

# **MAA OMWATI DEGREE COLLEGE**

## **NOTES**

**CLASS : M.COM. 1<sup>st</sup> SEM**

**SUBJECT : ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

**SYLLABUS COVERED: M.D.U.ROHTAK**

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# UNIT 1

## **ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

Organizational behavior is the study of how individuals and groups interact within an organization and how these interactions affect an organization's performance toward its goal or goals. The field examines the impact of various factors on behavior within an organization.

### **\*Concept of Organisational Behaviour**

Organisational Behaviour is based on several fundamental principles that relate to the nature of people and organizations. The fundamental principles of OB include:

1. **Individual Uniqueness:** Stemming from psychological principles, this concept acknowledges that from birth, each person is distinct, shaped by unique experiences that further differentiate them from others. Individuals vary across multiple dimensions, including intelligence, physical attributes, personality, learning abilities, and communication skills. It is the individual who bears responsibility and makes decisions, while a group's power is latent until its members act in concert.
2. **The Entirety of a Person:** This notion suggests that an organization hires not merely the skills of an individual but also their preferences, biases, and personal history. One's domestic life is intertwined with their professional existence, necessitating that organizations provide a conducive work environment that promotes both professional and personal growth and fulfillment.
3. **Causality in Behavior:** Unseemly behaviour in an individual often has underlying causes, which could range from domestic issues to challenges in punctuality. When such behaviour surfaces, it is incumbent upon managers to discern the root cause and address it effectively.
4. **Respect for Individual Dignity:** Every person, irrespective of their position, deserves to be treated with respect and dignity. This principle emphasizes the importance of recognizing and valuing each job, thereby fostering the

improvement of individual aspirations and capabilities. It stands in opposition to the notion of treating employees merely as economic instruments.

5. **The organization as a social entity:** Organizations function as complex social systems, a concept derived from sociological studies. These systems are subject to both social and psychological norms that dictate organizational activities. Within an organization, there exists a blend of formal and informal social structures, emphasizing the organization's capacity for dynamic evolution over maintaining rigid relationships. Each component within this system relies on the others for its function.
6. **Shared interests among organizational participants:** The principle of mutual interest underscores the symbiotic relationship between individuals and organizations. Organizations come into existence and persist through a shared interest among their members. Individuals join organizations to fulfill their personal ambitions, while organizations depend on individuals to achieve their collective goals. A lack of shared interest can lead to disarray within the group. Conversely, a unified purpose galvanizes members to collaboratively address organizational challenges rather than casting blame.
7. **Holistic concept:** The holistic approach to organizational behaviour synthesizes the aforementioned six principles into a comprehensive framework. This perspective examines the interplay between individuals and organizations, considering the full spectrum of personal, group, organizational, and societal dimensions. It involves taking into account the diverse viewpoints within an organization to grasp the factors shaping behaviour. Rather than isolating specific incidents or issues, this approach evaluates them within the broader context that they influence and are influenced by.

### **\*Nature of Organisational Behaviour**

1. **Diversity:** Organizational behaviour recognizes the unique differences among individuals, valuing diversity in backgrounds, skills, and perspectives as a source of strength and innovation within a company.
2. **Adaptability:** It emphasizes the need for organizations to be adaptable, allowing them to respond effectively to changes in the market, technology, and workforce dynamics.

3. **Motivation:** Understanding what motivates employees is crucial in Organisational Behaviour, as it directly influences productivity, job satisfaction, and retention rates within an organization.
4. **Leadership:** Effective leadership is a cornerstone of Organisational Behaviour, as leaders shape the culture, set the vision, and guide employees towards achieving organizational goals.
5. **Communication:** Clear and open communication channels are vital for the smooth operation of an organization, facilitating collaboration and minimizing misunderstandings.
6. **Productivity:** Organisational Behaviour aims to enhance productivity by optimizing the work environment, ensuring that employees have the resources and support they need to perform at their best.
7. **Well-being:** Employee well-being is a focus area in Organizational Behaviour, with the understanding that a healthy work-life balance contributes to better performance and lower turnover.
8. **Innovation:** Encouraging innovation is part of Organizational Behaviour, as it drives growth and keeps organizations competitive in their respective industries.
9. **Ethics:** Organizational Behaviour upholds ethical standards and practices, ensuring that organizations operate with integrity and respect for all stakeholders.

### **\*Role of Organizational Behaviour**

The Role of organizational behaviour is multifaceted and crucial for the success of any organization. Here are some key points highlighting its importance:

1. **Performance Improvement:** Organizational Behaviour helps in identifying ways to increase productivity and efficiency, leading to better performance outcomes for both individuals and the organization.
2. **Employee Satisfaction:** By understanding the needs and motivations of employees, Organizational Behaviour contributes to creating a work environment that enhances job satisfaction and employee retention.

3. **Leadership Development:** Organizational Behaviour provides insights into effective leadership styles and practices, enabling the development of leaders who can inspire and guide their teams.
4. **Change Management:** It equips organizations with the tools to manage and adapt to change, ensuring resilience and flexibility in a dynamic business landscape.
5. **Conflict Resolution:** OB offers strategies for resolving interpersonal and group conflicts, fostering a harmonious workplace.
6. **Organizational Culture:** It plays a significant role in shaping and maintaining a positive organizational culture, which is essential for long-term success.
7. **Team Dynamics:** Organizational Behaviour studies how teams work and interact, which is vital for building strong, collaborative teams that can achieve collective goals.
8. **Communication Enhancement:** It improves communication within an organization, ensuring that information flows effectively between different levels and departments.
9. **Decision-Making:** OB aids in the decision-making process by providing a better understanding of human behaviour and organizational dynamics.
10. **Innovation Encouragement:** It encourages innovation by creating an environment where new ideas are valued and employees feel empowered to share their creativity.

## **PSYCHOLOGY**

The term 'psychology' is derived from the Greek Word 'Psyche' which means 'soul' or 'spirit'. Organisational behaviour studies human behaviour which is concerned mainly with the psychology of the people. Psychology, especially, industrial or organisational psychology is the greatest contributor to the field of organisational behaviour. Psychologists study behaviour and industrial or organisational psychologists deal specifically with the behaviour of people in organisational settings.

Psychology as a science, measures, explains and suggests the appropriate human behaviour. Individual behaviour is governed by perception, learning and personality. Industrial psychology understands people's behaviour at work, particularly under different working conditions, stress, conflicts and other related behaviour of employees. Job satisfaction, performance appraisals and reward systems are measured and directed with the use of psychological theories and models.

Group behaviour in the organisations is studied, researched and molded with the use of theories of Social Psychology. The communication system in the organisation, attitudes of employees, their needs etc. as a subject of social psychology have a great influence on behaviour. Thus, many of the concepts which interest psychologists e.g. learning, motivation etc. are also central to the students of organisational behaviour. We can conclude that the contribution of psychology in the field of organisational behaviour is quite significant.

### ***Sociology:***

Sociology also has a major impact on the study of organisational behaviour. Sociology makes use of scientific methods in accumulating knowledge about the social behaviour of the groups. Sociologists study social systems such as a family, an occupational class, a mob or an organisation. It specifically studies, social groups, social behaviour, society, customs, institutions, social classes, status, social mobility, prestige etc.

It studies the behaviour of the people in the society in relation to their fellow human beings. Sociology contributes to organisational behaviour through its contribution to the study of interpersonal dynamics like leadership, group dynamics, communication etc. Socialisation is accepted for molding the behaviour of people where the capacities of individuals to learn and respond to social systems, values, norms and social roles are accelerated and appreciated. The attitudes and behavioural patterns of individuals and groups are greatly influenced by socialisation.

### ***Anthropology:***

Anthropology is concerned with the interactions between people and their environment, especially their cultural environment. Culture is a major influence on the structure of organisations as well as on the behaviour of people within organisations. 'Anthropo' is a Greek word which means 'man' and 'logy' means 'Science'. Aristotle defined anthropology as a science of man's self understanding. It particularly studies civilization, forms of cultures and their impact on individuals and groups, biological features of man and evolutionary pattern, speech and relationship among languages.

Anthropology contributes in understanding the cultural effects on organisational behaviour, effects of value systems, norms, sentiments, cohesion and interaction. Socialization involves spreading of values and missions of organisation among employees. Anthropology influences the employees' behaviour through motivation, interaction, goal setting, decision making, coordinating and controlling.

### ***Political Science:***

In recent times, political science has also started interesting the organisational behaviourists. Political Science is usually, thought of as the study of political systems. But political scientists are interested in how and why people acquire power, political behaviour, decision making, conflict, the behaviour of interest groups and coalition formation. These are also major areas of interest in organisational behaviour.

Political parties and Government directly intervene in many activities of the organisation. Specific principles of political science are observed in organisational behaviour for delegation of authority and responsibility, conflict resolution and stress management.

In organisations, people strive for power and leadership recognition. Political Science helps in the management of men in an effective and efficient manner. Political perspectives and government policies are thoroughly analyzed for molding and modifying the behaviour of people, because they greatly influence the organisation. The law and order of the country influence the people at work.

### ***Economics:***

Economists study the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. Students of organisational behaviour share the economist's interest in such areas as labour market dynamics, productivity, human resource planning and forecasting, and cost benefit analysis.

The economic conditions of a country have long lasting impact on organizational behavior. If psychological and economic expectations of employee are met, they are satisfied and become high performers. Economic systems include financial, commercial and industrial activities which have greater influences on the behaviour of the people. The consumption pattern in society monitors the behaviour of employees. Consumption oriented society witnesses a different employee behaviour from that of a production oriented society.

Science is systematized knowledge. The scientific methods attempt to produce information that is objective in the sense that it is certifiable and independent of a person's opinions or preferences. Scientific method is the backbone of organisational behaviour. Organisational behaviour is based on the systematized study of facts, behaviour, their relationships and predictions.

New scientific methods viz. observation of facts and behaviour, explanation of facts and relationships and coming to conclusion thereon have become important bases of the study of organisational behaviour. The cause and effect relationship is also established in organisational behaviour like that of science. The verification of the relationship and its quantification has added to the importance of organisational behaviour.

It becomes relatively easy to predict and mould the people at work. A researcher, in the field of OB investigates new facts, tests theories, hypothesis and models. Personal bias, superfluous conclusions and whimsical approaches are avoided in the study. A systematized form of inquiry is used for the study of various problems.

### ***Technology:***

The level of technological development affects the behaviour of the employees. Modern age is the age of computerization. It has come within the framework of the model of organisational behaviour. The study of technological development is becoming essential for understanding the organisational behaviour, because people are influenced by the technological development. Human behaviour relations and environments develop as a result of technological innovations.

Technology changes consumer behaviour, production activities, distribution and storage activities. To cope up with the technological development people have to become educated and/or technically skilled. They should have to be responsibility conscious and development oriented. Unskilled or irresponsible will have no place in the modern innovative age. Thus, technological development leads to effective work behaviour, improved organisational culture and helpful work environment.

### ***Engineering:***

Engineering also influences the study of organisational behaviour. Some topics are common to engineering as well as organisational behaviour e.g. work measurement, productivity measurement, work flow analysis, work design, job design and labour relations. In fact, organisational behaviour is dependent on engineering for these technical jobs.

### ***Medicine:***

Nowadays, medicine has also come in connection with the study of human behaviour at work. Stress is becoming a very common problem in the organisations as well as in the people working in the organisations. Research shows that controlling the causes and consequences of stress in and out of organisational settings, is important for the well being of the individual as well as the organisations. Medicine helps in the control of stress as well as stress related problems.

Thus, it can be concluded that organisational behaviour has an interdisciplinary focus. It draws from a variety of other fields and attempts to describe behaviour as opposed to prescribing how behaviour can be changed in consistent and predictable ways.

## **\*ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODELS**

Organisational Behaviour Models are defined as the structural models that describe the relationship between the employees at different levels in the organisation. Organisational models reflect the overall behaviour of management and people altogether. The behaviour of employees is analysed into three levels in the organisational model. These three levels are individual level, group level and organisational level. Cognitive, behavioural and social learning frameworks are the three theoretical approaches considered in the organisational behaviour model. This study describes how organisations are influenced by human behaviours and how the conduct of people is affected by the organisations. Below are models of organisational behaviour that describe how organisations behave to optimise their productivity.

### **Types of Models of Organisational Behaviour**

#### **1. Feudal Model**

Feudal model is defined as a type of model that considers the employees working in an organisation as an inferior element of the organisation. The working employees were given less value in the feudal model. For various decisions and actions in the company, the desires and values of people were not considered. This model was majorly called Theory X, in which the procedures, actions, policies and rules were considered with higher priority and superior to human beings. For building the motivation among employees money and retrenchment approach was used. The model entirely concentrated only on formal organisation rather than human and social values.

#### **2. Autocratic Model**

The autocratic Model is defined as a type of organisational model that depends upon power, strength and formal authority. This model majorly depends on power. The working employees need to follow the orders. The lower-level employees have less control over the assigned duties as compared to upper-level authorities. Major decisions are made by the higher-level authorities only. The basic principle that is followed in the autocratic model is that owners of the company or higher managerial authorities have higher expertise in business, whereas lower-level employees have fewer skills and experience.

### **3. Custodial Model**

Custodial Model is defined as a type of model where economic resources are considered as the root level. In this model, the employees and working professionals of the company are adapted to the benefits and security provided by the company as every employee considers security as the major parameter while working. The firms with more resources majorly adapt this model as the model is dependent upon the availability of high economic resources. The custodial model is based on rewards. It overcomes the limitations of the autocratic model. In most companies, more benefits such as healthcare benefits and corporate cars are also being provided along with security.

### **4. Supportive Model**

As the name itself suggests, the supportive model is defined as a type of model that considers leadership as its root level. In this model, the employees are oriented towards their participation and job performance. This model helps employees to improve their overall performance and enhance learning. Public sector organisations majorly follow a supportive model because it is based on leadership. In this model more importance is given to job satisfaction, friendly relationships between superiors and subordinates, and psychological needs of the employees. The role of the higher manager is to get the work done by helping their employees.

