage industries to use artificial lighting in place of natural light. The Illuminating Engineering Society's Committee on Research also supported the tests and cooperated with the NRC. Workers were notified of the tests in order to attempt to control interference from human factors. When production increased in each test period, researchers looked to other factors such as increased supervision and a sense of competition that developed between the test and control groups. But the one conclusion the impressive team of industrial specialists and academics discovered was the lack of a consistent correlation between lighting levels and product output. No further tests were planned originally, but researchers were surprised at the unanticipated results.

The National Research Council researchers concluded that a variety of factors must affect industrial output other than just the lighting effect because they continued to produce 7 million relays annually.

Relay assembly test room experiment

In order to observe the impact of these other factors, a second set of tests was begun before the completion of the illumination studies on April 25, 1927. The relay-assembly tests were designed to evaluate the effect rest periods and hours of work would have on efficiency. Researchers hoped to answer a series of questions concerning why output declined in the afternoon: Did the operators tire out? Did they need brief rest periods? What was the impact of changes in equipment? What were the effects of a shorter work day? What role did worker attitudes play? Hawthorne engineers led by George Pennock were the primary researchers for the relay-assembly tests, originally intended to take place for only a few months. Six women operators volunteered for the study and two more joined the test group in January 1928. They were administered physical examinations before the studies began and then every six weeks in order to evaluate the effects of changes in working conditions on their health. The women were isolated in a separate room to assure accuracy in measuring output and quality, as temperature, humidity, and other factors were adjusted. The test subjects constituted a piece-work payment group and efforts were made to maintain steady work patterns. The Hawthorne researchers attempted to gain the women's confidence and to build a sense of pride in their participation. A male observer was introduced into the test room to keep

accurate records, maintain cordial working conditions, and provide some degree of supervision.

The women were employed in assembling relays or electromagnetic switches used in switching telephone calls automatically. The women assembled the more than 35 parts of the relay by hand. The relays were then carefully inspected. The entire process was highly labor intensive and the speed of assembly had an obvious effect on productivity.

Initially the women were monitored for productivity, and then they were isolated in a test room. Finally, the workers began to participate in a group payment rate, where extra pay for increased productivity was shared by the group. The other relay assemblers did not share in any bonus pay, but researchers concluded this added incentive was necessary for full cooperation. This single difference has been historically criticized as the one variable having the greatest significance on test results. These initial steps in the relay-assembly studies lasted only three months. In August, rest periods were introduced and other changes followed over the rest of the test period, including shortened work days and weeks. As the test periods turned from months into years, worker productivity continued to climb, once again providing unexpected results for the Hawthorne team to evaluate.

Productivity increased in excess of 30 percent over the first two and-a-half years of the studies and remained steady for the duration of the tests. The physicals indicated improved worker health and absenteeism decreased. By their own testimony, the women expressed increased satisfaction with all aspects of their jobs. Researchers tentatively concluded that performance and efficiency improved because of the rest periods, relief from monotonous working conditions, the wage incentive, and the type of supervision provided in the test environment. After additional study and consideration, the first two factors were rejected and further tests were conducted in an attempt to verify the effects of incentives and working conditions. The results were still not totally conclusive. Finally, researchers realized worker attitudes within the group were influential as was the more personal atmosphere of the test room. They concluded factors such as lighting, hours of work, rest periods, bonus incentives, and supervision affected workers, but the attitudes of the employees experiencing the factors were of greater significance. As a result, the Hawthorne team decided not to pursue similar studies. Almost as significant during the relay assembly tests was the introduction of a team of academics from the Harvard Business School into the experiments. Led by professors

Elton Mayo and F. J. Roethlisberger, this new group of researchers would have an enormous impact on the Hawthorne studies and the future of human relations in the workplace.

However the same experiment was done on a group of 6 women placed in the same room whereas the production increased because they felt like a group where they were all connected through a team work. This is common sense, just like in a class room; as students meet day by day and study together the same materials, they will feel a sense of freedom that they do not experience in a playground floor.

Mayo's contributions became increasingly significant in the experiments during the interviewing stages of the tests. Early results from the illumination tests and the relay-assembly tests led to surveys of worker attitudes, surveys not limited to test participants.

Work Conditions and Productivity Results

Under normal conditions with a forty-eight hour week, including Saturdays, and no rest pauses. The girls produced 2,400 relays a week each.

They were then put on piecework for eight weeks.

Output increased

They were given two five-minute breaks, one in the morning, and one in the afternoon, for a period of five weeks.

- Output increased, yet again

The breaks were each lengthened to ten minutes.

- Output rose sharply

Six five-minute breaks were introduced.

The girls complained that their work rhythm was broken by the frequent pauses

- Output fell only slightly

The original two breaks were reinstated, this time, with a complimentary hot meal provided during the morning break.

- Output increased further still

The workday was shortened to end at 4.30 p.m. instead of 5.00 p.m.

- Output increased

The workday was shortened to end at 4.00 p.m.

- Output leveled off

Finally, all the improvements were taken away, and the original conditions before the experiment were reinstated. They were monitored in this state for 12 more weeks.

- Output was the highest ever recorded - averaging 3000 relays a week

Study Conclusions

The aptitudes of individuals are imperfect predictors of job performance. Although they give some indication of the physical and mental potential of the individual, the amount produced is strongly influenced by social factors.

Informal organization affects productivity. The researchers discovered a group life among the workers. The studies also showed that the relations that supervisors develop with workers tend to influence the manner in which the workers carry out directives.

Work-group norms affect productivity. The Hawthorne researchers were not the first to recognize that work groups tend to arrive at norms of what is "a fair day's work." However, they provided the best systematic description and interpretation of this phenomenon.

The workplace is a social system. The researchers came to view the workplace as a social system made up of interdependent parts. The worker is a person whose attitudes and effectiveness are conditioned by social demands from both inside and outside the work plant. Informal group within the work plant exercise strong social controls over the work habits and attitudes of the individual worker.

The need for recognition, security and sense of belonging is more important in determining workers' morale and productivity than the physical conditions under which he works.

The major finding of the study was that almost regardless of the experimental manipulation, worker production seemed to continually improve. One reasonable conclusion is that the workers were happy to receive attention from the researchers who expressed an interest in them. Originally, the study was expected to last one year, but since the findings were inexplicable when the researchers tried to relate the worker's efficiency to manipulated physical conditions, the project was incrementally extended to five years.

Bank-Wiring Tests

The bank-wiring tests began in November 1931. The foreman of the bank-wiring department resisted the intrusion of observers into his work space and a bank-wiring test room was set up. The test room housed nine wirers, three solderers, and two inspectors. All were male between the ages of 20 and 25. Their job was to wire conductor banks, a repetitive and monotonous task. The banks were one of the major components of automatic telephone exchange. Between 3,000 and 6,000 terminals had to be wired for a set of banks. The work was tiring and required the workers to stand for long periods of time. Pay incentives and productivity measures were removed, but a researcher was placed into the test room as an observer and the workers were interviewed. The purpose of the bank-wiring tests was to observe and study social relationships and social structures within a group, issues raised by two other significant members of the research team, W. Lloyd Warner and William J. Dickson. Warner was on Mayo's Harvard team, trained as an anthropologist and primarily interested in Hawthorne from an entirely different perspective, that of an observer of the social behavior of a group. Perhaps the most revealing aspect of the bank-wiring tests was that the workers combined to slow down production—a clear indication of the need for analysis of the social relationships of workers. Research showed the most admired worker among the group was the one who demonstrated the greatest resentment of authority by slowing down production the most.

The bank-wiring tests were shut down in the spring of 1932 in reaction to layoffs brought on by the deepening depression. Layoffs were gradual, but by May the bank-wiring tests were concluded. These tests were intended to study the group as a functioning unit and observe its behavior. The study findings

confirmed the complexity of group relations and stressed the expectations of the group over an individual's preference. The conclusion was to tie the importance of what workers felt about one another to worker motivation. Industrial plants were a complex social system with significant informal organizations that played a vital role in motivating workers. The researchers found that although the workers were paid according to individual productivity, productivity decreased because the men were afraid that the company would lower the base rate. There was no trust between employees and researches, so they simply held down production to the level they thought was in their best interest; the same thing happens when a classmates of yours steal the exam paper and the administration finds out. You would not say who did it because you wouldn't want your classmate to be kicked out of school. So, your interest is to say that you do not know hoping that they don't change the exam answers.

Employees had physical as well as social needs, and the company gradually developed a program of human relations including employee counseling and improved supervision with an emphasis on the individual workers. The results were a reinterpretation of industrial group behavior and the introduction of what has become human relations.

The Interview Process

I think interviewing is a good idea. It helps some people get a lot of things off their chest. Assisting Mayo was his research assistant, Fritz Roethlisberger. Under Mayo and Roethlisberger's direction, the Hawthorne experiments began to incorporate extensive interviewing. The researchers hoped to glean details (such as home life or relationship with a spouse or parent) that might play a role in employees' attitudes towards work and interactions with supervisors. From 1928 to 1930 Mayo and Roethlisberger oversaw the process of conducting more than 21,000 interviews and worked closely training researchers in interviewing practices.

Mayo and Roethlisberger's methodology shifted when they discovered that, rather than answering directed questions, employees expressed themselves more candidly if encouraged to speak openly in what was known as nondirected interviewing. "It became clear that if a channel for free expression were to be provided, the interview must be a listening rather than a questioning process," a research study report noted. "The interview is now defined as a

conversation in which the employee is encouraged to express himself freely upon any topic of his own choosing."

Interviews, which averaged around 30 minutes, grew to 90 minutes or even two hours in length in a process meant to provide an emotional release. You always want to feel appreciated and taken into consideration from your boss or any other higher authority you are working with. This can create a trusting circle between both. Just like when you are supposed to learn from your teacher the materials she is giving you and at the same time you ask her for her advice on your personal life and start telling her what is going on with you in your daily life. You will feel a close relationship that connects you with the teacher and you will start to listen to her more and take into consideration what she is giving you as materials because there is a trust circle between both.

The resulting records, hundreds and hundreds of pages in which employees disclose personal details of their day to day lives, offer an astonishingly intimate portrait of the American industrial worker in the years leading to and following the Depression. In a pre-computer age, thousands of comments were sorted into employees' attitudes about general working conditions, specific jobs, or supervisors and among these categories into favorable and unfavorable comments used to support interpretations of the data. Both workers' and supervisors' comments would aid in the development of personnel policies and supervisory training, including the subsequent implementation of a routine counseling program for employees.

Roethlisberger discovered that what employees found most deeply rewarding were close associations with one another, "informal relationships of interconnectedness," as he called them. "Whenever and where it was possible," he wrote, generated them like crazy. In many cases they found them so satisfying that they often did all sorts of non logical things in order to belong. In Mayo's broad view, the industrial revolution had shattered strong ties to the workplace and community experienced by workers in the skilled trades of the 19th century. The social cohesion holding democracy together, he wrote, was predicated on these collective relationships, and employees' belief in a sense of common purpose and value of their work.

The Hawthorne Legacy

The Hawthorne studies were conducted in three independent stages-the illumination tests, the relay-assembly tests, and the bank-wiring tests,

although each was a separate experiment. The second and third each developed out of the preceding series of tests. Neither Hawthorne officials nor NRC researchers anticipated the duration of the studies, yet the conclusions of each set of tests and the Hawthorne experiments as a whole are the legacy of the studies and what sets them apart as a significant part of the history of industrial behavior and human relations.

The tests challenged prior assumptions about worker behavior. Workers were not motivated solely by pay. The importance of individual worker attitudes on behavior had to be understood. Further, the role of the supervisor in determining productivity and morale was more clearly defined. Group work and behavior were essential to organizational objectives and tied directly to efficiency and, thus, to corporate success. The most disturbing conclusion emphasized how little the researchers could determine about informal group behavior and its role in industrial settings. Finally, the Hawthorne studies proved beyond certainty that there was a great deal more to be learned about human interactions in the workplace, and academic and industrial study has continued in an effort to understand these complex relationships.

Beyond the legacy of the Hawthorne studies has been the use of the term "Hawthorne effect" to describe how the presence of researchers produces a bias and unduly influences the outcome of the experiment. In addition, several important published works grew out of the Hawthorne experience, foremost of which was Mayo's *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization* and Roethlisberger and Dickson's *Management and the Worker*.

The Hawthorne studies have been described as the most important social science experiment ever conducted in an industrial setting, yet the studies were not without their critics. Several criticisms, including those of sociologist Daniel Bell, focused on the exclusion of unionized workers in the studies. Sociologists and economists were the most commanding critics, defending their disciplinary turf more than offering serious criticisms. Despite these critical views, the flow of writings on the Hawthorne studies attests to their lasting influence and the fascination the tests have held for researchers. The studies had the impact of defining clearly the human relations school. Another contribution was an emphasis on the practice of personnel counseling. Industrial sociology owes its life as a discipline to the studies done at the Hawthorne site. This, in part, led to the enormous growth of academic programs in organizational behavior at American colleges and universities, especially at the graduate level.

Criticism of Hawthorne Studies

The influence of Hawthorne studies has declined in the last ten years as a result of widespread failure of later studies to reveal any reliable relation between the social satisfaction of industrial workers and their work performance but still, reputable textbooks still refers almost reverentially to the Hawthorne studies as a classic in the history of social science in industry. There have been a broad criticism and assumptions, many of them cogent. How is it that nearly all authors of textbooks who have drawn material from the Hawthorne studies have failed to recognize the vast discrepancy between evidence and conclusions of those studies, have frequently miss described the actual observations and occurrences in a way that brings the evidence into line with the conclusions reached by Hawthorne studies?

This part of the project will critically examine the evidence and arguments from which the investigators reached conclusions. The first hypothesis made states that the change in work task and physical context help in the 30 percent increase in the productivity of the workers. Considering the girls on the relay room the one who had several tasks to do has improved the less and then when they put her in the group with the other girls doing one task she improved but that was not a conclusive evidence in favour of the hypothesis so the investigator had to dismiss it. Second hypothesis states that the reduced fatigue due to rest pauses and shorter working hours played a role in the 30 percent increase but medical examination could not provide evidence of fatigue effect so this hypothesis was also dismissed. In stage II, the girls wage was based on the average output of the whole department and their productivity increased by 13 percent. But it promptly dropped by 16 percent when the experiment was discontinued. Here a hypothesis was made that the wage incentive was in effect but the investigators also were not impressed by this evidence and did not support it. A comparison is made between the first three stages. Stage III produced a claimed of 15 percent increase in rate of output over 14 months, thereafter the average rate of output declined due to depressions. The investigators attribute the decline and ignored the possibility that the increase also could have been influenced by changing general economic and employment conditions. Also, the peak output for each girl did not occur at the same dates. It turned out that there is no one period over which the group achieved the increased claimed. In stage I, two measures of the workers performance were used: Total output per week and hourly rate of output per week. In the report of this stage it is not clear in which output is the

increase. This has led to misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the Hawthorne studies results.

Here several points are of present importance. For stage I, it is not clear whether the 30 percent increase in the output claimed refers to rate of output or total output. For stage III, if total output per week is used to measure performance, the 15 percent increase claimed reduces to less than zero because although output per hour increased by 15 percent, the weekly hours decreased by 17 percent. From evidence to conclusion, the investigator concluded that 15 percent remains as the maximum amount to be attributed but they decided that it is impossible to consider a wage incentive as a thing in itself having an independent effect on individual. Here we should appreciate how invalid are the influences made. In stage I, friendly supervision and a change to a preferred incentive system led to an increase in total output about 30 percent. In stage III, friendly supervision without a change in payment system led to no increase in total output. The investigator concluded that the effect of a wage incentive system is not greatly influenced by social considerations that it is impossible to consider it capable of independent effect. None of the results of the three first stages gave the slightest substantiation to the theory that the workers are primarily motivated by economic interest. The evidence indicates that the efficiency of a wage incentive is so independent on its relation to other factors and cannot be taken as an independent effect. This conclusion is a contrast to the objective results obtained.

The critical examination attempted here shows the error and the incompetence in the understanding and use of scientific method in the Hawthorne studies from beginning to end. There are major deficiencies in stages I, II and III. First there was no attempt to establish sample groups representative of any larger population than the groups themselves, therefore no generalization is legitimate. Second, there was no attempt to employ control data from the output records of the girls who were not put under special experimental conditions. Third, even if both previous points had been met, the experiments would still have been of minor scientific value since a group of five subjects is too small to yield statistically reliable results. These points make it clear that the evidence obtained from stages I, II and III does not support any of the conclusions derived by Hawthorne investigators. The results of these studies are far from supporting the various components of the "human relation approach" and are surprisingly consistent with a rather old-world view about the value of monetary incentives, driving leadership and discipline. It is only by

massive and relentless reinterpretation that the evidence is made to yield contrary conclusions. The limitations of the Hawthorne studies clearly render them incapable of yielding serious support of any sort of generalization whatever.

Conclusion

The Hawthorne studies have been described as the most important social science experiment ever conducted in an industrial setting, yet the studies were not without their critics. It started on a good basis by trying to define the influence of the social, physical and psychological environment on the industrial workers. This breakthrough would have been of a great importance if the investigators have been more careful about the weak points they did. They should have tried to work on a single measurement as the total output of the workers in order to be more specific in their claims and they should not have limited their studies to a small group on the contrary they would have enlarge the groups and diversify them in order to be able to generalize their conclusions and achieve a great scientific value. If these critics were taken into consideration in the first place, Hawthorne studies would have been applicable at all times and taken as a reference concerning the relationships between the social, physical, psychological environment and workers' productivity.



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

Coimbatore - 641021.

(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organizational Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Unit – II

Individual Difference – Nature – Causes – Models of Man – Perception – Perceptual Process – Perceptual Selectivity – Distortion in Perception – Personality – Determinants of Personality.

Text Book

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DEFINITION OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

According to the dictionary of education

1. Individual differences stand for the variation or deviations among individuals in regard to a single characteristic or number of characteristics.
2. It stands for those differences which in their totality distinguish one individual from another. **So**, we can say that individual differences are the differences among humans that distinguish or separate them from one another and make one as a single unique individual.

TYPES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Differences in Interest

Interest may refer as a motivating force that impels us to attend to a person, a thing, or an activity. So in educational field differences in interest means you observe some students like a particular subject, teacher, hobby or profession than others.

Difference in Attitude

Difference in attitude is psyche related to some thing. Few learners have positive attitude towards a specific topic, subject, and profession than others. The role of **education** in society is to develop positive attitude.

Difference in Values

Values are the things that are given importance by an individual. Some learners value materialist life style other moral or religious life style etc. So education must mould the mind of young generation to have a balance values between materialism and spiritualism.

Study Habits

It is clearly observable that some students markedly differ from other students in study habits. Some students are studious and study all the subjects with interest but others may not. Some study in isolation and some in group.

Difference in Psychomotor Skills

Psychomotor Skill is related to some skill acquisition. Some students differ in this area also. Some students like football, other cricket, etc. Some students easily learn operating a machine and some may not. A wise teacher should diagnose students' psychomotor skills abilities and encourage them in that direction.

Difference in Self Concept

Difference in self concept is the totality of attitudes, judgment, and values of an individual relating to his behavior, abilities, and qualities. So some students have positive self concept than boost their confidence level and perform better against those who have negative self image.

CAUSES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The followings are the main causes of individual differences:

1. Hereditary (Nature)

Individuals have various endowments, abilities, and capacities provided by hereditary. Which decide the path of progress and development of an individual.

1. Hereditary also put limits upon individuals' **growth and development** in various dimensions.
2. Hereditary also contributes to sex, intelligence, and other specific abilities.

2. Environment (Nurture)

Environment also plays key role in individual differences. No person from birth to death gets the same environment. Individual differences occur on the basis of simulation received by individual from his or her internal and external environment. This may include family set up, peer group, economic statues, education etc.

It is debatable that whether nature or nurture play vital or stronger role in development of an individual in specific direction. Both are strong contenders in order to distinguish one individual from other.

Causes of Individual Behavior

Certain individual characteristics are responsible for the way a person behaves in daily life situations as well as reacts to any emergency situations. These characteristics are categorized as –

- Inherited characteristics
- Learned characteristics

Inherited Characteristics

The features individuals acquire from their parents or from our forefathers are the inherited characteristics. In other words, the gifted features an individual possesses by birth is considered as inherited characteristics.

Following features are considered as inherited characteristics –

- Color of a person's eye
- Religion/Race of a person
- Shape of the nose
- Shape of earlobes

Learned Characteristics

Nobody learns everything by birth. First our school is our home, then our society followed by our educational institutions. The characteristics an individual acquires by observing, practicing and learning from others and the surroundings is known as learned characteristics.

It consists of the following features –

- **Perception** – Result of different senses like feeling, hearing etc.
- **Values** – Influences perception of a situation, decision making process.

- **Personality** – Patterns of thinking, feeling, understanding and behaving.
- **Attitude** – Positive or negative attitude like expressing one's thought

The way an individual addresses a situation single-handedly or say in a group is influenced by many factors. The key factors influencing an individual's attitude in personal as well as social life are –

- Abilities
- Gender
- Race and culture
- Attribution
- Perception
- Attitude

Let's take a quick look over these major elements that imprints a person's behavior inside and outside of the organization.

