UNIT 11 : ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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Grieved : cause to feel sorrow

11.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to :

- explain the concept of Human Behaviour
- discuss the nature of Organisation Behaviour
- explain Self-Theory
- learn the concept of Ability
- outline the Learning Theory.

11.2 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier units, we have discussed about leadership. In this unit, we will discuss about organization behaviour.

You will find this unit interesting as this unit states that, how the behaviour of the individual groups and structure can impact the organization. In this unit we will discuss the various natures of people, the intellectual and physical abilities and the values and attitudes.

11.3 CONCEPT OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Every field of social science (or even physical science) has a philosophical foundation of the basic concepts that guide its development. In accounting, for example, a fundamental concept is that “for every debit there will be a credit’’. The entire system of double entry accounting was built on this equation, when it replaced single-entry bookkeeping many years ago. In physics, a basic belief is that elements of nature are uniform. The law of gravity operatesuniformly in Tokyo and in London, and an atom of hydrogen is identical in Moscow and Washington, D.C., but the same cannot be said about people. Human behavior starts with a set of fundamental concepts revolving around the nature of people and organizations.

11.3.1 The Nature of People

a) **Individual Differences :**People have much in common (they become excited by an achievement, or they are ***grieved*** by the loss of a loved one), but each person in the world is also individually different (and we expect that all who follow will be different). Each one is different from all others, probably in millions of ways, just as each of their fingerprints are different, as far as we know. And these differences are usually substantial rather than meaningless. All people are different. This is a fact supported by science.

The idea of individual differences comes originally from psychology.From the very birth,each person is unique, and the

individualexperiences after birth tend to make people even more different. Individual differences mean that management can get the greatest motivation among employees by rating them differently. If it were for individual's differences, some standard, across-the-broad way of dealing with employees could be adopted, and minimum judgment would be required thereafter. Individual differences require that a manager's approach to employees be individual, not statistical. This belief that each person is different from all others is typically called the law of individual difference.

b) **Perception :** People look at the world and see things differently. People use an organized framework that they have built out of a lifetime of experience and accumulated values. This is another way in which people insist on acting like human beings rather than rational machines.

Employees see their world differently for a variety of reasons. They may differ in their personalities, needs, demographic factors, a past experience,or theymay find themselves in different physical settings, time periods, or social surroundings. Whatever may be the reasons, they tend to act on the basis of their perceptions.

c) **A whole Person :** Although some organizations may wish that they could employ only person's skill or brain, they actually employ a whole person, rather than certain characteristics. Different human traits may be separately studied, but in the final analysis they are all part of one system making up a whole person. Skill doesn't exist apart from background or knowledge. Home life is not totally separable from work life, and emotional conditions are not separate from physical conditions. People function as total human beings.

d) **Motivated Behaviour :** From psychology, we learn that normal behaviour has certain causes. These may relate to a person's needs and/or the consequences that result from acts.

In the case of needs, people are motivated not by what we think they ought to have but by what they themselves want.

To an outside observer a person's needs may be unrealistic, but they are still controlling. This fact leaves management with two basic ways to motivate people. It can show them how certain actions will increase their need fulfillment, or it can threaten decreased need fulfillment if they follow an undesirable course of action. Clearly a path toward increased need fulfillment is the better approach.

e) **Desire of Involvement :** People wish to feel good about themselves. This is reflected in their drive for self-efficacy, or the belief that one has the necessary capabilities to perform a task, fulfillrole expectations, make a meaningful contribution or meet challenging situation successfully. Many employees today are actively seeking opportunities at work to become involved in relevant decisions, thereby contributing their talents and ideas to the organization's success. They hunger for the chance to share what they know and also to learn from the experience. Organizations need to provide opportunities for making full involvement, which will result in mutual benefit for both parties.

11.3.2 Value of the Person (Ethical Treatment)

People deserve to be treated differently from other factors of production (land, capital, technology) because they are of a higher order in the universe. Because of this distinction, they want to be treated with respect and dignity, and increasingly they demand it from employers. They refuse to accept the old idea that they are simply economic tools. They want to be valued for their skills and abilities and to be provided with the opportunities to develop themselves.

This demand for respect and for an opportunity for

development suggests strongly that organizations must treat employees in an ethical fashion. More and more firms are recognizing this need and are responding with a variety of programmes to ensure a higher standard of ethical performance. Companies have established codes of ethics, publicized statements of ethical values, rewarded employees for notable ethical behaviour, and set up internal procedures to handle misconduct. They have begun to recognize that since organizational behaviour always involves people, ethical philosophy is involved in one way or the other in each action they take; human decisions cannot, and should not, be made apart from ethical values.

11.4 NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

OB as a field of study means that it is a distinct area of expertise with a common body of knowledge. It studies three determinants of behaviour in organizations: **individuals, groups** and **structure**. In addition, OB applies the knowledge gained about individuals, groups, and the effect of structure on behaviour in order to make organisations work more effectively.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Fill in the blanks :

The five fundamental concepts that revolve around nature of People are :

a) ..... b) ..... c) .....

d) ..... e) .....

Q 2: OB is related to ..... situations.

Q 3: Define Organization Behaviour.

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11.5 CONCEPT OF SELF- THOERY

Organizational applications of learning concepts are not restricted to managing the behaviour of others. These concepts can also be used to allow individuals to manage their own behaviour and in doing so, reduce the need for managerial control. This is called self-management.

Self-theory is composed of perception of the "I" or "me". The following four factors are included in self-theory:

a) **Self-Image :** By nature, every person has certain beliefs about what or who he/she is. In other words, self-image is one's image of oneself. This is how one sees oneself.

b) **Ideal-Self :** The ideal-self refers to what one would like to look like. The basic line of difference between the self-image and ideal-self is that the former indicates the reality of a person whereas the latter implies the ideality of the person. The latter one i.e., ideal-self stands more important to motivate an individual to behave in a particular manner.

c) **Looking Glass Self :** This refers to how others perceive the individual. In other words, this means the way an individual thinks people perceive about him and not the way people actually see him. This indicates that one's belief about self is a reflection of others' perception about the person.

d) **Real Self :** The real self is what one actually is. The first three self-concepts relate to an individual's perception about himself/herself. They may be the same or they may differ from real self.

People perceive the same situation differently depending upon their conception of the situation. This, in turn, influences them to behave differently.

11.6 CONCEPT OF ABILITY

It is known that we all are not created as equal; most of us are to the left or to the right of the median on some normally distributed ability curve. For example, regardless of how motivated you are; it's unlikely that we can

act as well as Rani Mukherjee, play cricket as well as Sachin Tendulkar, write as well as J. K. Rowling, or play the guitar as well as Jimmy Hendrix. Of course, just because we aren't equal in the abilities doesn't imply that some individuals are inherently inferior to others. What we are acknowledging is that everyone has strengths and weaknesses in terms of ability that make him or her relatively superior or inferior to others in performing certain tasks or activities.

From management's standpoint, the issue is not whether people differ in terms of their abilities. The issue is how people differ in abilities and using that knowledge to increase the likelihood that an employee will perform his or her job well.

Ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job. It is a current assessment of what one can do. An individual's overall abilities are essentially made up of two sets of factors: Intellectual ability and Physical ability.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Write the four factors included in self-Theory.

a) ..... b) .....

c) ..... d) .....

Q 5: What do you mean by Ability?

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11.6.1 Intellectual Abilities

Intellectual abilities are those needed to perform mental activities-for thinking,reasoning and problem solving. People in most societies place a high value on intelligence and for good reason. Smart people generally earn more money and attain higher levels of education. Smart people are also more likely to emerge as leaders of groups. Intelligence Quotient (IQ) tests, for example are designed to ascertain one's general intellectual abilities. The popular colleges

conduct admission tests such as SAT and ACT and graduate admission tests in business (GMAT),Common Admission Test (CAT), law (LSAT), and medicine (MCAT) to test their intellectual abilities. These testing firms don't make the argument that their tests assess intelligence, but experts know that they do.

The seven most frequently cited dimensions making up intellectual abilities are number aptitude, verbal comprehension, perceptual speed, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, spatial visualization and memory.

Jobs differ in the demands they place on ***incumbents*** to use their intellectual abilities. The more complex a job is in terms of information-processing demands, the more general intelligence and verbal abilities will be necessary to perform the job successfully.