### **5. Collegial Model**

The collegial model is a further extension of the supportive model. The word collegial means bodies of different individuals working towards a common goal. The partnership is the root level of the collegial model the approach adopted is the teamwork approach. The workers in the collegial model are satisfied in their job roles and are committed towards the overall growth of the organisation. It is the responsibility of the manager to create a healthy and positive workplace for his employees. The collegial model works more effectively in finding new approaches such as research and development, marketing teams, technologies and software, etc.

### **6. Human Value Model**

The human value model is defined as a model that gives more importance to human values. This model is opposite to that of the feudal model. The human values of the employees were more appreciated than the economic values. The employees working in an organisation work to fulfil their social and psychological needs rather than focusing only on economic needs. This model is for human dignity.

## 7. Contingency Model

Contingency Model is defined as a complex model. The contingency Model of organisational behaviour assumes the complex variables that consist of the behaviour of individuals, groups and structure. Therefore, this model meets all the challenges for the growth of the organisation. To demonstrate the contingency model Theory Z is being developed. Contingency Model is also known as a hybrid model. The contingency Model guarantees the promotion and long-term employment opportunities for the employees working in the organisation.

## ETHICAL BEHAVIOR

Ethical behavior indicates making morally right decisions and actions based on principles such as integrity, respect, fairness, responsibility, compassion, lawfulness, transparency, and civic-mindedness. It entails considering the well-being of individuals and society and often goes beyond legal requirements.

## CODE OF ETHICS

A code of ethics is a set of guidelines or principles that outline acceptable and expected behavior within a particular profession, organization, or group. It serves as a framework for ethical decision-making and conduct.

### Importance of ethical behavior

The importance of ethical behavior lies in its positive impact on individuals, organizations, and society. Here are key reasons why ethical behavior is crucial:

- **Trust and Reputation:** Ethical behavior builds trust and enhances an individual's or organization's reputation. Trust is foundational for successful relationships, whether in personal or professional settings.
- **Positive Relationships:** Ethical conduct fosters positive relationships with others. Respecting and treating others fairly contributes to healthy interpersonal connections and collaborations.

- **Legal Compliance:** Ethical behavior often aligns with legal requirements. Adhering to ethical principles helps ensure compliance with laws and regulations, reducing the risk of legal issues.
  - **Employee Morale and Productivity:** Organizations that prioritize ethical behavior create a positive work environment. Employees feel valued and are more likely to be motivated, leading to increased productivity and job satisfaction.
  - **Customer Loyalty:** Ethical business practices contribute to customer trust and loyalty. Customers are more likely to support and continue doing business with organizations that demonstrate integrity and fairness.
  - **Risk Mitigation:** Ethical decision-making helps mitigate risks associated with unethical behavior, such as legal consequences, financial losses, and damage to reputation.
  - **Social Responsibility:** Ethical behavior contributes to social responsibility. Individuals and organizations that act ethically consider the impact of their actions on the broader community and strive to make positive contributions.
  - **Long-Term Success:** Ethical conduct is often associated with long-term success. While unethical behavior might yield short-term gains, it can lead to negative consequences in the long run, including loss of trust and business opportunities.
  - **Crisis Management:** Ethical behavior provides a solid foundation for crisis management. Organizations with a history of ethical conduct are better positioned to navigate and recover from crises.
  - **Global Impact:** In a globally interconnected world, ethical behavior contributes to a more just and sustainable global community. Consideration of social, environmental, and cultural factors is essential for responsible global citizenship.
- In summary, ethical behavior is essential for establishing trust, maintaining positive relationships, complying with laws, fostering a healthy work environment, and contributing to long-term success and societal well-being.

It serves as a guiding principle for individuals and organizations in making responsible and sustainable choices.

## LEARNING

Learning is one of the important psychological processes that determine the human behaviour. All human behaviours either directly or indirectly are affected by

learning process. Learning can be conceptualised as acquiring new behaviour in an interactional environment. It is the process of acquiring, assimilating and internalizing cognitive, motor or behavioural inputs for their varied uses as and when required.

### **\*Definitions**

With every new experience and every new event or situation, we learn something new. But, this concept of learning is purely theoretical. In real terms, learning can be described as the modification of one's behaviour through practice, training and experience. A few definitions of learning are given below to understand the nature of learning.

“Learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of prior experience.”

“Learning has taken place if an individual behaves, reacts, and responds as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formerly behaved.”

“Learning can be defined as relatively permanent change in behaviour potentiality that results from reinforced practice or experience.”

From the definitions of learning given above, following generalisations can be drawn about the nature of learning:

Learning involves change, although the change can be favourable or unfavourable from organisations' point of view.

Not all changes can be referred to learning. Learning is the relatively permanent change in the behaviour of an individual. Any temporary change cannot be regarded as learning.

Learning should be reflected in the individual's behaviour. Any change in the beliefs, attitudes or perception of an individual which is not accompanied by the appropriate behaviour is not learning.

Change should occur as the result of some experience, practice or training. This also means that any biological change in the human behaviour due to some disease or physical damage is not learning.

Practice or experience must be reinforced for the learning to take place. If the desired behaviour is not reinforced, it will not be repeated and eventually disappear.

## **\*THEORIES OF LEARNING**

Different approaches to learning in the form of theories or models have been established to explain the phenomenon of learning. These theories can be classified as:

### **# Stimulus-Response theories**

### **# Cognitive theories**

### **# Social learning theories**

The theories and their implications for improving the learning and behaviours of the individuals are discussed as follows:

#### **1. Stimulus-Response Theories**

The important stimulus-response theories are: (a) classical conditioning theory (b) operant conditioning theory (c) Thorndike's law of effect.

### **# Classical conditioning theory of learning**

Classical conditioning is defined as association of one event with another desired event resulting in a behaviour. The most popular experiment on the classical conditioning was conducted by a famous Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov. Pavlov conducted an experiment on dogs and tried to establish a stimulus-response connection amongst them. Pavlov was honoured with a Nobel Prize for his experiment on this subject. In his experiment on dogs, Pavlov made an attempt to relate salivation of dogs with ringing of bell. The amount of saliva secretions were measured with the help of a surgical procedure.

In the first stage of experiment, Pavlov presented a piece of meat in front of the dog. The dog secreted increased amount of saliva in response to the meat. This response was unconditional. Then, he withheld the presentation of meat and rang a

bell in front of dog at the same time when meat was presented to him. The dog did not exhibit any salivation or we can say that there was no response.

In the next stage of the experiment, he started ringing the bell at the same time when meat was presented to him. By doing so he linked meat with ringing of the bell. Thus an association between two stimuli viz. the bell and meat was established. He continued with this process for some time. After some time, he found that the ringing of bell alone elicited the saliva of dog even without presentation of meat. Hence, the bell became conditioned stimulus resulting into conditioned or learned response.

As given in the exhibit, following observations can be drawn from this experiment:

Salivation in response to food was unlearned and natural response or reflex. This response was called unconditioned response.

As the food elicited unconditioned response, it was called unconditioned stimulus.

When Pavlov presented the food after ringing the bell, the dog responded by salivating and after conditioning, the bell alone resulted into salivation. Thus the bell became conditioned stimulus and salivation was conditioned response.

We can also see many examples of classical conditioning in an organisational setting. For example, in an organisation, departmental heads used to ask the executives and others staff members to update their files and other records, whenever some senior officer of top management was about to visit the department for the purpose of auditing the documents and necessary records. This practice was continued for many years. Eventually, the employees would turn on their best behaviours and look prim whenever they were asked to update their files and records even when this was not paired with visit of senior officer. This was because employees of that department learnt to associate updating of files with visit of senior officer for audit.

Despite of receiving the wide appreciation theoretically, the theory of classical conditioning was criticised by many psychologists on the ground that it represents only a little part of total human learning. Particularly Skinner realised that classical conditioning explains only reflexive behaviours. In reality, the behaviour of people in organisations is voluntary rather than being reflexive. This voluntary behaviour

is not a response of specific stimulus. Such behaviours are more complex. The complex behaviour can be understood by operant conditioning theory of learning.

### **#Operant Conditioning theory of learning**

Theory of operant conditioning argues that behaviour is the function of its consequences. B. F. Skinner who practiced the theory of operant conditioning advocated that individuals emit the behaviours which are rewarded and do not emit the behaviours which are not rewarded or punished. In the simple words, it can be said that behaviour is likely to be repeated when the consequences are favourable and is not likely to be repeated when the consequences are not favourable. Therefore, the essence of operant conditioning is the relationship between behaviour and its consequences. The word 'operant' explains that relationship between behaviour and consequences is a learning process which is developed over a period of time, in which a person changes his behaviour based on his favourable or unfavourable past experiences.

Based on this theory, management can identify this relationship and control the behaviour of employees. Certain consequences can be increased and certain consequences can be decreased to increase the occurrence of the desired behaviour. Various examples of operant conditioning can be seen in the organisations. For example, a boss assures his subordinate that he would be compensated for his overtime in the next appraisal but, he fails to fulfil his assurance during the next evaluation. Consequently, the subordinate will never agree to work overtime whenever the boss will request him to do so. Thus it can be concluded that rewarding consequences increase the response and aversive consequences decrease the same.

### **#Thorndike's Law of effect**

Thorndike's law of effect stated that. "Of several responses made to the same situation, those which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction (reinforcement)- will be more likely to recur, those which are accompanied by or more closely followed by discomfort (punishment)- will be less likely to recur." Thorndike in U.S worked on cats, chicks and dogs to understand the learning process. He placed his animals in a 'puzzle box' from which they were required to escape. In order to escape from the box they were required to press the correct lever or pulley. Through 'trial and error', animals eventually learned to press the correct pulley. He explained that response is more important than stimulus in the process of learning.

## **#Cognitive Theory of learning**

Cognitive theory of learning refers to an individual's knowledge, thoughts and understandings about himself and his environment. This theory assumes that individuals learn the meaning of various objects and events and also the learned responses on the basis of meaning assigned to the stimuli. A cognitive structure is formed in the memory of an individual which preserves and organises the information about various events that occurred in a learning process. Whenever the individual faces some situation or an event, he scans it against his memory to determine appropriate action. Therefore, the action taken by the individual depends upon the cognitive structure retrieved from the memory. Finally, it can be said that an individual's response is a decision process that varies from situation to situation and the individual's memory for prior such events.

The pioneer of cognitive theory of learning is Edward Tolman who developed this theory through controlled experiments. He conducted a laboratory experiment using rats. He showed that rats learned to run through a complicated maze to reach to their goal of obtaining the food. Rats developed expectations at every choice point in the maze. Thus they learnt to expect that certain cognitive cues related to the choice point ultimately lead to the food. Finally, when the relationship between cues and expectancy was strengthened, learning took place because cues led to expected goals.

Cognitive theory is different from stimulus-response theories. Stimulus-response theories assume that learning is the function of stimulus-response relationship and ignored the role of individual himself in the learning process. On the other hand, cognitive theory recognises the role of an individual in receiving, memorising, retrieving and interpreting the stimulus and reacting to it. Today, the cognitive approach of learning is very much relevant and in OB this approach is mainly applied to the theories of motivation.

## **#Social Learning theory**

The most popular social learning theory is Bandura's Modelling theory. This theory emphasises on the importance of observing and modelling the attitudes, behaviours and emotional reactions of others. The theory explains that much of what we learn is the result of observing and imitating our role models such as parents, teachers, peers or celebrities. The theory assumes that learning is not only the result of environmental determinism (classical and operant conditioning view)

or individualism determinism (cognitive theory) but, it is combination of both. In observational learning, the influence of the role model is the centre of learning. According to this theory, the influence of role model on the individual is determined by four processes:

***Attention process:*** This process explains that people learn from the role model when they pay attention to their critical behaviours. Therefore, individuals tend to be influenced by the models that are more attractive and appear similar to them.

***Retention process:*** This process explains that learning from the model will depend upon how well the individual retains model's actions and behaviours even after the model is not available to the individual.

***Production process:*** This process involves recalling model's behaviour and performing own actions by matching them with the actions performed by the role model.

***Reinforcement process:*** This process explains that individuals will repeat the modelled behaviour if it is rewarding. Behaviours that are reinforced receive more attention and are performed more often. The four processes are given in the following exhibit: The principles of Bandura's theory can be summarized as follows:

Organising and rehearsing the modelled behaviour symbolically and then performing it clearly facilitate the process of observational learning.

Individuals are more likely to adopt the modelled behaviour if the consequences are favourable. Individuals are more likely to adopt the modelled behaviour if the model is similar to the learner.

### **\*Principles of Learning**

Principles of learning help the managers gain maximum efficiency in a learning situation. However, blind observance to these principles can cause damaging effects than the gain. Therefore, each principle should be carefully interpreted and applied after considering the nature of task being learned and the context in which it is being learned. Some important principles of learning are explained as below:

**i. Motivation:** Without motivation learning cannot take place. Motivation is the basic principle of learning. Motivation can be seen at different levels of complexity in different situations. In an experiment conducted by Edward Tolman, the hungry rat learnt the path through a complex maze to the food. In the experiment conducted by Thorndike, desire to escape from the puzzle box motivated the animals to learn the way to escape from the box.

**ii. Knowledge of Results:** It is a common fact that knowledge of one's own performance is essential for learning. Feedback of the performance stimulates the individual to take corrective action if there is any deviation in his performance.

**iii. Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is the most important principle of learning. Reinforcement can be defined as anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behaviour that preceded the reinforcement. In simple words, reinforcement refers to the consequences of behaviour. Reinforcement is external environment based. It is described as external environmental events that follow a response. There are four basic forms of reinforcement viz. positive reinforcement, avoidance, punishment and extinction.

**a. Positive reinforcement:** Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases the behaviour by offering desirable consequences. In simple words, positive reinforcement is the reward for a desired behaviour. The reward should be such that which stimulates individual's desired behaviour. For example, if an employee performs extremely well in the organisation and receives awards for the same, the probability of repeating the same behaviour will increase.

**b. Avoidance:** It is also known as negative reinforcement. It is another alternative of increasing the desired behaviour. In this, instead of associating a reward with the desired behaviour, the individual gets an opportunity to avoid the punishment by displaying the desired behaviour. For example, a manager usually criticises his subordinates for not achieving their targets. The employees will achieve their targets to avoid the criticism.