Abilities

Abilities are the traits a person learns from the environment around as well as the traits a person is gifted with by birth. These traits are broadly classified as –

- Intellectual abilities
- Physical abilities
- Self-awareness abilities

In order to understand how these affect a person's behavior, we need to know what these abilities are.

- **Intellectual abilities** – It personifies a person's intelligence, verbal and analytical reasoning abilities, memory as well as verbal comprehension.

- **Physical abilities** – It personifies a person's physical strength, stamina, body coordination as well as motor skills.
- **Self-awareness abilities** – It symbolizes how a person feels about the task, while a manager's perception of his abilities decides the kind of work that needs to be allotted to an individual.

Thus the psychological, physical, self-assurance traits owned by a person defines the behavior of a person in social and personal life. For ex: Ram has a high IQ level, whereas Rahul can lift a bike and is a strong guy.

Gender

Research proves that men and women both stand equal in terms of job performance and mental abilities; however, society still emphasizes differences between the two genders. Absenteeism is one area in an organization where differences are found as women are considered to be the primary caregiver for children. A factor that might influence work allocation and evaluation in an organization is the manager's perception and personal values.

For example – An organization encourages both genders to work efficiently towards the company's goal and no special promotion or demotion is given or tolerated for any specific gender.

Race & Culture

Race is a group of people sharing similar physical features. It is used to define types of persons according to perceived traits. For example – Indian, African. On the other hand, culture can be defined as the traits, ideas, customs and traditions one follows either as a person or in a group. For example – Celebrating a festival.

Race & culture have always exerted an important influence both at the workplace as well as in the society. The common mistakes such as attributing behavior and stereotyping according to individual's race & culture basically influences an individual's behavior.

In today's diverse work culture, the management as well as staff should learn and accept different cultures, values, and common protocols to create more comfortable corporate culture.

For example – A company invites candidates for a job post and hires one on the basis of eligibility criteria and not on the basis of the country a person belongs to or the customs one follows.

Perception

Perception is an intellectual process of transforming sensory stimuli into meaningful information. It is the process of interpreting something that we see or hear in our mind and use it later to judge and give a verdict on a situation, person, group, etc.

It can be divided into six types namely –

- **Of sound** – The ability to receive sound by identifying vibrations.
- **Of speech** – The competence of interpreting and understanding the sounds of language heard.
- **Touch** – Identifying objects through patterns of its surface by touching it.
- **Taste** – The ability to detect flavor of substances by tasting it through sensory organs known as taste buds.
- **Other senses** – Other senses include balance, acceleration, pain, time, sensation felt in throat and lungs etc.
- **Of the social world** – It permits people to understand other individuals and groups of their social world.

For example – Priya goes to a restaurant and likes their customer service, so she will perceive that it is a good place to hang out and will recommend it to her friends, who may or may not like it. However, Priya's perception about the restaurant remains good.

Attribution

Attribution is the course of observing behavior followed by determining its cause based on individual's personality or situation.

Attribution framework uses the following three criteria –

- **Consensus** – The extent to which people in the same situation might react similarly.
- **Distinctiveness** – The extent to which a person's behavior can be associated to situations or personality.
- **Consistency** – The frequency measurement of the observed behavior, that is, how often does this behavior occur.

The framework mentioned says it is all about how an individual behaves in different situations.

For example – Rohit invites Anisha and two more friends for a movie and they agree to bunk and watch the movie, this is consensus. Bunking of class says that they are not interested in their lectures, this is distinctiveness. A little change in the situation, like if Rohit frequently starts bunking the class then his friends may or may not support him. The frequency of their support and their rejection decides consistency.

Attitude

Attitude is the abstract learnt reaction or say response of a person's entire cognitive process over a time span.

For example – A person who has worked with different companies might develop an attitude of indifference towards organizational citizenship.

Now we have a clear idea about what are the factors responsible for the way we behave. We never think about these elements and how they affect our daily life but we can't ignore the fact that they are responsible for the way we walk, talk, eat, socialize, etc.

Models of Individual Behavior in an Organization

1. Rational Economic Man:

From the organisational perspective, managers had, for a long time, viewed their employees as rational beings who are primarily motivated by money. They took the 'ECONOMIC MAN' and 'RATIONAL MAN' approach to understand and predict the human behaviour. This model is based on classical organisation theory.

The Scientific Management Movement was based on the belief that by rationally explaining the one best way to do things and offering incentives to workers in the form of piece rates and bonuses, organisational output can be increased. Psychologists have also studied this model for predicting human behaviour. For example, McGregor's assumptions of Theory X reflect this model.

The basic assumptions of the concept of 'Rational Economic Man' are as follows:

- (i) People are motivated primarily by economic incentives. They will do things which get them the greatest economic gain.
- (ii) As the organisation controls the economic incentives, human beings are essentially passive agents, who are manipulated, motivated and controlled by the organisation.
- (iii) The feelings of the people are essentially irrational and must be controlled to achieve rationality and self interest.
- (iv) Organisations can and must be designed in such a way so as to neutralize and control people's feelings and therefore their unpredictable traits.

In this model, people are induced to produce more by providing them with economic incentives. In this case, there is no organisation-employees conflict because both are satisfying their needs simultaneously. Management is getting more production and people are getting more money.

Drawbacks:

- (i) As this model is based on the classical organisation theory, it suffers from the shortcomings inherent in that theory and do not suit the present day organisation.
- (ii) The economic incentives can work till the man is not reasonably satisfied by the need of money.

Though, the need of money is inexhaustible and the man will never have enough, but after a certain stage, only money will not be sufficient for him. He will have some psychological needs also, which cannot be fulfilled by the organisation in this case. Therefore, it can be stated that the whole assumption

of Rational Economic man are not sufficient in understanding and predicting human behaviour.

2. Social Man:

With the passage of time, the advocates of human relations school recognized that there is a lot more to human behaviour than just being social man economic and rational. Advocates of this school considered the worker as a social man. They recognized that man is a part of the social group he is influenced by the social forces and seeks satisfaction of the needs which are related to the maintenance of his social relationships. Elton Mayo conceived the concept of the social man when he carried out Hawthorne studies during 1927-32.

From the reports of Hawthorne experiments the following assumptions about human beings can be drawn:

- (i) Human beings are basically motivated by social needs and all their efforts are directed towards getting this satisfaction by maintaining relationships with others.
- (ii) A human being is more responsive to the pressures and sanctions of his social group than to the incentives and controls of the management. The reason is that he values social relationship higher than his economic motives which are directly under the control of management.
- (iii) The amount of work to be done by a worker is not determined by his physical capacity or by the management but by the social norms.
- (iv) Generally people do not act or react as individuals but as members of a group.
- (v) Informal leaders play an important role in setting and enforcing the group norms.
- (vi) Management should change and organize work in such a way that it provides more belongingness not only in terms of interpersonal and group relationships, but also man's relationship with his job.

The type of managerial strategy that is to be applied in the case of social man is quite different as compared to the strategy to be applied in case of Economic-Rational man. The total system of social man is directed towards people.

The following changes were required in the managerial strategy.

- (i) Earlier the management was conceived only with the output given by the workers. In this approach, the management had to pay attention to the workers also as human beings.
- (ii) Earlier, the only concern of the management was to provide economic incentives to the workers or in other words to look after their economic needs, but under this concept, the psychological needs were also to be considered.
- (iii) Another required change was to analyze and motivate human behaviour in terms of groups rather than on individual basis.
- (iv) Another change which was required was in the behaviour of the manager instead of being the controller of behaviour he was supposed to act as the supporter of workers.

The social man approach was also considered somewhat simplistic.

As time passed by, organisational behaviour theorists such as Argyris (1957), Likert (1961, 1967) and McGregor (1960) argued that people in organisations need opportunities to use their individual creativity and must have their growth needs met in order to function effectively.

3. Organisational Man:

Organisation man is an extension of social man. The concept of organisation man was introduced by William Whyte. He believed that it is very important for a person to be loyal to the organisation and cooperative with the fellow workers. Any person who believes in this value system and acts in this way is an organisation man. The basis of this concept is and that every individual should sacrifice his individuality for the sake of the group and the organisation.

This idea was initially suggested by Henry Fayol, when he suggested that individual interest should be subordinated to the general interest. Whyte had explained three major propositions, on which this concept of organisation man is based.

These propositions are as follows:

(i) The first proposition is that individual by himself is isolated and meaningless. The group is the source of activity. Individuals create only when they move in a group. A group helps to produce a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts.

(ii) The ultimate need of every individual is belongingness. He wants to belong to his families, friends, relatives, colleagues and other members of the society as a whole. Whyte says that there should be no conflict between man and society.

(iii) The goal of belongingness is achieved with the help of science. Whenever there is a conflict between the needs of the society and the needs of the individual, an equilibrium can be created by applying the methods of science. Science can help in removing all the obstacles to consensus.

The organisation man concept emphasis, that there is no conflict between the individual interest and the interest of the organisation. Even if there is any conflict, individual interest will be sacrificed in favour of the group interest to remove the conflict. However, there is a basic assumption behind this concept.

The assumption is that management will take care of the individual interests. It would be the duty of the management to satisfy the needs of the individuals. People will be willing to sacrifice their interests for the organisation only if they are positive that the organisation would take care of them.

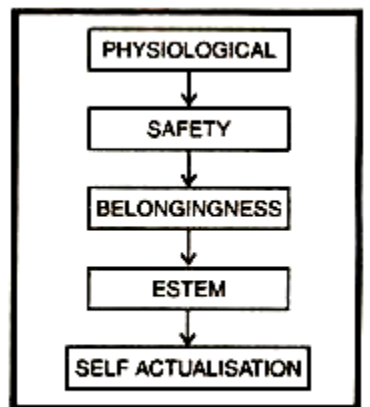
4. The Self Actuating Man:

The concept of self actuating man is a further extension of social man and the organisation man models. The social man concept assumes that the formation of social groups is the basis of satisfaction for the individuals. But as against this the self actuating man assumes that man's inherent need is to use his capabilities and skills in such a way that he should have the satisfaction of creating certain things. The earlier models do not allow him to satisfy his self actuating needs.

Following are the main assumptions about the self actuating man:

(i) The basic assumption about this concept is that the various needs of a man can be put in the order of priority. For example, MASLOW has put various needs in a hierarchy: Every unsatisfied need is a motivational factor for him. Self actualization according to this diagram is the ultimate goal, because it is last in the hierarchy and by the time his goal is achieved, all the other needs of the man are also satisfied.

(ii) In the process of self actualization, there are various changes in the behaviour of the individual and he moves from immaturity to maturity.



HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

(iii) Another assumption is that a man is primarily self motivated and self controlled. Any incentives given by the management cannot motivate him after a certain level and any control imposed on him cannot threaten him.

(iv) The earlier models were based on the assumption that a man has got immature personality. However, the reality is that if a man is left free, he will put in his maximum efforts.

These assumptions are generally based upon McGregor's theory Y and Argyris's immaturity-maturity theory. To satisfy a self actuating man what are required are all the managerial actions meant to satisfy the social man with some additional features.

5. Complex Man:

Complex man presents the real picture of human picture of human behavior. All the previous models make very simplistic assumptions about people and their behaviour.

Researchers have proved that these assumptions are not correct as explained below:

(i) The earlier models assume that man will always behave according to certain set patterns. But research has indicated that there are many complex variables, which determine the human behaviour. These variables are quite unpredictable. So the human behaviour which is based on these variables cannot follow a set pattern.

(ii) The behaviour of man can be understood and predicted in the given conditions, depending upon the assumptions made. But research has indicated that even if cause-effect relationship is established between the variables and behaviour, it is not easy to understand and predict the individual behaviour because of the individual differences. It is not necessary that everyone will behave accordingly. Most behaviour in the organisation can be understood by taking assumptions of complex man.

Following are a few assumptions about the complex man:

(i) People are not only complex but are also highly variable. Though their needs can be arranged in a hierarchy, but this hierarchy is also not universal. Different people may have different hierarchies.

(ii) People are capable of learning new motives through their organisational experiences.

(iii) People's motives in different organisations or different sub parts of the same organisation may be different.

(iv) People can respond to many different kinds of management strategies.

Though this model is quite complex, it indicates the real situation and lays emphasis on the fact that human behaviour is not as simple as assumed in the previous models. Hence current thinking on the subject is to take a 'complex man' approach and recognize that different individuals have different needs and personality traits and if there is a proper match between these and the environment they operate in, functional behaviour will emerge.

INTERPRETATION

The data collected and organised remain meaningless for the perceiver till these are assigned meanings. Assigning meanings to data is called interpretation. Thus, interpretation of data forms one of the most important elements in the entire perceptual process. Strictly speaking, data collected and organised do not make any sense without interpretation. Several factors influence interpretation. The most important ones are halo effect, attribution, stereotyping, personality, situation, person perceived etc.

FACTORS AFFECTING PERCEPTION

Factors that influence perception relate to the perceiver, perceived, and situation. All these factors are of two kinds - 1) Internal or endogenous factors, and 2) External or Exogenous factors. These are discussed in some detail below.

1. INTERNAL FACTORS

These factors reside in the person concerned. They include a person's needs, desires, personality, and experience.

2. EXTERNAL FACTORS

These factors relate to what is being perceived and the situation. These are size, intensity, frequency, and status etc.,

IMPROVING PERCEPTION

Perception can be improved by making various attempts. Following are the important ones that can help improve one's perception.

1. PERCEIVING ONESELF ACCURATELY

That is to say, one should improve to know more about oneself. Frequent interactions with peers, colleagues, free, frank and open communication with others and mutual trust are some commonly adopted practices for perceiving more accurately.

2. IMPROVING ONE'S SELF CONCEPT

When people successfully accomplish what they want, it develops a sense of self-esteem. It also indicates that correct perception about oneself helps perceive others also more accurately.

3. HAVING POSITIVE ATTITUDE

Positive attitude makes one's perception positive or more accurate. Hence, the managers need to overcome their personal bias, get rid of any negative feelings about others.

4. BE EMPATHETIC

Empathy means to be able to see a situation as it is perceived by other people. In a way, it is like putting your feet in another's shoes. Looking at a problem from other's point of view enables the person to perceive the other side of the problem.

5. AVOIDING PERCEPTUAL DISTORTION

Some factors like the halo effect, stereotyping, attribution etc distort a person's perception about things or problems. Therefore, sincere and continuous efforts should be made to guard oneself against such biases.

6. COMMUNICATING OPENLY

Experience suggests that sometimes perception gets distorted due to communication gap and inadequate communication. In such case, effective communication needs to be developed to ensure that the true and right message reaches the right place at the right time. This will enable to know the problem in a better perspective, which in turn will improve a person's perception about the problem.

PERCEPTION AND ITS APPLICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

The perception, in many cases, has important effect on organisations. A few of these are obvious, and the same is discussed below: -

1. EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

Different interviewers try to see different things in the same candidate differently, and thus arrive at different perceptions. Who one thinks is a

good candidate, the candidate can be seen perceived by another interviewer as no good for the job. Interviewers form early Impressions about the candidate, which ultimately weighs more in the selection. Therefore, interviewers must be given adequate training in the skills of interviewing.

2. PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Assessment of an employee's performance very much depends on the perception of the evaluator about the employee, in practice, superior officers and executives closely tie an employee's future to his performance and its appraisal. Promotions pay rises, and continuation of job is the most obvious and common outcome of the employee's performance. Performance Appraisal is both objective and subjective. It becomes objective when performance can be sufficiently quantified. For e.g., a salesman's performance can be assessed based on how many rupees of sales he generated in his territory during a given period of time. However, many employees' jobs are evaluated subjectively. Therefore, these become judgmental. Judgement will become susceptible to distortion. It might affect the performance appraisal process.

3. PERFORMANCE EXPECTATION

New employees during their selection process acquire a set of expectations both about the organisation and about the job. In case there is a big gap between the expectations and realities, there will be problems of increased alienation of employee, absenteeism, and even turnover.

4. EMPLOYEE EFFORT

In many organisations, the level of an employee's performance is given high importance. Hence, an employee's future in an organisation depends upon his effort made for achieving the organisational goals. However, assessment of an individual's performance is subjective judgement and thus, susceptible to perceptual distortions and bias also.

5. EMPLOYEE LOYALTY

While assessing employees the managers also make another important decision whether the employee is loyal to the organization. Like effort,

assessment of loyalty is also a subjective judgement susceptible to perceptual distortions and bias. As an example an employee looking for greener pastures outside the organisation may be labeled as disloyal to the organisation. As a resultant behaviour, the organisation may cut this future advancement opportunities

Perception

Perception is an intellectual process of transforming sensory stimuli to meaningful information. It is the process of interpreting something that we see or hear in our mind and use it later to judge and give a verdict on a situation, person, group etc.

It can be divided into six types –

- **Of sound** – The ability to receive sound by identifying vibrations.
- **Of speech** – The competence of interpreting and understanding the sounds of language heard.
- **Touch** – Identifying objects through patterns of its surface by touching it.
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- **Of the social world** – It permits people to understand other individuals and groups of their social world. **Example** – Priya goes to a restaurant and likes their customer service, so she will perceive that it is a good place to hang out and will recommend it to her friends, who may or may not like it. Priya's perception about the restaurant is good.

Perceptual Process

Perceptual process are the different stages of perception we go through. The different stages are –

- Receiving

- Selecting
- Organizing
- Interpreting

Receiving

Receiving is the first and most important stage in the process of perception. It is the initial stage in which a person collects all information and receives the information through the sense organs.

Selecting

Selecting is the second stage in the process. Here a person doesn't receive the data randomly but selectively. A person selects some information out of all in accordance with his interest or needs. The selection of data is dominated by various external and internal factors.

- **External factors** – The factors that influence the perception of an individual externally are intensity, size, contrast, movement, repetition, familiarity, and novelty.
- **Internal factors** – The factors that influence the perception of an individual internally are psychological requirements, learning, background, experience, self-acceptance, and interest.

Organizing

Keeping things in order or say in a synchronized way is organizing. In order to make sense of the data received, it is important to organize them.

We can organize the data by –

- Grouping them on the basis of their similarity, proximity, closure, continuity.
- Establishing a figure ground is the basic process in perception. Here by figure we mean what is kept as main focus and by ground we mean background stimuli, which are not given attention.

- Perceptual constancy that is the tendency to stabilize perception so that contextual changes don't affect them.

Interpreting

Finally, we have the process of interpreting which means forming an idea about a particular object depending upon the need or interest. Interpretation means that the information we have sensed and organized, is finally given a meaning by turning it into something that can be categorized. It includes stereotyping, halo effect etc.

Importance of Perception in OB

We need to understand what the role of perception in an organization is. It is very important in establishing different role of perceptions like –

- Understanding the tasks to be performed.
- Understanding associated importance of tasks allotted.
- Understanding preferred behavior to complete respective tasks.
- Clarifying role perceptions.

For example, every member in a group has to be clear regarding the role allotted to them. Programmer writes the code, tester checks it, etc.

motivation can be described as the internal force that impacts the direction, intensity, and endurance of a person's voluntary choice of behavior. It consists of –

- **Direction** – focused by goals.
- **Intensity** – bulk of effort allocated.
- **Persistence** – amount of time taken for the effort to be exerted.

Example – A team leader encourages team members to work efficiently

Stages Involved in Perception Process

I. Perceptual Inputs:

A number of stimuli are constantly confronting people in the form of information, objects, events, people etc. in the environment. These serve as the inputs of the perceptual process. A few of the stimuli affecting the senses are the noise of the air coolers, the sound of other people talking and moving, outside noises from the vehicular traffic or a street repair shop or a loud speaker playing somewhere plus the impact of the total environmental situation. Some stimuli do not affect the senses of a person consciously, a process called subliminal perception.