11.6.2 Physical Abilities

To the same degree that intellectual abilities play a larger role in complex jobs with demanding information-processing requirements, specific physical abilities gain importance for successfully doing less-skilled and more standardized jobs. For example, jobs in which success demands stamina, manual ***dexterity***, leg strength, or similar talents require management to identify an employee's physical capabilities.

Research on the requirements needed in hundreds of jobs has identified nine basic abilities involved in the performance of physical tasks. These are described in Table below. Individuals differ in the extent to which they have each of these abilities.

Table 11.1 : Nine Basic Physical Abilities

Strength Factors :

Dynamic strength	Ability to exert muscular force repeatedly or continuously over time.
Trunk strength	Ability to exert muscular strength using the trunk (particularly abdominal) muscles.

Static strength	Ability to exert force against external objects.
Explosive strength	Ability to expend a maximum of energy in one or a series of explosive acts.

Flexibility Factors :

Extent flexibility	Ability to move the trunk and back muscles as far as possible.
Dynamic flexibility	Ability to make rapid, repeated flexing movements.

Other Factors :

Body corporation	Ability to co-ordinate the simultaneous actions of different parts of the body.
Balance	Ability to maintain equilibrium despite forces pulling off balance.
Stamina	Ability to continue maximum effort requiring prolonged effort over time.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 6: What are the two types of abilities?

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Q 7: Match the following :

1) Number aptitude	a) Fire investigator
2) Deductive Reasoning	b) Accountant
3) Memory	c) Plant Manger
4) Perceptual Speed	d) Sales person
5) Spatial visualization	e) Supervisor
6) Inductive reasoning	f) Interior Decorator
7) Verbal Comprehension	g) Market Researcher



ACTIVITY 1

Identify the physical abilities required for a sales person to do his job effectively and efficiently.

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11.7 CONCEPT OF LEARNING AND LEARNING THEORIES

Learning occurs when any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. We can say that, changes in behaviour indicate that learning has taken place and that learning is a **change in behaviour**.

Theories of Learning : Three theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behaviour. These are classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and social learning; these can be explained as follows :

a) Classical Conditioning : Classical conditioning grew out of experiments to teach dogs to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell, conducted in the early 1900s by Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov. A simple surgical procedure allowed Pavlov to measure accurately the amount of saliva secreted by a dog. When Pavlov presented the dog with a piece of meat, the dog exhibited a noticeable increase in salivation. When Pavlov withheld the presentation of meat and merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate. Then Pavlov proceeded to link the meat and the ringing of the bell. After repeatedly hearing the bell before getting the food, the dog began to salivate as soon as the bell rang. After a while, the dog would salivate merely at the sound of the bell, even if no food were offered. In effect, the dog had learned to respond – that is, to salivate – to the bell. Here the meat was an unconditioned stimulus; it invariably caused the dog to react in a specific way. The bell was an artificial stimulus, or conditioned stimulus.

Using these concepts, we can summarize classical conditioning. Essentially, learning a conditioned response involves building up an association between a conditioned stimulus and an unconditioned stimulus. When the stimuli, one compelling and the other one neutral, are paired, the neutral one becomes a conditioned stimulus and, hence, takes on the properties of the unconditioned stimulus.



Conviction : An unshakable belief in something without need for proof or evidence

b) Operant Conditioning : What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, the Harvard psychologist B. F. Skinner did for operant conditioning. Operant conditioning argues that behaviour is a function of its consequences. People learn to behave to get something they want or to avoid something they don't want. Operant behaviour means voluntary or learned behaviour in contrast to reflexive or unlearned behaviour. The tendency to repeat such behaviour is influenced by the ***reinforcement*** or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behaviour. Therefore, reinforcement strengthens a behaviour and increases the likelihood that it will be repeated.

c) Social Learning : Individuals can also learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something, as well as by direct experiences. So, for example, much of what we have learned comes from watching models – parents, teachers, peers, motion picture and television performers, bosses, and so forth. This view that we can learn through both observation and direct experience is called social learning theory.



Aesthetics : Relating to or dealing with beauty.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 8: Define Learning.

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Q 9: What are the three theories of Learning?

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11.8 MEANING AND DEFINITION OF VALUES

A value is something that has worth or importance to an individual. It contains a judgmental element, in that it carries an individual's ideas as to what is right, good or desirable. Values contain both content and intensity attributes. The content attribute reveals how important it is. Values are emotionally charged priorities and are passionately defended.

According to Rokeach, "values represent basic ***conviction*** that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence."

Chakraborty defines values as "the manner in which an individual tends to make judgments or choices, both about goals and means, at different stages of one's life, in different facets of it, as are deemed to lead to the well-being and happiness of oneself and society."

From the above definitions one can understand that values are learnt from the society and hence are acceptable to the society as preferred 'mode of conduct' or 'end state'. Values are stable and long-lasting beliefs about what is important in a variety of situations. They are evaluative standards that help us distinguish between right and wrong or good and bad in the world. Values do not represent what we need but they indicate what we ought to do to achieve the need in a socially desirable way. Some people value practicality while others value ***aesthetics***. Some people value frugality while others value generosity.

11.8.1 Value System

The term 'value system' implies a ranking of individual values (relating to obedience, freedom, pleasure, self-respect, equality, punishments etc.) according to their importance. The value system is a framework of personal philosophy, which governs and influences the individual's reactions and responses to various situations. Values are:

- Moralistic in nature;
- Fewer in number than attitudes;
- Most central to an individual;
- Relatively permanent and resistant to change;
- Guide actions and judgments across specific objects or situations.

11.8.2 Types of Values

Values do not operate in isolation. Several values interact with each other to form value system in a society. According to Rokeach, value system is composed of rank-ordered sets of values that fall into two general categories namely terminal values and instrumental values.

- **Instrumental Value :** This refers to single belief that a specific mode of conducte.g.,courage, honesty, cleanliness is personally and socially preferable in all situations with respect to all objects. It is a tool or means for reaching terminal values.
- **Terminal Value :** This refers to the belief that a particular end-state of existence (e.g., prosperity, world peace, freedom, equality) is personally and socially worth striving for. For example, a person may desire and strive to achieve prosperity (terminal value) by being ambitious and hardworking (instrumental values).



Espoused : Choose and follow, as of theories, ideas, policies, strategies or plans.

Table 11.2 gives a list of Rokeach's terminal and instrumental values.

Table 11.2

Terminal (end) Values	Instrumental (means) Values
Prosperity	Ambition and Hard work
Stimulating, active life	Open-mindedness
Achievement	Competence
World peace	Cheerfulness
Equality	Courage

Personal and family security	Forgiving nature
Freedom	Helpfulness
Happiness	Honesty
Inner peace	Imagination
Friendship	Courtesy
Wisdom	Responsibility

Values can be categorized on the basis of the level at which they operate. These may be:

- **Personal values** which are formed from past experience and interaction with others.
- **Cultural values** of which the dominant beliefs are held by a collective society.
- **Organizational values** which are at the heart of organizational culture in terms of shared assumptions, values and beliefs.
- **Professional values** which are held within an occupational group.

Values may also be classified as the ***espoused*** values and enacted values. Espoused values represent the values that we want others to believe or abide by. Values are socially desirable and so people create a positive public image by claiming to believe in values that others expect them to hold. Contrary to this, enacted values represent the values actually practiced. These values, in fact, guide our decisions and behaviors.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 10: Give the definition of Value.

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Q 11: Select the correct answer

Values are:

- Moralistic in nature
- Most central to an individual;
- Relatively permanent
- Resistant to change

a) All the above b) None of Them

11.9 CONCEPT OF ATTITUDE

Attitudes are evaluative statements. They respond one's feeling either favorably or unfavorably to persons, objects or/and events. In other words, attitudes reflect how one feels about something. For example, when Professor Kotler says, "I like teaching", he is expressing his attitude about his work i.e. teaching.

Attitudes can be defined as a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way toward some objects, persons or events.

11.9.1 Attitudes vs. Values

While attitudes and values are different, there are also some similarities. Both are powerful instruments influencing cognitive process and behaviour of people. Both are learned and acquired from the same sources – people and objects. Both are relatively permanent and resistant to change. Both values and attitudes influence each other and are used interchangeably. Hence, values people hold can explain their attitudes and, in many cases, the behaviours they engage in. However, we cannot determine which values underlie which attitudes and behaviours.

In contrast to values, attitudes are less stable. That is why advertising messages attempt to change one's attitudes toward a certain product or service.