**c. Extinction:** Whereas positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement are the ways to increase the occurrence of desired behaviour, extinction refers to decreasing the frequency of undesirable behaviour. When the rewards are withdrawn from the behaviours which were earlier associated with the rewards, frequency of such behaviours will tend to decrease or eventually extinct.

d. **Punishment:** It is also used to decrease the occurrence of undesired behaviour. Punishment refers to the presentation of an unpleasant or an aversive consequence of undesirable behaviour. For example, in an organisation written warnings, pay cuts or terminations are given for the undesirable behaviours like theft, financial embezzlement, damaging the property and coming late consistently etc.

iv. **Schedules of Learning:** Reinforcement does not always follow a particular response. An employee, who always finishes his assignment on time, sometimes receives recognition and appreciation and sometimes is ignored. Schedules of reinforcement refer to the pattern or timing of administering the reinforcers for the desired behaviour. Schedules of reinforcement are of two types: Continuous and partial.

**Continuous schedule:** Continuous schedule reinforces the desired behaviour every time it is displayed. The reinforcement is immediate.

**Partial schedule:** In partial or intermittent schedule, the behaviour is not reinforced every time it is displayed but, reinforcement is often enough to make the behaviour worth repeating. Partial reinforcement can also be classified into four categories based on timing and pattern of reinforcement.

- o **Fixed interval schedule:** When reinforcement is given at fixed time intervals.

- o **Variable interval schedule:** When reinforcement is given at variable times. In other words, reinforcement is given at random times so that nobody can predict the timing of reinforcement.

- o **Fixed ratio schedule:** In this method, reward is given after the fixed number of desired responses is displayed by the employee.

- o **Variable ratio schedule:** In this method, rewards are offered after variable amount of desired responses.

## **\*LEARNING AND OB**

Learning is regarded as the fundamental variable influencing human behaviour. It affects almost all aspects of organisational behaviour too. An understanding of the concept of learning helps the managers to increase the occurrence of desirable behaviours and decrease the occurrence of undesirable behaviours of employees.

Apart from this, learning also explains certain attitudes and behaviours of managers towards their subordinates. Learning process influence the day to day interactions both casual and formal held among the members of the organisation.

## UNIT -2

### ATTITUDE

Attitude is a complex and multifaceted concept in psychology, and various psychologists have provided different definitions and perspectives on it. Here are definitions of attitude by some influential psychologists:

1. **Gordon Allport:**

- Gordon Allport, one of the pioneers in the study of attitudes, defined attitude as “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.”

2. **Leon Festinger:**

- Leon Festinger, known for his work on cognitive dissonance theory, described attitude as “the emotional or evaluative aspect of a cognized object.”

3. **Daniel Katz and Floyd Allport:**

- Katz and Allport developed the functional theory of attitudes, defining attitude as “a predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object.”

4. **Icek Ajzen:**

- Icek Ajzen, known for the Theory of Planned Behavior, defined attitude as “a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event.”

5. **Richard Petty and John Cacioppo:**

- Petty and Cacioppo’s elaboration likelihood model describes attitude as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor.”

6. **Kurt Lewin:**

- Kurt Lewin, a pioneer in social psychology, defined attitude as “a way of representing the self to the stimulus object.”

7. **Abraham Maslow:**

- Abraham Maslow, known for his hierarchy of needs, saw attitudes as “mental and emotional shorthands for the person’s total opinion about anything.”

## 8. **Milton Rokeach:**

- Rokeach defined attitude as “a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner.”

### **\*Components of attitude**

Attitude is a complex concept made up of several components, including cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. Here are these components explained with simple examples:

#### **1. Cognitive Component:**

The cognitive component of attitude involves the beliefs, thoughts, and information associated with a particular object or topic. It represents what you know and think about that object.

Example: Imagine you have an attitude about a new smartphone model. Your cognitive component might include your beliefs about its features, performance, and reviews you've read. If you believe it has a great camera and long battery life, that's part of your cognitive component.

#### **2. Affective Component:**

The affective component is about the emotional or affective aspect of an attitude. It encompasses your feelings and emotional responses toward the object or topic.

Example: Continuing with the smartphone example, your affective component would include your feelings of excitement or disappointment when you think about or use the phone. If you feel happy and enthusiastic about it, that's part of your affective component.

#### **3. Behavioral Component:**

The behavioral component relates to the actions or behavioral tendencies resulting from your attitude. It reflects how you are likely to behave in relation to the object or topic.

Example: Staying with the smartphone example, your behavioral component might involve actions such as recommending the phone to others, buying it, or using it

regularly. If you purchase the phone and recommend it to friends, that's part of your behavioral component.

These three components work together to form a person's overall attitude. In the smartphone example, your cognitive component (beliefs about the phone), affective component (emotional response to the phone), and behavioral component (actions related to the phone) all combine to shape your attitude toward that specific smartphone model.

## **\*FORMATION OF ATTITUDE**

Attitudes are formed through a complex interplay of various factors and processes, and they can evolve and change over time. **Several key factors influence** the formation of attitudes:

### **1. Socialization:**

**Family and Early Experiences:** Attitudes often begin to form during childhood through socialization within the family. Children learn values, beliefs, and attitudes from their parents and close relatives.

**2. Peers and Peer Groups:** As individuals grow older, their attitudes can be influenced significantly by their peers and peer groups. Adolescents and young adults may adopt the attitudes of their friends or social circles.

**3. Personal Experience:** Personal interactions and experiences with a particular object, person, or situation can shape attitudes. Positive experiences may lead to positive attitudes, while negative experiences can result in negative attitudes.

**Classical and Operant Conditioning:** Attitudes can be formed through classical conditioning, where a neutral stimulus becomes associated with a positive or negative response. Operant conditioning can also play a role when behaviors are reinforced or punished, influencing attitudes.

### **4. Cognitive Processes:**

**Information Processing:** Attitudes can develop through cognitive processes such as reasoning, information evaluation, and critical thinking. Individuals may form

attitudes based on the information they have, their interpretation of that information, and their judgment of its relevance.

**5. Cognitive Dissonance:** Dissonance theory suggests that people strive to maintain consistency between their attitudes and behaviors. When there is a perceived inconsistency, individuals may change their attitudes to align with their actions.

### **6. Emotional Influences:**

**Emotional Reactions:** Emotions and emotional reactions can play a significant role in shaping attitudes. Traumatic or emotionally charged experiences can lead to strong negative attitudes, while positive emotional experiences can lead to positive attitudes.

### **7. Cultural and Societal Influences:**

**\*Cultural Norms:** Cultural norms, values, and societal expectations can influence attitudes. Attitudes toward issues like religion, politics, gender roles, and social justice often reflect cultural and societal norms.

**\*Media and Social Media:** Mass media, including television, movies, and social media, can shape attitudes by presenting information and influencing public opinion on various topics.

### **8. Educational and Information Sources:**

#### **\*Education and Information Sources:**

Attitudes can be influenced by formal education, including school curricula and educational materials. Information from authoritative sources, such as textbooks and experts, can shape attitudes.

#### **\*Personal Values and Beliefs:**

**Personal Values:** Personal values and core beliefs play a crucial role in attitude formation. People may form attitudes that align with their deeply held values and principles.

### **9. Social Influence:**

**\*Peer Pressure:** Peer pressure and social conformity can lead individuals to adopt attitudes that are prevalent within their social groups.

**\*Authority Figures:** Attitudes can be influenced by authority figures, leaders, or influencers who people admire or respect.

Attitudes are not static and can change over time due to new experiences, exposure to different perspectives, or shifts in personal values and beliefs. Understanding the various factors that contribute to attitude formation can help explain why individuals hold the attitudes they do and how attitudes may evolve.

## **\*CHANGING IN ATTITUDE**

Attitudes can be changed through a combination of strategies and interventions. Here are some effective ways to change attitudes:

### **1. Provide New Information:**

Present factual and credible information that challenges existing beliefs and attitudes. Ensure that the new information is relevant and addresses misconceptions.

### **2. Use Persuasive Communication:**

Craft persuasive messages that appeal to both logic and emotions. Use evidence, statistics, and compelling narratives to make your case.

### **3. Highlight Social Norms:**

Show that the desired attitude aligns with widely accepted social norms and values. People are often influenced by what they perceive as socially acceptable behavior.

### **4. Appeal to Emotions:**

Emotions can have a powerful impact on attitude change. Use emotionally compelling stories or visuals to evoke empathy or sympathy.

### **5. Provide Counterarguments:**

Anticipate and address potential objections or counterarguments. Acknowledge opposing viewpoints and offer reasoned responses.

## **6. Use Trusted Sources:**

Messages from trusted and credible sources are more likely to influence attitudes. Ensure that the source delivering the message is perceived as reliable.

## **7. Engage in Two-Sided Communication:**

Present both sides of an argument, but emphasize the superiority of the desired attitude. This approach can be effective in addressing objections and increasing credibility.

## **8. Encourage Critical Thinking:**

Encourage individuals to think critically and evaluate information independently. Provide tools and resources for fact-checking and analysis.

## **9. Influence Social Networks:**

Engage with individuals within the person's social network who hold the desired attitude. Social influence from friends, family, or colleagues can be persuasive.

## **10. Create Positive Associations:**

Associate the desired attitude with positive emotions, experiences, or outcomes. Make the attitude change personally rewarding.

## **11. Offer Incentives and Rewards:**

Provide tangible incentives or rewards for adopting the desired attitude. Positive reinforcement can motivate attitude change.

## **12. Engage in Behavioral Change:**

Encourage individuals to act in ways that are consistent with the desired attitude. When people behave in accordance with a new attitude, it can reinforce the change.

## **13. Use Subtle Priming:**

Subtle cues or priming can influence attitudes without individuals being consciously aware of it. Use environmental cues or subtle messaging to nudge attitude change.

## **14. Repeated Exposure:**

Consistent exposure to messages and information that support the desired attitude can gradually lead to attitude change through the mere exposure effect.

**15. Provide Feedback:**

Offer feedback on progress toward attitude change. Highlight and reinforce any shifts in attitudes in a positive manner.

**16. Utilize Cognitive Dissonance:**

Encourage individuals to recognize inconsistencies between their current attitude and their behavior. Cognitive dissonance can motivate attitude change to reduce discomfort.

**17. Promote Empathy and Perspective-Taking:**

Encourage individuals to empathize with others who hold different attitudes. Perspective-taking can lead to greater understanding and tolerance.

**18. Set Realistic Expectations:**

Recognize that attitude change may be gradual and not always complete. Be patient and acknowledge small shifts in attitude as progress.

**19. Provide Social Support:**

Foster a supportive environment where individuals feel safe and encouraged to explore and adopt new attitudes.

Remember that changing attitudes is a complex process, and success may vary depending on individual factors and the specific attitude in question. Tailoring your approach to the target audience and employing a combination of these strategies can increase the likelihood of attitude change.

**\*Organization Related Attitude**

Attitudes related to organizations refer to the opinions, beliefs, and feelings that individuals hold regarding their workplace, the company they work for, or the

broader organizational context. These attitudes are crucial because they can impact employee behavior, job satisfaction, and overall organizational success.

## **PERSONALITY**

**Personality**, a characteristic way of thinking, feeling, and behaving. Personality embraces moods, attitudes, and opinions and is most clearly expressed in interactions with other people. It includes behavioral characteristics, both inherent and acquired, that distinguish one person from another and that can be observed in people's relations to the environment and to the social group.

### **Definition**

**1. Acc.to Allport.** Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristics behavior and thought”

### **\*History of the Big 5 Personality Theory**

Trait theories of personality have long attempted to pin down exactly how many traits exist. Earlier theories have suggested various numbers. For instance, Gordon Allport's list contained 4,000 personality traits, Raymond Cattell had 16 personality factors, and Hans Eysenck offered a three-factor theory.

Many researchers felt that Cattell's theory was too complicated and Eysenck's was too limited in scope. As a result, the Big 5 personality traits emerged and are used to describe the broad traits that serve as building blocks of personality.

Several researchers support the belief that there are five core personality traits.<sup>1</sup> Evidence of this theory has been growing for many years in psychology, beginning with the research of D. W. Fiske (1949), and later expanded upon by others, including Norman (1967), Smith (1967), Goldberg (1981), and McCrae & Costa (1987).

It is important to note that each of the five primary personality traits represents a range between two extremes. For example, extraversion represents a continuum between extreme extraversion and extreme introversion. In the real world, most people lie somewhere in between.

While there is a significant body of literature supporting these primary personality traits, researchers don't always agree on the exact labels for each dimension. That said, **these five traits are usually described** as follows.

## **1. Openness**

Openness (also referred to as openness to experience) emphasizes imagination and insight the most out of all five personality traits.<sup>1</sup> People who are high in openness tend to have a broad range of interests. They are curious about the world and other people and are eager to learn new things and enjoy new experiences.

People who are high in this personality trait also tend to be more adventurous and creative. Conversely, people low in this personality trait are often much more traditional and may struggle with abstract thinking.

## **2. Conscientiousness**

Among each of the personality traits, conscientiousness is one defined by high levels of thoughtfulness, good impulse control, and goal-directed behaviors.<sup>1</sup> Highly conscientious people tend to be organized and mindful of details. They plan ahead, think about how their behavior affects others, and are mindful of deadlines.

Someone scoring lower in this primary personality trait is less structured and less organized. They may procrastinate to get things done, sometimes missing deadlines completely

## **3. Extraversion**

Extraversion (or extroversion) is a personality trait characterized by excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness, and high amounts of emotional expressiveness.<sup>1</sup> People high in extraversion are outgoing and tend to gain energy in social situations. Being around others helps them feel energized and excited.

People who are low in this personality trait or introverted tend to be more reserved. They have less energy to expend in social settings and social events can feel draining. Introverts often require a period of solitude and quiet in order to "recharge."

## **4. Agreeableness**

This personality trait includes attributes such as trust, altruism, kindness, affection, and other prosocial behaviors.<sup>1</sup> People who are high in agreeableness tend to be more cooperative while those low in this personality trait tend to be more competitive and sometimes even manipulative.