II. Perceptual Mechanism:

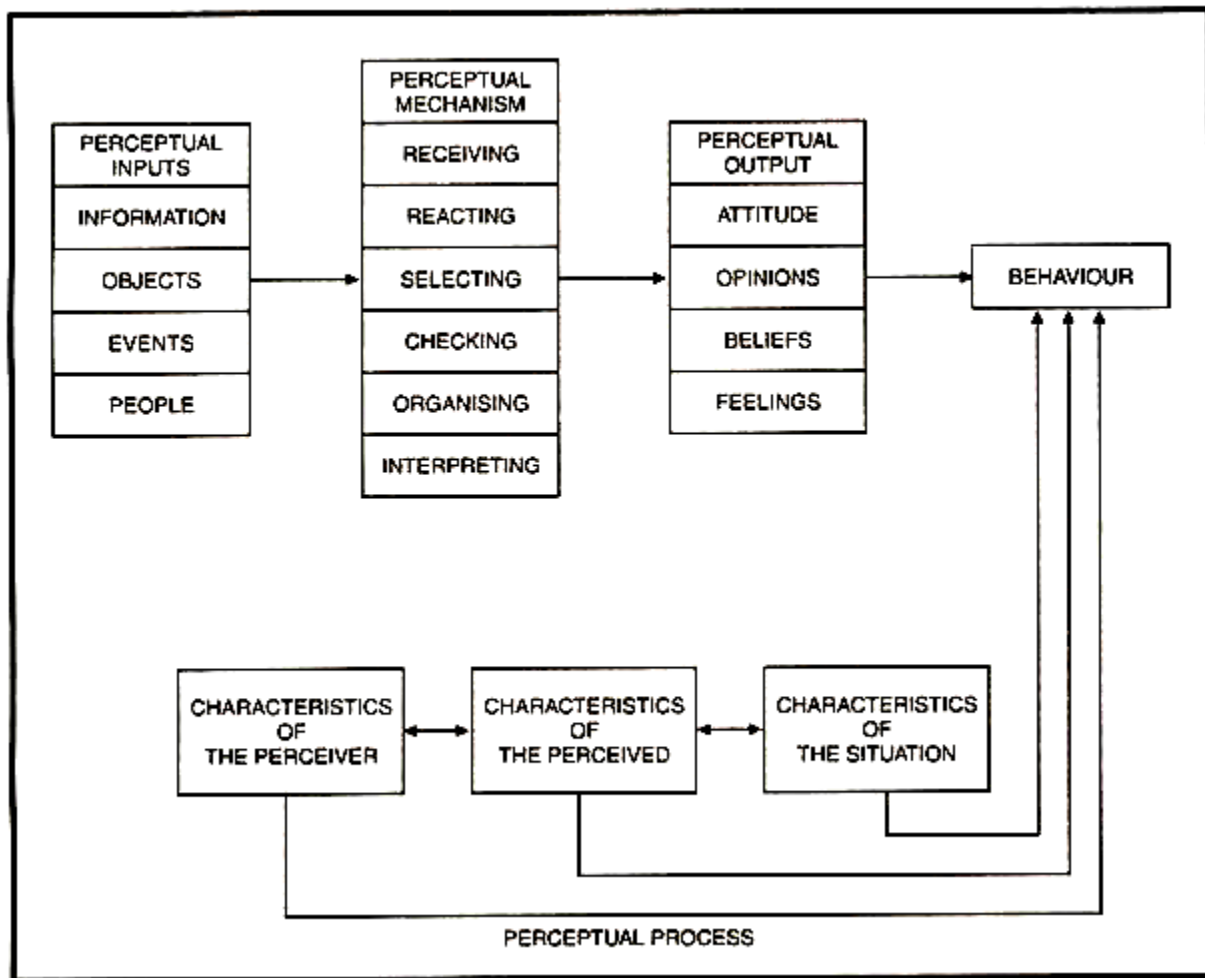
When a person receives information, he tries to process it through the following sub processes of selection, organisation and interpretation.

(A) Perceptual Selectivity:

Many things are taking place in the environment simultaneously. However, one cannot pay equal attention to all these things, thus the need of perceptual selectivity. Perceptual selectivity refers to the tendency to select certain objects from the environment for attention. The objects which are selected are those which are relevant and appropriate for an individual or those which are consistent with our existing beliefs, values and needs. For this, we need to screen or filter out most of them so that we may deal with the important or relevant ones.

The following factors govern the selection of stimuli:

- (i) External Factors
- (ii) Internal Factors



Various external and internal factors which affect our selection process are as explained below:

(i) External Factors:

(a) Size:

The bigger the size of the stimulus, the higher is the probability that it is perceived. Size always attracts the attention, because it establishes dominance. The size may be the height or weight of an individual, sign board of a shop, or the space devoted to an advertisement in the newspaper. A very tall person will always stand out in the crowd on the other hand; a very short person will also attract attention. A full page advertisement will always catch attention as compared to a few lines in the classified section.

(b) Intensity:

Intensity attracts to increase the selective perception. A few examples of intensity are yelling or whispering, very bright colours, very bright or very dim lights. Intensity will also include behavioural intensity. If the office order says “Report to the boss immediately,” it will be more intense and effective as compared to the office order which says “Make it convenient to meet the boss today.”

(c) Repetition:

The repetition principle states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention drawing than a single one. Because of this principle, supervisors make it a point to give the necessary directions again and again to the workers. Similarly, the same advertisement or different advertisement but for the same product shown, again and again on the TV will have more attention as compared to an advertisement which is shown once a day.

(d) Status:

High status people exert greater influence on the perception of the employees than the low status people. There will always be different reactions to the orders given by the foreman, the supervisor or the production manager.

(e) Contrast:

An object which contrasts with the surrounding environment is more likely to be noticed than the object which blends in the environment. For example, the Exit signs in the cinema halls which have red lettering on a black background are attention drawing or a warning sign in a factory, such as Danger, written in black against a red or yellow background will be easily noticeable. In a room if there are twenty men and one woman, the woman will be noticed first because of the contrast.

(f) Movement:

The principle of motion states that a moving object receives more attention than an object which is standing still. A moving car among the parked cars catches our attention faster. A flashing neon-sign is more easily noticed.

(g) Novelty and Familiarity:

This principle states that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention getter. New objects in the familiar settings or familiar objects in new settings will draw the attention of the perceiver. A familiar face on a crowded railway platform will immediately catch attention. Because of this principle, the managers change the workers jobs from time to time, because it will increase the attention they give to their jobs.

(h) Nature:

By nature we mean, whether the object is visual or auditory and whether it involves pictures, people or animals. It is well known that pictures attract more attention than words. Video attracts more attention than still pictures. A picture with human beings attracts more attention than a picture with animals.

(ii) Internal Factors:

The internal factors relate to the perceiver. Perceiving people is very important for a manager, because behaviour occurs as a result of behaviour.

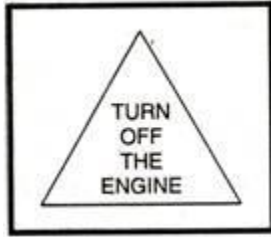
Following are the internal factors which affect perception:**1. Learning:**

Although interrelated with other internal factors learning may play the single biggest role in developing perceptual set. A perceptual set is basically what a person expects from the stimuli on the basis of his learning and experience relative to same or similar stimuli. This perceptual set is also known as cognitive awareness by which the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposures to similar stimuli. A number of illustrations have been used by psychologists to demonstrate the impact of learning on perception.

Some are as explained below:

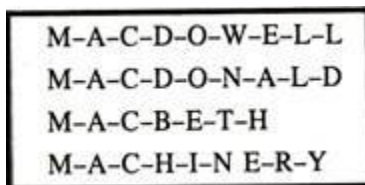
(i) Learning creates an expectancy in an individual and expectancy makes him see what he wants to see.

Take the following figure for example:



It takes a few seconds for the reader to realize that there is an extra “the” in the sentence. One tends to read the sentence, because of prior learning in the triangle as “turn off the engine.”

(ii) In this figure, the individual is caught in “Verbal Response Set.” He is likely to read the last words “Mac-Hinery” instead of machinery



(iii) Another famous illustration of cognitive awareness is the young woman-old woman experiment.

According to this experiment, if a person is first shown a clear and unambiguous picture of a young woman as in fig. (2) and then he is shown an ambiguous picture as in fig. (1), the person will perceive the second picture as that of a young woman. However, if the person is shown the clear picture of an old woman first and then the ambiguous picture, he will perceive the ambiguous picture as that of an old woman.



Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young woman and an old woman



Fig. (2) Young woman

It is because of the cognitive awareness as the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposure to Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young similar stimuli.

From the above illustration it is clear that our perceptions and interpretations of such illustrations would depend upon our previous exposure to such situations earlier.

2. Motivation:

Besides the learning aspects of the perceptual set, motivation also has a vital impact on perceptual selectivity. For example, a person who has a relatively high need for power, affiliation or achievement will be more attentive to the relevant situational variables. For example, when such a person walks into the

lunch room, he may go to the table where several of his co-workers are sitting, rather than a table which is empty or on which just one person is sitting.

Another example is that a hungry person will be more sensitive to the smell or sight of food than a non-hungry person. In one experiment people who were kept hungry for some time were shown some pictures and were asked to describe what they saw in them. Most of the reported more food items in such perceptions.



Fig. (3) Old woman

3. Personality.

Closely related to learning and motivation is the personality of the perceiving person. For example, the older senior executives often complain about the inability of the new young manager to take tough decisions concerning terminating or reassigning people and paying attention to details and paper work. The young managers, in turn, complain about the 'old guards' resisting change and using paper and rules as ends in themselves. Different perceptions in young and old are due to their age differences. Further, the generation gap witnessed in recent years definitely contributes to different perceptions.

In addition to the above two problems another problem is about the woman in the work place. Women are still not reaching the top levels of organisations. At least part of this problem can be attributed to perceptual barriers such as the established managerial hierarchy is not able to see (perceive) that qualified woman should be promoted into top level positions. Of course, there are individual differences in all age categories but the above examples show that

how personalities, values and even age may affect the way people perceive the world around them.

B. Perceptual Organisation:

After having selectively absorbed the data from the range of stimuli we are exposed to at any given time, we then try to organize the perceptual inputs in such a manner that would facilitate us to extract meaning out of what we perceive. Or in other words, person's perceptual process organizes the incoming information into a meaningful whole. While selection is a subjective process, organizing is a cognitive process.

How we organize the stimuli is primarily based on the following principles:

(i) Figure and Ground:

Figure-Ground principle is generally considered to be the most basic form of perceptual organisation. This principle simply implies that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its back ground and occupies the cognitive space of the individual. For example, as you read this page, you see white as the background and black as the letters or words to be read. You do not try to understand what the white spaces amidst the black letters could mean.

Likewise, in the organisational setting, some people are more noticed or stand out than others. For example, an individual in the organisation might try to focus his entire attention on his immediate supervisor, trying to be in his good books, completely ignoring his colleagues and how they feel about his behaviour. According to this principle, thus, the perceiver tends to organize only the information which stands out in the environment which seems to be significant to the individual.

(ii) Perceptual Grouping:

Grouping is the tendency to curb individual stimuli into meaningful patterns. For instance, if we perceive objects or people with similar characteristics, we tend to group them together and this organizing mechanism helps us to deal with information in an efficient way rather than getting bogged down and

confused with so many details. This tendency of grouping is very basic in nature and largely seems to be inborn.

Some of the factors underlying his grouping are:

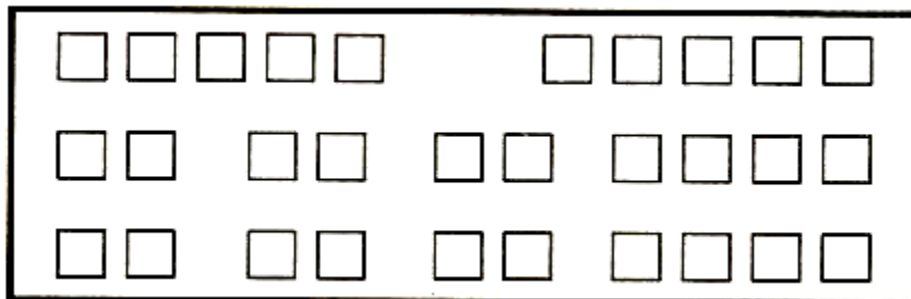
(a) Similarity:

The principle of similarity states that the greater the similarity of the stimuli, the greater the tendency to perceive them as a common group. The principle of similarity is exemplified when objects of similar shape, size or colour tend to be grouped together. For example, if all visitors to a plant are required to wear white hats while the supervisors wear blue hats, the workers can identify all the white hats as the group of visitors. Another example is our general tendency to perceive minority and women employees as a single group.

(b) Proximity:

The principle of proximity or nearness states that a group of stimuli that are close together will be perceived as a whole pattern of parts belonging together. For example, several people working on a machine will be considered as a single group so that if the productivity on that particular machine is low, then the entire group will be considered responsible even though, only some people in the group may be inefficient. The following figure demonstrates the proximity principle.

The ten squares in the figure are seen as pairs of two, three, four or five depending on their nearness to each other:

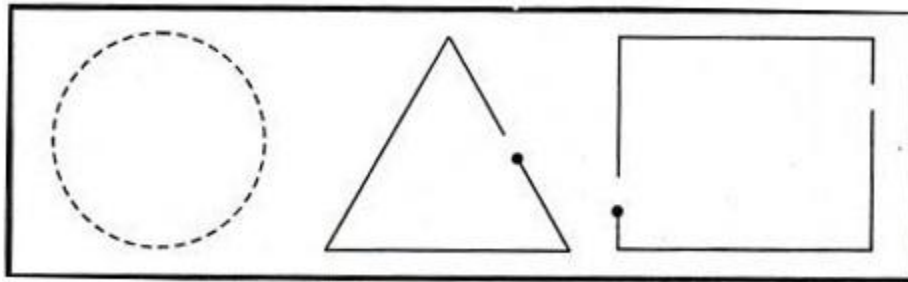


(c) Closure:

The principle of closure relates to the tendencies of the people to perceive objects as a whole, even when some parts of the object are missing. The

person's perceptual process will close the gaps that are unfilled from sensory input.

For example, in the following figure the sections of the figures are not complete, but being familiar with the shapes we tend to close the gaps and perceive it as a whole:



Speaking from the point of view of an organisation, if a manager perceives a worker, on the whole, a hard worker, sincere, honest, then even, if he behaves in a contradictory way sometimes (which is a kind of a gap), the manager will tend to ignore it, because it does not fit in with the overall impression, that he has about the worker.

(d) Continuity:

Continuity is closely related to closure. But there is a difference. Closure supplies missing stimuli, whereas the continuity principle says that a person will tend to perceive continuous lines of pattern. The continuity may lead to inflexible or non creative thinking on the part of the organisational participants. Only the obvious patterns or relationships will be perceived. Because of this type of perception, the inflexible managers may require that employers follow a set and step by step routine leaving no ground for implementation of out of line innovative ideas.

(iii) Perceptual Constancy:

Constancy is one of the more sophisticated forms of perceptual organisation. This concept gives a person a sense of stability in this changing world. This principle permits the individuals to have some constancy or stability in a tremendously variable and highly complex world. If constancy were not at work, the world would be very chaotic and dis-organised for the individual.

There are several aspects of constancy:**(a) Shape Constancy:**

Whenever an object appears to maintain its shape despite marked changes in the retinal image e.g. the top of a glass bottle is seen as circular whether we view it from the side or from the top.

(b) Size Constancy:

The size constancy refers to the fact that as an object is moved farther away from us we tend to see it as more or less un-variant in size. For example, the players in cricket field on the opposite side of the field do not look smaller than those closer to you even though their images on the retina of the eye are much smaller.

(c) Colour Constancy:

Colour constancy implies that familiar objects are perceived to be of the same colour in varied conditions. The owner of a red car sees it as red in the bright sunlight as well as in dim twilight. Without perceptual constancy the size, shape and colour of objects would change as the worker moved about and it would make the job almost impossible.

(iv) Perceptual Context:

The highest and most sophisticated forms of organisation are context. It gives meaning and value to simple stimuli, objects, events, situations and other persons in the environment. The organisational structure and culture provide the primary context in which workers and managers do their perceiving. For example, a verbal order, a new policy, a pat on the back, a raised eye brow or a suggestion takes on special meaning when placed in the context of the work organisation.

(v) Perceptual Defence:

Closely related to perceptual context is the perceptual defence. A person may build a defence against stimuli or situational events in a particular context that are personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Accordingly, perceptual defence may play a very important role in understanding union-

management and supervisor-subordinate relationship. Most studies verify the existence of a perceptual defence mechanism.

The general conclusions drawn from these studies are that people may learn to avoid certain conflicting, threatening or unacceptable aspects of the context. The various defenses may be denial of an aspect, by modification and distortion, by change in the perception, then the last but not the least is recognition but refusal to change.

C. Perceptual Interpretation:

Perceptual interpretation is an integral part of the perception process. Without interpretation, selection and organisation of information do not make any sense. After the information has been received and organised, the perceiver interprets or assigns meaning to the information. In fact, perception is said to have taken place only after the data have been interpreted. Several factors contribute towards the interpretation of data.

More important among them are perceptual set, attribution, stereotyping, halo effect, perceptual context, perceptual defence, implicit personality theory and projection. It may also be noted that in the process of interpretation, people tend to become judgmental. They may tend to distort what they see and even ignore things that they feel are unpleasant.

D. Checking:

After data have been received and interpreted, the perceiver tends to check whether his interpretations are right or wrong. One way of checking is for the person himself to indulge in introspection. He will put a series of questions to himself and the answers will confirm whether his perception about an individual or object is correct or otherwise. Another way is to check the validity of the interpretation with others.

E. Reacting:

The last stage in perception is the reaction. The perceiver shall indulge in some action in relation to the perception. The action depends on whether the perception is favourable or unfavourable. It is negative when the perception is unfavourable and the action is positive when the perception is favourable.

III. Perceptual Outputs:

Perceptual outputs encompass all that results from the throughout process. These would include such factors as one's attitudes, opinions, feelings, values and behaviours resulting from the perceptual inputs and throughputs. Perceptual errors adversely affect the perceptual outputs. The lesser our biases in perception, the better our chances of perceiving reality as it exists or at least perceiving situations with the minimum amount of distortions.

This will help us to form the right attitudes and engage in appropriate behavioural patterns, which in turn will be beneficial for attaining the desired organisational outcomes. It is essentially important for managers who are responsible for organisational results to enhance their skills in order to develop the right attitudes and behaviours.

Perceptual Process

Perception is a process of receiving, selecting, organising, interpreting, checking and reacting to stimuli. This is like an input-through put-output process in which the stimuli can be considered as 'inputs' transformation of 'input' through selection, organization and interpretation as 'through puts' and the ultimate behaviour/action as 'output'. The whole perceptual process can be presented as follows : These are explained one by one

1. Receiving Stimuli : The first process in the perception is the presence of stimuli. The stimuli are received from the various sources. Through the five organs. It is a physiological aspect of perception process. Stimuli may be external to us (such as sound waves) and inside us (such as energy generation by muscles).

2. Selection of Stimuli : After receiving the stimuli or data, some are selected. Others are screened out. Two types of factors affect selection of stimuli for processing : external and internal factors. External factors relate to stimuli such as intensity of stimuli, its size, movement, repetition, etc. Internal factors, relate to the perceiver such as his/her age, learning, interest, etc. Normally, he will select the objects which interest him and will avoid that for which he is indifferent. This is also called 'selective perception'.

3. Organization of Stimuli : Organising the bits of information into a meaningful whole is called "organization". There are three ways by which the selected data, i.e., inputs are organised. These are :

(i) Grouping, (ii) Closure and (iii) Simplification.

(i) **Grouping :** In grouping, the perceiver groups the various stimuli on the basis of their similarity or proximity. For example, all the workers coming from the same place may be perceived as similar on the basis of proximity.

(ii) **Closure :** When faced with incomplete information, people fill up the gaps themselves to make the information meaningful. This may be done on the basis of past experience, past data, or hunches. For example, in many advertisement, alphabets are written by putting electric bulbs indicating the shape of the concerned alphabets but broken lines. In such cases, people tend to fill up the gap among different bulbs to get meaning out of these.

(iii) **Simplification :** People identify main stimulus features and assesses how they are organized. He interprets a stimulus situation, the perceiver simplifies the information.

Selective perception is the tendency not to notice and more quickly forget stimuli that cause emotional discomfort and contradict our prior beliefs. For example, a teacher may have a favorite student because they are biased by in-group favoritism. The teacher ignores the student's poor attainment. Conversely, they might not notice the progress of their least favorite student.

Perceptual

Selectivity

Perceptual selection is the process by which people filter out irrelevant or less significant information so that they can deal with the most important matters.

Perceptual Selection is determined by

- External Factors
- Internal Factors

External Factors affecting perceptual selection:

Size: The larger the size, the more likely it is to be perceived. The tallest person in the office will invariably be noticed.

Intensity: The more intense an external factor (bright light, loud noise, high pitch sound etc.) the more likely it is to be perceived. One may notice that the TV commercials always have high pitch as compared to normal telecast.

Contrast: External factors that stand out against the background or things that are not which people expect are more likely to be perceived.

Motion: A moving factor is more likely to be perceived than stationary factor. Films (motion pictures) attract people more than a static picture.

Repetition: A repeated factor is more likely to be noticed. Marketing managers use this principle in trying to get attention of the prospective customers.

Novelty and familiarity: Either novelty or familiarity will can attract attention. People would quickly notice a person riding an elephant on a busy street in Delhi. On the other hand, one is likely to spot a familiar face in a crowd or a familiar voice even if there is a lot of noise and confusion. A combination of these or similar factor may be operating at any time to affect perception. Along with the internal factors, they determine whether any particular stimulus is more or less likely to be noticed.

Internal factors affecting perceptual selection:

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

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

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

Perceptual Organization

Figure-ground: Perceived objects stand out as separable from their general background. In the context of organizations, a company may import a new technology in order to compete in the globalized economy. Here import of a new technology is a figure and global competitive environment is the background. The employees will immediately notice the installation of new technology whereas the global competitive environment is not visible by naked eyes. **Perceptual grouping:** There is a general tendency among individuals to group several stimuli together into a recognizable pattern. There are certain underlying uniformities in grouping. When simple constellations of stimuli are presented to people, they tend to group them together by closure, continuity, proximity, and similarity.