11.9.2 Formation of Attitudes

Attitudes are not inherited. These are acquired or learned by the people from the environment in which they interact. The formation of attitude is broadly classified into two sources: Direct experience and Social learning.

- **Direct Experience :** One's direct experience with an object or person serves as a powerful source for one's attitude formation. In other words, attitudes are formed on the basis of one's past experience in concerned object or person. For

instance, how does one know that he/she likes the subject organization behaviour or dislikes financial management? The answer to it is that he/she formed these attitudes from his/her experience in studying the two subjects. Research has shown that attitudes derived from the direct experience are more powerful, stronger, and durable and are difficult to change than the attitudes that are formed through indirect experience. This is because of their availability in our cognitive processes.

- **Social Learning :** The process of deriving attitudes from family, peer groups, religious organizations and culture is called social learning. In social learning, an individual acquires attitudes from his/her environment in an indirect manner. Social learning starts from early age when children derive certain attitudes from their parents. This is often evident from when young children express their policies similar to those held by their parents.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 12: What do you understand by attitude?

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Q 13: Write True/False for the following statements :

a) Values and Attitudes are same. (True/False)

b) Attitudes reflect how one feels about something. (True/False)

c) Individuals acquire attitudes by observing their role models whom they admire and respect. (True/False)

Q 14: Attitudes can be classified into two sources:

a) .....

b) .....



11.10 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed the following:

- Human behaviour starts with a set of fundamental concepts revolving around the nature of people and organizations. These include individual difference, perception, a whole person, motivated behaviour, desire forinvolvement and value of the person. The self-concepts can be used to allow individuals to manage their own behaviour and in doing so, reduce the need for managerial control. Self-theory includes the study of self-image, ideal self, looking glass self and real self.
- Ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job. It is a current assessment of what one can do. An individual's overall abilities are essentially made up of two sets of factors: intellectual and physical.
- Learning occurs when any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. We can say that changes in behaviour indicate that learning has taken place and that learning is a change in behaviour. Three theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behaviour. These are classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and social learning.
- The value system is a framework of personal philosophy, which governs and influences the individual's reactions and responses to various situations. Values people hold can explain their attitudes and, in many cases, the behaviours they engage in. The formation of attitudes is broadly classified into two sources: Direct experience and Social learning.



11.11 FURTHER READING

1) Gupta, R. N. (2006), *Business Organization and Management*, S. Chand.

2) Khanka, S. S. (2002), *Organizational Behavior*, S. Chand.

3) Robbins, Stephen P. (2005), *Organizational Behavior* (11th Edition), Pearson Education.

11) Tulsian, P. C. Vishal and Pandey (2002), *Business Organization and Management*, Pearson Education.



11.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: a) Individual, b) Perception, c) A Whole person, d) Motivational Behavior, e) Desire of Involvement

Ans to Q No 2: Individuals, Groups and Structure.

Ans to Q No 3: Organizational Behaviour (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behaviour within organizations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness.

Ans to Q No 4: a) Self- Image, b) Ideal-Self, c) Looking Glass Self, d) Real Self

Ans to Q No 5: Ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job.

Ans to Q No 6: a) Intellectual Ability, b) Physical Ability

Ans to Q No 7: 1)–(b), 2)–(e), 3)–(d), 4)–(a), 5)–(f), 6)–(g), 7)–(c)

Ans to Q No 8: Learning is the acquisition and development of memories and behaviour, including skills, knowledge, understanding, values.

Ans to Q No 9: a) Classical Conditioning, b) Operant Conditioning, c) Social Learning

Ans to Q No 10: Values are the beliefs of person or social group in which they have an emotional investment either for or against something.

Ans to Q No 11: All the above

Ans to Q No 12: Attitude is a complex mental state involving beliefs and feelings and values and tendencies to act in a certain way.

Ans to Q No 13: a) False, b) True, c) True

Ans to Q No 14: a) Direct Experiences, b) Social Learning.



11.13 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q 1: "Human behaviour starts with a set of fundamental concepts revolving around the nature of people and organizations." Discuss.

Q 2: Define organization behaviour. Discuss area of study covered under OB.

Q 3: What is the self-theory?

Q 4: What do you understand by individual ability? Discuss the concept of individual's intellectual and physical abilities.

Q 5: Discuss the three theories of learning.

Q 6: Give the meaning and definition of value. Discuss the various types of value.

Q 7: What is meant by attitude? Explain how attitudes are formed.

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UNIT 12 : PERSONALITY AND PERCEPTION

UNIT STRUCTURE

12.1 Learning Objectives

12.2 Introduction

12.3 Meaning and Determinants of Personality

- 12.3.1 Meaning of Personality
- 12.3.2 Determinants of Personality

12.4 Theories of Personality

- 12.4.1 The Big Five Personality Traits

12.5 Emotions and Moods

- 12.5.1 The Basic Set of Emotions

12.6 Perception

- 12.6.1 Factors Affecting Perception

12.7 Concept of Interpersonal Behaviur

- 12.7.1 Essential Interpersonal Competencies for Managers

12.8 Transactional Analysis and Ego States and Different Strokes

12.9 Let Us Sum Up

12.10 Further Readings

12.11 Answers to Check Your Progress

12.12 Model Questions

12.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to :

- discuss the concept and determinants of personality
- identify the trait theories of personality
- describe emotions and moods
- discuss the concept of perception
- outline the factors affecting perception
- discuss the concept of Interpersonal behaviour
- discuss the transactional analysis, ego States and different Strokes

12.2 INTRODUCTION

We are always amazed with the words like behaviour, temperament, emotions, moods etc. To have some idea on these terms, we will be discussing in this unit 'personality' and the related topics. You will find this unit interesting as this unit explains about the human behaviour, human personality and some other topics.

The personality of an individual affects his behavior. Personality can be defined as the sum total of the ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others and environment. Personality differs from person to person depending on their varying psychophysical aspects. Let us discuss this concept and its related topics elaborately.

12.3 MEANING AND DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

12.3.1 Meaning of Personality

Personality is a set of qualities that make a person (or thing) distinct from another. Personality is the complex of all the attributes– behavioural, temperamental, emotional and mental– that characterize a unique individual.

Personality embodies the totality of somebody's attitudes, interests, behavioural patterns, emotional responses, social roles, and other individual traits that endure over long periods of time.

12.3.2 Determinants of Personality

Different thinkers have listed different determinants for personality. For example, McClelland has categorized them into four fundamental theories– (i) traits, (ii) schema (iii) motives and (iv) self schema. There are others like Scott and Mitchell, who have classified personality determinants into heredity groups and cultural factors.

However, the various determinants of personality are broadly classified into three groups, namely, (i) heredity (ii) environment and (iii) situation. These are now discussed below :

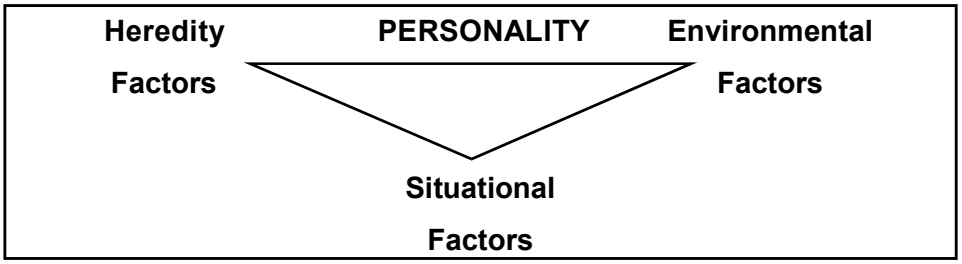


Figure: 12.1

1) **Heredity Factors :** Heredity refers to those factors that are determined at conception. Thus, heredity refers to biological factors. Heredity is the transmission of the qualities from the parents to the children through a biological mechanism lying in the chromosomes of the germ cells. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, temperament, sex, muscle composition and biological rhythms are the examples of heredity characteristics that are generally influenced by one's parents.

2) **Environmental Factors :** The environment, i.e., one's early conditioning, the family norms, friends and social groups exerts pressures on one's personality formation. Culture establishes the norms, attitudes and values that are passed along from generation to generation. Thus a general consistency is created over time. Evidences are available to believe that the cultural environment in which people are raised plays a major role in shaping personality. For example, in India, children learn from an early age the values of hard work and family closeness. The Indian culture also expects different behaviors from males and females.