## **5. Neuroticism**

Neuroticism is a personality trait characterized by sadness, moodiness, and emotional instability.<sup>1</sup> Individuals who are high in neuroticism tend to experience mood swings, anxiety, irritability, and sadness. Those low in this personality trait tend to be more stable and emotionally resilient.

## **\*How to Use the Big 5 Personality Traits**

Where you fall on the continuum for each of these five primary traits can be used to help identify whether you are more or less likely to have other more secondary personality traits. These other traits are often split into two categories: positive personality traits and negative personality traits.

### **1. Positive Personality Traits**

Positive personality traits are traits that can be beneficial to have. These traits may help you be a better person or make it easier to cope with challenges you may face in life. Personality traits that are considered positive include:

- Adaptable
- Ambitious
- Considerate
- Cooperative
- Friendly
- Gracious
- Humble
- Insightful
- Objective
- Optimistic
- Respectful
- Steady
- Thorough
- Well-rounded

## 2. Negative Personality Traits

Negative personality traits are those that may be more harmful than helpful. These are traits that may hold you back in your life or hurt your relationships with others. (They're also good traits to focus on for personal growth.) Personality traits that fall in the negative category include:

- Aggressive
- Arrogant
- Cold
- Deceptive
- Egotistical
- Guarded
- Intolerant
- Judgmental
- Moody
- Neglectful
- Pompous
- Selfish
- Unreliable
- Withdrawn

### **\*MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR (MBTI)**

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)—also referred to as the “**Myers-Briggs personality test**” or simply the “**Myers-Briggs test**”—is a self-reported questionnaire. The test helps people assess their personality using four specific dichotomies, or scales: introversion-extraversion, sensing-intuition, thinking-feeling and judging-perceiving.

**The MBTI** was first developed in the 1940s by Isabel Briggs Myers and her mother Katharine Cook Briggs, and it's based on psychologist Carl Jung's theory of psychological types. The purpose of the test is to “make the theory of psychological types described by C.G. Jung understandable and useful in people's lives,” according to the Myers & Briggs Foundation. In other words, the MTBI is intended to give clarity and understanding of a person's personality type in a practical way.

Myers and Briggs first tested friends and family to collect data, workshop the questions and determine how to weigh each answer. In 1951, more than 5,000 medical students across 45 medical schools used the MBTI to help determine which areas of medicine in which they would specialize. Since then, the questionnaire has been used to help people both in and outside the workplace learn more about their personality and the personalities of the people around them.

**There are 16 personality types in the MBTI**, all of which include a letter for each side of the four scales the person aligns with most. Letters always follow the same order, and scales are abbreviated using the following letters:

**Introversion-extraversion** is represented by **I or E**

**Sensing-intuition** is represented by **S or N**

**Thinking-feeling** is represented by **T or F**

**Judging-perceiving** is represented by **J or P**

Each of the scales operates as a spectrum. Although a personality may not fall perfectly into one type, the four-letter type code represents the side of each of the four scales a person most closely fits.

For example, a person who leans toward introversion, intuition, thinking and judging would be considered personality type INTJ. Naturally, there are 15 other personality permutations across these four spectrums.

No personality type is superior to the others. Each one simply gives a clearer indication of a person's likes, dislikes, strengths and weaknesses.

## **\*ADDITIONAL WORK RELATED ASPECTS OF PERSONALITY**

### **1. Ambitious or driven**

Driven or ambitious employees are willing to go the extra mile in the pursuit of progressing their career. They will always put in 100% effort because they have high expectations for themselves. They have a go-getter attitude, they are extremely productive and innovative, which is great for the rest of the workplace.

### **2. Humble**

Too much ego in the workplace is toxic and counterproductive. Humble employees work with integrity instead of feeding their own selfish needs or narcissist. The more preferred candidate for a future employee is someone who would prove their value through their hard and commendable work rather than through words, whether they are true or exaggerated.

### **3. Enthusiastic**

Having a positive mindset is a catalyst for productivity and creativity. It also reduces the risk of burnout. The great thing about enthusiastic employees is that their positivity is infectious - it encourages high morale, engagement and performance across the workplace. They help to build a working environment that triggers new ideas and is unique and enjoyable to their co-workers too.

### **4. Team-Orientated**

An employee that is team-orientated is more likely to be aligned with the company objectives and have them at heart. Without the team as a whole, there would be no business. So, you need to have employees that

### **6. Eye for detail**

The difference between a business crisis and business credibility is often due to those meticulous employees that notice errors before they become an issue. They check documents before they are sent and can step back, see the bigger picture and notice potential problems that are flying under the radar. The details matter and your reputation often hang on them, so make sure to employ people who handle their work with care and diligence.

### **7. Autonomous**

Although management and guidance are important, it is equally important to have employees that are independent and proactive. Autonomous employees will have the initiative, when left alone without tasks, to come up with productive tasks to do without having to be given them.

## **8. Diligent**

Diligent employees take pride in their work. They have a strong sense of accomplishment and high standards for themselves in terms of quality and performance. As much as they should have pride in your company, they need to have pride in their own work otherwise they will be content with delivering sub-par work. Therefore, diligent employees are highly sought after, mainly because, even if they are not enjoying the workplace itself, they will always submit outstanding work - it would go against their morals not to.

## **9. Organized**

Organized employees keep their desk neat, diary legible and are generally more on top of things than disorganized employees. They tend to be more reliable, as they won't forget important meetings or turn up to work late. A trait that many people struggle to cultivate, the employees who have a natural ability to compartmentalize, schedule, re-arrange and organise their lives easily are highly employable.

## **10. Empathetic**

This may be a controversial one, but compassion and empathy are surprisingly important in the workplace. Especially in big companies, there will be a hugely diverse amount of people from different backgrounds, faiths and cultures. Therefore, emotional intelligence is important, to reduce conflict and facilitate engagement, for employees to be tolerant, respectful and understanding of each other despite their differences.

## UNIT – 3

### PERCEPTION

**Perception** in psychology can be defined as the sensory experience of the world, which includes how an individual recognizes and interprets sensory information. This also includes how one responds to those stimuli. Perception includes these senses: vision, touch, sound, smell, taste, and proprioception. These are all senses one takes in to understand the surroundings and respond to its demands. In general, there are a few steps in the formation of perception. First, there is an external stimulus for the sensory organs to detect, for example, the barking of a dog. In this example, the ears will be responsible to detect the stimulus. If the individual pays attention to the bark, the attended stimulus will be transcribed from auditory information into neurological signals and transducer to the brain. Inside the brain, the individual will recognize it as a dog's barking. Then according to one's knowledge and experience with a dog barking, they will carry out a corresponding response to the situation. If the individual is scared of dogs, they may choose to quickly leave or stay further away from the dog.

**According to Joseph Reitz**, “Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment — seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling.”

**According to B. V. H. Gilmer**, “Perception is the process of becoming aware of situations, of adding meaningful associations to sensations.”

**Uday Pareek** said perception can be defined as “the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking, and reacting to sensory stimuli or data.”

### **\*Factors affecting Perception**

The factors which affect the perception are shown in the figure below:

- **Reception:** In this process, a person receives the information through stimuli.
- **Selection:** This is governed by two types of factors:
  - **External factors:** These are size, intensity, proximity, motion and novelty.
  - **Internal factors:** These are attitude, motives, experiences, interests and expectations.
- **Organization:** It is the process by which we sort stimuli into a meaningful pattern. It involves the following:
  - **Grouping:** Assembling of stimuli on the grounds of similarity.
  - **Proximity:** This is the closeness of stimuli to one another that affects perception.
  - **Closure:** It is the ability to organize stimuli so that together they form a whole pattern.
- **Interpretation:** It is the formation of an idea about the information that is sensed, selected and organized. It involves the following phenomena: primacy effect, selective perception, stereotyping, halo effect, projection and expectancy effect. They are the types of perceptual errors.
- **Primacy/ Recency Effect:** The first impression is given the most important which is known as the primacy effect. Recency effect, on the other hand, is that human beings remember latest events more than the less recent ones.
- **Stereotyping:** It is the effect caused by forming a certain belief about a category of stimuli and generalizing that notion to encounters with each

member of that category. In reality, there is a difference between the perceived notion of each category and the actual traits of the members. It may affect the interview process in an organization.

- **Halo effect:** It is the process of generalizing from a comprehensive analysis to a single attribute or trait. A negative halo effect is known as the reverse halo effect. It affects the performance appraisal of employees in a company.
- **Projection:** It is a psychological defence mechanism which makes a person compare his negative traits with other people and conclude that they are better off than others. Perceptual checking minimizes the negative effects of projection.
- **Selective Perception:** This means a person sees, feels or hears what he wants to and skips other information which are inconsistent to his view.
- **Expectancy effect:** It is the tendency of an individual to interpret any person or object based on how he expects the person or object to be in the first place. It is also called as Pygmalion effect.

## **PERCEPTUAL ERROR**

A **perceptual error** is the inability to judge humans, things or situations fairly and accurately. Examples could include such things as bias, prejudice, stereotyping, which have always caused human beings to err in different aspects of their lives.

Perceptual error has strong impact in organisation and it hampers in proper decision making skill while hiring, performance appraisal, review, feedback etc

There are many types of perceptual errors in workplace

**1. Selective Perception**-People generally interpret according to their basis of interests, idea and backgrounds. It is the tendency not to notice and forget the stimuli that cause emotional discomfort. For example we might think that fresher

graduates with above 80 % marks will exceptionally do well in technical interviews of respective subjects

**2.Halo Effect**-We misjudge people by concentrating on one single behavior or trait. It has deep impact and give inaccurate result most of the time. For example we always have an impression of a lazy person can never be punctual in any occasion.

**3.Stereotypes**-We always have a tendency to classify people to a general groups /categories in order to simplify the matter. For example-Women are always good homemakers and can do well in work life balance

**4.Contrast Effect**-We again sometimes judge people in comparison to others . This example generally found in sports, academics and performance review

**5.Projection**-This is very common among Perceptual errors. Projection of one's own attitude, personality or behavior into some other person. For example- To all honest people, everybody is honest.

**6.Impression**-We all know the term "first impression is the last impression" and we apply that too .For example-During the time of hiring, thought like this "The most decent and modest person in the interview can do very well in every roles and responsibilities " always arise.

**\*Strategies for Improving Perceptual Skills:**

1. Emphathize with Others:
2. Have a Positive Attitude:
3. Postpone Impression Formation:
4. Communicating Openly:
5. Comparing One's Perceptions with that of Others
6. Introducing Diversity Management Programs

## **GROUP DYNAMICS**

The term 'group dynamics' means the study of forces within a group. Since human beings have an innate desire for belonging to a group, group dynamism is bound to occur. In an organization or in a society, we can see groups, small or large, working for the well-being. The social process by which people interact with one another in small groups can be called group dynamism. A group has certain common objectives & goals. Because of which members are bound together with certain values and culture.

### **\*Importance of Group Dynamism**

1. Firstly, a group can influence the way the members think. The members are always influenced by the interactions of other members in the group. A group with a good leader performs better as compared to a group with a weak leader.
2. The group can give the effect of synergy, that is, if the group consists of positive thinkers then its output is more than double every time.
3. Group dynamism can furthermore give job satisfaction to the members.
4. The group can also infuse the team spirit among the members.
5. Even the attitude, insights & ideas of members depend on group dynamism. For example, negative thinkers convert to positive thinkers with the help of the facilitator.
6. Also, if the group works as a cohesive group, the cooperation and convergence can result in maximization of productivity
7. Furthermore, group dynamism can reduce labor unrest. Lastly, it reduces labor turnover due to emotional attachment among the group members.

### **\*Stages of Group Development**

The following are the five stages of group development

1. Forming
2. Storming
3. Norming

4. Performing
5. Adjourning

The various stages in the development of groups are as follows

**1. Forming** This is the first stage in the formation of groups. The individual's behavior is driven by a desire to be accepted by the others, and avoid controversy or conflict. The team meets and learns about the opportunities and challenges, and then agrees on goals and begins to tackle the tasks. Team members tend to behave quite independently. Team members are usually on their best behavior but very focused on themselves. Mature team members begin to model appropriate behavior even at this early phase. Supervisors of the team tend to need to be directive during this phase. The forming stage of any team is important because, in this stage, the members of the team get to know one another, exchange some personal information, and make new friends. This is also a good opportunity to see how each member of the team works as an individual and how they respond to pressure.

**2. Storming** : Every group will next enter the storming stage in which different ideas compete for consideration. The team addresses issues such as what problems they are really supposed to solve, how they will function independently and together and what leadership model they will accept. Team members open up to each other and confront each other's ideas and perspectives. In some cases storming can be resolved quickly. In others, the team never leaves this stage. The maturity of some team members usually determines whether the team will ever move out of this stage. The storming stage is necessary to the growth of the team. It can be contentious, unpleasant and even painful to members of the team who are averse to conflict. Tolerance of each team member and their differences should be emphasized. Without tolerance and patience the team will fail. This phase can become destructive to the team and will lower motivation if allowed to get out of control. Some teams will never develop past this stage. Supervisors of the team during this phase may be more accessible, but tend to remain directive in their guidance of decision-making and professional behavior. Normally tension, struggle and sometimes arguments occur.

**3. Norming:** The team manages to have one goal and come to a mutual plan for the team at this stage. Some may have to give up their own ideas and agree with others in order to make the team function. In this stage, all team members take the responsibility and have the ambition to work for the success of the team's goals.

**4. Performing:** It is possible for some teams to reach the performing stage. These high-performing teams are able to function as a unit as they find ways to get the job done smoothly and effectively without inappropriate conflict or the need for external supervision. By this time, they are motivated and knowledgeable. The team members are now competent, autonomous and able to handle the decision-making process without supervision. Dissent is expected and allowed as long as it is channeled through means acceptable to the team. Supervisors of the team during this phase are almost always participative. The team will make most of the necessary decisions. Even the most high-performing teams will revert to earlier stages in certain circumstances. Many long-standing teams go through these cycles many times as they react to changing circumstances. For example, a change in leadership may cause the team to revert to storming as the new people challenge the existing norms and dynamics of the team.