Closure: An individual may perceive a whole while one actually does not exists. The person's perceptual process closes the gaps that are unfilled by from sensory inputs. In a formal organization, employees may either see a 'whole' that does not exists or not be able to put the pieces together into a 'whole' that does exists. For example, head of a project team may take the view that the entire team agrees to his plan of action whereas there are differing views among the team members, which remains unarticulated in a formal manner. On the other hand, a functional team might view/perceive that their objectives are the objectives of the whole company.

Continuity: An individual tend to perceive continuous lines/patterns. This leads to inflexible thinking on the part of organizational members (both managers and employees). Thus, only the obvious, continuous patterns or relationships are perceived. For example, a new design for some production process or product may be limited to obvious flows or continuous lines/patterns. New innovative ideas or designs may not be perceived.

Proximity: A group of stimuli that are close together will be perceived as a whole pattern of parts belonging together. For example, several employees in an organization may be identified as a single group because of physical proximity. Several workers who work on a particular process may be viewed as a single whole. If the output is low and the supervisor reports a number of grievances from the group, the management may perceive that all the workers working on that particular process are trouble makers whereas in some of them might be loyal and dedicated employees.

Similarity: The greater the similarity of stimuli, the greater is the tendency to perceive them as a common group. Similarity is conceptually related to proximity but in most cases stronger than proximity. In an organization, all employees who wear blue collars may be perceived as a common group, when in reality, each employee is a unique individual. This might also lead to perceptual error termed as stereotyping.

Perceptual Constancy: There are two issues. While objective reality of stimuli remains unchanged, people's subjective reality also remains constant. That is, the individual is likely to give meaning to stimuli in the same way whenever exposed to them unless and until objective reality has been revealed more broadly by way of undoing the perceptual errors. For example, a manager in the company who believes that female employees are poor performers would continue to have the same perception until and unless the latter prove that they are better than their male colleagues.

Perceptual Context: It gives meaning and value to simple stimuli in the environment. The organizational culture and structure provide the primary context in which workers and managers perceive things. Thus, a verbal order, an e-mail message, a new policy, a suggestion, a raised eyebrow, a pat on the back takes on special meaning and value when placed in the context of work organization.

Distortion in Perception:

Distortion in perception results in creating communication gap. It is a serious barrier to communication and a reason for communication failure. H Joseph Reitz has rightly pointed out that "communication may fail because the communicate perceptually ready to receive certain communication actually receives different communication.

“A halo effect also creates a distortion. It refers to perceiving people as good or bad or influential. Prof. K Aswathappa has observed, “A common phenomenon in communication is the tendency for a receiver to evaluate information on the basis of its source.

Information emanating from a VIP tends to be overrated and the same coming from an ordinary individual is likely to be discounted.” The perceiver’s personality, his values, needs and attitudes, environment in organisation etc. influence perception.

Managers must therefore understand the importance of perception in organisational behaviour and its effects on communication. They should realize the existence of perceptual differences at any time and in any given situation. They must be aware of all this and should confirm and seek information from various sources to make decisions.

Definition of personality

Personality means how a person affects others and how he understands and views himself as well as the pattern of inner and outer measurable traits and the person-situation interactions (Fred Luthans). According to Stephen P. Robbins, personality is the sum total ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others. It may be defined as those inner psychological characteristics that both determine and reflect how a person responds to his environment. Personality can be defined as those inner psychological characteristics that both determine and reflect how a person responds to the environment.

Determinants

1. Heredity : Human behaviour is partly affected by heredity. The parent's qualities are passed on to the children through the molecular structure of genes located in the chromosomes. In our day to day life, so many times we use the term "Like father like son" as "Like Mother like daughter".

2. Environment : All personality traits are not determined by heredity. Environment also plays a very important role in the development of personality of a person. Environment comprises of culture, family, social and situational factors.

(a) **Culture** : Culture is sum total of learned believes, values and customs. Cultural factors

determine how a person acts whether independently or dependently. Culture establishes norms, attitudes and values that are passed along from generation to generation.

(b) **Family** : Families influence the behaviour of a person especially in the early stages. The

nature of such influence will depend upon the following factors :

(i) Socio-economic level of the family

(ii) Family size

(iii) Birth order

(iv) Race

(v) Religion

(vi) Parent's educational level and Geographic location.

(c) **Social** : Socialization is a process by which an infant acquires customary and acceptable

behaviour. Social life has a considerable impact on the individual's behaviour. A man is known by the company he keeps. Social groups influence the behaviour of the individuals.

(d) **Situational** : Situational factors also play a very important role in determining the personality of a person. Life is a collection of experiences. Some of the events and experiences can serve as important determinants of his personality.



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

Coimbatore - 641021.

(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organizational Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Unit – III

Attitude – Concepts – Theories of Attitude Formation – Factors in Attitude Formations
– Attitude Change. Stress – Causes of Stress – Effects of Stress – Stress Coping
Strategies – Individual and Organizational.

Text Book

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UNIT -3

An attitude is generally defined as the way a person responds to his or her environment, either positively or negatively.

An attitude is a positive, negative, or mixed evaluation of an object that is expressed at some level of intensity. Our attitude can vary in strength along both positive affect, and with negative affect, with ambivalence or with apathy and indifference. It usually implies feelings that are either positive or negative. Social psychologists use the term attitude differently. Gordon Allport formulated the following definition: "An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related."

Contents

- Nature of Attitude
- Characteristics of attitudes
- Comparison of Attitude and Beliefs

Nature of Attitude

- Attitudes are a complex combination of things we tend to call personality, beliefs, values, behaviors, and motivations.
- An attitude exists in every person's mind. It helps to define our identity, guide our actions, and influence how we judge people.
- Although the feeling and belief components of attitude are internal to a person, we can view a person's attitude from his or her resulting behavior.
- Attitude helps us define how we see situations, as well as define how we behave toward the situation or object.
- Attitude provides us with internal cognitions or beliefs and thoughts about people and objects.
- Attitudes cause us to behave in a particular way toward an object or person.

Characteristics of attitudes

Attitude can be characterized by:

- **Affective Cognitive consistency:** The degree of consistency between the affective and cognitive components influences the attitude—behavior relationship. That is, the greater the consistency between cognition and evaluation, the greater the strength of the attitude-behavior relation.
- **Strength:** Attitudes based on direct experience with the object may be held with greater certainty. Certainty is also influenced by whether affect or cognition was involved in the creation of the attitude. Attitudes formed based on affect are more certain than attitudes based on cognition
- **Valence:** It refers to the degree or grade of likeliness or unlikeliness toward the entity/incident. If a person is fairly unconcerned toward an object then his attitude has low valence.
- **Direct Experience:** An attitude is a summary of a person's past experience; thus, an attitude is grounded in direct experience predicts future behavior more accurately. Moreover, direct experience makes more information available about the object itself.
- **Multiplicity:** It refers to the amount of features creating the attitude. For example, one may show interest in becoming a doctor, but another not only shows interest, but also works hard, is sincere, and serious.
- **Relation to Needs:** Attitudes vary in relative to requirements they serve. Attitudes of an individual toward the pictures serve only entertainment needs, but attitudes of an employee toward task may serve strong needs for security, achievement, recognition, and satisfaction.

- **Formation/Sources of Attitudes:**

Attitudes refer to the feelings and beliefs of “individuals or groups of individuals. But the question is how these feelings and beliefs developed? The point which has been stressed by many people are that attitudes are acquired, but not inherited. A person acquires these attitudes from several sources.

The Attitudes are acquired but not important sources of acquiring attitudes are as discussed below:

1. Direct Personal Experience:

A person's direct experience with the attitude object determines his attitude towards it. The personal experience of an individual, whether it is favourable or unfavourable, will affect his attitude deeply. These attitudes which are based on personal experience are difficult to change. For example, an individual joins a new job, which is recommended to him by his friend. But when he joins the job, he finds his work repetitive, supervisors too tough and co-workers not so co-operative, he would develop a negative attitude towards his job, because the quality of his direct experience with the job is negative.

- **2. Association:**

Sometimes an individual comes across a new attitude object which may be associated with an old attitude object. In such a case, the attitude towards the old attitude object may be transferred towards the new attitude object. For example, if a new worker remains most of the time in the company of a worker, who is in the good books of the supervisor, and towards whom the supervisor has a positive attitude, the supervisor is likely to develop a favourable attitude towards the new worker also. Hence the positive attitude for the old worker has been transferred towards the new worker because of the association between the old and the new worker.

- **3. Family and Peer Groups:**

Attitudes like values are acquired from parents, teachers and peer group members. In our early years, we begin modeling our attitudes after those we admire, respect or may be even fear. We observe the way our family and friends behave and we shape our attitudes and behaviour to align with theirs. We do so even without being told to do so and even without having direct experience. Similarly, attitudes are acquired from peer groups in colleges and organisations. For example, if the right thing is to visit "Hot Millions", or the "Domino's", you are likely to hold that attitude. If your parents support one political party, without being told to do so, you automatically start favouring that party.

- **4. Neighbourhood:**

The neighbourhood in which we live has certain cultural facilities, religious groupings and ethnic differences. Further, it has people, who are neighbours. These people may be Northerners, Southerners etc. The people belonging to different cultures have different attitudes and behaviours. Some of these we accept and some of these we deny and possibly rebel. The conformity or rebellion in some respects is the evidence of the attitudes we hold.

- **5. Economic Status and Occupations:**

The economic status and occupational position of the individual also affect his attitude formation. Our socio-economic background influences our present and future attitudes. Research findings have shown that unemployment disturbs former religious and economic values. Children of professional class tend to be conservatives. Respect for the laws of the country is associated with increased years of higher education.

- **6. Mass Communications:**

Attitudes are generally less stable as compared to values. Advertising messages for example, attempt to alter the attitude of the people toward a certain product or service. For example, if the people at Hyundai Santro can get you to hold a favourable feeling toward their cars, that attitude may lead to a desirable behaviour (for them)-your purchase of a Santro car.

Social learning forms of social interaction. In social interaction, individuals form different patterns of attitudes toward psychological object faces. Among the various factors that influence the formation of attitudes are:

1. **Personal experience.** In order to be the basis of attitudes, personal experiences have left a strong impression. Therefore, the attitude will be more easily formed when personal experience involves emotional factors. In situations involving emotions, appreciation will be more in-depth experience and longer trace.
2. **Culture.** B.F. Skinner (in, Azwar 2005) emphasized the influence of the environment (including culture) in shaping one's personality. No other personality than a consistent pattern of behavior that illustrate the history of reinforcement (reinforcement, reward) owned. The pattern of

reinforcement from the public to the attitude and behavior, rather than to the attitudes and behavior of others.

3. **Other people are considered important.** In general, the individual being conformist or the direction of the attitude of the people it deems important. The trend is partly motivated by a desire for affiliation and the desire to avoid conflict with the people considered important.
4. **Media.** As a means of communication, the mass media such as television, radio, has a major influence in shaping people's opinions and beliefs. There is new information on something that provides the foundation for the emergence of new cognitive attitudes towards it. Suggestive messages that carry information, if strong enough, will provide basic affective in assessing something emepersiapkan and forming attitudes toward certain.
5. **Educational Institutions and Religious.** As a system, educational and religious institutions have a strong influence in shaping attitudes because they lay the foundation of understanding and moral concepts within the individual. Understanding the good and the bad, the dividing line between something that can and can not do, is obtained from the center of the educational and religious activities and teachings.
6. **Emotional factors in themselves.** Not all forms of attitude is determined by environmental circumstances and personal experiences. Sometimes, a form of attitude is a statement that is based on emotion which serves as a sort of channeling frustration or transfer form ego defense mechanisms. Such an attitude is temporary and goes away so frustrating was lost but could also be more persistent attitude and more durable. example form attitudes based on emotional factors are prejudice.

Changing the Attitude

Attitudes of employees are not always rigid, these can be changed. Sometimes, it is in the best interests of the organization to try to do so. For example, if the employees have got a negative attitude towards their job or towards the management and organization, he is dissatisfied, he feels that he is not taken care of by the management; management would like to change this attitude, because happy work force is the major strength of the organisation. But

sometimes, attitudes change is very difficult to accomplish because of certain barriers. Therefore, the job of the management is to identify these barriers and then examine the ways of overcoming them and effectively changing the attitudes.

Types of Change:

The changes in attitude can be classified into the following two types:

1. Congruent Change:

Congruent change in attitude means that the change is a movement in the same direction but the intensity of feeling is reduced. For example, if a person dislikes his boss very much, this negative attitude may persist, but the degree of dislike will be reduced.

2. Incongruent Change:

Incongruent change involves change of direction itself from negative to positive or vice versa towards the person. For example, if in the above example, that person starts liking his boss; this is a change from negative to positive attitude.

A. Barriers to Changing Attitudes:

1. Prior Commitments:

One barrier to change of attitude is prior commitments. This occurs when people feel a commitment to a particular course of action and are unwilling to change. Theory and research have also supported escalation of commitment which means, tendency of the decision makers to persist with failing course of action.

For example, if the president of a company is an MBA from IIM, Ahmedabad and he himself appoints a marketing manager who is also from the same institute. Unfortunately, the things are not working out well and the marketing manager is not very good. However, as the president has himself hired this man, he is unwilling to admit the mistake. Using the ego-defensive function of attitudes, the president distorts all negative information received about the marketing manager and continues to believe that everything is going well and the right selection decision was made.

2. Strong Commitment:

If an employee is strongly committed, it becomes difficult to change his or her attitude. In other words we can say that the stronger the belief about the attitude, the harder it is to change it.

3. Publicly Expressed Attitudes:

Attitudes that have been expressed publicly are more difficult to change. This is because of the fact, that it requires a lot of effort for one to admit his or her mistake.

4. Low Credibility:

The term credibility implies trust, expertise and objectivity. Employees are least interested in responding to change the efforts made by someone who is not liked, has low rate of credibility and is not convincing. If people hate you, they are least interested in adopting your message.

5. Insufficient Information:

Sometimes people do not see any reason as to why they should change their attitudes. The boss may not like the negative attitude of the subordinate, but the subordinate may be quite pleased with his own behaviour. Till the boss shows him that his negative attitude will hinder his career progress and his salary increase, he will continue to have the negative feelings. This is particularly true when the attitude is a result of poor treatment by the management. The worker will use the negative attitude to serve an adjustment function "I can't respect a manager who treats us the way he does."

6. Degree of Fear:

If there is a low level of fear, people often ignore it as the warnings are not strong enough to warrant attention. Similarly, if a very high degree of fear is used, people again reject the message and refuse to be persuaded as the warnings are too threatening and thus not believable. In both these situations it is difficult to change the attitude of employees.

B. Ways of Overcoming the Barriers and Changing the Attitudes:

1. Providing New Information:

One of the ways of changing the attitudes is by providing new information. Sometimes, this information will change a person's beliefs and in this process his attitudes. This is specifically true when the reason for the negative attitude is insufficient or misleading information. For example, people generally have a negative attitude towards the staff at railway reservation counters.

They believe that the staff avoids the work. Therefore, whenever there is some delay in getting the reservation, people express their displeasure towards the staff. Such a negative attitude can be changed by drawing the attention of public towards the circumstances in which the staff works. Sometimes, the staff is to deal with illiterate or ignorant passengers which consume a lot of time.

2. Use of Fear:

A second way of changing the attitudes is through the use of fear. Research has found out that fear can cause some people to change their attitude. However, the degree of fear is very important for the final outcome.

We can explain it with the help of the following table:

Degree of fear	Outcome	Reason
(i) Low level of fear	People often ignore them	Warnings are not strong enough to warrant attention.
(ii) Moderate level of fear	People change their attitudes	People become aware of the situation.
(iii) High degree of fear	People reject the message and refuse to be persuaded	Warnings are too threatening and thus not believable.

For example, the department of health and social welfare prepares an antismoking commercial. If the commercial threatens the people that they will die of cancer if they don't quit smoking, people simply shut it out and refuse to listen because it is too threatening. As a result the commercial will not have the desired impact. On the other hand, if before giving the advertisement of a cigarette, we give a statutory warning that "cigarette smoking is injurious to health", it is a very low level fear and people often ignore it. Therefore, health officials should find commercials that use only moderate fear arousal.

3. Resolving Discrepancies:

Another way of changing the attitudes is by resolving discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour. For example, research shows that when a person has more than one offer of a job and he has to make a choice, he often feels that his final choice may have been a mistake.

However, the theory of cognitive dissonance says that this mild conflict or dissonance will not last long because people will try to actively reduce the dissonance by attitude and behaviour change. When he takes the new job and starts working, he will start having negative feelings towards the jobs which he has not chosen and positive ones towards the job which he has chosen. In the end, he will conclude that he has indeed made the right choice.

4. Influence of Friends or Peers:

Change of attitude can come about through persuasion of friends or peers. Credibility of the others, especially the peers, is important to effect change. Peers with high credibility shall exercise significant influence as compared to those peers who have low credibility.

5. The Co-opting Approach:

Another way in which attitude change takes place is by co-opting, which means taking people who are dissatisfied with a situation and getting them involved in improving things. For example, an employee feels that the company should be doing something for improving the employees' benefits. The company appoints him as a member of the employees benefit committee. By giving him the opportunity to participate in employee benefit decision making, the company increases the chances that his attitude will change. Once he realizes the practical problems involved in determining the best possible benefits and the efforts and hard work involved in it, he is most likely to change his attitude.

6. Oral Persuasion Technique:

All the attitude change techniques are not equally effective across different situations. Another way in which attitude can be changed is through oral-persuasion. Oral persuasion techniques are most effective when you use a positive and tactful tone, present strong evidence and use logic to support your position.

7. Training Sessions:

The use of training sessions in which employees share and personalize their experiences and practice new behaviours can be a powerful stimulant for changing attitude.

8. Others:

Research has proved the following points which will help in changing the attitudes:

- (i) An individual is more likely to change a privately held attitude than the one he has stated publicly.
- (ii) An individual from a culturally deprived environment who holds a number of hostile attitudes may change when he is given opportunities for education.
- (iii) A person from a privileged back ground, who has always held to a democratic attitude, may become negative towards some group because of some unfortunate experience.

Through continued interaction with others holding similar attitudes, one can be influenced in a positive or negative direction.

Stress

Stress is defined in terms of how it [impacts](#) physical and psychological health; it includes mental, physical, and emotional strain. Stress occurs when a demand exceeds an individual's coping ability and disrupts his or her psychological equilibrium. Stress occurs in the workplace when an employee perceives a situation to be too strenuous to handle, and therefore threatening to his or her well-being.

Causes of Stress: There may be numerous conditions in which people may feel stress. Conditions that tend, like death of near one, usually stressors combine to press an individual in a variety of ways until stress develops. The various stressors can be grouped into four categories: individual, group, organizational, and extra organizational. Within each category, there may be several stressors. Through, stressors have been classified into these categories, all eventually get

down to the individual level and put stress on stress on individuals. Various stressors have been presented in fig:

Individual stressors : There are many stressors at the level of individual which may be generated in the context of organizational life or his personal life. There are several such events which may work as stressors. These are life and career changes, personality type, and role characteristics.

Life and career changes: Stress is produced by several changes in life and career. Research studies show that, in general, every transition or change produces stress. People in newer places experience such state of transition as stress. Young adults between 20 and 30 years of age have been found to report twice as many stressful events, compared to older people. Stress has been found more amongst urban population than rural, and greater in higher educational categories. Any change in life of an individual puts him on disequilibrium state of affairs and he is required to bring a new equilibrium. In this process, he experiences stress. The impact of stress would depend upon the change and new equilibrium required as a consequence. Life's changes may be slow and gradual or sudden. In both these cases, intensity of stress would be different. Like life changes, there may be changes in career, in the form of promotion, demotion, transfer, separation. With each change, some kind of stress is experienced.

Personality Type: Personality characteristics, such as authoritarianism, rigidity, masculinity, femininity, extroversion, supportiveness, spontaneity, emotionality, tolerance for ambiguity, locus of control, anxiety, and need for achievement are particularly relevant to individual stress.

Group Stressors: Group interaction affects human behavior. Therefore, there may be some factors in group processes which act as stressors. Following are the major stressors:

1. **Lack of group cohesiveness :** Group cohesiveness is important for the satisfaction of individuals in group interaction. When they are denied the opportunity for this cohesiveness, it become very stressing for them as they negative reaction from group members.
2. **Lack of social support :** When individuals get social support from members of the group. They are able to satisfying their social needs and

they are better off. When this social support does not come, it becomes stressing for them.

3. **Conflict** : Any conflict arising out of group interaction may become stressing for the individuals, be it interpersonal conflict among the group members or intergroup conflict.

Organizational Stressors: An organization is composed of individuals and groups and therefore, individual and group stressors may also exist in organizational context. However, there are macro level dimensions of organizational functioning which may work as stressors. The major organizational stressors are as follows:

Organizational policies: organizational policies provide guidelines for action. Unfavorable and ambiguous policies may affect the functioning of the individuals adversely and they may experience stress. Thus unfair and arbitrary performance evaluation, unrealistic job description, frequent reallocation of activities, rotating work shifts, ambiguous procedures, inflexible rules, inequality of incentives, etc. work as stressors.