Home environment generated to a child also exerts important influence in shaping his/her personality ; for example, children brought up in orphanages or in non stimulating house are much more likely to be socially and emotionally maladjusted than their counterparts raised by parents in a warm, loving

and stimulating environment. Research studies have also revealed that parents have effect on the personality development of their children as compared to other members of the family. Besides parents, siblings (brothers and sisters) also influence the shaping of personality. Elders serve as models for the younger.

3) **Situation :** No doubt, both heredity and environment are the primary determinants of personality, but situation also influences the effects of heredity and environment on personality. In practice, an individual's personality does change depending on the situation. This is because the different demands of the different situations call for different aspects of one's personality. As an example, the same person while facing an employment interview and while enjoying picnic with his/her friends in a public park behaves quite differently depending on the two different situations.

12.4 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Among several theories of personality, the more prominent are: *Type, Trait, Social learning etc.* A brief discussion of the trait theory follows:

- **Trait Theory :**Trait theory is a major approach to the study of human personality. Trait theorists are primarily interested in the measurement of traits, which can be defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion. According to this perspective, traits are relatively stable over time, different among individuals (e.g. some people are outgoing whereas others are shy), and they influence behaviour. Some psychologists have tried to understand personality on the basis of individual's traits. Trait is a lasting characteristic of a person in which he/she differs from another. Popular human characteristics include those of being shy, aggressive, submissive, lazy, ambitious, loyal and timid. In practice, the more consistent the characteristics and more frequently do these occur in diverse situations, the more important the traits become in describing a person. Thus, traits can be described as individual variables or dimensions.



Lacuna : A blank gap or missing part.

Trait theory is based on the following three assumptions :

1) Traits are common to many individuals but they vary in absolute amount among the individuals.
2) Traits are relatively stable. Their consistent occurrence influences the human behavior.
3) One's trait can be inferred by measuring his/her behavioral indicator.

12.4.1 The Big Five Personality Traits

The **Big Five personality traits** are five broad factors or dimensions of personality discovered through empirical research.

The five factors are Openness, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. They are also referred to as the **Five Factor Model** (FFM).

The Big Five factors and their constituent traits can be summarized as follows:

- **Openness :** Appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, imagination, curiosity, and variety of experience.
- **Conscientiousness :** A tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement; planned rather than spontaneous behaviour.
- **Extroversion :** Energy, positive emotions, and the tendency to seek stimulation and the company of others.
- **Agreeableness :** A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others.
- **Neuroticism :** A tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as anger, anxiety, depression, or vulnerability; sometimes called emotional instability.

Thus, trait theory of personality attempts to understand how a set of personality variables affects on one's behaviour. However, this theory suffers from one ***lacuna*** that it is very descriptive rather than analytical. In fact, no hard evidence supports trait theory as a valid measure of personality.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: What are the determinants of Personality.

.....

.....

Q 2: What is meant by 'Trait'?

.....

.....

- **Type theories**

Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people. Personality types are distinguished from personality traits, which come in different degrees.

Type A and Type B personality theory: During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined what they called Type A and Type B behavior patterns. In this theory, personalities that are more competitive, outgoing, ambitious, impatient and/or aggressive are labeled Type A, while more relaxed personalities are labeled Type B.



Fleeting : Lasting for a markedly brief time.

- **Social learning theory** is a theory of learning and social behavior which proposes that new behaviors can be acquired by observing and imitating others. It states that learning is a cognitive process that takes place in a social context and can occur purely through observation or direct instruction, even in the absence of motor reproduction or direct reinforcement. In addition to the observation of behavior, learning also occurs through the observation of rewards and punishments, a process known as vicarious reinforcement. When a particular behavior is rewarded regularly, it will most likely persist; conversely, if a particular behavior is constantly punished, it will most likely desist. The theory expands on traditional behavioral theories, in which behavior is governed solely by reinforcements, by placing emphasis on the important roles of various internal processes in the learning individual.

12.5 EMOTIONS AND MOODS

To understand the meaning of emotion one needs to clarify three terms that are closely intertwined: affect, emotions, and moods.

1) **Affect :** It is a generic term that covers a broad range of feelings that people experience. It is an umbrella concept that encompasses both emotions and moods.
2) **Emotions :** Emotions are intense feelings that are directed at someone or something.
3) **Moods :** Moods are feelings that tend to be less intense than emotions and that often lacks a contextual stimulus.

Although affect, emotions and moods are separable in theory, in practice the distinction isn't always crystal clear. Most experts believe that emotions are more ***fleeting*** than moods. For example, if someone is rude to you, you will feel angry. That intense feeling of anger probably comes and goes fairly quickly, maybe even in a matter of seconds. When you are in a bad mood, you can feel bad for several hours.

12.5.1 A Basic Set of Emotions

There are dozens of emotions. They include anger, contempt, enthusiasm, envy, frustration, disappointment, embarrassment, disgust, happiness, hate, hope, jealousy, joy, love, pride, surprise, and sadness. There have been numerous research efforts to limit and define the dozens of emotions into a fundamental or basic set of emotions. Though there is disagreement, enough researchers have agreed on six essentially universal emotions – anger, fear, sadness, happiness, disgust, and surprise – with most other emotions subsumed under one of these six categories.

12.6 PERCEPTION

Perceptions vary from person to person. Different people perceive different things about the same situation. But more than that, we assign different meanings to what we perceive. And the meanings might change

for a certain person. One might change one's perspective or simply make things mean something else. Let us take some example:

This is a famous picture. What does it look like?



Figure 12.2

Some people see a young lady looking away. Others see an old lady looking down. Depending on -how we look at it, part of the picture might be the young woman's nose and eyelash, or it might be a wart on the old woman's nose. What is the young woman's ear might be the old woman's eye. What is the young woman's necklace might be the old woman's mouth. The picture hasn't really changed. We just emphasize different parts of it and assign them different meaning.

Look at these two arrows. Which horizontal line is the longest?

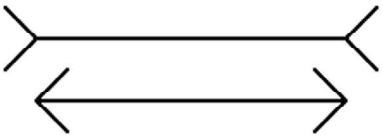


Figure 12.3

They are exactly the same size. However the top one looks longer than the bottom one. It is an optical illusion tricking us into assigning a different meaning to what we see.

We fill in a lot of blanks with our minds. If we have incomplete perceptions, which we practically always do to a certain extent, our minds fill in the rest.

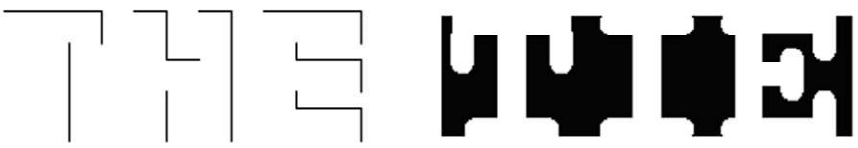


Figure 12.4

Are those letters? Or are they just lines and blotches on the paper? How do we know?

The meaning of something will change when we look at it differently. We can look at anything differently and it will have a different meaning.

There is no fixed meaning to anything. We can always change perspectives and change meanings. Why not change them to what we prefer them to be?

In a simple sense, perception means perceiving i.e., giving meaning to the environment around us. It perceives of objects what we are faced with. We can understand the meaning of perception in a better sense if we go through some definition of it given by some behavioural scientists.

According to UdaiPareek and others, "Perception can be defined as the process of receiving, selection, organization, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data".

Stephen P Robins defines perception as "a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment".

Perception is important in the study of OB because people's behaviouris based on their perception of what reality is, not on reality itself.

12.6.1 Factors Affecting Perception

Factors that influence perception relate to the perceiver, the perceived and the situation. All these factors are of two kinds– (i) Internal (Endogenous) Factors and (ii) External (Exogenous) Factors.



Figure 12.5

1) **Internal Factors :** These factors reside in the person concerned. These include one's needs, desire, personality and experience.

   i) **Needs and Desires :** an individual's perception about stimuli is influenced by inter alia, his needs and desires from time to time.

ii) **Personality :** closely related to needs and desires is the personality of the perceiver, which affects what is attended or perceived in the given situation. As mentioned earlier, research studies suggest that secure individuals tend to understand or perceive others as warm and self-accepting individuals perceive themselves as liked, wanted and accepted by others.

iii) **Experience :** experience and knowledge serve as basis for perception. While one's successful experience enhances his/ her perceptive ability, failure erodes his/ her self-confidence. Successful experience also helps the perceiver understand stimuli with more accuracy.