#### **\*Advantages of Using Groups**

1. Affiliation-People join a group because it gives them a chance to interact with various individuals. The intent of affiliation is satisfied by interaction on the job.
2. Security- by joining the group, an individual acquires a sense of security.
3. Esteem- An individual often requires recognition from outsiders. A group provides an atmosphere of safety, and self-expression.
4. Power- by joining the group, an individual gets power. The members collectively always enjoy more power than individually.
5. Identity- a person gets an identity by joining the group. Group serves as a basic of comparison with others.
6. Rewards-as a member of the group, an individual may get many rewards in the form of recognition, status, and friendship.

7. Accomplishment- An individual may join the group to share knowledge of others. Greater knowledge information, broader perspective, more alternatives, better quality, creativity, better understanding & participation etc.

## **TEAM**

A team 'is a small number of employees with complementary competencies (abilities, skills and knowledge) who are committed to common performance goals and working relationships for which they hold themselves mutually accountable'. Two or more people who are interdependent, who share responsibility for outcomes, who see themselves as (and who are seen by others as) an intact social entity in a larger social system are also called as "Teams".

When teams are formed, its members must have (or quickly develop) the right mix of complementary competencies to achieve the team's goals. Also its members need to be able to influence how they will work together to accomplish those goals.

### **\*TEAM EMPOWERMENT**

The term "team empowerment" refers to the degree to which its members perceive the group as –

1. Capable of being effective (potency).
2. Performing important and valuable tasks (meaningfulness).
3. Having independence and discretion (autonomy)in performing the work, and
4. Experiencing a sense of importance and significance (impact)in the work performed and goals achieved.

### **\*TYPES OF TEAMS**

**1. Functional teams:** They usually represent individuals who work together daily on a cluster of ongoing and independent tasks. Functional teams often exist within functional departments – marketing, production, finance, auditing, human resources and the like.

**2. Problem solving teams:** They focus on specific issues in their areas of responsibility, develop potential solutions, and often are empowered to take actions within defined limits. Such teams frequently address quality or cost problems.

**3. Cross-functional teams:** They bring together the knowledge and skills of people from various work areas to identify and solve mutual problems. They draw members from several specialties or functions and deal with problems that cut across departmental and functional lines to achieve their goals. They are often more effective in situations that require adaptability, speed and a focus on responding to customer needs.

**4. Self-managed teams:** They normally consist of employees who must work together effectively daily to manufacture an entire product (or major identifiable component) or service. These teams perform a variety of managerial tasks, such as, o Scheduling work and vacations by members, o Rotating tasks and assignments among members, o Ordering materials, o Deciding on team leadership, o Setting key team goals, o Budgeting o Hiring replacements for departing team members, and o Evaluating one another's performance.

Self-managed teams are a new form of team that rose in popularity with the Total Quality

Movement in the 1980s. Unlike manager-led teams, these teams manage themselves and do not report directly to a supervisor. Instead, team members select their own leader, and they may even take turns in the leadership role. Selfmanaged teams also have the power to select new team members. As a whole, the team shares responsibility for a significant task, such as assembly of an entire car. The task is ongoing rather than a temporary task such as a charity fund drive for a given year. Self-managed teams are empowered teams, which mean that they have the responsibility as well as the authority to achieve their goals. Team members have the power to control tasks and processes and to make decisions. Research shows that self-managed teams may be at a higher risk of suffering from negative outcomes due to conflict, so it is important that they are supported with training to help them deal with conflict effectively. Functional, Problem solving, Cross-functional and Self-managed teams are increasingly able to operate as “virtual teams”.

A “virtual team” is a group of individuals who collaborate through various information technologies on one or more projects while being at two or more locations. Their team members may be from one or multiple organizations

### **\*Characteristics of Team**

Team empowerment incorporates four elements: potency, meaningfulness, autonomy and impact. A potent team believes in its own power and effectiveness. Meaningfulness is a measure of how much the employees care about the results of their work or find it rewarding.

A team is autonomous to the extent that it is free to make decisions and impact measures how much the team contributes to the company. It is possible to have team empowerment even without much individual empowerment. Similarly, individual employees in a functional division such as marketing or accounting may be empowered, but this does not necessarily constitute an empowered team.

### **\*Significance of Team**

Empowered teams are usually project-based and cross-discipline; they may be developing a new product, establishing a company policy or conducting an audit. While they don't have a dedicated manager within the team, they may utilize the skills of a project manager to help coordinate tasks and timelines. Rules are not imposed upon them from above, but they are far more effective when they establish strict rules within the team regarding how decisions are made and communicated, and who is responsible for implementing them. Advantages Empowered teams often have high morale, and may cost the company less due to not requiring a dedicated manager. Highly qualified knowledge workers can produce more effective and efficient results, since each individual can contribute his expertise without funneling information through a manager. For projects that directly affect a company's customer, an empowered team can be an excellent resource for customer service, as the team will take responsibility for informing and pleasing the client.

### **\* Major factors which affects group performance in an organization**

#### ***1. External conditions:***

A group is a part of large organisations. They are created by the organisation and as such they do not exist in isolation. A group has to rather work within the framework provided by the organisation. Every group is influenced by a number of external conditions imposed from outside it. These external conditions include: the organization's strategy, its rules, regulations, its culture, physical work setting, employee selection process etc.

## **2. Group structure:**

A group comprises of a number of individuals and has a well defined structure. Groups have structures that shape the behaviour of its members and make it possible to predict and explain the individual behaviour within the group as well as the performance of the group as a whole.

### **\* Some of the structural components are:**

#### **(i) Group Size:**

minimum of two persons as required to form a group, as far as the maximum number is concerned, the group should have as many members as can interact meaningfully amongst one another. However, an ideal group size is said to comprise of 5-7 members over a smaller group in terms of idea generation. The evidence indicates that smaller groups are faster at completing tasks than the larger ones. The group size should be determined by taking in consideration factors such as nature of task to be performed, the maturity of the group members etc.

#### **(ii) Group Composition:**

A group comprises of a number of individuals with varied qualities and characteristics. In fact most of the group activities require a variety of skill and knowledge. As far as group composition is concerned, a group may be homogeneous or heterogeneous. Homogeneous groups are those which are composed of similar individuals, similar in terms of personality, age, gender, experience, knowledge etc.

Heterogeneous groups on the other hand are the ones which comprise of dissimilar individuals i.e. the individual who differ from one another in one way or the other. In some types of tasks homogeneous groups could be more appropriate while in other types heterogeneous groups could be more appropriate.

#### **(iii) Group Status:**

The term status refers to the relative ranking that a person holds in a group. Status is determined in the context of comparison. Therefore, status defines the rank of an individual relative to others in the organisation and the group. Status is in-fact defined in terms of rights, privileges, duties and obligations the individual holds in an organisation.

It is an important factor in understanding human behaviour. When an individual perceives a disparity between his status with that of other group members, it creates a disequilibrium that results in interpersonal conflicts. So, what is important for the group members is to believe that the status hierarchy is equitable and just.

#### **(iv) Group Norms:**

Group norms are the “The oughts” or “should be” of behaviour. They are prescriptions for acceptable behaviour determined by the group. “Group Norms are a set of beliefs, feelings, and attitudes commonly shared by group members. These are also referred to as rules or standards of behaviour that apply to group members”.

### **COHENSIVENESS**

The quality of being structured or organized in a unified way, with close or strong internal connections between people, ideas, or other elements: These four dancers haven't worked with each other for very long, so it's a challenge to find cohesiveness in their performance.

#### **\*Features**

- The cohesive group have fewer members.
- Members of the cohesive teams are of similar interests or backgrounds.
- It has a high degree of status within organizations.
- Members are accessible to each other to maintain easy communication.

### **SOCIAL LOAFING**

Social loafing is a term used in social psychology. It's what happens when someone puts in less effort when they're judged as part of a group.

This level of effort is lower compared to when the same person is working alone or judged individually. When working alone, many people tend to put in more effort. But when there's teamwork involved, some people will slack off.

When you look at group performance as a whole, social loafing may not be obvious. It's only when you take a look at everyone's individual performance that you can begin to see social loafing in settings like work.

## **\*Causes of Social Loafing**

There are several causes of social loafing or social facilitation in a group setting. Some of these factors include:

- Larger group sizes (the larger the group, the smaller an individual's contribution may seem)
- Lack of clarity for the tasks someone needs to complete
- Lack of motivation
- Lack of accountability
- Assuming teammates will step in to overcompensate for your low output
- Expecting teammates not to perform well (which decreases team motivation)

## **\*STAGES OF TEAM DEVELOPMENT**

### ***Stage 1: Forming***

#### **1. Feelings**

During the Forming stage of team development, team members are usually excited to be part of the team and eager about the work ahead. Members often have high positive expectations for the team experience. At the same time, they may also feel some anxiety, wondering how they will fit in to the team and if their performance will measure up.

#### **2. Behaviors**

Behaviors observed during the Forming stage may include lots of questions from team members, reflecting both their excitement about the new team and the uncertainty or anxiety they might be feeling about their place on the team.

#### **3. Team Tasks**

The principal work for the team during the Forming stage is to create a team with clear structure, goals, direction and roles so that members begin to build trust. A good orientation/kick-off process can help to ground the members in terms of the team's mission and goals, and can establish team expectations about both the team's product and, more importantly, the team's process. During the Forming stage, much of the team's energy is focused on defining the team so task accomplishment may be relatively low.

## ***Stage 2: Storming***

### **1. Feelings**

As the team begins to move towards its goals, members discover that the team can't live up to all of their early excitement and expectations. Their focus may shift from the tasks at hand to feelings of frustration or anger with the team's progress or process. Members may express concerns about being unable to meet the team's goals. During the Storming stage, members are trying to see how the team will respond to differences and how it will handle conflict.

### **2. Behaviors**

Behaviors during the Storming stage may be less polite than during the Forming stage, with frustration or disagreements about goals, expectations, roles and responsibilities being openly expressed. Members may express frustration about constraints that slow their individual or the team's progress; this frustration might be directed towards other members of the team, the team leadership or the team's sponsor. During the Storming stage, team members may argue or become critical of the team's original mission or goals.

### **3. Team Tasks**

Team Tasks during the Storming stage of development call for the team to refocus on its goals, perhaps breaking larger goals down into smaller, achievable steps. The team may need to develop both task-related skills and group process and conflict management skills. A redefinition of the team's goals, roles and tasks can help team members past the frustration or confusion they experience during the Storming stage.

## ***Stage 3: Norming***

### **1. Feelings**

During the Norming stage of team development, team members begin to resolve the discrepancy they felt between their individual expectations and the reality of the team's experience. If the team is successful in setting more flexible and inclusive norms and expectations, members should experience an increased sense of comfort in expressing their "real" ideas and feelings. Team members feel an increasing acceptance of others on the team, recognizing that the variety of opinions and experiences makes the team stronger and its product richer.

Constructive criticism is both possible and welcomed. Members start to feel part of a team and can take pleasure from the increased group cohesion.

## **2. Behaviors**

Behaviors during the Norming stage may include members making a conscious effort to resolve problems and achieve group harmony. There might be more frequent and more meaningful communication among team members, and an increased willingness to share ideas or ask teammates for help. Team members refocus on established team groundrules and practices and return their focus to the team's tasks. Teams may begin to develop their own language (nicknames) or inside jokes.

## **3. Team Tasks**

During the Norming stage, members shift their energy to the team's goals and show an increase in productivity, in both individual and collective work. The team may find that this is an appropriate time for an evaluation of team processes and productivity.

## ***Stage 4: Performing***

### **1. Feelings**

In the Performing stage of team development, members feel satisfaction in the team's progress. They share insights into personal and group process and are aware of their own (and each other's) strengths and weaknesses. Members feel attached to the team as something "greater than the sum of its parts" and feel satisfaction in the team's effectiveness. Members feel confident in their individual abilities and those of their teammates.

### **2. Behaviors**

Team members are able to prevent or solve problems in the team's process or in the team's progress. A "can do" attitude is visible as are offers to assist one another. Roles on the team may have become more fluid, with members taking on various roles and responsibilities as needed. Differences among members are appreciated and used to enhance the team's performance.

### **3. Team Tasks**

In the Performing stage, the team makes significant progress towards its goals. Commitment to the team's mission is high and the competence of team members is also high. Team members should continue to deepen their knowledge and skills,

including working to continuously improving team development. Accomplishments in team process or progress are measured and celebrated.

### ***Stage 5: Termination/Ending***

Some teams do come to an end, when their work is completed or when the organization's needs change. While not part of Tuckman's original model, it is important for any team to pay attention to the end or termination process.

#### **1. Feelings**

Team members may feel a variety of concerns about the team's impending dissolution. They may be feeling some anxiety because of uncertainty about their individual role or future responsibilities. They may feel sadness or a sense of loss about the changes coming to their team relationships. And at the same time, team members may feel a sense of deep satisfaction at the accomplishments of the team. Individual members might feel all of these things at the same time, or may cycle through feelings of loss followed by feelings of satisfaction. Given these conflicting feelings, individual and team morale may rise or fall throughout the ending stage. It is highly likely that at any given moment individuals on the team will be experiencing different emotions about the team's ending.

#### **2. Behaviors**

During the Ending Stage, some team members may become less focussed on the team's tasks and their productivity may drop. Alternatively, some team members may find focussing on the task at hand is an effective response to their sadness or sense of loss. Their task productivity may increase.

#### **3. Team Tasks**

The team needs to acknowledge the upcoming transition and the variety of ways that individuals and the team may be feeling about the team's impending dissolution. During this stage, the team should focus on three tasks:

1. Completion of any deliverables and closure on any remaining team work
2. Evaluation of the team's process and product, with a particular focus on identifying "lessons learned" and passing these on to the sponsor for future teams to use

3. Creating a closing celebration that acknowledges the contributions of individuals and the accomplishments of the team and that formally ends this particular team's existence.

## UNIT – 4

### ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

Organizational conflict refers to the condition of misunderstanding or disagreement that is caused by the perceived or actual opposition in the needs, interests, and values among people who work together. Organizational conflict may also be termed as workplace conflict.