Organization structure: Organization structure provides formal relationships among individuals in an organization. Any defect in organization structure like lack of opportunity of participation in decision making, lack of opportunity for advancement, high degree of specialization, excessive interdependence of various departments, line and staff conflict, etc. works as stressors as relationship among individual and groups do not work effectively.

Organizational Processes: Organizational processes also affect individual behavior at work. Faulty organizational process like poor communication, poor and inadequate feedback of work performance, ambiguous and conflicting roles, unfair control systems, adequate information flow etc. cause stress for people in the organization.

Physical Condition: Organizational physical conditions affect work performance. Thus, poor physical conditions like crowding and lack of privacy, excessive noise, excessive heat or cold, pressure of toxic chemicals and radiation, air pollution, safety hazards, poor lighting, etc, produce stress on people.

Extra-organisational Stressors: Since an organization interacts continuously with its environmental, events happening outside the organization also work

as stressors. Thus social and technical changes, economic and financial conditions, social class conflicts, community conditions etc. work as stressors.

Coping strategies for stress

When we look at stress from organizational point of view, management may not be concerned about the low to moderate levels of stress experienced by the employees. The reason is, that some functional level of stress is necessary to improve employee performance. But high levels of stress and sustained low levels of stress are a cause of action by the management. But when we look at stress from individual's point of view even the low levels of stress are perceived to be undesirable. Keeping this in mind we can discuss the individual and organizational approaches towards managing stress. Before discussing these approaches, we must keep in mind two points :

(i) Firstly, we must not make any generalization. Each of us have different limits, different optimum stress levels and will perceive the sources of stress differently. One person's overstress may be another person's challenge and optimum stress.

(ii) Secondly, we need to differentiate between what we can do to equip ourselves and to organise our environment to prevent us from becoming over or under stressed. We label this as **Prevention**. Yet, however, well, we prepare ourselves and try to control our environment from time to time, we will still experience undesirable stress. It is then that we need to have developed **Management Skills**.

Now we discuss the individual's and organizational approaches to managing stress.

Individual approaches

As we know that stress has got a number of negative consequences for the individuals, that is why every individual should take personal responsibility for reducing his or her stress level. There are a number of ways by which a person can either avoid stressful conditions, change them or learn to cope with them. Stress can be managed by an individual, which will enable him to regain control over his life. Some of the stress reducing strategies from individual's point of view are :

1. Knowledge About Stress : in the first stage, an individual should become knowledgeable about stress. He should know about the process and effects of stress. He must find out the major sources of his stress. He must anticipate stressful periods and plan accordingly in advance. He must be honest with himself and decide what he can cope with what he cannot.

2. Physiological Fitness : Exercise in any form can help people in coping with the stress. Non competitive physical exercise such as aerobics, walking, jogging, swimming, riding a bicycle, playing softball or tennis have been recommended by physicans as a way to deal with excessive stress levels. There is evidence to suggest that individuals who exercise are much less likely to suffer from certain types of stress related exercises. With proper exercise, diet control and nonsmoking habits, blood pressure and cholesterol become controlled and the body becomes more resistant to pressures. People are more likely to get physically sick or emotionally depressed if they are over weight or poorly nourished.

3. Time Management : Most of the people are very poor in managing the time. They do not know that what must be done and when it would be desirable to do so. The result of poor time management is feeling of work overload, skipped schedules and tension. A well organized person can often accomplish twice as much as the person who is poorly organized. Therefore, an individual must understand how to manage his time so that he can cope with tensions created by job demands. A few of the well known time management principles are :

- (i) Preparing a daily list of activities to be attended to.
- (ii) Prioritizing activities by importance and urgency.
- (iii) Scheduling activities according to the priorities set.
- (iv) Knowing your daily schedule and handling the most demanding parts of a job when you are most alert and productive.

4. Assertiveness : An individual should become assertive. He should not say 'Yes' when he wants to say 'No'. He should start saying No to people or managers who demand too much of his time. Being assertive is an important factor in reducing stress.

5. Social Support Network : Every person should have people to turn to, talk to and rely upon. Good friends become highly supportive during times of stress and crisis. Social network includes friends, family or work colleagues. Expanding your social support system can be a means for tension reduction because friends are there when needed and provide support to get the person through stressful situation.

6. Readjust life Goals : Every individual must know what he really wants to do. This should relate to not only the major decision of the life but to all activities in our life. He must know what is important for him. Because of the severe competition in life to go ahead, most individuals set very high standards and goals for themselves. These high expectations and limited resources to reach such expectations result in stress. Accordingly, every person must readjust his goals and make sure he has ability and resources to reach such goals. Perhaps the goals should be established after the resources have been analysed.

7. Relaxation Techniques : Every individual must teach himself to reduce tension through relaxation techniques such as Yoga, meditation, hypnosis and biofeedback. 15-20 minutes a day of deep relaxation releases tension and provides a person with pronounced sense of peacefulness. Deep relaxation condition will bring significant changes in heart rate, blood pressure and other physiological factors. Yoga is probably the most effective remedy for stress. Studies have revealed that Yoga has cured several stress related diseases.

8. Plan Your Life in Advance : So many times, people create situations which induce stress because they either did not plan or did a bad job of planning. The traditional Indian attitude of "Whatever will be, will be" a way of accepting the unexpected difficulties in life. This attitude may be relevant in those situations over which we do not have any control like death in the family, but for other events in life, it is better to plan in advance, so that we can confront them with confidence when they occur.

Organizational approaches

Individuals may design their own strategies to reduce stress, but it is a must for the organizations to develop programmes that will help the employees in reducing their stress. This will lead to less employee turnover, absenteeism and as a result productivity will improve. Some of the measures which organizations can take are :

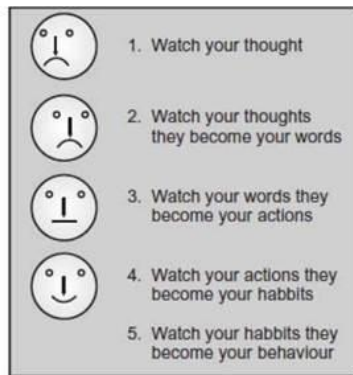


Fig. 8.6: Organizational approach

1. Selection and Placement : Individuals differ in their response to stress situations. We know that 'Type A' individuals are more prone to stress. On the other hand, in the organizations there are certain jobs which are more stressful as compared to other jobs. While doing the selection and placement of the employees, these factors must be kept in mind. The individuals who are more prone to stress should not be put on jobs which are stressful. The individuals who are less prone to stress may adapt better to high stress jobs and perform those jobs more effectively.

2. Goal Setting : Based on extensive amount of research it has been concluded that individuals perform better when they have specific and challenging goals and they receive feedback on how well they are progressing towards those goals. Goal setting can reduce stress as well as provide motivation. It will result in less employee frustration, role ambiguity and stress.

3. Improved Communication : Sometimes due to lack of effective communication from the superiors, the employees do not know what they have to do and how they have to do it. This results in role ambiguity. Similarly, when two or more persons have contradicting role demands from an employee, it reads to role conflict if there is lack of proper communication. Effective communication with employees reduces the uncertainty by lessening role ambiguity and role conflict.

4. Redesigning Jobs : Organizations should redesign the jobs in such a way as to give employees more responsibility, more meaningful work, more autonomy and increased feedback. This will help reduce the stress caused by monotony, routine work, work overload and role ambiguity. Job redesigning

enhances motivation, reduces the stress among the employees and enhances "Quality of work life".

5. Participative Decision Making : If the organizations give the employees participation in those decision that directly affect them and their job performance, it can increase employee control and reduce the role stress. The main reason of role stress is that employees feel uncertain about their goals, expectations and how they will be evaluated. These uncertainties can be reduced by the management by giving the employees a right to participate in the decision making.

6. Building Teamwork : The management should try to create such work environment in which there is no provision for interpersonal conflict or intergroup conflict. Such conflicts are the causes of stress, such should be prevented from building or eliminated if they develop. Accordingly such team work should be developed that groups and the members are mutually supportive and productive. Members of the group should consider themselves as members of the same family and seek social support from each other.

7. Personal Wellness Programmes : These personal wellness programmes focus on the employees total physical and mental condition. Organizations can provide facilities at their premises for physical fitness such as gyms, swimming pools, tennis courts etc. as well as psychological counseling. They should hold seminars or workshops to make the employees understand nature and sources of stress and the possible ways to reduce it. These workshops should help those individuals who are already under stress. Moreover, a supervisor can improve personal wellness of his subordinates through positive example, encouragement and by practicing the basic concepts and techniques of human resource management. To conclude we can say that all these strategies or a combination thereof should be applied to make the work environment less stressful to a level which is positive and challenging.



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organizational Behavior

SEMESTER : I

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CLASS : I M.COM

Unit – IV

Group Dynamics – Concepts and Features of Group – Types of Groups – Formal and Informal Groups – Causes of Informal Organizations – Types of Industrial Organization – Effects of Informal Organization – Group Cohesiveness.

Text Book

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Unit -4**What is Group Dynamics?**

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

Group dynamics is relevant to groups of all kinds – both formal and informal. If the UPA government has set up Group of Ministers for every governance issue, the Supreme Court of India has 27 Group of Judges committees overseeing all manner of non-judicial work in the apex court. In an organizational setting, the term groups are a very common and the study of groups and group dynamics is an important area of study.

What is A Group?

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

Characteristics of a Group:

- (a) 2 or more persons (if it is one person, it is not a group)
- (b) Formal social structure (the rules of the game are defined)
- (c) Common fate (they will swim together)
- (d) Common goals (the destiny is the same and emotionally connected)
- (e) Face-to-face interaction (they will talk with each other)
- (f) Interdependence (each one is complimentary to the other)
- (g) Self-definition as group members (what one is who belongs to the group)
- (h) Recognition by others (yes, you belong to the group).

Process/Stages of Group Development/Evolution:

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

Forming:

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

Storming:

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

Norming:

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

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

Performing:

This is a stage of a fully functional group where members see themselves as a group and get involved in the task. Each person makes a contribution and the authority figure is also seen as a part of the group. Group norms are followed

and collective pressure is exerted to ensure the Process of Group effectiveness of the group.

The group may redefine its goals Development in the light of information from the outside environment and show an autonomous will to pursue those goals.

The long-term viability of the group is established and nurtured.

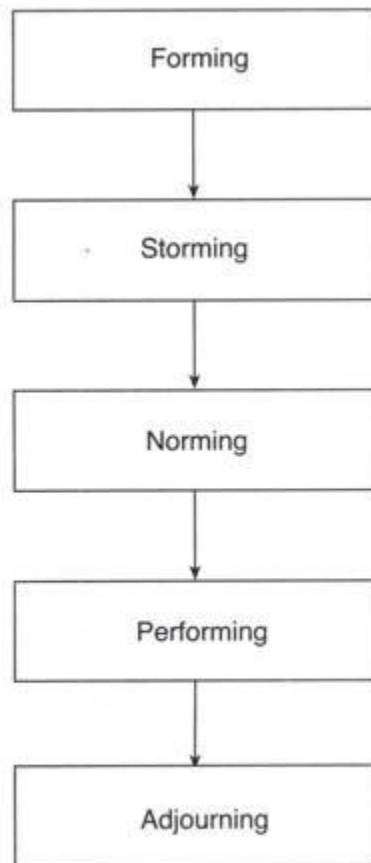


Figure 12.1 : Process of Group Development

Adjourning:

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

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

The readers must note that the four stages of group development mentioned above for permanent groups are merely suggestive. In reality, several stages may go on simultaneously.

Types of Groups:

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

1. Command Groups:

Command groups are specified by the organizational chart and often consist of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to that supervisor. An example of a command group is a market research firm CEO and the research associates under him.

2. Task Groups:

Task groups consist of people who work together to achieve a common task. Members are brought together to accomplish a narrow range of goals within a specified time period. Task groups are also commonly referred to as task forces. The organization appoints members and assigns the goals and tasks to be accomplished.

Examples of assigned tasks are the development of a new product, the improvement of a production process, or designing the syllabus under semester system.

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

3. Functional Groups:

A functional group is created by the organization to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional groups remain in existence after achievement of current goals and objectives. Examples of functional groups

would be a marketing department, a customer service department, or an accounting department.

In contrast to formal groups, informal groups are formed naturally and in response to the common interests and shared values of individuals. They are created for purposes other than the accomplishment of organizational goals and do not have a specified time frame. Informal groups are not appointed by the organization and members can invite others to join from time to time.

Informal groups can have a strong influence in organizations that can either be positive or negative. For example, employees who form an informal group can either discuss how to improve a production process or how to create shortcuts that jeopardize quality. Informal groups can take the form of interest groups, friendship groups, or reference groups.

i. Interest Group:

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

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

ii. Friendship Groups:

Friendship groups are formed by members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values, or other common bonds. Members enjoy each other's company and often meet after work to participate in these activities. For example, a group of employees who form a friendship group may have a yoga group, a Rajasthani association in Delhi, or a kitty party lunch once a month.

iii. Reference Groups:

A reference group is a type of group that people use to evaluate themselves. The main objectives of reference groups are to seek social validation and social comparison. Social validation allows individuals to justify their attitudes and values while social comparison helps individuals evaluate their own actions by

comparing themselves to others. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behavior. Such groups are formed voluntarily. Family, friends, and religious affiliations are strong reference groups for most individuals.

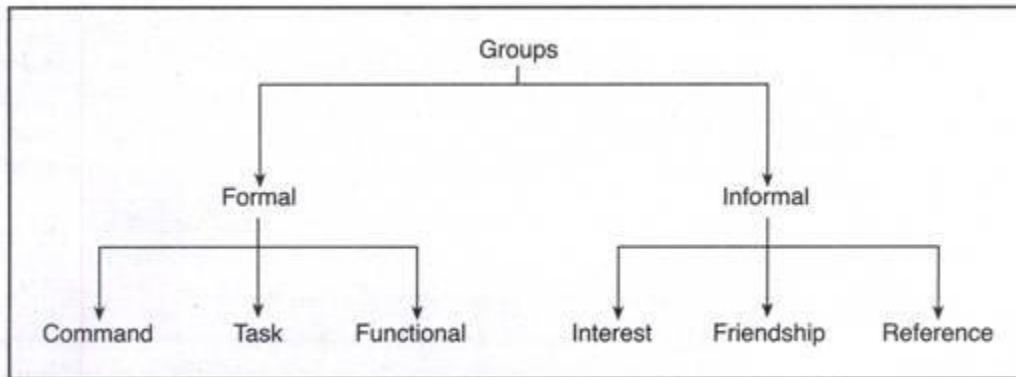


Figure 12.2 : Types of Groups

Factors Affecting Group Behaviour:

The success or failure of a group depends upon so many factors. Group member resources, structure (group size, group roles, group norms, and group cohesiveness), group processes (the communication, group decision making processes, power dynamics, conflicting interactions, etc.) and group tasks (complexity and interdependence).

1. Group Member Resources:

The members' knowledge, abilities, skills; and personality characteristics (sociability, self-reliance, and independence) are the resources the group members bring in with them. The success depends upon these resources as useful to the task.

2. Group Structure:

Group Size:

Group size can vary from 2 people to a very large number of people. Small groups of two to ten are thought to be more effective because each member has ample opportunity to take part and engage actively in the group. Large groups may waste time by deciding on processes and trying to decide who should participate next.

Evidence supports the notion that as the size of the group increases, satisfaction increases up to a certain point. Increasing the size of a group beyond 10-12 members results in decreased satisfaction. It is increasingly difficult for members of large groups to identify with one another and experience cohesion.

Group Roles:

In formal groups, roles are always predetermined and assigned to members. Each role shall have specific responsibilities and duties. There are, however, emergent roles that develop naturally to meet the needs of the groups.

These emergent roles will often substitute the assigned roles as individuals begin to express themselves and become more assertive. Group roles can then be classified into work roles, maintenance roles, and blocking roles.

Work roles are task-oriented activities that involve accomplishing the group's goals. They involve a variety of specific roles such as initiator, informer, clarifier, summarizer, and reality tester.

Maintenance roles are social-emotional activities that help members maintain their involvement in the group and raise their personal commitment to the group. The maintenance roles are harmonizer, gatekeeper, consensus tester, encourager, and compromiser.

Table 12.1 Roles within Group(s)

Initiator	Takes initiative in defining problems, proposing action, and suggesting procedures.
Informer	Finding facts and giving advice or opinions.
Interpreter	Interprets ideas, define terms, and clarify issues.
Summarizer	Restates suggestions, offers decisions, and comes to conclusions.
Reality Taster	Analyzes ideas and tests the ideas in real situations.
Harmoniser	Reduces tension in the group, reconciles differences, and explores opportunities.
Gatekeeper	Keeps communication channels open and makes suggestions that encourage participation.
Consensus tester	Asks if the group is nearing a decision and tests possible conclusions.
Encourager	Being friendly, warm, and responsive to other group members.
Compromiser	Modifies decisions, offers compromises, and admits errors.
Aggressor	Criticizes members' values and makes jokes in a sarcastic, derogatory, or semi-concealed manner.
Blocker	Stubbornly resists the group's ideas, disagrees with group members for personal reasons.
Dominator	Controls conversations by patronizing others.
Comedian	Attention-getters in ways not relevant to group's objectives.
Avoidance Behaviour	Pursuing goals not related to the group and changing the subject to avoid commitment to the group.

Blocking roles are activities that disrupt the group. Blockers will stubbornly resist the group's ideas, disagree with group members for personal reasons, and will have hidden agendas. They may take the form of dominating discussions, verbally attacking other group members, and distracting the group with trivial information or unnecessary humour.

Often times the blocking behaviour may not be intended as negative. Sometimes a member may share a joke in order to break the tension, or may question a decision in order to force group members to rethink the issue. The blocking roles are aggressor, blocker, dominator, comedian, and avoidance behaviour.

Role conflicts arise when there is ambiguity (confusion about delegation and no specific job descriptions) between the sent role and the received role which leads to frustration and dissatisfaction, ultimately leading to turnover; inconsistency between the perceived role and role behaviour (conflict between

work roles and family roles); and conflicting demands from different sources while performing the task.

Group Norms:

Norms define the acceptable standard or boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, shared by group members. They are typically created in order to facilitate group survival, make behaviour more predictable, avoid embarrassing situations, and express the values of the group.

Each group will create its own norms that might determine from the work performance to dress to making comments in a meeting. Groups exert pressure on members to force them to conform to the group's standards and at times not to perform at higher levels. The norms often reflect the level of commitment, motivation, and performance of the group.

The majority of the group must agree that the norms are appropriate in order for the behaviour to be accepted. There must also be a shared understanding that the group supports the norms. It should be noted, however, that members might violate group norms from time to time.

If the majority of members do not adhere to the norms, then they will eventually change and will no longer serve as a standard for evaluating behaviour. Group members who do not conform to the norms will be punished by being excluded, ignored, or asked to leave the group.

Group Cohesiveness:

Cohesiveness refers to the bonding of group members or unity, feelings of attraction for each other and desire to remain part of the group. Many factors influence the amount of group cohesiveness – agreement on group goals, frequency of interaction, personal attractiveness, inter-group competition, favourable evaluation, etc.

The more difficult it is to obtain group membership the more cohesive the group will be. Groups also tend to become cohesive when they are in intense competition with other groups or face a serious external threat to survival. Smaller groups and those who spend considerable time together also tend to be more cohesive.

Cohesiveness in work groups has many positive effects, including worker satisfaction, low turnover and absenteeism, and higher productivity. However, highly cohesive groups may be detrimental to organizational performance if their goals are misaligned with organizational goals.

Highly cohesive groups may also be more vulnerable to groupthink. Groupthink occurs when members of a group exert pressure on each other to come to a consensus in decision making. Groupthink results in careless judgments, unrealistic appraisals of alternative courses of action, and a lack of reality testing.

Evidence suggests that groups typically outperform individuals when the tasks involved require a variety of skills, experience, and decision making. Groups are often more flexible and can quickly assemble, achieve goals, and disband or move on to another set of objectives.

Many organizations have found that groups have many motivational aspects as well. Group members are more likely to participate in decision-making and problem-solving activities leading to empowerment and increased productivity. Groups complete most of the work in an organization; thus, the effectiveness of the organization is limited by the effectiveness of its groups.

Table 12.2: Dysfunctions of a Group

Norms' violation and Role Ambiguity	Role ambiguity and role conflict lead to achieving group goals rather than the organisational goals.
Groupthink and conformity Problem	Illusion that they can do no wrong, illusion that group is in agreement, Seeks consensus and ignore/suppress alternative ideas
Social Loafing	Members reduce their performance levels

3. Group Processes:

Decision-making by a group is superior, because group generates more information and knowledge, generates diverse alternatives, increases acceptance of a solution, and increases legitimacy. But it is also true, that decision making is like 'munde munde matirbhinna'.

Decisions take longer time, minority is dominated, pressure is applied to conform to group decisions, and none is responsible for the decisions. Group

processes also include communication, conflict management, and leadership that we shall discuss in details in the chapters to follow hereafter.

Turning Groups into Effective Teams:

All teams are groups but not all groups are teams. Teams often are difficult to form because it takes time for members to learn how to work together. People in every workplace talk about building the team, working as a team, and my team, but few understand how to create the experience of team work or how to develop an effective team. Belonging to a team, in the broadest sense, is a result of feeling part of something larger than oneself. It has a lot to do with your understanding of the mission or objectives of your organization.