2) **External Factors :** The external factors relate to what is to be perceived and situation. These are size, intensity, frequency, status, etc.

i) **Size :** the principle of size says that the larger the object, the more is the probability that it is perceived. Size attracts the attention of the individual. A full-page spread advertisement attracts more attention than a few lines in a classified section. The reason is not difficult to seek. The size establishes dominance and enhances perceptual selection.

ii) **Intensity :** intensity is closely related to size. The intensity principle of attention states that more intense the stimuli, the more likely it is to be perceived. As an example, loud noise or strong odor will be noticed more than a soft sound and weak odor. Following the intensity principle, the superiors may yell at their subordinates to gain attention. Advertisers use intensity to attract and gain the consumer's attention.

iii) **Frequency/Repetition :** the repetition principle states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention getting than a single one. It is for this reason that advertisers go

for repetitions advertising to gain the customers attention to their product.

iv) **Contrast :** as per contrast principle, the external stimuli which stand out against the background will receive more attention. For example, plant safety signs with black lettering on a yellow background or while lettering on a red background are more attracting.

v) **Status :** status held by an individual also influences his/her perception about things or events. Researchers suggest that people with high status often exert more influence on the perception of an individual as compared to those holding low status.

vi) **Movement :** the movement principle says that people pay more attention to a moving object than the stationary ones. People will be attracted more by a running train than one standing on the platform.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Fill in the blanks :

a) .....are intense feeling that are directed at someone or something.

b) Affect is a generic term that covers a broad range of .....that people experience.

c) Emotions are more .....than moods.

Q 4: The six essentially universal emotions are :

a) ..... b) .....

c) ..... d) .....

e) ..... f) .....

Q 5: Write the meaning of Perception.

.....

.....

Q 6: What are the internal factors of Perception?

.....



ACTIVITY 12.1

Do we see a vase or do we see two faces looking at each other?

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12.7 CONCEPT OF INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOUR

In the organizational context, interpersonal behaviour refers to a person's ability to interact effectively with other members of the organization like subordinates, peers, and superiors. For example, a manager would have to interact with employees, who report directly to him/her. An employee with good interpersonal skills would essentially have the following qualities:

- Ability to treat everyone in the organization with respect
- Ability to get along with others
- Readiness to share knowledge with others
- Willingness to train others in the organization
- Good negotiation skills
- Ability to resolve conflict in time
- Readiness to accept feedback
- Ability to learn from mistakes
- Readiness to accept responsibility for his/her actions
- Ability to manage behaviour in personal interactions
- Ability to align with team goals in shared activities while pursuing own goals
- Ability to listen to others
- Ability to influence the behaviour of others positively.

12.7.1 Essential Interpersonal Competencies for Managers

Managers need to have good interpersonal skills if they are to be successful. Given below are some of the essential interpersonal competencies required for managers:

- **Self Awareness :** Awareness of your one's individuality.
- **Control :** Control is used in a variety of contexts to express "mastery" or "proficiency":
- **Motivation :** The psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal; the reason for the action; that which gives purpose and direction to behaviour.
- **Communication Skills :** Communication is the process of generation, transmission, or reception of messages to oneself or another entity, usually via a mutually understood set of signs. So, one should have the ability to express his/her message to its subordinates or peers so that correct information can be transmitted.

12.8 TRANSACTION ANALYSIS AND EGO STATES

Eric Berne, an American psychiatrist, developed the transaction analysis (TA) technique in the 1950s. He analyzed the daily transactions that take place among people and described them using simple non-technical language. He defined transaction as follows, "the unit of social intercourse is called a **transaction**. If two or more people encounter each other, sooner or later one of them will speak or give some other indication of acknowledging the presence of others. This is called the **transactional stimulus**. Another person will then say or do something which is in some way related to the stimulus and that is called the **transactional response**." In simple terms, TA can be termed as the method of studying interaction between human beings.

Ego States : According to TA, human beings have three ego states – the Parent, Adult and Child. Each person exhibits these three ego states, which are distinct from each other. These three ego states encompass an individual's personality. Each of these ego states can be considered as a system of communication with its own functions and language.

The Parent tends to be judgmental, critical or nurturing. The free Child tends to be spirited one of creativity and spontaneity and an adaptive and inhibited one that can be either overly rebellious or overly submissive.

The Adult within us deals with here and now reality, listens with an open mind, states opinion tentatively, and is actively engaged in probability estimating and rational decision-making. Management trainees are taught to analyze their interactions with others in terms of the ego states being expressed. Complementary transactions may tend towards improved communication and negative transactions end up in arguments and misunderstanding. It has been suggested that one who is low in Parent, high in Adult, and high in free Child is likely to be most effective in dealing with others.

Strokes : According to the book," I'm OK – you're OK" by Harris, what makes a person feel "OK" or "not OK" is the amount of "stroking" that she or he received of each type: negative, positive or plastic (artificial). The kind of strokes a person wants to receive from others.

Life Positions

I am not ok, you're ok (I hope I can do this job as well as you do)	**I'm not ok, you're not ok** (This is messy, we will not be able to finish this project on time)
I'm ok, you're not ok (You are not going to do it properly. I'll show you how to do it)	**I'm ok, you're ok** (We can do this according to our plan)

All transactions entails two strokes, the stimulus and the response to that stimulus. The behavior observed during transactions falls into three categories, or ego states, that everyone possesses; Parent, Adult and Child. Through a process known as "structural analysis", transaction analysis describes the ego states that occur during a given transaction.

The concept of life position is built on the observation that people have basic feelings about their own ability and the ability of others to think, perform, and feel. An understanding of life positions is useful for managers in identifying the effectiveness of a management style and its influence on communication.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 7: What do you mean by inter personal Behavior?

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.....

Q 8: Write the essential interpersonal competencies for managers.

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12.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed the following:

- Personality can be defined as the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others and environment. Personality differs from person to person depending on their varying psychophysical aspects. The various determinants of personality are broadly classified into three groups, namely, (i) heredity (ii) environment and (iii) situation. The traits theory of personality can be described as individual variables or dimensions.
- Although affect, emotions and moods are separable in theory, in practice the distinction isn't always crystal clear. Most experts believe that emotions are more fleeting than moods.
- Perception can be defined as a process, which involves seeing, receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting and giving meaning to the environment. Factors that influence perception relate to the perceiver, the perceived and the situation.
- Managers need to have good interpersonal skills if they are to be successful. Some of the essential interpersonal competencies required for managers are self-awareness, control, motivation and communication skills.

- Transaction Analysis (TA) can be termed as the method of studying interaction between human beings. According to TA, human beings have three ego states – the Parent, Adult and Child. Each person exhibits these three ego states, which are distinct from each other. These three ego states encompass an individual's personality.



12.10 FURTHER READINGS

1) Gupta, R. N. (2006), *Business Organization and Management*, S. Chand.
2) Khanka, S. S. (2002), *Organizational Behavior*, S. Chand.
3) Robbins, Stephen P. (2005), *Organizational Behavior* (11th Edition), Pearson Education.
4) Tulsian, P. C. and Pandey, Vishal (2002), *Business Organization and Management*, Pearson Education.



12.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: a) Heredity, b) Environment, c) Situation

Ans to Q No 2: It is an enduring characteristic of a person in which he/she differs from others.

Ans to Q No 3: a) Emotions, b) Feelings, c) Fleeting

Ans to Q No 4: a) anger, b) fear, c) sadness, d) happiness, e) disgust, f) surprise.

Ans to Q No 5: Perception is the process of attaining awareness or understanding of sensory information. {Refer Sec. 9.6}

Ans to Q No 6: Needs and desires, Personality, Experience

Ans to Q No 7: Interpersonal behaviour refers to a person's ability to interact effectively with other members of the organization like subordinates,

peers, and superiors.

Ans to Q No 8: Self awareness, control, motivation, acknowledging the interest of subordinates, communication skills.



12.12 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q 1: What do you understand by personality? Describe the various determinants of personality.

Q 2: Explain the traits theory of personality.

Q 3: Distinguish between affect, emotions and moods.

Q 4: Define perception. Discus the internal and external factors which influences perception.

Q 5: List the important skills essential for interpersonal effectiveness.

Q 6: Explain what do you understand by Transaction Analysis. What is meant by ego states? Describe three types of ego states.

Q 7: Write note on stroke.