#### \*Types of Organisational conflict

Conflict within an organisation can occur at the individual level or between multiple individuals. It can arise from divergent goals and the various roles individuals are expected to fulfil. Organisational conflicts can be broadly classified into the following categories:

- Intra-personal conflict
- Inter-personal conflict
- Inter-group conflict
- Inter-organisational conflict

#### (A) Intra-personal Conflict

This conflict arises within an individual or between two or more individuals. It occurs when an individual faces difficulty in choosing between alternative courses of action. Intra-personal conflict can be caused by divergent goals and multiple roles expected from the individual.

**1. Goal Conflict:** This type of conflict occurs within an individual. It occurs when an individual faces difficulty in choosing between alternative courses of action. One common form of intra-personal conflict is goal conflict, where an individual must choose among competing goals. There are three subtypes of goal conflict:

- **Approach-approach Conflict:** This conflict arises when a person must choose between two or more equally appealing goals. Selecting one goal means giving up the others, leading to a challenging decision and for instance, deciding between two equally lucrative job offers.
- **Approach-avoidance Conflict:** In this conflict, an individual is presented with an alternative that has both positive and negative aspects. They are

attracted to the positive aspects while being repelled by the negative aspects. For example, being offered a well-paid job in a location they dislike, creates a dilemma.

- **Avoidance-avoidance Conflict:** This conflict occurs when a person must choose between two undesirable goals, both of which have negative aspects. It's a situation where neither option seems appealing. For instance, disliking a current job but finding the alternative of resigning and searching for a new job equally unattractive.

**2. Role Conflict:** Role conflict arises when there are conflicting expectations placed on an individual in a specific position. It occurs when the expectations of a role are materially different or contradictory, making it challenging to fulfil one expectation without neglecting others. Role ambiguity, which arises from unclear duties and responsibilities, can also contribute to role conflict. Here are the different forms of role conflict:

- **Person-role Conflict:** This conflict occurs when a person is asked to perform a job that goes against their values. For example, being asked to engage in unethical practices that contradict one's values.
- **Inter-role Conflict:** Inter-role conflict arises when an individual is confronted with multiple and conflicting roles. For instance, having to make a decision that is unfavourable to workers while serving as a member of a works committee.
- **Intra-sender Role Conflict:** This conflict occurs when a person is assigned a job for which they lack the necessary capability or when there is insufficient time and resources to complete the task.
- **Inter-sender Role Conflict:** Inter-sender role conflict arises when different sources provide conflicting role expectations. For example, being asked to follow accounting practices that differ from the professional standards set by the relevant institute.

## **(B) Inter-personal Conflict**

Inter-personal conflict occurs between individuals or groups within an organisation. It arises when there are differences in opinions, values, or interests among individuals. This type of conflict can be between peers, supervisors and subordinates, or among team members.

1. **Personality Differences:** Some individuals may find it challenging to establish cooperative relations with others due to differences in their personalities.

2. **Perceptions:** Conflicts can arise when individuals from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds hold different perceptions, leading to disagreements, especially regarding task-related matters.
3. **Clash of Values and Interests:** Differences in personal values and interests can create misunderstandings and conflicts between individuals. Varied perspectives on ethical considerations or strategic decisions may contribute to such conflicts.
4. **Power and Status Differences:** When there is an unequal distribution of power and status within a group or organisation, conflicts may arise. Individuals with higher positions may exert control or give orders that conflict with the opinions or interests of those with lower positions.
5. **Scarcity of Resources:** Interpersonal conflicts can emerge when individuals compete for limited resources, such as budget allocations, promotion opportunities, or access to essential tools or equipment.

### **(C) Inter-group Conflicts**

Inter-group conflict refers to conflicts that arise between different groups within an organisation. It occurs when there are competing goals, limited resources, or differences in power and authority between groups. This type of conflict can be detrimental to collaboration and coordination within the organisation.

1. **Divergent Goals and Interests:** Conflict arises when the goals and interests of two or more groups are incompatible. For instance, conflicts often arise between labour and management when labour demands higher wages, potentially impacting the profitability desired by management. Additionally, unclear boundaries and reward systems based on group performance can further exacerbate goal incompatibility.
2. **Task Interdependence:** Conflict potential increases when groups rely on each other for resources or information. If one group's work is dependent on another group's completion, conflicts may emerge if the dependent group fails to meet expectations.
3. **Limited Resources:** When multiple groups compete for limited resources like funds, personnel, information, or power, conflicts arise as each group strives to secure a larger share of the available resources.
4. **Collaborative Decision-making:** Conflicts can arise during joint decision-making processes when groups have access to different information sources,

communication channels suffer from leaks or blockages, or groups employ varying techniques for processing information.

5. **Dealing with Uncertainty:** Interactions between organisations and their environments often entail uncertainties. Conflicts may arise when one group establishes rules or guidelines that contradict the expectations or preferences of other groups, such as when the accounting department enforces travel expense rules that clash with the marketing department's expectations.
6. **Attitudinal Differences:** Conflicts can stem from attitudes of distrust, secrecy, or closed communication held by members of different groups. These attitudinal disparities can give rise to aggressive behaviours or strained relationships.
7. **Organisational Ambiguity:** Conflict can result from competition between groups for new responsibilities or when there is a lack of clarity regarding job roles and communication issues like noise, distortion, omission, or overload.
8. **Managing Change:** Introducing organisational changes, such as mergers, can trigger inter-group conflicts due to power struggles and differences in organisational culture and practices.
9. **Communication Challenges:** Each group may develop its own specialized vocabulary or jargon, hindering effective communication and mutual understanding between groups.

#### **(D) Inter-organisational conflict**

Inter-organisational conflict refers to conflicts that arise between different organisations or entities. These conflicts occur when there are disagreements, tensions, or competition between organisations that can impact their relationship and interactions. Inter-organisational conflicts can arise due to various reasons, including:

1. **Competition for Resources:** Organisations often find themselves in competition for limited resources such as funding, customers, market share, or skilled personnel. This competition can lead to conflicts as organisations strive to gain an edge over one another.
2. **Conflicting Interests:** When organisations have divergent goals, objectives, or interests, conflicts can emerge. For instance, two organisations operating in

the same industry may have different strategies or business models, resulting in competition and conflicts.

3. **Power Dynamics:** Imbalances in power and influence among organisations can give rise to conflicts. Larger or more influential organisations may exert control or dominance over smaller counterparts, leading to tensions and disputes.
4. **Contractual or Agreement Disputes:** Organisations frequently enter into contracts or agreements with one another for various purposes, such as partnerships, joint ventures, or supply chain relationships. Conflicts may arise when there are disagreements or breaches of these contractual arrangements.
5. **Differences in Organisational Culture:** Each organisation possesses its own set of values, norms, and ways of operating. Conflicts can arise when organisations with contrasting cultures collaborate or interact, as differences in communication styles, decision-making processes, or work approaches come to the forefront.
6. **Misaligned Interests or Strategies:** Organisations may have differing priorities, strategies, or approaches to conducting business. When these differences are not effectively managed or aligned, conflicts can emerge, impeding cooperation and collaboration.
7. **External Factors:** Changes in the external environment, such as shifts in market conditions, regulatory requirements, or technological advancements, can create conflicts between organisations as they navigate new circumstances or vie for opportunities.

### **\*Levels of Organizational Conflict**

Following are the levels of conflict in an organization –

#### **1. Individual level**

Individual conflict is also called Intrapersonal conflict. It is an internal conflict happening with one's own self. This occurs when a person fails to reconcile between their competing goals or when their behavior differs from what is expected.

For example, if a colleague is following inappropriate and unethical financial practices, an individual conflict arises. A person might struggle between, two scenarios. Whether to report it to the company as a value of responsibility or maintain loyalty and friendship towards the colleague.

## **2. Interpersonal level**

When conflict arises between people of different levels or functional areas, it is called interpersonal conflict. For example, conflicts between authoritative and employees in the workplace.

## **3. Intergroup level**

Intergroup conflict is a conflict that arises between two or more groups in an organization. These conflicts can be caused due to differences in opinions, values, etc. Moreover, these problems result in tension and lack of teamwork, and organizational losses on varied levels.

For example, a marketing department of a company is planning on launching a campaign for one of its customers within 15 days. It needs the support of a creative team of designers and web developers. An intergroup conflict might arise if the marketing department sets unrealistic goals which the creative team cannot achieve due to prior commitments.

## **4. Intragroup level**

Intragroup conflict opens a new window and can become complicated when members of one group have different views on the conflict. For example, in labor negotiations, there are often disagreements between union members or management team members about how the conflict should be resolved.

## **5. Intra-organizational level**

Intra-organizational conflict involves disagreements between organizational subsystems. The testing team may disagree with the developer team regarding the functionalities or features of the system. And in such a case, the conflict involves various departments in an organization.

## **\*Dimensions of Political Behaviour**

In the realm of organisational politics, several key dimensions come into play, shaping the dynamics and outcomes within an organisation:

1. **Conflict:** In any organisation, conflicts of interest, diverging opinions, and competition for resources or influence are inevitable. Such conflicts often serve as a breeding ground for political behaviour.
2. **Power Sources:** Various sources of power influence organisational politics. Personal power, emanating from an individual's charisma or expertise, intertwines with positional power derived from formal roles and authority within the organisation.
3. **Compatibility:** The effective navigation between individual self-interest and the broader goals of the organisation is vital in organisational politics. Striking a balance between these two aspects is crucial for exhibiting effective political behaviour.
4. **Dysfunctional Political Behaviour:** Within the realm of organisational politics, certain behaviours can be detrimental to the organisation. Scapegoating, passive-aggressive actions, red-tape tactics, sabotage, and palace politics undermine organisational effectiveness and must be avoided.
5. **Functional Political Behaviour:** Conversely, some political behaviours can positively contribute to an organisation. Strategic actions, coalition building, negotiation, and influencing decisions that align with organisational goals are examples of functional political behaviour.
6. **Opportunity Structures:** The opportunity structures within an organisation shape the political behaviour of individuals. These structures define the channels and avenues through which individuals can exert their political influence.
7. **Organisational Impact:** The dimensions of organisational politics have profound implications for the organisation as a whole. Dysfunctional political behaviour hampers organisational performance, while functional political behaviour enhances decision-making and facilitates goal achievement.

## **\*Organizational Conflict Levels**

### ***1. Individual-Level Conflict:***

Individual-level conflict indicates that human behavior is directed by needs, which guide the activities of an individual. Before joining an organization, the individuals try to match their needs with the organization's offerings in terms of salary packages or other benefits. However, if they observe any inequity with their colleagues in the organization, then it may result in a conflict at the individual level. Such a conflict may lead to tension, frustration, and unpleasant behavior in individuals.

**The individual-level conflict can be bifurcated into two categories, which are as follows:**

#### **a. Intra-Individual Conflict:**

Arises within the individual and is considered psychological in nature.

**It can be of two types:**

- i. Goal Conflict – Refers to a conflict where an individual or a group has to compromise its goals for the achievement of organizational goals. In goal conflict, the individual or group goals are not aligned with the organizational goals.
- ii. Role Conflict – Occurs when individuals realize that their expected roles are different from actual roles.

#### **b. Inter-Individual Conflict:**

Refers to a type of conflict that occurs between two individuals. Generally, this conflict arises due to availability of scarce resources or rewards. It can also occur because different people have different opinions, attitude, value system, and style of working.

## **2. Group-Level Conflict:**

Group-level conflict refers to the divergence, competition, or clash between two groups of the organization, such as management and staff.

**Group-level conflict can be categorized into intra-group conflict and inter-group conflict, which are mentioned as follows:**

- i. Intra-Group Conflict – Refers to a conflict that occurs within a single group.
- ii. Inter-Group Conflict – Refers to a conflict that occurs between two or more groups. Intergroup conflicts are frequently seen within an organization when two departments are in conflict with each other to get scarce resources.

## **3. Organizational-Level Conflict:**

Organizational-level conflict refers to the conflict which occurs at the level of the entire organization.

**It is of two types, which are as follows:**

### **i. Intra-Organizational Conflict:**

Refers to the conflict occurring within an organization.

**Intra-organizational level conflict can be of three types, which are as follows:**

#### **a. Horizontal Conflict:**

Indicates that there can be conflict between two functional groups at the same hierarchical level. It can happen because of various reasons, such as shared resources and interdependency, and goal incompatibility. For example, at times, the resources, such as printers, may be used by different departments at the same time, leading to a long queue of documents to be printed.

This may result in delay in operations. Similarly, any mismatch in data and figures of the reports that are shared by two interdependent departments may also lead to conflict. Likewise, the goals of one department may interfere with the goals of another department, leading to goal incompatibility and conflict.

### **b. Vertical Conflict:**

Refers to the conflict between different hierarchical levels, such as between a superior and subordinates. Vertical conflict can occur because of inadequate or ineffective communication and distorted perceptions. For example, if a superior delegates some responsibilities to the subordinates but fails to give clear instructions then a conflict may arise between the subordinates and the supervisor regarding the responsibilities.

### **ii. Inter-Organizational Conflict:**

Refers to the conflict occurring between two or more organizations. Organizations belonging to same industry may indulge in unethical practices and unhealthy competition because of inter-organizational conflict.

## **\*Sources of Conflict in the Organization**

In any organization, conflicts are common. They can arise from various sources, from communication breakdowns to personalities differences, or differing goals. Understanding these conflict sources is crucial for effectively managing conflicts and fostering a positive work environment.

### **1. Divergent Goals**

When different departments or individuals have conflicting objectives, it can lead to tensions within the organization.

For example, while the sales team may prioritize increasing revenue, the customer service team may focus on enhancing customer satisfaction, creating potential conflicts in resource allocation and decision-making.

### **2. Personality Clashes**

Varied personality types and communication styles among employees can result in misunderstandings and friction.

For instance, introverted individuals may prefer working independently, while extroverts thrive in team environments, leading to conflicts over collaboration and autonomy.

### **3.Resource Allocation**

Limited resources such as budget, equipment, and personnel can trigger conflicts among departments competing for the same resources.

For instance, if the marketing department receives a larger budget allocation than the IT department, it may lead to resentment and disputes over priorities.

### **4. Role Ambiguity**

Unclear job roles and responsibilities can create confusion and conflict among team members. When individuals are unsure of their duties or authority, it can result in overlaps, omissions, and disagreements over tasks and decision-making.