In a team-oriented environment, one contributes to the overall success of the organization. One works with fellow members of the organization to produce these results. Even though you have a specific job function and you belong to a specific department, you are unified with other organization members to accomplish the overall objectives. The bigger picture drives your actions; your function exists to serve the bigger picture.

It is on record that teams are better than groups, because they are more flexible and responsive to dynamic environment. A work group has no opportunity to involve in collective works.

It is the work team whose members 'work intensely on a specific, common goal using their positive synergy, individual and mutual accountability, and complementary skills'.

Table 12.3: Difference between a Group and a Team

<i>Groupa</i>	<i>Team</i>
No opportunity to engage in collective work , which requires joint effort.	Members work intensely with individual and mutual accountability and complementary skills.
No positive synergy to create.	Generates positive synergy due to capability of group members to bounce ideas off one another to correct one another's mistakes, to bring a diverse knowledge base to bear on a problem, and to accomplish work that is too vast for any one individual to achieve.
Performance not greater than the sum of inputs	Generates greater outputs with no increase in inputs
Less responsive to dynamic environment	More flexible and more responsive to dynamic environment

Team-building helps to increase intra-group and inter-group effectiveness to bring members together, make them share their perception of each other and understand each other's point of view.

Thus, resolve problems and work together in a cooperative and collaborative mode. Teams can be of four types – problem-solving teams (only making suggestion), self-managed, teams (operate without a manager), cross-functional teams (a group of experts from different specialities), and virtual team (members collaborate online). In terms of size, teams may be institutional (comprising of hundreds of members) and operational (a small, cooperative group, in regular contact and contributes responsibly to achieve task at hand)

Reasons for the Emergence of Informal Groups:

1. People working together may come together.
2. People with similar values, beliefs, attitudes, and interests often feel attraction to come together.
3. Need satisfaction – to belong, to associate, etc.
4. Removal of monotony of routine tasks – to get rid of monotony and psychological fatigue, job-related boredom and frustration provides an opportunity to behave in a natural and relaxed manner.

5. Promotion of other interests and pursuit of goals – People join Rotary or Lions Club to expand their contacts which may help them to satisfy their personal goals.

What is an 'Industrial Organization' ?

An industrial organization is a field of economics dealing with the strategic behavior of firms, regulatory policy, [antitrust](#) policy and market competition. Industrial organization applies the economic theory regarding model of price to industries. [Economists](#) and other academics who study industrial organization seek to increase understanding of the methods by which industries operate, improve industries' contributions to economic welfare, and improve government policy in relation to these industries.

What is Group Cohesiveness?

Group cohesiveness can be defined as a group session where in which, group of people connects them with the help of similar interest and program. Moreover, it is a process where a group of people for a group or a team consider their similar interest and ability.

1. Similar interest:

Being a part of a group or a team is not that easy as it seems. Some groups and teams maintain a certain type of ground rules for their group. And those ground rules can be measured in terms of the common interest of all the group members. And if anyone wants to join such team considering their common interest, then they should follow all the ground rules given by the team leader. Therefore, it is necessary to understand that all the group of team maintains a same level of interest in their team formation.

2. Group dignity:

Every group or a team maintains a certain level of pride and dignity with their team and team members. And to maintain that dignity and pride of the group the members deliver certain responsible services in favor of the society and whoever concerned. Moreover, it is an initial process of every group activity and in that process, they undertake several services according to the pride and dignity of the group. And every single member of the group takes part in such activity of the group.

3. Commitment:

Commitment is a word which describes a person loyalty and honesty relating to the group. Most probably every member of the team needs to show some sort of commitment towards their work within the group and for that they need to take active participation in the activities of the group. This can lead in developing high performing teams. Therefore, it is very much necessary for all the members of the team that without commitment a group cannot survive in their future activity.

Important Factors of Group Cohesiveness:

To understand the importance of group cohesiveness, one should well understand the group cohesiveness definition and cohesiveness meaning. Therefore, with this additional info about group cohesiveness one can have a better clarity on it.

1. Equal mindset:

As people join some group with a thinking that they can be a part of that particular group as they share a similar kind of interest, then they definitely should go ahead with their decision and join such team or a group. Most groups which maintain a certain focus element in their group consider their members' interest to carry on with their group services. Therefore, most of the group accepts those candidates who are very much interested in their activity. And other than that no group accepts a person with different nature of interest.

2. Communication:

As it is explained earlier that communication between the team and its team members is very much necessary. If there is any sort of mis-communication between the team and its members, then it is quite clear to everyone that there will be all sorts of doubts between the team members. Therefore, communication creates a link between the team and their members point of view as well.

3. Trust:

Sometimes trust holds all the main activity between people, whether it is a company, organization and the team. And that is why all the people who are in connection with the team or a group need to maintain a positive trust on their team and their decision. Therefore, it is very much necessary to understand all the factors of trust in the team and their decision and moreover handling all the facts relating to that.

4. Objective of the group:

Every group or a team maintains their objective for that particular group and that group delivers their objective in the form of their services and activity. And that is why objective holds all the basic need of the group or a team. Therefore, maintaining an objective for a group or a team is necessary to continue with their positive intention about their social activity. Eventually, these social activities with a positive objective can bring them a positive recommendation for their future benefits.

5. Experience:

Experience means their previous group experience. Most of the time these group experiences creates a difference with the new group. This difference can bring up all the new and creative ideas within the members of the group and which is the good thing for the overall growth of that particular group. Therefore, all the things which comes with the help of a previous experience in group cohesiveness can provide overall growth.

Importance of Group Cohesiveness:

When it comes to valuing something in one's life, then people experience some sort of issues with it. And to understand such importance of that particular thing, a person need to appreciate its worth, which is possible only by handling all the activities either it is group or individual.

1. Performance:

As it has been explained earlier that, the factors which brings up all the importance of cohesiveness of group performance can be measured in terms of their activities. Performance matters in the group cohesion and especially when it is mattered with the services delivered by each and every valuable member of the team. Therefore, performance matters with the activities which is delivered by the group cohesiveness behavior.

2. Satisfaction:

The main issue that every member of the team face while working according to the expectation of the group that the team members might feel a bit left out other than a team leader. It is not necessary that all the valuable members of the team needs to be treated well. It is even expected, especially from the team leader that he or she need to treat all the members of the team same so that they can feel complete satisfaction with their work assigned by their team.

3. Emotional factors:

Most of the time while working in a team people used to feel a bit attached to others who are active members of the team. And it is normal to feel emotional around them. It is even possible that all the things which comes up or which come along with the help of group cohesive behavior is quite a result of hard work and team spirit. Therefore, emotional factors always weigh heavy in terms of group cohesive nature.

4. Pressure of assurance:

It is quite possible with all the element and characteristics of group cohesive behavior that most of the factors comes up with the help of group working or because of the team task. Therefore, it is very much necessary to understand all the matters which can bring up with the help of all group related behavior and eventually this creates a level of pressure with an assurance of work completion.

Advantages of Group Cohesiveness:

All the factors and study elements relating to the group cohesive behavior is a cover up for all sorts of benefits of group cohesiveness. Therefore, these advantages or benefits can clear out all the fogs surrounded and can show a ray of sunshine.

1. Motivational elements:

As it is explained earlier that all the elements which help a person to join or to be part of the group are the motivational elements which can be bought from the members of the team and moreover these members can create some sort differentiation between their improvement and courage in terms of their motivating behavior.

2. Better cooperation:

If it is a group of members who share similar interest and attraction as compared to each other, then it is quite clear that all the things which can be delivered with the help of group cohesiveness behavior can definitely produce better cooperation between the team and their members. Therefore, because of group cohesive behavior the group can embrace better cooperation with their rest of the team members.

3. Time saving:

A work or a task allotted to a group of persons instead of work allotted to an individual, can definitely approach a positive side of the work. For instance, when it comes to an individual person, then the person might take a little longer time to solve the issues, but when it comes to group of people, then the solution can be better and quicker as compared to the individual doing the work.

4. Improves communication:

As it is a task of a group or a team, then the team leader might be aware of all the consequences of work assigned to a person. And because of the group cohesiveness, the whole team can experience some sort of change in their communication levels. These communication levels create a difference in their personal and professional life as usual. Moreover, it also provides good confidence to all the members of the team.

Disadvantages of Group Cohesiveness:

Most parts of the study material with the subject line group cohesiveness can clear all the doubts among its readers and with their team. Therefore, it is necessary to know more about the disadvantages of group cohesiveness, and then these disadvantages can help a group of people with all the growth and success of their daily work.

1. Low level of productivity:

Most of the time, working in a group can not favor a company or an organization with the help of their own group, and that is because all the teams own their own thinking. And in this case of production a group cohesiveness brings it down to a low level because most of the team members available in the team are from the same field of work. Moreover, it is a fast moving generation and that is why it's necessary to understand the, low level of productivity among the team members.

2. Lack of creativity:

As most of the members of the team share a single and simple interest and eventually this type of similar interest can deliver same sort of results each and every time. Therefore, because of group cohesive behavior the company can lack behind with their creative elements. Moreover, all the elements in the group cohesiveness provide a lower level of creativity among their group or a team.

3. Lack of innovation:

It is quite similar to the topic that one can understand better. At most of the time people involved in a group can come up with a low level of innovation and that eventually lacks creativity in their field of work. Therefore, it is necessary to understand all the things within this group cohesiveness. Moreover, this creates a lack of innovation among their members.

4. Domination:

The domination can be experienced because of the team leaders of each and every group. Most of the these type of group leader domination can never benefit the company, moreover, it can damage the unity of the group. Therefore, all the team leaders need to understand that if they need and want their team members work according to their direction, then they need to treat as equals in the group.



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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Coimbatore - 641021.

(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organizational Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Unit – V

Organizational Conflicts – Functional and Dysfunctional Aspects of Conflicts –
Role Conflicts – Interpersonal Conflict – Conflict Management

Text Book

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Unit – 5

Conflict Management

Conflict can be defined as a mental struggle resulting from incompatible or opposing needs, drives, wishes, and external or internal demands. Where there are people, there is conflict.

They are usually taken in a negative association. However, this is inaccurate as conflicts are necessary for healthy relationships. It all depends on the approach we use to resolve the conflict.

Classification of Conflict

When we think of the different types of conflict, we might instantly think of the ones referred to in literature, especially in fiction. They can be applied to real life, of course. However, in contemporary times, types of conflict which are easily identifiable are classified into four different types –

- Intrapersonal
- Intragroup
- Interpersonal
- Intergroup

Intrapersonal Conflict

Intrapersonal conflict takes place within an individual. The person experiences it in his own mind. Thus, it is a type of conflict that is psychological involving the individual's thoughts, values, principles and emotions. Intrapersonal conflict may come in different forms, from the simple mundane ones like deciding whether or not to go vegan for lunch to ones that can affect major decisions such as choosing a career path.

However, this type of conflict can be quite difficult to handle, if you find it hard to decipher your inner struggles. It results in restlessness and uneasiness, or can even cause depression. On such occasions, it is advised to seek a way to let go of the anxiety by communicating with other people. Eventually, when the person finds himself/herself out of the situation, he/she can become more empowered as a person. Thus, the experience invokes a positive change which helps in personal growth.

Intragroup Conflict

Intragroup conflict occurs among individuals within a team. The incompatibilities and misunderstandings between team members leads to intragroup conflict. It starts from interpersonal disagreements like team members have different personalities which may lead to tension or differences in views and ideas. Say for example, during a presentation, members of the team might find the notions presented by the one presiding to be erroneous due to their differences in opinion.

Within a team, conflict can be helpful in coming up with decisions, which will eventually allow them to achieve their objectives as a team. But, if the degree of conflict disrupts harmony among the members, then some serious guidance from a different party will be needed for it to be settled.

Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict means a conflict between two individuals. Basically, this occurs because of some differences in people. We have varied personalities which usually lead to incompatible choices and opinions. So, it is a natural occurrence which can eventually help in personal growth or developing our relationships with others.

In addition, adjustments are necessary for managing this type of conflict. However, when interpersonal conflict becomes too destructive, calling in a mediator helps so as to have the issue resolved.

Intergroup Conflict

Intergroup conflict occurs when a misunderstanding arises among different teams within an organization. For example, the marketing department of an organization can come in conflict with the customer support department. This is because of the varied sets of goals and interests of these different groups. In addition to this, competition also contributes to intergroup conflict. There are other factors which increase this type of conflict. Some of these factors may include a rivalry in resources or the boundaries set by a group to others which forms their own identity as a team.

Conflict should not always be perceived as a problem rather at times it is a chance for growth and can be an effective means of opening up among groups or individuals. However, when conflict begins to suppress or disrupt productivity and gives way to more conflicts, then conflict management is what is needed for problem resolution.

Conflict Resolution

Conflict resolution is a method by which two or more parties find a peaceful solution to a disagreement among them. The disagreement can be personal, financial, political, or emotional. When a disagreement arises, often the best course of action is negotiation to resolve the disagreement. We all know that when people gather for a discussion, it is not necessary that what one thinks is right the other thinks the same way, this difference in thinking or mentality leads to conflict.

"I'm doing my best at work and you expect me to do more! Why don't you ask the other team members?" This is the start of a conflict! Let us know about some of the conflict management techniques.

Conflict Management Techniques

We get into a conflict when the person opposite to us has a different mindset. It is very common in a workplace to get into differences of opinion. Sometimes there is a conflict between two or more employees, sometimes employees have a conflict with their managers and so on. Now the question is, how can we manage disagreements in ways that build personal and collegial relationships?

Here are five strategies from conflict management theory for managing stressful situations. None of them is a "one-size-fits-all" answer. Which one is the best in a given situation depends on variety of factors, including an appraisal of the levels of conflict.

- **Collaborating** – win/win
- **Compromising** – win some/lose some
- **Accommodating** – lose/win
- **Competing** – win/lose
- **Avoiding** – no winners/no losers

Collaborating

This technique follows the rule "I win, you win". Collaborating means working together by integrating ideas set out by multiple people. The objective here is to find a creative solution acceptable to everyone. It calls for a significant time commitment but is not appropriate for all conflicts.

This technique is used in situations where –

- There is a high level of trust
- We don't want to take complete responsibility

- We want others to also have "ownership" of solutions
- People involved are willing to change their thinking
- We need to work through animosity and hard feelings

However, this process takes a lot of time and energy and some may take advantage of other people's trust and openness.

Example – A businessman should work collaboratively with the manager to establish policies, but collaborative decision-making regarding office supplies wastes time better spent on other activities.

Compromising

This technique follows the rule "You bend, I bend". Compromising means adjusting with each other's opinions and ideas, and thinking of a solution where some points of both the parties can be entertained. Similarly, both the parties need to give up on some of their ideas and should agree with the other.

This technique can be used in situations where –

- People of equal levels are equally committed to goals
- Time can be saved by reaching intermediate settlements on individual parts of complex matters
- Goals are moderately important

Important values and long-term objectives can be derailed using this technique. This process may not work if initial demands are high and mainly if there's no commitment to honor the compromise solutions.

Example – Two friends had a fight and they decide to compromise with each other through mutual understanding.

Accommodating

This technique follows the rule "I lose, you win". Accommodating means giving up of ideas and thoughts so that the other party wins and the conflict ends. This technique can be used when –

- An issue is not that important to us as it is to the other person
- We realize we are wrong
- We are willing to let others learn by mistake
- We know we cannot win

- It is not the right time and we would prefer to simply build credit for the future
- Harmony is extremely important
- What the parties have in common is a good deal more important than their differences

However, using this technique, one's own ideas don't get attention and credibility, and influence can be lost.

Example – When we fight with someone we love we choose to let them win.

Competing

This technique follows the rule "I win, you lose". Competing means when there is a dispute a person or a group is not willing to collaborate or adjust but it simply wants the opposite party to lose. This technique can be used when –

- We know you are right.
- Time is short and a quick decision is to be made.
- A strong personality is trying to steamroll us and we don't want to be taken advantage of.
- We need to stand up for our rights.

This technique can further escalate conflict or losers may retaliate.

Example – When in a debate the party with more facts wins.

Avoiding

This technique follows the rule "No winners, no losers". Avoiding means the ideas suggested by both the parties are rejected and a third person is involved who takes a decision without favoring any of the parties. This technique can be used when –

- The conflict is small and relationships are at stake
- We are counting to ten to cool off
- More important issues are pressing and we feel we don't have time to deal with this particular one
- We have no power and we see no chance of getting our concerns met
- We are too emotionally involved and others around us can solve the conflict more successfully

Using this technique may lead to postponing the conflict, that may make matters worse.

Example – Rahul and Rohit had a fight, their mother came and punished both of them.

What is functional conflict?

The conflict which supports the goals of a group and also improves its performance is known as a functional or a positive conflict. The functional conflict is helpful in the achievement of the goals of a group as it aids in –

(i) Analytical thinking: During a conflict the members of a group display analytical thinking in identifying various alternatives. In absence of conflict, they might not have been creative or even might have been lethargic. The conflicts may include challenge to such views, rules, policies, purpose and plans which entail a significant analysis so as to justify these groups as they are or make other alterations that may be necessary.

(ii) Diffusing tension among the members of the group: When conflict is allowed to express openly it can help in reducing the tension among the members of the group which would otherwise remain suppressed. Suppression of tension can lead to imaginative distortion of truth, sense of frustration and tension, high mental exaggerations and biased opinions resulting in fear and distrust. When members express themselves, they get some psychological satisfaction. This also leads to reduction of stress among the involved members.

(iii) Promote Competition: Conflicts results in increase competition and this increased competition in turn results in more efforts. Some persons are highly motivated by conflict and service competition. Such conflict and competition can result in increased effort and output.

(iv.) Promote group cohesiveness: Some experts believe that conflict creates solidarity among the members of the group it also increases loyalty in the members of the group and inculcates a feeling of group identity as the members of a group compete with outsiders. This increased group cohesiveness can help the management in achieving the organizational goals effectively.

(v) Facing challenges: The abilities of individuals as well as groups can be tested during conflict. Conflict creates challenges for them and to face these challenges individual and group to need to be creative and dynamic. When they are able overcome these challenges successfully it leads to a search for the

alternatives to the present methods which results in organizational development.

(vi.) Organizational change: It has been seen that some times conflict stimulates change among the members of a group. Whenever people are faced with conflict, there is a change in their attitudes and they become ready for the change to meet the requirements of the situation

(vii) Increased awareness: Conflict creates an increased awareness about the problems faced by the group. The group members also become aware of the members involved in the problem and the methods adopted to solve the problem.

(viii) Quality of decision: Conflict result s in high quality decisions taken by the members of a group. During the conflict, the members express the opposing views and perspective which results in some high quality decisions. The members share the information and examine the reasoning of other members to develop new decisions.

(ix) Identification of weakness: The weaknesses of a group and its members can be identified easily during the conflict. It becomes easier for the management to remove these weaknesses once it becomes aware of these.

What is dysfunctional conflict?

The conflict which obstructs the achievement of the goals of a group is called a dysfunctional or destructive conflict. The characteristics of a dysfunction conflict are:

(i) Increased tension: a dysfunctional conflict can cause high level of tension among the members of a group and in some cases it becomes difficult for the management to resolve such a conflict. This increased tension may result in anxiety uncertainty, hostility and frustration among the members of a group.

(ii) High rate of employee turn over: Dysfunctional conflicts can cause some employees to leave the organization if they are not able to resolve the conflict in their favor. In such a case it is the organization that has to suffer to loss of its valuable employees.

(iii) Increased dissatisfaction: Dissatisfaction can be increased among the members of the party that loses in conflict. This struggle during conflict also results in decreased concentration on the job and in this way it can also adversely affect the productivity of the whole group.

(iv) Distrust: Conflict can result in a climate of distrust among the members of a group and also in the organization. It can decrease the level of cohesiveness among the group members who will have negative feelings towards other members of the group and avoid interaction with them.

(v) Distraction from organizational goals : Conflicts can distract the members of a group from the organizational goals they are supposed to achieved but during a conflict the members may waste their time and energy in making efforts for emerging as winners in the on-going conflict in the group and their attention from the organizational goals may be diverted. Personal victory becomes more important for the members involved in the conflict and the organizational goals take a back seat.

Conflicts may cost dearly

The cost for a conflict is not only paid by individuals but they can weaken the organization also. In case the management fails to handle conflicts efficiently and tries to suppress them, conflicts can acquire huge proportions later on. Thus it is important that the management should interfere in the conflicts at an earlier stage otherwise unnecessary troubles can be created at a later stage. The organization may have to suffer as some of its valuable employees may leave the organization or a feeling of distrust that is generated among the employees could have a negative impact on the productivity.

Role Conflict

Role conflict occurs when employees experience incompatible work demands. It is a widely studied variable in the occupational stress literature, where it is considered to be a stressor. A stressor is any part of the work environment that requires an adaptive response from employees and has the capacity to produce poor health. In addition to role conflict, other stressors include role ambiguity (i.e., the extent to which one's role requirements are unclear), mistreatment at work, and unreasonable workload. The negative health outcomes produced by stressors, such as anxiety, depression, and physical symptoms, are called strains. Role conflict is associated with a number of strains.