*** ***** ***

UNIT 13 : GROUP BEHAVIOUR AND TEAM DEVELOPMENT

UNIT STRUCTURE

13.1 Learning Objectives

13.2 Introduction

13.3 Concept of Group and Group Dynamics

13.4 Types of Groups

- 13.4.1 Formal Group
- 13.4.2 Informal Group

13.5 Concept of Group Behaviour

- 13.5.1 Group Norms
- 13.5.2 Group Cohesion
- 13.5.3 Inter-Group Behaviour

13.6 Group Decision-Making

13.7 Team

- 13.7.1 Types of Team

13.8 Team Building and Managing Effective Team

13.9 Let Us Sum Up

13.10 Further Readings

13.11 Answers to Check Your Progress

13.12 Model Questions

13.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to :

- discuss the concept of group and group dynamics
- outline the types of group
- explain group behaviour
- discuss group decision making, its advantages and disadvantages
- learn Inter group behaviour
- identify the difference between group and team
- outline the types of team
- describe team building and managing effective Team.

13.2 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we will discuss Group Behaviour and Team Development. Individuals work in organizations in collections, are known as 'groups'. As a matter of fact, groups have central part of everyday human lives. At any given time, we are members in many different groups, such as, our family, student club, work groups, sport clubs, professional associations, and political parties. At any one time, the average individual belongs to five or six different groups.

In the end of this unit, we will come to know about the differences between group and team, the different types of team and its related topics.

13.3 CONCEPT OF GROUP AND GROUP DYNAMICS

A Group is a collection of two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, which have come together to achieve particular objectives. A group is, thus, an aggregation of people who interact with each other, are aware of one another, have a common objective, and perceive themselves to be a group.

Mere collection of people cannot constitute a group. For example, a crowd in front of a shop in the market watching India vs. Pakistan one-day cricket match in TV will not be called as group because people do not interact with one another, do not know one another, and also do not share a common purpose. Based on these definitions of group, the following characteristics of group can be listed:

1) **Two or More People :** A single individual cannot form a group. For group formation, at least two persons are needed. There is no specific limit on the maximum number of persons to form a group.
2) **Collective Identity :** Each group member knows one another. Each member of the group perceives that he/she is a part of group.
3) **Interaction :** There is an interaction among the members of the group. Each member shares his ideas with each other through different communication methods such as face-to-face communication, in writing, over the telephone, and across a computer network etc.

4) **Common Purpose :** The members of the group work to achieve some common objective or purpose. In fact, it is the common purpose that binds the group members together.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: What do you understand by Group?

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.....

Q 2: What are the characteristics of Group?

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.....

13.4 TYPES OF GROUPS

There are mainly two ways of classifying groups into types: formal and informal groups. Different kinds of formal and informal groups are listed in the table below :

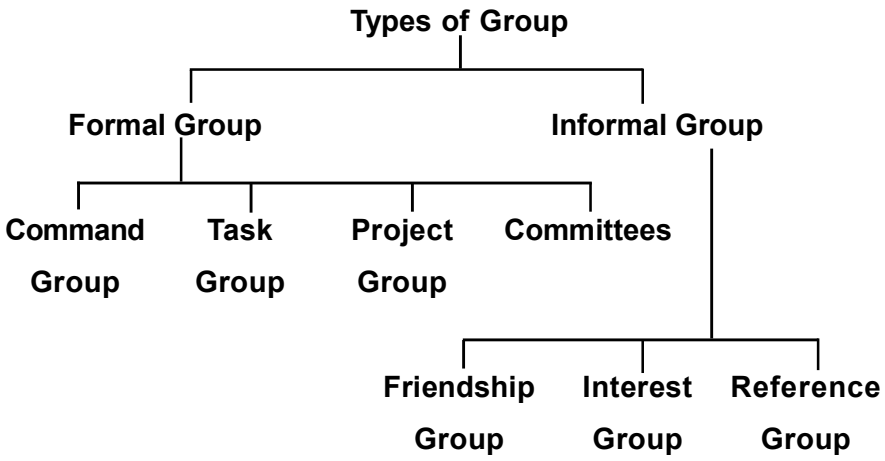


Figure : 13.1

13.4.1 Formal Groups

Groups established by the organization to achieve organizational goals are called formal groups. In formal groups, the behaviour that a member should exhibit is conditioned by organization

and directed towards organizational goals. It is possible to sub-classify formal groups into the following ones:

1) **Command Group :** A command group is composed of a supervisor (manager) and the subordinates who report directly to that supervisor. A command group is determined by the organizational chart. For example, in the Department of Business Administration of XYZ University, e.g., the Head of the department and the other faculty members in the department would comprise a command group.

2) **Task Group :** A task group comprises persons working together to complete a common task. However, a task group can cross command relationship. In a University, for instance, if a student is accused of a campus crime, it may involve interaction among the Head of the Department, the Dean of the school, the Dean of the student's welfare, the ***Proctor***, the Registrar of the University. Here it should be noted that all command groups are task groups, but task groups can cut across the organizational boundary. The reverse need not be true.

3) **Project Group :** Likewise, project groups are formed to complete a specific project. The life of the project group normally coincides with the length of the project. Assigning a research project to a university Professor by the University Grants Commission is an example of a project group.

4) **Committees :** Committees are usually created outside the usual command group structure to solve recurring problems. The life of a committee may be relatively long or short. An example of committees is a University's Examination Discipline Committee created to solve discipline problems relating to examination.

13.4.2 Informal Groups

Groups, which are not formal, are informal. In other words, these are the groups that are neither formally created nor controlled by the organization. These groups are natural formations in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact. Four employees belonging to four different departments taking their lunch together represent an example of an informal group.

The various kinds of informal groups are :

1) **Friendship Groups :** Friendship groups are associations of people who like each other and who like to be together. Such groups are formed because members have one or more common characteristics, such as age or ethnic heritage, political beliefs, religious values, and other bonds of attraction.

2) **Interest Groups :** Interest groups are composed of individuals who may be members of the same organization (command or task groups), but they are united by their interest in a common issue. Examples of interest groups may include a group of University Professors who organize a seminar on Socio- Economic Problems in the North-Eastern Region of India.

3) **Reference Group :** A reference group is a special type of informal group that people use to evaluate themselves. A reference group may or may not be an actual one that meets together; it can be an imaginary group. The reference group for a new group for a new university Lecturer, for example, may be other scholars in the same discipline at other universities.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: State True /False :

a) Command Group and Committees are informal groups. (True/False)

b) Project groups are formed to complete a specific project. (True / False)

c) Friendship groups and Reference groups are informal group. (True / False)

d) Interest groups are composed of individuals who may be members of the same organization, but they are united by their interest in a common issue. (True /false)

Q 4: What do you mean by committees?

.....



ACTIVITY 13.1

Identify the formal and informal groups in your classroom.

.....

.....

.....

13.5 CONCEPT OF GROUP BEHAVIOUR

Groups are composed of individuals. Hence, the group behaviour means behaviour of its members and how in turn it is also affected by them. The nature and patterns of reinforcement the members receive through interaction with one another is also determined by the group itself. This is because the behaviour of individual members in a group becomes different than their behaviour outside the group situation. Therefore while studying group behaviour, the factors that should be considered are group norms, group cohesion, group decision-making etc. They can be discussed as follows:

13.5.1 Group Norms

Group norm is a standard of behaviour. In other words, group norm is a rule that tells the individual how to behave in a particular group. Thus, group norms identify the standards against which the behaviour of group members will be evaluated and help the group members to know what they should or should not do. Norms could be formal or could be informal.

Thus, the group norms have following characteristics;

1) As personality reveals an individual, so group norms do for groups.
2) Norms serve as the basis for behaviour of group members.
3) They predict and control the behaviour of members in groups.
4) Norms are applied to all members of the group, though not uniformly.

13.5.2 Group Cohesion

Group cohesion means the degree to which the group members are attracted to each other and remain within the group. It is usually reflected by its ***resiliency*** to disruption by outside forces. Group cohesion develops out of the activities, interactions and sentiments of the members. Cohesiveness binds all the group members to work as one man to attain the set goals.

Factors to increase Group Cohesiveness : There are various factors that determine group cohesiveness. Factors increasing Group Cohesion are as follows :

1) Inducing agreement on group goals
2) Increasing membership homogeneity
3) Increasing interactions among group members
4) Down-sizing of the group
5) Encouraging competition with other rival groups.
6) Allocating rewards to the group not to the members
7) Keeping the members isolated from other groups.