### **5. Communication Breakdowns**

Ineffective communication channels or styles can lead to misunderstandings and conflicts within the organization. Poorly conveyed messages, lack of feedback, and misinterpretations can escalate tensions and hinder collaboration.

### **6. Leadership Styles**

Different leadership approaches employed by managers and supervisors can influence team dynamics and contribute to conflicts.

Autocratic leaders may impose strict rules and micromanage employees, while democratic leaders encourage participation and autonomy, leading to clashes in decision-making and work processes.

### **7. Cultural Differences**

Diverse cultural backgrounds and values among employees can result in conflicts related to communication norms, work ethics, and perceptions of authority. Cultural sensitivity and awareness are essential for fostering inclusivity and minimizing cultural clashes.

### **8. Power Struggles**

Conflicts may arise when individuals or departments vie for power, influence, or recognition within the organization. Competing agendas, hidden agendas, and ego clashes can undermine teamwork and organizational cohesion.

### **9. Performance Disparities**

Discrepancies in performance standards and expectations across teams or individuals can breed resentment and conflict.

When some employees are perceived to receive preferential treatment or face unfair evaluations, it can lead to morale issues and interpersonal tensions.

## **10. Change Management**

Organizational changes such as restructuring, mergers, or new initiatives can provoke resistance and conflicts among employees.

Such as uncertainty about the future, fear of job loss, and resistance to new processes can fuel resistance and disrupt productivity.

## **11. Interdepartmental Rivalries**

Competition and rivalry between different departments or teams can escalate into conflicts over resources, recognition, and influence. Silo mentalities and turf wars may hinder collaboration and hinder organizational goals.

## **12. Ethical Dilemmas**

Moral and ethical dilemmas can arise when employees face situations that challenge their values or integrity.

Conflicts may emerge when individuals perceive unethical behavior or decisions within the organization, leading to ethical debates and tensions.

Hence, these are the 12 sources/ causes of conflict in the organization. Understanding these sources is essential to tackle those causes and overcome them effectively.

# **RESOLUTION OF CONFLICT**

## **1. Conflict management**

Constantino helps organizations design their own, ad hoc conflict management systems. Tosi, Rizzo, and Carroll suggested that improving organizational practices could help resolve conflicts, including establishing superordinate goals, reducing vagueness, minimizing authority- and domain-related disputes, improving policies, procedures and rules, re-apportioning existing resources or adding new, altering communications, movement of personnel, and changing reward systems.<sup>[25]</sup>

Most large organizations have a human resources department, whose tasks include providing confidential advice to internal "customers" in relation to problems at work. This could be seen as less risky than asking one's manager for help. HR departments may also provide an impartial person who can mediate disputes and provide an objective point of view. Another option is the introduction of the

Ombudsman figure at the organizational level, charged with surveying common causes of conflict and suggesting structural improvements to address them.

- **Counseling** - when personal conflict leads to frustration and loss of efficiency, counseling may prove to be a helpful antidote. Although few organizations can afford the luxury of having professional counselors on the staff, given some training, managers may be able to perform this function. Non-directive counseling, or "listening with understanding", is little more than being a good listener — something every manager should be. Sometimes the simple process of being able to vent one's feelings — that is, to express them to a concerned and understanding listener, is enough to relieve frustration and make it possible for the frustrated individual to advance to a problem-solving frame of mind, better able to cope with a personal difficulty that is affecting their work adversely. The non-directive approach is one effective way for managers to deal with frustrated subordinates and co-workers. There are other more direct and more diagnostic ways that might be used in appropriate circumstances. The great strength of the non-directive approach (non-directive counseling is based on the client-centered therapy of Carl Rogers), however, lies in its simplicity, its effectiveness, and the fact that it deliberately avoids the manager-counselor's diagnosing and interpreting emotional problems, which would call for special psychological training. No one has ever been harmed by being listened to sympathetically and understandingly. On the contrary, this approach has helped many people to cope with problems that were interfering with their effectiveness on the job.
- **Conflict avoidance** - non-attention or creating a total or partial separation of the combatants allowing limited interaction
- **Smoothing** - stressing the achievement of harmony between disputants
- **Dominance or power intervention** - the imposition of a solution by management at a higher level than the level of the conflict
- **Compromise** - seeking a resolution satisfying at least part of each party's position<sup>[26]</sup>
- **Confrontation** - a thorough and frank discussion of the sources and types of conflict and achieving a resolution that is in the best interest of the group, but that may be at the expense of one or all of the conflicting parties

A trained conflict resolver can begin with an economical intervention, such as getting group members to clarify and reaffirm shared goals. If necessary, they move through a systematic series of interventions, such as testing the members' ability and willingness to compromise; resorting to confrontation, enforced counseling, and/or termination as last resorts.<sup>[28]</sup>

Workplace conflict may include disputes between peers, supervisor-subordinate conflict or inter-group disputes. When disputes are not dealt with in a timely manner, greater efforts may be needed to solve them. Party-Directed Mediation (PDM) is a mediation approach particularly suited for disputes between colleagues or peers, especially those based on deep-seated interpersonal conflict or multicultural or multi-ethnic ones. The mediator listens to each party separately in a pre-caucus or pre-mediation before ever bringing them into a joint session. Part of the pre-caucus also includes coaching and role plays. The idea is that the parties learn how to converse directly with their adversary in the joint session. Some unique challenges arise when disputes involve supervisors and subordinates. The Negotiated Performance Appraisal (NPA) is a tool for improving communication between supervisors and subordinates and is particularly useful as an alternate mediation model because it preserves the hierarchical power of supervisors while encouraging dialogue and dealing with differences in opinion.

## **\*APPROACHES OF CONFLICT**

### **1. Traditional Approach to Conflict**

Conflicts are seen as inevitable, destructive, and should be avoided if possible.

- Emphasizes suppression and elimination, meaning that conflict is not voiced out.
- Focuses on identifying and removing the malfunctioning causes of conflict.
- Believes that any conflict in an organization is outright bad, negative, and harmful.

### **2. Modern Approach to conflict**

- Conflicts can be constructive and good, and different ways of thinking should be encouraged to get multiple ideas and solutions to problems.
- Conflict is seen as an opportunity for growth, change, and can lead to positive outcomes.
- Emphasizes that only functional and constructive forms of conflict support the organization, while dysfunctional or destructive forms of conflict should always be avoided.

- Encourages employees to voice out their grievances and dissatisfaction, and supports the existence of grievance procedures and collective bargaining.

In summary, while the traditional approach views conflicts as something to be avoided and suppressed, the modern approach sees conflicts as opportunities for growth and positive change. The modern approach acknowledges that not all conflicts are beneficial and healthy, and it emphasizes the importance of managing conflicts effectively to foster organizational success.

## **FUNCTIONAL CONFLICT**

Functional conflict is a type of conflict that is characterized by the parties' efforts to achieve mutually beneficial outcomes. It is typically characterized by parties working together to resolve the conflict in a constructive way. It is different from dysfunctional conflict, which is characterized by the parties' attempts to resolve the conflict in a way that harms or destroys the relationship.

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## **DYSFUNCTIONAL CONFLICT**

Dysfunctional conflict is a type of conflict that occurs when two or more parties come to an agreement that is not beneficial to all involved. This type of conflict can cause emotional harm, distress, damage to relationships, and create a power struggle.

Dysfunctional conflict is a disagreement or conflict in which each side of the argument is using or trying to use the other side to achieve their own personal goal. Dysfunctional conflicts are often destructive and can lead to tension, anger, and resentment.

## **ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

Organizational development is a planned, systematic change in the values or operations of employees to create overall growth in a company or organization. It differs from everyday operations and workflow

improvements in that it follows a specific protocol that management communicates clearly to all employees.

Organizational change and development can be a long, sometimes overwhelming process, but companies usually begin with several goals in mind:

- **Ongoing improvement.** Changing company culture to view new strategies as a positive growth opportunity allows for ongoing improvement and encourages employees to become more open to change and new ideas. New strategies are introduced systematically through planning, implementation, evaluation, improvement, and monitoring.
- **Better or increased communication.** Organizational development that leads to increased feedback and interaction in the organization aligns employees with the company's vision. Employees feel that they have more ownership in the company's mission and may be more motivated as a result.
- **Employee development.** In today's business world, employees must constantly adapt to changing products, platforms, and environments. Employee development comprises training and work process improvements that help everyone keep up with shifting demands.
- **Product and service improvement.** Organizational development leads to innovation, which can help improve products and services. This innovation often comes as the result of intensive market research and analysis.
- **Increased profit.** Organizational development helps increase profits by optimizing communication, employee processes, and products or services. Each serves to increase a company's bottom line.

### **\*Common Reasons for Organizational Change Resistance**

While there can be several reasons why an employee is resistant to organizational change, here are the five most common reasons:

#### **1. Mistrust and lack of confidence**

When employees don't trust or feel confident in the person making the change, their resistance to it can be a huge barrier. Change advisor and author Rick Maurer believes that lack of confidence in change-makers is one of the most overlooked causes of internal change resistance in enterprise organizations.

Maurer's 3 Levels of Resistance to Change are: I don't get it, I don't like it, and I don't like you. That's right — people may not resist the change itself, but rather the person making it. Of course, "you" does not always refer to the change-maker

specifically. It could also be someone the change-maker represents, such as corporate headquarters or a faceless CEO.

## **2. Emotional responses**

Changing the status quo is complex and people tend to react emotionally to disruptions to their routine. This is a natural and inevitable response. Brushing it off will only lead to stronger resistance.

Use change management models that focus on emotional reactions to change, such as the Kübler-Ross Change Curve or Bridges' Transition Model, to mitigate this common cause of resistance to change. Both models recognize that change can lead to feelings of loss and grief. As such, change-makers must be prepared to manage these emotions and move people towards acceptance of the change.

Start by coaching change leaders to approach resistance to change with empathy, acknowledging that people may have a wide range of emotional reactions. Some may even skip steps in the Kübler-Ross Change Curve, slide back into old habits, or have negative reactions multiple times throughout the transition.

To manage these reactions, change leaders should clearly explain the need for change while also listening attentively to the feedback from those affected by it. People want to feel heard. Make it clear that their opinions are valuable to the change process.

Change leaders should also check in frequently to provide support, gather additional change feedback, and nudge people toward change acceptance and adoption.

## **3. Lack of training and help resources**

Resistance to change often emerge when employees feel unprepared to adapt and adopt new processes due to a lack of onboarding, upskill training, and end-user support resources to guide them through the initial learning curve and friction points in a new process, team structure, or software implementation.

To overcome internal resistance due to a lack of employee training and support resources, organizations should:

- **Provide onboarding, reskilling, and upskilling.** When making a change, create comprehensive employee training programs that give employees the knowledge and new skills necessary to navigate the transition successfully,

whether a new process change or upgrading to a new enterprise application like a CRM or ERP.

- **Enable employees with self-help support resources.** Employees will encounter issues, and your change will most likely be contextual to the point that they cannot find necessary help resources through a simple Google search. Provide thorough documentation on new processes, set up office hours with change leaders, and enable your end-users with IT self-service support resources like Whatfix's Self Help. Self Help integrates with your process documentation, third-party links, LMS, tutorial videos, and any other support resource and overlays over your digital applications – enabling employees to receive contextual help at the moment of need.
- **Allocate resources appropriately.** Ensure that sufficient resources, such as technology, tools, and budget, are allocated to support the change effort. This helps employees feel empowered and confident in their ability to implement the change effectively. Enterprises must also invest in an internal IT team to help support end-users when they encounter issues. This includes budgeting for dedicated IT team members for internal support issues, as well as digital enablement tools like a digital adoption platform.

#### **4. Fear of failure**

People won't support a change if they're not confident in their abilities to adapt to it. When people feel threatened by their shortcomings (real or imagined), they protect themselves from failure by resisting the change.

#### **5. Poor change communication**

The key to excellent change management communication is to create an active conversation. When you talk **at** people as opposed to **with** people, you're bound to get pushback and resistance to change.

Start by making a change communication plan. Before you initiate change, you should have several communication actions planned, such as the announcement of the change, small group discussions, one-on-one meetings, and methods for gathering feedback.

When talking with employees about change, answer the questions, "What's in it for me?" (WIIFM) and "What does it mean to me?" (WDIMTM). When you address individual concerns, you increase their engagement. People want to know how the change will impact them specifically and what they will need to do to implement and solidify the change.

## **6. Unrealistic timelines**

Find a balance between creating a sense of urgency and allowing time to transition. Don't force change too quickly – when you push too hard for a change to happen, it's easy to get tunnel vision and neglect important elements of your change plan.

Start with a change implementation timeline. Map out every action and set deadlines so you have a general idea of how long the entire transformation will take. Often, designing the path between the current state and change adoption helps you identify additional steps needed to facilitate the transition.

Of course, you shouldn't be afraid to make adjustments. If your team needs more time to understand the change or would benefit from additional change management training, make it happen.

## **7. Existing organizational culture and norms**

Resistance to change often occurs when existing company culture and norms are deeply rooted in an organization, which hinders the acceptance of new ways of doing things, such as new processes, leadership, team structure, or technology.

To overcome this change resistance challenge, enterprise should:

- **Foster an adaptive, agile, open-minded, learning-centric culture.** Foster an environment that values continuous improvement and innovation. Encourage employees to share their ideas and perspectives and reward those who embrace change. Invest in frameworks and technology that enable your employees to be continuously learning.
- **Lead by example.** Demonstrate change at the leadership level by modeling your desired behavior change from the top down. When leaders actively participate in and support a change, it sets a positive example for others to follow and creates a sense that “we're in this together”.

## **\*Tips to Overcome Resistance to Change**

Here are a few of the best strategies to overcome change resistance in your organization.

### **1. Show value through education and training**

To avoid change resistance, provide proof that a new process, tool, or change will greatly benefit your employees. Prioritize educating your teams on how this new change will directly make their lives better and improve their day-to-day, and

provide ongoing training to ensure they feel confident and comfortable navigating the new change.