Role theory provides the theoretical basis for the study of role conflict. According to role theory, each employee has a unique set of work roles. Each role has its own unique rights and responsibilities. Employees simultaneously occupy multiple roles, both within and outside the organization. A midlevel manager who is married, for example, would have the roles of supervisor, subordinate, and spouse. Role conflict is especially likely to exist among individuals who occupy several different roles.

Types of Role Conflict

Researchers have distinguished several forms of role conflict. One form of conflict occurs when employees experience incompatibility between their values and their job responsibilities. For example, a convenience store employee who personally objects to gambling but sells lottery tickets as part of his or her job experiences this form of conflict. A second type of role conflict involves incompatibility between employees' job responsibilities and their abilities, time, and resources. Examples of this form of conflict include not having enough time to complete one's work tasks or not having the training or equipment necessary to complete one's work. Similar situations are sometimes referred to as role overload (i.e., having too much work or work that is too difficult) and organizational constraints (i.e., any aspect of the work environment that interferes with job performance).

These two types of conflict are examples of intra-role conflict, which occurs when incompatibility exists within a single role. On the other hand, interrole conflict occurs when two or more roles are incompatible with each other. One form of interrole conflict occurs when individuals must behave in a particular way in one role that is inconsistent with the way they must behave in another role. For example, a business executive might be required to act authoritatively toward subordinates, but would be expected to act differently when socializing with friends. Conflict between work and family life is another form of interrole conflict.

Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict is a form of interrole conflict that occurs when the role requirements of work and family are incompatible with each other. Researchers further distinguish between work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Work-to-family conflict occurs when one's work roles interfere with the successful execution of one's family roles. If a mother misses her son's school play because she has to attend a work meeting, for example, she experiences family-to-work conflict. Family-to-work conflict, on the other hand, occurs when one's family role interferes with the successful performance of one's work role. This occurs, for example, when a father consistently misses work to care for an ill child. Of these two forms of conflict, work-to-family conflict is likely to produce greater health consequences.

Work-family conflict researchers also distinguish between time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict occurs when the amount of time needed to satisfy the role requirements of one domain do not

allow enough time to meet the role requirements of another domain. For example, working excessive hours can prevent employees from spending sufficient time with their families. Strain-based conflict occurs when the demands of one role produce illness that interferes with performance in another role. Caring for a sick spouse, for example, might produce high levels of stress, making it difficult to perform effectively at work. Finally, behavior-based conflict occurs when work roles and family roles require behaviors that are inconsistent with each other. For example, a bill collector is expected to act aggressively at work when interacting with debtors but must act nurturing when caring for his or her children.

Work-School Conflict

Individuals who attend school while working often experience an additional form of role conflict: work-school conflict. Work-school conflict occurs when one's work and school responsibilities conflict with each other. An employed student, for example, might spend time working instead of studying for an exam. A further distinction is made between work-to-school conflict and school-to-work conflict. Work-to-school conflict occurs when work responsibilities interfere with school responsibilities, whereas school-to-work conflict occurs when school responsibilities interfere with work responsibilities. Workload and number of hours worked are likely to be positively associated with work-school conflict. In addition to producing the negative consequences discussed later, work-school conflict is also likely to have a negative impact on school performance.

Causes of Role Conflict

Role conflict is largely the result of ineffective managerial behaviors. Research has found, for example, that leader consideration (i.e., the extent to which supervisors care about the well-being of their subordinates) and leader initiating structure (i.e., the extent to which supervisors clarify employees' roles) are both negatively associated with role conflict. Role conflict is also likely to be high when supervisors fail to provide employees with opportunities for participation.

Ineffective organizational policies are a direct cause of some forms of role conflict. Indeed, some survey questions measuring role conflict specifically refer to incompatible organizational guidelines.

Conflict can arise, for example, from incompatible requests from supervisors or from differing and incompatible performance standards across supervisors.

Such forms of conflict are most likely to occur when organizational policies allow employees to report to multiple supervisors.

Role conflict is also likely to occur in simple, unenriched jobs. Specifically, the following job characteristics are negatively associated with role conflict:

- Feedback
- Task identity (i.e., the extent to which a job requires one to complete an entire piece of work, such as assembling a product from start to finish)
- Skill variety (i.e., the extent to which a job requires one to use a variety of different skills)

Finally, role conflict is likely to result from any situation that causes one to simultaneously occupy several roles, both within and outside the workplace. Being employed with multiple jobs, having a family, and being a student can all result in one having many roles.

Consequences of Role Conflict

Most workplace stressors include a component of uncertainty. Role conflict likely leads employees to feel uncertain about their ability to effectively satisfy their role requirements. This uncertainty leads to a number of negative consequences. Indeed, research has found that role conflict is associated with several indicators of mental and physical health. Some of the negative health consequences potentially produced by role conflict include depression, anxiety, burnout, and physical symptoms. In addition, role conflict is linked with a number of negative job attitudes and ineffective work behaviors:

- Overall job dissatisfaction
- Dissatisfaction with work tasks
- Dissatisfaction with supervision
- Dissatisfaction with coworkers
- Dissatisfaction with pay
- Dissatisfaction with promotional opportunities
- Low organizational commitment
- Low job involvement
- Turnover intention
- Poor job performance

However, most of the research examining the causes and consequences of role conflict has used cross-sectional designs. Thus, it is difficult to draw firm conclusions concerning causal relationships in this research.

Treatments for Role Conflict

Because role conflict is largely the result of ineffective leadership behaviors, many of the treatments for role conflict require the involvement of supervisors. Supervisors, for example, could be trained to identify behaviors that encourage role conflict and could be trained to modify those behaviors. Likewise, one form of role conflict occurs when employees receive incompatible demands from two or more supervisors. This type of conflict could be eliminated by requiring employees to report to only one supervisor.

Some forms of role conflict are the direct result of organizational policies. Not having the required training or equipment to effectively satisfy one's role requirements, for example, might be the result of organizational policies. Changing such policies could eliminate these forms of role conflict. Some role conflict occurs because employees' personal values are incompatible with the role requirements of their jobs. This type of conflict speaks to the importance of hiring only job applicants who have a good fit with the job requirements.

Given that role conflict is associated with a number of negative outcomes, one might suspect that organizational leaders would adopt many of these suggestions in an effort to reduce role conflict. This has not been the case, however, as organizations have given more attention to treating the symptoms than to the causes of role conflict.

What Is Interpersonal Conflict?

Interpersonal conflict occurs when a person or group of people frustrates or interferes with another person's efforts at achieving a goal. According to some researchers, conflict can consist of three different components.

The **behavioral component** of conflict involves someone interfering with the objectives of another person. For example, a co-worker and you may be competing in a sales contest, and he constantly bugs you during your sales calls to trip up your sales pitch. He also throws away message slips from your potential customers that the receptionist leaves when you're away from your desk.

The **cognitive component** involves a disagreement between the parties that illustrates the differences between the interests and objectives of the conflicting parties. For example, as the vice president of research and development, you

may have a disagreement with the vice president of production over the allocation of company resources because you each have different goals and objectives that relate to your particular division.

The **affective component** relates to the negative emotional states of the conflicting parties. For example, conflict with a co-worker may make you feel anger, stressed, and frustrated.

Conflict Management : Characteristics, Types, Stages, Causes and other Details

Conflicts are natural in all walks of daily life – both at workplace and home. Thus, conflict is ever present and both charming and maddening. But conflict is a complex and big subject. There are many sources of conflict. Conflict occurs when individuals or groups are not obtaining what they need or want and are seeking their own self-interest.

Sometimes the individual is not aware of the need and unconsciously starts to act out. Other times, the individual is very aware of what he or she wants and actively works at achieving the goal. It would be better to identify conflict at an early stage and come to an understanding.

The concept of conflict is controversial. Psychologists and sociologists have given different meanings. It is being defined as a process by few, an obstructive behavior, and goal incompatibility by others. Conflict can be expressed as:

Conflict is a process, where perception (real or otherwise) leads to disruption of desirable state of harmony and stability in an interdependent world.

Characteristics of Conflict:

1. Conflict is a Process:

Conflict occurs in 'layers'. First layer is always misunderstanding. The other layers are differences of values, differences of viewpoint, differences of interest, and interpersonal differences. It is also called a process because it begins with one party perceiving the other to oppose or negatively affect its interests and ends with competing, collaborating, compromising or avoiding.

2. Conflict is Inevitable:

Conflict exists everywhere. No two persons are the same. Hence they may have individual differences. And the differences may be because of values or otherwise, lead to conflict. Although inevitable, conflict can be minimized, diverted and/or resolved. Conflict develops because we are dealing with people's lives, jobs, children, pride, self-concept, ego and sense of mission.

Conflict is inevitable and often good, for example, good teams always go through a “form, storm, norm and perform” period.

3. Conflict is a Normal Part of Life:

Individuals, groups, and organisations have unlimited needs and different values but limited resources. Thus, this incompatibility is bound to lead to conflicts. The conflict is not a problem, but if it is poorly managed then it becomes a problem.

4. Perception:

It must be perceived by the parties to it, otherwise it does not exist. In interpersonal interaction, perception is more important than reality. What we perceive and think affects our behaviour, attitudes, and communication.

5. Opposition:

One party to the conflict must be perceiving or doing something the other party does not like or want.

6. Interdependence and Interaction:

There must be some kind of real or perceived interdependence. Without interdependence there can be no interaction. Conflict occurs only when some kind of interaction takes place.

7. Everyone is inflicted with Conflict:

Conflict may occur within an individual, between two or more individuals, groups or between organisations.

8. Conflict is not Unidimensional:

It comes into different ways in accordance with degree of seriousness and capacity. At times, it may improve even a difficult situation.

Concept of Conflict Management:

‘Conflict management is the principle that all conflicts cannot necessarily be resolved, but learning how to manage conflicts can decrease the odds of non-productive escalation. Conflict management involves acquiring skills related to conflict resolution, self-awareness about conflict modes, conflict communication skills, and establishing a structure for management of conflict in your environment.’ All members of every organisation need to have ways of keeping conflict to a minimum – and of solving problems caused by conflict, before conflict becomes a major obstacle to your work.

Types of Conflict:

Conflicts can be of different types as described below:

On the basis of involvement:

Conflicts may be intrapersonal (conflict with self), interpersonal (between two persons) and organisational. Organizational conflict, whether real or perceived, is of two types -intraorganizational and interorganizational. Interorganizational conflict occurs between two or more organizations.

Different businesses competing against each other are a good example of interorganizational conflict. Intraorganizational conflict is the conflict within an organization, and can be examined based upon level (e.g. department, work team, individual), and can be classified as interpersonal, intragroup and intergroup.

Interpersonal conflict-once again-whether it is substantive or affective, refers to conflict between two or more individuals (not representing the group of which they are a part of) of the same or different group at the same or different level, in an organization.

Interpersonal conflict can be divided into intergroup and intergroup conflict. While the former— intragroup-occurs between members of a group (or between subgroups within a group), intergroup-occurs between groups or units in an organization.

On the basis of Scope:

Conflicts may be substantive and Affective. A substantive conflict is associated with the job, not individuals, while an affective conflict is drawn from emotions. Substantive conflicts may be over the facts of a situation, the method or means of achieving a solution to the problem, ends or goals, and values. Thus it includes task conflict and process conflict in its scope.

Procedural conflicts can include disagreements about factors such as meeting dates and times, individual task assignments, group organization and leadership, and methods of resolving disagreements. Unresolved procedural conflicts can prevent work on collaborative projects. Substantive conflict can enhance collaborative decision-making. Substantive conflict is also called performance, task, issue, or active conflict.

On the other hand, an affective conflict (also called as relationship or opposite of agreeable conflict) deals with interpersonal relationships or incompatibilities and centres on emotions and frustration between parties.

Affective conflicts can be very destructive to the organisation, if remains unresolved. Relationship conflict comes under the scope of affective conflicts. An affective conflict is nearly always disruptive to collaborative decision-making. The conflict causes members to be negative, irritable, suspicious, and resentful.

For example, when collaborators disagree on the recognition and solution to a task problem because of personal prejudices (e.g. prejudices stemming from strong social, political, economic, racial, religious, ethnic, philosophical, or interpersonal biases) they are seldom able to focus on the task.

The two concepts are related to each other. If one could make a distinction between good and bad conflict, substantive would be good and affective conflict would be bad. Substantive conflict deals with disagreements among group members about the content of the tasks being performed or the performance itself.

On the basis of Results:

Conflict can be Constructive or Destructive, creative or restricting, and positive or negative. Destructive conflicts are also known as dysfunctional conflicts, because such conflicts prevent a group from attaining its goals.

Conflict is destructive when it takes attention away from other important activities, undermines morale or self-concept, polarises people and groups, reduces cooperation, increases or sharpens difference, and leads to irresponsible and harmful behaviour, such as fighting, name-calling.

On the other hand, constructive conflicts are also known as functional conflicts, because they support the group goals and help in improving performance. Conflict is constructive when it results in clarification of important problems and issues, results in solutions to problems, involves people in resolving issues important to them, causes authentic communication, helps release emotion, anxiety, and stress, builds cooperation among people through learning more about each other; joining in resolving the conflict, and helps individuals develop understanding and skills.

On the basis of Sharing by Groups:

Conflicts may be Distributive and Integrative. Distributive conflict is approached as a distribution of a fixed amount of positive outcomes or resources, where one side will end up winning and the other losing, even if they do win some concessions.

On the other hand, integrative – Groups utilizing the integrative model see conflict as a chance to integrate the needs and concerns of both groups and make the best outcome possible. This type of conflict has a greater emphasis on compromise than the distributive conflict. It has been found that the integrative conflict results in consistently better task related outcomes than the distributive conflict.

On the basis of Strategy:

Conflicts may be competitive and cooperative. Competitive conflict is accumulative. The original issue that began the conflict becomes irrelevant. The original issue is more of a pretext than a cause of the conflict. Competitive conflict is marked by the desire to win the fight or argument, even if winning costs more and causes more pain than not fighting at all.

Costs do not matter in competitive conflict, and therefore, irrationality remains its main mark. Competitive conflict is characterized by fear, which is one of the important ingredients in a conflict becoming irrational. If one is personally invested in the outcome, this too leads to irrational conclusions, especially if issues of self-esteem, whether personal or national, are involved.

Competitive conflict can either begin by, or be rationalized by, conflicts of ideology or principle. Even more, when the desire to win overtakes any specific reason for the conflict, irrationally develops.

Importantly in history, when powers are roughly equal, such as the World War I alliances were, conflict that becomes competitive and irrational nearly always develops. In economic competition customers are the winners and the firms may be at risk. But in sports competition is encouraged.

In a cooperative situation the goals are so linked that everybody 'sinks or swims' together, while in the competitive situation if one swims, the other must sink. A cooperative approach aligns with the process of interest-based or integrative bargaining, which leads parties to seek win-win solutions. Disputants that work cooperatively to negotiate a solution are more likely to develop a relationship of trust and come up with mutually beneficial options for settlement.

On the basis of Rights and Interests:

Conflict of rights means where people are granted certain rights by law or by contract or by previous agreement or by established practice. If such a right is denied, it will lead to conflict. Such a conflict is settled by legal decision or arbitration, not negotiation.

On the other hand conflict of interests means where a person or group demands certain privileges, but there is no law or right in existence. Such a dispute can be settled only through negotiation or collective bargaining.

Stages of Conflict:

A manager must know various stages of conflict to handle it. The solution to conflict becomes easy before it becomes serious, if he knows of the real issue behind the conflict and how the conflict developed. Normally a conflict passes through the following stages:

- a. People recognise lack of resources, diversity of language or culture. Sensitiveness may possibly result in conflict.
- b. If there are serious differences between two or among more than two groups, the latent conflict in a competitive situation may turn out into conflict.
- c. An incident may trigger a latent conflict into an open conflict
- d. Once a problem has been solved, the potential for conflict still remains in the aftermath. In fact the potential is bigger than before, if one party perceives that the resolution has resulted into win-lose situation.

Reg. No.....

[13CMP204/13CCP204]

KARPAGAM UNIVERSITY

(Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

COIMBATORE – 641 021

(For the candidates admitted from 2013 onwards)

M.Com. DEGREE EXAMINATION, APRIL 2014

Second Semester

COMMERCE /COMMERCE (COMPUTER APPLICATIONS)

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Time: 3 hours

Maximum : 60 marks

PART – A (10 x 2 = 20 Marks)

Answer Any TEN Questions

1. Define Organizational Behaviour.
2. What are the disciplines that contribute to Organizational Behaviour?
3. What are the elements of OB?
4. Define perception.
5. Write a note on Personality.
6. Write down the factors that determine perceptual selectivity.
7. Define the term attitude.
8. What is meant by Burnout?
9. What do you mean by coping strategies for stress?
10. Define group dynamics.
11. What are group norms?
12. Write a note on group cohesiveness.
13. What is meant by organizational conflict?
14. Write a short note on Goal conflict.
15. What is meant by Role conflict?

PART B (5 x 8 = 40 Marks)

Answer ALL the Questions

16. (a) Discuss the implications of Hawthorne experiments.
(Or)
(b) Describe the nature of Organizational Behavior.
17. (a) Briefly discuss the causes of human behavior.
(Or)
(b) Describe the process of perception.

18. (a) Explain the theories of attitude formation.

(Or)

- (b) Discuss the causes of stress.

19. (a) What are the causes and advantages of informal organization.

(Or)

- (b) Explain the factors that influence group cohesiveness.

20. (a) Discuss the functional and dysfunctional aspects of conflict.

(Or)

- (b) Briefly explain Johari Window as a conflict resolving strategy.

Reg No.....

[17CMP106]

KARPAGAM UNIVERSITY
Karpagam Academy of Higher Education
(Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)
Coimbatore – 641021
(For the candidates admitted from 2017 onwards)

I M.Com
First Internal Test, August - 2017
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Time: 2 hours

Date & sess: 02.08.2017 & AN

Maximum: 50 marks

PART –A (20*1=20 Marks)
Multiple choice Questions

1. Hawthorne Experiments are related to the _____
 - a. Classical Theory
 - b. Systems Theory
 - c. Scientific Management
 - d. Human Relations Theory
2. Which of the following is not an influence on behaviour in work organizations _____
 - a. The building
 - b. The group
 - c. The environment
 - d. The individual
3. Attitude X Situation = _____
 - a. Motivation
 - b. Knowledge
 - c. Skill
 - d. Ability
4. Who is most associated with the Hawthorne studies _____.
 - a. Professor Hawthorne
 - b. Professor Elton Mayo
 - c. Fritz Roethlisberger and William Dickson
 - d. Max Weber
5. Leadership is important for directing _____ behaviour.
 - a. Group
 - b. Individual
 - c. Society
 - d. Organization
6. Job satisfaction is best described as _____
 - a. Behaviour
 - b. Value
 - c. Perception
 - d. Attitude
7. The four main dimensions which influence behaviour in work organizations are _____
 - a. Individual, organisation, group, gender
 - b. Individual, group, organisation, environment
 - c. Group, environment, organisation, gender
 - d. Environment, group, individual, gender
8. Psychological process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment is definition of _____
 - a. Attitude
 - b. Thinking
 - c. Perception
 - d. Personality
9. A Process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data so as to form a meaningful and coherent picture of the world is _____
 - a. Attitude
 - b. Thinking
 - c. Perception
 - d. Personality
10. Relay Assembly Test room during _____
 - a. 1924-1927
 - b. 1927-19328
 - c. 1928-1930
 - d. 1931-1932
11. Mass interviewing program during _____
 - a. 1924-1927
 - b. 1927-19328
 - c. 1928-1930
 - d. 1931-1932
12. Bank wiring observation room experiments during _____
 - a. 1924-1927
 - b. 1927-19328
 - c. 1928-1930
 - d. 1931-1932
13. Illumination experiments during _____
 - a. 1924-1927
 - b. 1927-19328
 - c. 1928-1930
 - d. 1931-1932
14. The Hawthorne effect is _____
 - a. Where the act of observing someone changes their behaviour
 - b. The social side of the organization is important for good management
 - c. It is important to watch people to make them more productive
 - d. Workers feel alienated due to distant management
15. _____ system is an instrument of motivation
 - a. Promotion
 - b. Status
 - c. Job pleasant
 - d. Recognition
16. Human behaviour can be understood at the level of _____
 - a. Interpersonal level
 - b. Individual level
 - c. Group level
 - d. Intergroup level
17. _____ provides analysis and how an individual behaves.
 - a. Interpersonal level
 - b. Individual level
 - c. Group level
 - d. Intergroup level
18. _____ modified by group pressure for shaping human behaviour.
 - a. Interpersonal level
 - b. Individual level
 - c. Group level
 - d. Intergroup level
19. _____ relationship in the form of cooperation and competitions.
 - a. Interpersonal level
 - b. Individual level
 - c. Group level
 - d. Intergroup level
20. _____ is the building block of an organization.
 - a. communication
 - b. leadership
 - c. climate
 - d. development.

PART -B (3*2=6 Marks)
Answer All the Questions

- 21. What is an attitude?
- 22. Define perception.
- 23. Define individual difference.