13.5.3 Inter-Group Behaviour

Organizations are composed of individuals and groups. Organization being a system, both individuals and groups cannot remain independent but dependent on each other. For example, one group may depend on other for raw materials, information and other assistance. The nature of interdependence among different groups can be classified into the following four categories:

a) **Pooled Interdependence :** When the groups belonging to the same parent's organization depend on each other it is called 'pooled interdependence' such groups have limited interaction among them. Manufacturing divisions producing independent products are examples of pooled interdependence.

b) **Sequential Interdependence :** Group activities occurring in a sequential manner create sequential interdependence. For example, group A's activities or operations proceed and act as prerequisite for group B's operations. Assembly line departments represent sequential interdependence.

c) **Reciprocal Interdependence :** When a group relies on the other to perform its own job effectively, it is called 'reciprocal interdependence'. Relationship between union and management is an example of reciprocal interdependence.

d) **Team Interdependence :** The reciprocal interdependence gets multiplied with interaction among multiple groups. The examples of multiple groups may be various departments such as sales, advertising, and market research in marketing division.

The nature and degree of interdependence among groups will influence the degree and quality of inter-group behaviour. Accordingly, groups tend to have the following two types of interactions:

i) **Inter-group openness and co-operation :** Groups being part of an organizational system, each group co-

operates with others to achieve organizational objectives. However, a co-operative relationship does not mean absence of absenteeism among the groups. This is because the groups may not compete with each other but still groups may not be co-operative. The groups may be just indifferent. Factors like subordinate goals, lateral communication, and suitable structural arrangement helps in establishing co-operation among various groups.

ii) **Intergroup closure and competition :** Intergroup relationship becomes competitive in the following situations:

a) One group sees the other group as enemy

b) With decrease in interaction and communication, hostility of one group towards others tends to increase.

c) While interacting with each other, the groups try to defend their own viewpoints and find fault with the others.

As such, relationship among groups neither benefits groups nor organizations. The managers need to take timely actions to overcome these problems.



Consensus : Agreement in the judgement or opinion reached by a group as a whole.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 5: What are the factors involved in Group Behaviour.

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.....

Q 6: What is meant by group cohesion.

.....

.....

Q 7: State whether True or False :

a) Group activities occurring in a sequential manner create sequential interdependence. (True/False)

b) When the groups belonging to the same parent's organization depend on each other it is called 'reciprocal interdependence'. (True/False)

c) When a group relies on the other to perform its own job effectively, it is called 'reciprocal interdependence'. (True/False)

13.6 GROUP DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making is the process whereby a final but best choice is made among the alternatives available. When a group makes decision, it can be either through the ***consensus*** mode or through majority vote. When all members of the group agree to the decision arrived at, it is called 'consensus'. If majority of the group members agree to the decision arrived at, it is called majority vote. Whether the decision arrived at will be consensus or majority mode depends mainly on the size of the group.

Components of Group-Decision Making : The following are the components of group-decision making that should be taken into consideration :

1) Group Size : Research indicates that as the number of members in problem-solving group increases beyond a certain point, the quality of decisions made by the group tends to decrease. This is because the group pressure tends to increase the influence on the decision. Though the size of an ideal group have not been determined, groups consisting of five to seven members have been found to be effective for decision-making. This is because the members of a group of this size get adequate opportunities to express their opinions, listen to others, seek clarifications on points that are not clear, and reach to a ***unanimous*** decision. This does not happen in case of large groups. Nonetheless, larger group may be necessary where variety of skills, knowledge experience and expertise from different functional areas are required for making decisions on critical issue like developing a new product.



Dissent : A difference of opinion.

2) Group Composition : The qualifications of group members also influence the group decision. Group members with higher status, either due to their background or expertise, are likely to exercise ***subtle*** pressure, manipulate force or otherwise alter or shake the thinking of the other group member in a particular direction. Minority group members tend to be highly influenced by such group pressures.

3) Unanimity of Group Consensus : It is found that a united group exerts greater pressure if the group is divided by disagreement. It is worth noticing that consensus doesn't require unanimity but requires no outright ***dissent*** either.

4) The Risky Shift : Research findings are that people tend to make risky decisions when they are engaged in-group decision-making than when the same members make decisions individually. The members involved in group decision making tend to make risky decision as the members shall be collectively responsible for the consequences of such decisions and the same will be shared by all the group members together rather than one individual member shouldering the entire burden. Such phenomenon for groups to make risky decisions is known as the risky shift. Individuals tend to make conservative decisions because the consequences of the decisions will be accepted by the individual alone.

ADVANTAGES OF GROUP DECISION-MAKING : The group decision-making offers the following advantages:

1) Compared to an individual, the groups usually have a greater knowledge, expertise, and skill base to make better decisions.
2) Larger number of members provides more perspectives of the problem. As such, the narrow vision of a single perspective is avoided in making decisions.
3) With larger number of group members, the participation also increases that helps reach at a quality decision.
4) Following are increased group participation, comprehension of final decision arrived at is usually high.

DISADVANTAGES OF GROUP-DECISION MAKING : All is not always good with group decision-making. It suffers from the following disadvantages also:

1) Group decision-making is a time consuming process.
2) Influential members manipulate the group decision in the direction of their liking and interest.
3) Sometimes decisions made by the group members are simply a compromise between the various views and options offered by the group members.

In view of the above disadvantages, there is a need to improve group decisions.

13.7 TEAM

A team comprises a group of people or animals linked in a common purpose. Teams are especially appropriate for conducting tasks that are highly complex and have many interdependent subtasks.

A group in itself does not necessarily constitute a team. Teams normally have members with complementary skills and generate synergy through a coordinated effort which allows each member to maximize his or her strengths and minimize his or her weaknesses.

For example, teams of sports players can form (and re-form) to practice their craft.

13.7.1 Types of Team

The four most common types of teams are: Problem-solving teams, Self-managed work teams, Cross-functional teams, and Virtual teams.

1) **Problem-Solving Teams :** If we look back 20 years or so, teams were just beginning to grow in popularity, and most of those teams took similar form. They were typically composed of 5 to 12 hourly employees from the same departments who met for few hours each week to discuss the ways of improving

quality, efficiency, and the work environment. These groups are called Problem-solving teams.

In problem-solving teams, members share ideas or offer suggestions on how work processes and methods can be improved, although they rarely have the authority to unilaterally implement any of their suggested actions.

2) **Self-Managed Work Teams :** Self-managed work teams are groups of employees (typically 10 to 15 in number) who perform highly related or interdependent jobs and take on many of the responsibilities of their former supervisors. Typically, this includes planning and scheduling of works, assigning tasks to members, collective control over the pace of work, making operating decisions, taking action on problems, and working with suppliers and customers. Fully self-managed work teams even select their own members and have the members evaluate each other's performance. As a result, supervisory positions take on decreased importance and may even be eliminated.

3) **Cross-Functional Teams :** A team can be made up of employees from production, planning, quality, tooling, design, engineering, and information systems to automate a function on a company's special programme. The team's findings may result in drastically reducing cycle time, cost, and improved quality on the special programme. Such a team is called cross-functional team. These are teams made up of employees from about the same hierarchical level, but from different work areas, who come together to accomplish a task.

Cross-functional teams are an effective means for allowing people from diverse areas within an organization to exchange information, develop new ideas and solve problems, and coordinate complex projects.

4) **Virtual Teams :** The above three types of teams do their work face-to-face. Virtual teams use computer technology to tie

together physically dispersed members in order to achieve a common goal. They allow people to collaborate online – using communication links like wide-area networks, video conferencing or e-mail – whether they are only a room away or continents apart.

Virtual teams can do all the things that other teams do– share information, make decisions, complete tasks. And they can include members from the same organization or link an organization's members with employees from other organizations, such as suppliers or joint partners. They can ***convene*** for a few days to solve a problem, a few months to complete a project, or exist permanently.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 8: What are the components of Group-decision making?

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Q 9: Define Team.

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Q 10: Fill in the blanks :

a) In problem-solving teams, members ..... on how work processes and methods can be improved.

b) Self-managed work teams are groups of employees who perform highly ..... jobs and take on many of the responsibilities of their former ....

c) Virtual teams use ..... to tie together physically dispersed members in order to achieve a .....