## **2. Collect employee input prior to change**

Many times, employees resist change because they believe their opinion doesn't matter and wouldn't impact the decision to make an organizational change. Run surveys with your team on how they feel about the change and how they would make the process easier.

## **3. Come to an agreement with your employees**

Never make a decision without consulting those on the front lines – your employees. After consulting with your team, come to an agreement on the timeline and overall plan for managing and implementing a new change.

## **4. Include employees in the change management plan**

Employees feel they are taken seriously and their opinion matters when they're included in processes. Be sure to add key members of your team into the change management and implementation process so they feel ownership of the project. Team members should also be involved when setting change management KPIs and metrics that will determine success.

## **5. Support your employees during organizational transformation**

Don't leave your employees out on an island – support your team members with resources, change management tools, knowledge bases, and training on the new process or tool you're implementing. This will help your employees find value in a new system quickly, causing them to build trust with you when it

## **6. Communicate clearly and frequently**

Letting employees know about changes to the status quo as soon as possible helps to build a bridge between employees and management.

Share any information you have with employees that you are able to share. If you're not sure about an answer or simply cannot provide an answer, it's okay to say something like, "I'll look into that and follow up with you" or, "I'll share that information with you as soon as I have it." The more open and honest your communication with them, the less likely they are to speculate and spiral.

## **7. Measure the performance of your organizational change**

Measurement is a key factor in the change process because it allows organizations to understand how the implementation influences overall business performance. If

something doesn't go as planned, there's an opportunity to change it or include it in the next phase of the change implementation.

## **PLANNED CHANGE**

Planned change is defined as the process of preparing the entire organization or at least a significant part of it for new goals or new direction. The direction can be culture, internal structures, metrics and records, processes, or any other relevant and related aspect.

☑ Change is constant, and the best companies embrace change. Not every change can be planned. Sometimes organizations face certain situations in which they have to adapt to the change instantly.

It is important to note that planning for change and planning for innovation are not the same things. Innovation is a transformative process that requires a significant change.

## **\*THEORIES OF PLANNED CHANGE**

There are three significant organizational change or planned change theories used to help the organizational members manage the change.

### **1. Lewin's change model**

Lewin's model is the basis for comprehending organizational change. It was developed by Kurth Lewin and had three steps in it.

Lewin's change model suggests increasing the factors which push for change in the organization and reduce the forces or factors which promote to maintain the existing state in the organization. This produces reduced tension and also less resistance to change.

In moving, there is the displacement of existing organizational behavior, Individual or department, to a different level.

It also involves interfering in the present system to develop new attitudes and values and relevant change in the organization.

## **2. Refreezing**

In this step, the stabilization of the organizational equilibrium occurs. Supporting mechanisms and procedures are used to achieve refreezing, which forces the new organizational state.

## **3. Action Research Model**

Planned change is a cycle, and the action research model focuses on the planned change as the cycle. The primary research about the organization gives information to guide further action. The results are assessed to provide information to guide further action.

Action research has the objective of assisting companies with implementing their planned change. Also, it is aimed at developing general knowledge gathered from implementing the planned change so that it can be applied to other companies as well.

The action research was developed to have a two focus on changing and knowledge generation; it has been changed and adopted to efforts in which the primary emphasis is on the planned change.

## **4. Contemporary approaches to change**

The contemporary approaches to change are adopted from an action research model. Although there is the difference that the member involvement is relatively high in the change process.

This consists of learning for the members of the organization about their company and how they should change it to apply the planned change.

## **\*STEPS IN PLANNED CHANGE**

Once an organization is committed to planned change, it should create a logical and stepwise approach to reach those objectives.

### **1. Identification of the need**

The need for recognition happens at a higher level of the organization, which involves senior management. They are the ones who recognize that there is a need to change.

The change may be necessitated due to external or internal forces, and the senior management determines it.

## **2. Develop goals of change**

Goals that change are necessary to be defined before the starting of the planned change. Evaluation of both threats as well as opportunities should be done, and the required changes in specific terms should be determined like the changes required for the product, culture, etc.

Specific goals should be designed for them.

## **3. Change agent**

The change agent, as the name suggests, is the one who drives change in the organization. He may be internal or external. The change agent should realize the things which need a change, be it a product, culture, or other things in the organization.

He is expected to be open to suggestions and ideas and also should support the execution of the suggestions into daily practice.

## **4. Analysis of the current situation**

In this step, an analysis of the existing situation is performed. The change agent, which is selected, gathers data about the organization's current situation. This data gathering has only one intention, which is to help the existing employees prepare.

To push the employees to adopt the change, the negative feedback of the existing situation must be imparted on them. This will motivate them to shun the existing situation and go to adopt the new change, which is planned.

## **5. Select the implementation method**

Now that the current method is analyzed and evaluated, different possible methods of implementation would be presented. Once all the queries are solved, the chosen plan is selected for the implementation.

Managers ensure that they are self-motivated towards the change. They visit organizations that have implemented new ideas, talk to people who have different views and ideas, and do everything needed to stay motivated for the change since they are the ones who will drive the change in their respective teams.

## **6. Developing a plan**

As the name suggests, in this step, planning takes place. Specifics of the plan such as what, where, and how is determined in this step, and the plan is expected to act like a GPS map providing direction for the organization.

If there are any events or activities which would drive the change, then such events should be timed to integrate the change process. Department-wise or person-wise responsibility is delegated to accomplish their respective objectives.

## **7. Implementation of the selected plan**

There could be multiple plans in the process, some of which may be rejected and is one of which will be selected. After all the queries are answered, the plan is put into effect. Everyday problems faced by employees during the implementation of change can dilute the excitement of the change.

It is the responsibility of the managers to maintain the excitement for the change by providing the required resources to their employees.

They can also ask employees to develop new skills, and reiterate the change by having a strong support system for those employees who drive the change in their teams or themselves.

## **8. Follow-up and evaluation**

The goals which were defined before the initiation of the change process are compared to the results which are obtained and changes if any, are done in the implementation process to obtain the desired results.

If necessary, a follow up should be done to determine the completion since a positive result is expected by implementing the planned change.

In some ways organisations, their structure and functioning can be compared to structure and functioning of the human system. Just as an organism has several parts an organisation is also structured with several subsystems. Effective functioning of the human sub-systems depends on the effective functioning of all the constituent parts. When the human system is in trouble it is either due to a problem in a part that could be located or due to problems that affect the entire system. In any case when there is trouble the entire system gets affected. Just as a doctor diagnoses the problem with the human system on the basis of the symptoms and analysis of the system using some tests (standard tests like pulse rate, BP etc. as well as special tests) an organisation facing problems could be diagnosed by an organisational specialist on the basis of noticeable (visible) symptoms and using tests to bring out what is not evident. The only difference is that the human organism normally functions as a whole as it has a single mind. An organisation has several parts each having its own independent minds and they may not always function in a fully unified way. So even when the top management think that there is a problem other systems may not think so or vice versa. Organisation has several minds that is what adds to the complexity of the organisation. Another parallel between the diagnosis of the human being and an organisation is the need to go through a diagnostic check up periodically even if there are no problems. Fitness tests are quite common for the human being. From the time a child is born there are periodic check ups that are conducted which are used as diagnostic instruments. The size, growth, activity level, heart rate etc. are all assessed. Even in the school it is common to put a child through fitness tests. As the person grows into his forties he is advised to get annual check ups done. Similarly an organisation can put itself through periodic check ups or diagnostic exercises to assess its growth, dynamism, strengths, weaknesses etc. Thus organisational diagnosis is an exercise attempted to make an analysis of the organisation, its structure, subsystems and processes in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses of its structural components and processes and use it as a base for developing plans to improve and/or maximise the dynamism and effectiveness of the organisation. Organisational diagnosis could be done as a periodic routine exercise like the case of periodic medical check up of an individual or may be undertaken whenever there is a cognizable problem that is affecting the functioning of an organisation. Just as in the case of the medical sciences there is a lot more unknown about the human being and quite a few things cannot either be diagnosed or cured, management science also has gaps and quite a few problems of organisations are not easy to diagnose or cure. But an equally good number of problems can be solved and the organisational effectiveness improved if the diagnosis is done well by competent people. These units on diagnosis, development, and change are not intended to make the reader into an

organisational specialist. Such a thing requires different training. These units are intended to develop a basic understanding about the organisational analysis, so that when a need or an opportunity arises the reader is aware of what is to be done and whom to approach. In addition when his organisation undertakes a diagnostic exercise he may be able to contribute better

## **\*PURPOSE OF ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS**

**1) Enhancing** the general understanding of the functioning of organisations (i.e. educational or research purposes.) (The direct beneficiary is the researcher or the analyst rather than the organisation). Such a study may aim at enhancing the understanding of human behaviour through a study of it in organisation, or to enhance the understanding of the society as reflected in organisational life.

### **2) Planning for growth and diversification**

An analysis or a diagnostic study may be necessary for planning growth, diversification, expansion etc. Organisational analysis may reveal the strengths that could be used for growth and diversification, weak spots that need to be removed in the new plans, the precautions to be taken, structural dimensions to be kept in mind etc. Several insights may be provided on structure, people, systems, styles, technology etc. that have implications for growth.

### **3) Improving Organisational Effectiveness or Planning**

General Improvements Organisational Analysis may be used also for improving the general efficiency of an organisation. On the basis of a diagnosis made out of the analysis action steps could be initiated in terms of toning up administration, introducing new management systems and processes, reduction of wasteful expenditure, introduction of time savers, change of personnel policies to enhance employee motivation, restructuring of some parts, training, elimination of unwanted structures and teasers, improvements in general health of the organisation etc.

### **4) Organisational Problem Solving**

Whenever some subsystems departments, units etc. fall sick or start creating problems a diagnosis may be undertaken with a view to identify the source of the problem and take corrective action. A sick unit, a bottleneck, a communication



be identified that demand the HR department to create an intervention strategy.

Today, diversity is a prominent cultural and business issue. Gender, sexual preference, age, race, disability, and even culture are factors that enter the business world and affect an organization's capabilities to implement its objectives.

Employee wellness is another area of intervention. For employees and other organization members, this involves boosting active lifestyles and stress management, among other health-related issues.

There are three ways to look at all of these interventions. They can bring about transformational change, which implies the organization is "rewired" completely. They can also take the form of ongoing change, whereby policies and culture are used to progressively reform and adapt the company.

Trans organizational change is the final lens through which adjustments take place through networking, mergers, and acquisitions.

## **2. Strategic change interventions**

Through mergers, restructurings, and transformational changes, strategic change interventions combine two or more organizations.

## **3. Human process interventions**

These interventions focus on the dynamics of group performance and interpersonal relationships.

They can be implemented to modify how an individual, such as a manager, communicates with staff members or even how staff members communicate with one another. They can be used to eliminate unproductive habits, develop productive actions, and boost general self-esteem.

Group interventions analyze how groups are created and how they function to achieve their desired goals. The use of team-building strategies to change group dynamics or a diagnosis and management of intergroup communication are examples of OD interventions.

Large groups, such as one consisting of management, employees, and stakeholders, could also be the focus of these interventions.

In some cases, it may be necessary to consult a third party. This may be due to the development of an “observer bias.” That simply refers to the willingness of the majority of individuals to perceive what they expect to experience. Consultants offer both a new perspective and a new methodology to the situation.

Conflict resolution is another argument for hiring a consultant. Conflict frequently promotes conversation and results in solutions. Thus, it is often a good thing.

However, it can also lead to shutdowns where no progress is achieved. The topic can be justified by consultants who have no personal interest in the discussion.

#### **4. Techno-structural interventions**

These interventions were developed in response to the organization systems’ successful implementation of innovations. To do that, it is necessary to assess which technologies should be used as well as to ensure that staff members are qualified to use them.

The interventions also deal with issues with organizational structure. Particularly if the organizational structure and function are effective because it allows the organization to adapt to change. For example, the central authority model is one that certain design organizations use.

This assumes that all administrative decisions are made autonomously by a single individual or small group. Employees are subject to strict control and have little to no input. Decentralized management is a different mindset that gives everyone, including employees, a say in decision-making.

Employees engage with clients and consumers and are interested in the success of the business. Incentives for innovation and improvement are also included in this strategy.

This intervention analyzes quality management and explores whether organizations change quickly to meet demands or if changes are continuous

as part of the corporate culture. To improve the quality of life for employees, it also aims to boost productivity while making the job more exciting and challenging.

Several OD interventions target specific organizational resources at various levels. This will depend largely on the issues being addressed, the number of employees forced to engage in the change, and the chosen solution.

## **\*Difficulties of OD Interventions**

### **1. Change is necessary**

The fact that managers and corporate officers don't make a case for why the change is important is likely the biggest obstacle that people who wish to influence business change should face. They simply make a unilateral announcement that change will occur.

Furthermore, they make that announcement utilizing language that is loaded with data and facts that some people may not even understand. But everyone needs to agree on the idea for change to stay. This implies that there must be "something to sweeten the pot" for each member.

Fear is a common yet ineffective motivator. People are most motivated to seek change when they can see how it will improve their lives, such as through building their careers and promoting a better work environment.

### **2. Poor Planning**

Lack of preparation can occasionally lead to failure. The individuals implementing the change are so intent on making it happen that they do not invest the necessary time in identifying difficulties, developing solutions, setting targets, and creating timelines.

The project fails because no foundation has been created upon which the OD interventions may be supported.

### **3. Investing in systems rather than people**

Although adding new technology or systems may play a major role in an intervention, managers occasionally overlook the fact that there are also people issues.

For employees to effectively use the technology, they should receive training and support.

#### **4. Limited Resources**

Lack of funding for implementing change is another problem facing organizations. The management believes that the change will be affordable and immediate (which it won't be).

Change is a long-term process that necessitates numerous interventions that have been attempted, tested, modified, and reapplied. Many organizations simply lack the resources to do that since it costs money and takes time.

#### **5. Poor Management**

Strong leadership abilities are necessary for all aspects of affecting change, including problem recognition, issue identification, intervention design and implementation, and success evaluation.

The talents that are frequently referred to as "soft skills," such as the capacity to interact with both individuals and groups of people, inspire and encourage others, and communicate effectively, are necessary for a leader. Visionaries who can turn ideas into reality make strong leaders.

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