PART -C (3*8=24 Marks)
Answer All the Questions

- 24.a. Explain the roles of organizational behavior.
Or
b. What are the disciplines contributing to organizational behavior? Explain.
- 25. a. Explain the implications of Hawthorne experiment.
Or
b. Discuss the determinants of personality.
- 26. a. Describe the models of man.
Or
b. Explain the factor causing individual difference.

Reg No.....

[17CMP106]

KARPAGAM UNIVERSITY
Karpagam Academy of Higher Education
(Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)
Coimbatore – 641021
(For the candidates admitted from 2017 onwards)

I M.Com
Second Internal Test, October- 2017
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Time: 2 hours

Maximum: 50 marks

Date & sess: .10.2017 & AN

PART –A (20*1=20 Marks)
Multiple choice Questions

1. Intergroup competition means.....
 - a. competition as a whole
 - b. between manager and employee
 - c. among group leaders
 - d. between group members
2. Competition between members.....to group cohesiveness
 - a. Construct
 - b. destruct
 - c. neither construct nor destruct
 - d. develop new group
3. Organizational development is a effort to improve an organizations problem solving and renewal process.
 - a. Short term
 - b. Long term
 - c. Long range change
 - d. Short range change
4. Role of a performer is believed to have.....
 - a. Sincerity
 - b. Dignity
 - c. Dignity and Sincerity
 - d. Self-Respect
5. Counseling is
 - a. Psycho analytical treatment for mental disorders
 - b. Physiotherapy
 - c. A measure to build up the ego
 - d. A means to reduce employee stress
6. Organizational effectiveness is.....
 - a. The success of an organization
 - b. The failure of an organization
 - c. The productivity of an organization
 - d. Sickness in the organization
7. Conflict between different departments is
 - a. divergence
 - b. intergroup conflict
 - c. clash
 - d. argument
8. Process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about, is called.....
 - a. Miscommunication
 - b. Conflict

- c. Controversy
 - d. Communication breakdown
9. Sociometry is a.....
 - a. Classic way of assessing social competence
 - b. Measurement of individuals within the peer group
 - c. Measurement of rejection only
 - d. The first and second choices
10. Organizational effectiveness is also referred to as
 - a. Organizational behavior
 - b. Goal achieving behaviors
 - c. Organizational efficiency
 - d. System resources approach
11. Organizational efficiency refers to -----
 - a. Superior- sub ordinate relationship
 - b. Input out put relation
 - c. Manager supervisor relationship
 - d. Productivity
12. Counseling is.....
 - a. Psycho analytical treatment for mental disorders
 - b. Physiotherapy
 - c. a measure to build up the ego
 - d. a means to reduce employee stress
13. Fielder's contingency theory depends upon.....
 - a. Motivational style
 - b. Situational favorableness
 - c. Motivational style and Situational favorableness
 - d. Personality
14. Inleadership, there is a complete centralization of authority in the leader
 - a. Democratic
 - b. Laissez-faire
 - c. Autocratic
 - d. Bureaucratic
15. Goal setting theory is pioneered by.....
 - a. Stacy Adams
 - b. Charms
 - c. Edwin Locke
 - d. F W Taylor
16. Organizational climate work as
 - a. Long term proposition
 - b. Short term proposition
 - c. Stimuli
 - d. Motivation
- 17..... is also called as organizational success or growth.
 - a. Organizational culture
 - b. Organizational climate
 - c. Organizational development
 - d. Organizational effectiveness
18. Contingency approach is a

- a. Situational approach
 - b. Ratio between input & output
 - c. Trait approach
 - d. System approach
19. Organizational effectiveness is.....
- a. The success of an organization
 - b. The failure of an organization
 - c. The productivity of an organization
 - d. Sickness in the organization
20. The managerial grid is based on.....
- a. Concerned for quality alone
 - b. Concern for quality and quantity
 - c. Concern for people and production
 - d. Concern for Product and service

PART -B (3*2=6 Marks)

Answer All the Questions

- 21. Define stress.
- 22. What is organization?
- 23. Differentiate formal & Informal groups.

PART -C (3*8=24 Marks)

Answer All the Questions

- 24. a. What are the causes of stress? Explain.
(Or)
- b. Discuss the role of conflicts in organization.
- 25. a. Describe the functions of conflict.
(Or)
- b. Define attitude. Explain the factors in attitude formations.
- 26. a. Describe the causes of informal organization.
(Or)
- b. Write a short note on group cohesiveness.



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
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Coimbatore - 641021

(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organization Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Possible Questions

UNIT- 1

Multiple choice Questions

- 1..... is known as “The Father of Scientific Management.”
 - a. **Fredrick W. Taylor**
 - b. Henry Fayol
 - c. Robert Owen
 - d. Peter Drucker
2. Hawthorne Experiments are related to the.....
 - a. Classical Theory
 - b. Systems Theory
 - c. Scientific Management
 - d. **Human Relations Theory**
3. Which of the following is not an influence on behaviour in work organizations.....
 - a. **The building**
 - b. The group
 - c. The environment
 - d. The individual
4. Which of the following is characteristics of Type B personality.....
 - a. They operate under moderate to high levels of stress
 - b. They feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place
 - c. **They can easily pursue leisure activities without feeling guilty**
 - d. They are generally faster workers
5. The..... theory states that human mind will receive or accept only those information which it feels that it is relevant.
 - a. Perception theory
 - b. **Selective Perception**
 - c. Relevance Theory
 - d. Psychological Theory

PART B (14 MARKS)

1. Explain the background factors that determine behaviour in an organization?
2. Explain the factors that determine Personality Development?
3. Discuss the role of organizational behaviour.
4. Define Organizational behaviour as a field of study? What are its main features?
5. Explain Herzberg's two factor theory?



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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organization Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Possible Questions

UNIT- II

Multiple choice Questions

1. Psychological process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment is definition of.....

- a. Attitude b. Thinking **c. Perception** d. Personality

2. A Process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data so as to form a meaningful and coherent picture of the world is.....

- a. Attitude b. Thinking **c. Perception** d. Personality

3. Who propounded X and Y theory of motivation.....

- a. Maslow **b. F. Herzberg** c. Alderfer d. Mc Gregor

4.theory believes that employees dislike work

- a. Theory X** b. Theory Y c. Theory Z d. Motivation Theory

5. Job satisfaction is best described as.....

- a. Behaviour b. Value c. Perception **d. Attitude**

PART B (14 MARKS)

1. Explain the background factors that determine behaviour in an organization?
2. Explain the factors that determine Personality Development?

3. Discuss the factors that affect Perception?
4. Explain the personality traits.
5. Explain how does management affect perception in the organization?



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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organization Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Possible Questions

UNIT- III

Multiple choice Questions

1. The group formed by an organization to accomplish narrow range of purposes within a specified time.....
 - a. Formal Group
 - b. Task Group**
 - c. Interest Group
 - d. Functional Group
2. A.....is small groups of workers who meet frequently with their superintendent to solve work related issues.
 - a. Quality of Work life
 - b. Quality Circle**
 - c. Alternative Work schedule
 - d. Job Redesign
3. Managerial grid is.....
 - b. Three dimensional**
 - b. Two dimensional
 - c. Four dimensional
 - d. One
4. The trait theory focus on.....
 - a. The group characteristics
 - b. Managerial behavior
 - c. Individual characteristics**
 - d. Organizational characteristics
5. Organizational effectiveness is.....
 - a. The success of an organization**
 - b. The failure of an organization
 - c. The productivity of an organization
 - d. Sickness in the organization

PART B (14 MARKS)

1. What are the various factors which affect attitude formation? Explain.
2. What is the concept of attitudes? How do attitudes differ from opinions and beliefs?

3. Define stress. What are the effects of stress?

4. What are the factors which determine the attitude formation?



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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organization Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Possible Questions

UNIT- IV

Multiple choice Questions

1. Job enrichment is an effective method to
a. Enrich people **b. Motivate people** c. Discourage d. Educate
2. The horizontal expansion of jobs is called.....
a. Job enrichment b. Job expansion **c. Job enlargement** d. Job rotation
3. Who is most associated with the Hawthorne studies.....
a. Professor Hawthorne **b. Professor Elton Mayo**
c. Fritz Roethlisberger and William Dickson d. Max Weber
4. What were the original assumptions that the Hawthorne researchers started with.....
a. That the optimum heating levels could be discovered to maximize output
b. that the optimum lighting levels could be discovered to maximize output
c. that better pay increases worker output
d. that workers formed social groups impacting their performance
5. Fielder's contingency theory depends upon.....
a. Motivational style b. Situational favorableness

c. **Motivational style and Situational favorableness** d. Personality

PART B (14 MARKS)

1. Define Group Cohesiveness. What are factors affecting group cohesiveness?
2. Explain the different types of supervision style?
3. Enumerate the types of groups?
4. Explain effects of informal organization.



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Coimbatore - 641021

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

SUBJECT : Organization Behavior

SEMESTER : I

SUBJECT CODE: 17CMP106

CLASS : I M.COM

Possible Questions

UNIT- V

Multiple choice Questions

1. Conflict between different departments is
a. divergence **b. intergroup conflict** c. clash d. argument
2. Process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about, is called.....
a. Miscommunication **b. Conflict** c. Controversy d. Communication breakdown
3. Sociometry is a.....
a. Classic way of assessing social competence
b. Measurement of individuals within the peer group
c. Measurement of rejection only
d. The first and second choices
4. Organizational effectiveness is also referred to as
a. Organizational behavior **b. Goal achieving behaviors**
c. Organizational efficiency d. System resources approach
5. Organizational efficiency refers to -----
a. Superior- sub ordinate relationship **b. Input out put relation**
c. Manager supervisor relationship d. Productivity

PART B (14 MARKS)

1. Write a short note on conflict.
2. Explain the importance of counselor and merits of counseling?
3. Give an overview of organizational conflicts.
4. Define conflict. Explain the conflict management.



KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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Coimbatore - 641021.

(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

17CMP106**ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR****Semester – I**

L	T	P	C
4	-	-	4

Program Outcome

- ❖ The course comprise of Organizational behavior, Personality, Attitude, Stress and Organizational Conflict

**Program Learning Course**

- ❖ To introduce the students to the conceptual framework of organizational behavior

Unit – I

Organizational Behaviour – Nature – Disciplines contributing to Organizational Behavior – Role of Organizational Behavior – Foundations of Organizational Behavior – Implications of Hawthorne Experiments

Unit – II

Individual Difference – Nature – Causes – Models of Man – Perception – Perceptual Process – Perceptual Selectivity – Distortion in Perception – Personality – Determinants of Personality

Unit – III

Attitude – Concepts – Theories of Attitude Formation – Factors in Attitude Formations – Attitude Change. Stress – Causes of Stress – Effects of Stress – Stress Coping Strategies – Individual and Organizational

Unit – IV

Group Dynamics – Concepts and Features of Group – Types of Groups – Formal and Informal Groups – Causes of Informal Organizations – Types of Industrial Organization – Effects of Informal Organization – Group Cohesiveness

Unit – V

Organizational Conflicts – Functional and Dysfunctional Aspects of Conflicts – Role Conflicts – Interpersonal Conflict – Conflict Management

SUGGESTED READINGS**Text Book**

1. **Aswathappa, K. (2012).** *Organizational Behaviour*. Mumbai, Himalaya

Publishing House.

References

1. **Steven Mc Shane (2014)**. *Organizational Behaviour*. New Delhi, Tata Mc Graw Hill Publishing Company Limited.
2. **Stephen Robbins (2013)**. *Organizational Behaviour*. New Delhi, Prentice Hall of India Private Limited.

S.No	Question	Opt 1	Opt 2	Opt 3	Opt 4	Answer
1	Who is most famous?	Professor Hawthorne	Professor Elton	Fritz Roethlisberg	Max Weber	Professor Elton
2	What were the findings of the key finding of Human relations?	That the optimum power of people	That the optimum power of people	That better pay workers	That Taylor's approach	That the optimum power of people
3	Why could it not be done?	Mayo did not get it	It was already decided	Mayo had made the things we	Mayo had made the things we	Mayo had made the things we
4	According to the Illumination Relay	We get told them 1 year	We decide 2 years	We pick them up 3 Years	They are things we 4 Years	We pick them up 3 Years
5	The Assembly Line	1927-1932	1935-1939	1940-1945	1910-1915	1927-1932
6	Who was the follower of Hawthorne?	Where the act of social	The follower of social	It is important to feel	Workers Mayo, Roethlisberg	Where the act of social
7	How did Mayo think?	Follower of Mayo	Follower of Mayo	Supporter of Workers	Mayo, Roethlisberg	Follower of Workers
8	The social workers	Where thought	Where argued	A view, and	What the organization	A view, and
9	The social groups	Where workers	Where workers	A view, in	What the organization	A view, in
10	Dynamic social	groups	Team management	Teams	Group dynamics	Group dynamics
11	Dynamic social	French.	German.	Greek.	Italian.	Greek.
12	Informal standards	conduct	rules	norms	regulation	norms
13	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
14	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
15	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
16	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
17	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
18	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
19	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
20	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
21	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
22	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
23	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
24	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive
25	Believes, the	Group norms	Group behavior	Group cohesive	Group structure	Group cohesive

26	Informal groups	be counter	be formed	a formal (or	achieve organisati	a formal (or
27	Cohesive groups	better at meeting	those that make	those that come into	tend to be complac	better at meeting
28	The effectiveness	task criteria	member satisfacti	task criteria	neither task	task criteria
29	One of the main	Managem ent	Productiv ity	Special attention	Norms have a	Norms have a
30	Which of the	Competit ion with	When cohesive	Small groups	External threats	When cohesive
31	A/n group is	Friendshi p group	Interest group	Informal group	Formal group	Formal group
32	People join	Power	Security	Status	Affiliatio n	Affiliatio n
33	Which of the	Avoidanc e	Encourag ement	Bargainin g	Negotiati on	Avoidanc e
34	Which of the	Problem solving	Dominati on by the	Removin g key	Persuasio n	Persuasio n
35	In which stage of	Illuminati on	Intention s	Behaviou r	Cognitio n	Behaviou r
36	Which is an	Argumen ts	Divergen ce	Conflict.	Variance.	Conflict.
37	Physical or mental	comprom ising	forcing.	smoothin g	avoiding.	avoiding.
38	Conflict between	divergenc e	intergrou p conflict	clash	argument	intergrou p conflict
39	Process that	Miscom municati	Conflict	Controve rsy	Commun ication	Conflict
40	A person who	Forcing	Avoiding	Problem solving	Compro mising	Problem solving
41	Research studies in	Collabora tive	Function al	Optimal	Supportiv e	Function al
42	One reason	Discoura ges	Creates strategic	Encourag es	Challeng es the	Challeng es the
43	Conflict that is	Judgment al	Cognitive	Affective	Personal	Cognitive
44	Conflict exists	It is perceived	There is disagree	Group members	Group members	It is perceived
45	The conflict	Accomm odating	Compro mising	Avoiding	Problem solving	Problem solving
46	Sources of	Style	Systems	Structure	Sources	Structure
47	Five strategies	Problem solving	Problem solving	Reasonin g	Problem solving	Problem solving
48	Employee es learn	Symboliz ing	Forethou ght	Observati onal	Self-regulator	Observati onal
49	Sociomet ry is	Classic way of	Measure ment of	Measure ment of	The first and	The first and
50	Which of the	The impact of	Peer rejection	Those in the	Those in the	Those in the
51	An instrume	interpreti ve	personali ty	graphic rating	sociometr ic device	sociometr ic device

52	Elton Mayor	Father of scientific	Father of organizat	Father of modern	Father of human	Father of human
53	Conflict between	Usual.	Common.	Uncomm on	Rare	Common.
54	Conflict can be	Personnel	Intelligen	Personal.	Individua l	Personal.
55	Supervis ors are	Worker	Managem ent	Employee	Trade union	Employee
56	Supervis ors are	Employee	Officer	Workers	Managem ent	Workers
57	The purpose	Leadershi n quality	Control	Productio n	Record keeping	Leadershi n quality
58	Supervis or	Leaders	Director	Co- ordinate	Teacher	Leaders
59	For training	Supervis	Technical	Class room	Commun ication	Class room
60	Trainers are given	Productio n	Quality	Material	Course	Material

SNO	Question	Opt 1	Opt 2	Opt 3	Opt 4	Answer
1	Psychological	Attitude	Thinking	Perception	Personality	Perception
2	A _____	Attitude	Thinking	Perception	Personality	Perception
3	The _____	Perception	Selective	Relevance	Psychological	Selective
4	_____	Perceptual	Thinking	Selection	Sequential	Perceptual
5	which of the _____	Object	Selection	Perception	Response	Perception
6	_____	Perception	Halo effect	Stereotyping	Individual	Halo
7	what do we call it	Stereotyping	Categorizing	Halo effect	Prototyping	Stereotyping
8	Samish _____	Internal locus	External locus	High emotion	Core	Internal
9	Two _____	the perceiver	the target	the timing	the _____	the _____
10	what is the most _____	the perceiver	the perceiver	the perceiver	the _____	the _____
11	_____	Attitude	Perception	Outlook	Personality	Perception
12	_____ is the _____	Perceptual	Selective	Halo effect	Stereotyping	Selective
13	_____	Behaviour	Stimulus	Perception	Attitude	Stimulus
14	The first stage in _____	Selection	Stimulus	Attention	Attention	Selection
15	A _____	Psychological	Perceptual	Cognitive	Sensory	Perceptual
16	The _____	Motives, personality	Personality	Personality	Learning, personality	Personality
17	The _____	Figure and	Figure and	Grouping	Figure and	Figure and
18	The _____	Ground	Figure	Grouping	Closure	Closure
19	The _____	Physiological	Conscious	Environment	Unconscious	Conscious
20	The _____	The Halo	The Angel	Stereotyping	Clouded	The Halo
21	The _____	Attribution	Social perception	Social identity	Personal	Social
22	Dual _____	Maslow	F. Herzberg	Alderfer	McClelland	F. Herzberg
23	Who _____	Maslow	F. Herzberg	Alderfer	McClelland	F. Herzberg
24	In two _____	Satisfiers	Maintenance	Hygiene factors	Motivators	Maintenance
25	In _____	Social needs	Esteem needs	Security needs	Basic needs	Social
26	Maslow's _____	Social needs	Esteem needs	Security needs	Physiological needs	Physiological
27	Under _____	Demotivators	Negative	Hygiene factors	Defectors	Hygiene

28	Hygiene factors	Satisfiers	Maintenance	Defectors	Motivators	Maintenance
29	According to	Theory X	Theory Y	Theory Z	Motivators	Theory X
30	which of the	Theory X	Theory Y	Theory Z	Motivators	Theory Y
31	the	Arousal	Direction	Rewards	Maintenance	Rewards
32	McLennan's	The physical	Three basic	Esteem needs	Esteem needs	The physical
33	Provide satisfaction	Provide satisfaction	Promote achievement	Provide financial incentives	Provide financial incentives	Provide satisfaction
34	A	Skill-based	Stock-option	Pay-for-performance	Pay-for-performance	Pay-for-performance
35	Needs	Social/spiritual	Extrinsic/intrinsic	External/internal	Extrinsic/intrinsic	Extrinsic/intrinsic
36	Steers	Safety	Social	Self-actualization	Esteem	Social
37	which	Esteem	Physiological	Self-actualization	Safety	Self-actualization
38	Company	Motivating	Achievement	Esteem factors	Hygiene factors	Hygiene factors
39	Research indicates	significant	decrease	increase	moderate	decrease
40	Theory X suggests	Like their	Dislike work	Like work	Dislike their	Dislike work
41	what	Persistence	Desire, persistence	Ambition, direction	Intensity, direction	Intensity, direction
42	which answers	Extrinsic motivation	Intrinsic motivation	Theory Y	Theory X	Intrinsic motivation
43	_____	Bonus	Motivation	Performance	Promotion	Motivation
44	in	Maslow's	Herzberg's	Satisfaction	Mayo's	Maslow's
45	individual factors	QSL	QWL	QML	WQL	QWL
46	Primary	Food, Shelter	Prevalence	High level of	Status	Food, Shelter
47	Status of system is	Satisfaction	Responsibility	Motivators	De-motivators	Motivators
48	_____	Promotion	Status	Job placement	Recognition	Status
49	Status is closely	Abilities	Aspirations	Abilities and	Responsibility	Abilities and
50	The	Oxford School	Gestalt School	Yale University	Harvard University	Gestalt School
51	People like to	Higher	Lower	Achieve	extra	Higher
52	has called	Core of management	Process of management	Known as	Scientific Management	Core of management
53	Individual	Source	Needs	Activity	Belief	Needs
54	Incentive	Three	One	Two	Six	Two
55	incentive caused by	Financial	Non-Financial	Financial	Allowance	Financial

56	Status ranking	Organizat ion	Family	salary	Society	Society
57		Psychono logical	Socio- psycholo	Physiolog	Social	Socio- psycholo
58	Herzberg conclude	Two	Three	One	Five	Two
59	Six motivatio	Herzberg	McC George	McC Escourt	Vroom	Herzberg
60	_____	Two	Six	Three	Four	Six