13.8 TEAM BUILDING AND MANAGING EFFECTIVE TEAMS

Team building consists of activities designed to construct, develop and sustain groups of people who are working together to achieve common goals with a commitment to take collective responsibility. In order to develop andmanage teams effectively, the managers should follow the following tips:

1) **Balanced Roles :** People with different work preferences must gain entry into teams rather than like-minded people.
2) **Open Communication :** Communication should be open, flexible and capable of building trust between people.
3) **Handling Stress :** Working with others in close proximity can itself be stressful. Additionally, we tend to react differently to various work pressures. The key skill which effective teams develop is the ability to recognize when either the individual or the collective stress is becoming a problem and to reduce it altogether.
4) **Team Choices :** These choices must be made explicit. Once the range is known, alternatives could be ascertained. Suppose someone from the team says, “I think teams are good in principle, but in practice they can be a complete waste of time”, Once a response like this come out, the team can begin to deal with it.
5) **Team Goals :** Teams make sense only when there is a common goal, which requires collective action. Defining the team’s purpose is vital. This, then, gives the team members a focus for their energy and action. It is also helpful to set some short-term goals to create gains, which sustain the team as it pursues long-term goals.
6) **Review Mechanism :** For a team’s success, there must be proper control over team’s activities and outcomes. A periodical review is needed to keep everything on track. If it is missing, teamwork will become just another ‘flavor of the mouth’.
7) **Shared Leadership :** Teams need different forms of leadership at different times. Both the leader and the members must be willing to exchange roles, depending on the situation.

8) **Facilitation Skills :** Ensure that team meetings are well organized, allowing enough room for all to express their feelings and thoughts openly.

9) **Consensus:** Team decisions need to be based on consensus, so that all members can agree with and be committed to implementing important decisions. Consensus building does not imply 100 percent agreement on the part of the members. It only indicates the willingness of a member to support the decisions on reaching a certain stage or point.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 11: State the activities involved in Team Building.

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13.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed the following:

- A group may be defined as a collection of people who have a common purpose or objective who interact with each other to accomplish the group objectives, are aware of one another and perceive themselves to be a part of a group. There are mainly two ways of classifying groups into types: formal and informal groups. The group behaviour means behaviour of its members and, in turn, is also affected by them.
- When a group makes decision, it can be either through the consensus mode or through majority vote. When all members of the group agree to the decision arrived at, it is called ‘consensus’. If majority of the group members agree to the decision arrived at, it is called majority vote. Whether the decision arrived at will be consensus or majority mode depends mainly on the size of the group.

- The four most common types of teams are: Problem-solving teams, Self-managed work teams, Cross-functional teams, and Virtual teams. Team building consists of activities designed to construct, develop and sustain groups of people who are working together to achieve common goals with a commitment to take collective responsibility.



13.10 FURTHER READING

1) Drucker Peter F., (1993) *Practice of Management*, Allied Publications, New Delhi.
2) Koontz, Harold &Weihrich, Heinz, (2007) *Essential of Management*, Tata McGraw Hills, New Delhi.
3) Rao V. S. P. & Krishna, V. Hari, (2005) *Management : Text and Cases*, Excel Books, New Delhi.
4) Robbins Stephen, Judge P., Timothy A. (2008) 'Organizational Behavior', Prentice Hall, Delhi.



13.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: A cluster, crowd, or throng; an assemblage, either of persons collected without any regular form or arrangement; as a group of men.

Ans to Q No 2: a) Two or More People, b) Collective Identity, c) Interaction, d) Common Purpose.

Ans to Q No 3: a) False, b) True, c) True, d) True

Ans to Q No 4: A special group delegated to consider some matter.

Ans to Q No 5: a) Group Norms, b) Group Cohesion, c) Inter-Group Behaviour, d) Group Decision-Making.

Ans to Q No 6: Group cohesion means the degree to which the group members are attracted to each other and remain within the group. [Refer Sec. 10.5.2]

Ans to Q No 7: a) True, b) False, c) True

Ans to Q No 8: a) Group Size, b) Group Composition, c) Unanimity of Group Consensus, d) Risk Shift

Ans to Q No 9: Team is a Cooperative unit

Ans to Q No 10: a) Share ideas and offer suggestions, b) Related or independent, c) Computer Technology, common goal

Ans to Q No 11: Balanced role, Open communication, handling stress, Team choices, Team goals, Review mechanism, Shared leadership, Facilitation skills, Consensus.



13.12 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q 1: Define the term 'group'. Why do groups form?

Q 2: How are group decisions made? How can group decisions be made more effective?

Q 3: Explain the concept of inter-group behaviour.

Q 4: What do you understand by team? Describe the most common types of teams.

Q 5: Describe the activities necessary to construct, develop and manage an effective team.

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UNIT 14: CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN MANAGEMENT

UNIT STRUCTURE

14.1 Learning Objectives

14.2 Introduction

14.3 Meaning of Conflict

14.4 Positive and Negative Conflict

14.5 Types of Conflict

- 14.5.1 Personal Conflict
- 14.5.2 Group Conflict
- 14.5.3 Organisational Conflict

14.6 Conflict Management

14.7 Strategies for manageing conflicts

14.8 Third party interventions in Organisations

14.9 Stress management

14.10 Causes or sources of Stress

14.11 Strategies for managing Stress

14.12 Let Us Sum Up

14.13 Further Reading

14.14 Answer to check your progress

14.15 Model Question

14.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to :

- discuss the meaning of Conflict
- outline the types of Conflict
- describe conflict management and Stress management
- explain the sources of Stress and Stress management Strategies

14.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit is the last unit of this course and it explains about the

contemporary issues in management like the concepts of conflict and stress in the organisation.Let us discuss it in the detail. Conflict is an essential part of organizational life. It takes many forms and stems from many sources. Conflict can be a serious problem in any organization. If not handled properly, it can hurt an organization's performance. Managers, therefore, have to take appropriate steps in order to manage conflict in a constructive way.

Stress is a fact of everyday life. When people reach out for help, they are often dealing with circumstances, situations, and stressors in their lives that leave them feeling emotionally and physically overwhelmed. Many people feel that they have very little resources or skills to deal with the high levels of stress they are experiencing. When something happens to us, we automatically evaluate the situation mentally. We decide if it is threatening to us, how we need to deal with the situation, and what skills we can use. If we decide that the demands of the situation outweigh the skills we have, then we label the situation as "stressful". If we decide that our coping skills outweigh the demands of the situation, then we don't see it as "stressful."

Stress is a state of psychological and physiological imbalance resulting from the disparity between situational demand and the individual's ability and motivation to meet those needs. Stress can come from any situation or thought that makes one feel frustrated, angry, or anxious. Everyone sees situations differently and has different coping skills. For this reason, no two people will respond exactly the same way to a given situation.

14.3 MEANING OF CONFLICT

Conflict is a disagreement between two or more parties, such as individuals, groups, departments, organizations or countries, who perceive that they have incompatible concerns. Conflict exist whenever an action by one party is perceived as interfering with the goals, needs or actions of another party. Conflicts can arise for several reasons, some of them are:

- Incompatible goals
- Differences in the interpretation of facts
- Negative feelings
- Variations in values and philosophies

- Disputes over shared success

Conflict is neither good nor bad. The outcome of a conflict is the criterion for determining whether the conflict is functional (conflict that supports organization's goal) or dysfunctional (conflict that prevents an organization from achieving its goal), that is, whether it has positive or negative outcomes for concerned parties.

14.4 POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE CONFLICT

Positive Attitude towards Conflict: Conflicts in organizations can be positive forces. The creation and resolution of conflict can lead to constructive problem solving. The need to resolve conflict can lead people to search for ways of changing how they do things. The conflict-resolution process can stimulate innovation and positive change, as well as make change acceptable. A positive attitude towards conflict encourages people to solve their differences, to participate in developing an ethical and fair organization, and to directly handle injustice.

Negative Attitude towards Conflict: Conflict can also have serious negative effects, diverting attention from the goal and depleting resources, especially time and money. Conflict can negatively affect the psychological wellbeing of employees and cause stress. Severe conflicting thoughts, ideas, and beliefs can lead to resentment, tension, and anxiety. Over an extended period, conflicts can make it difficult to create and maintain supportive and trusting relationships. When cooperation is required, severe conflict and competition hurts performance. Deep and lasting conflicts that are not addressed can even trigger violence among employees or between employees or others



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q1: Define Conflict

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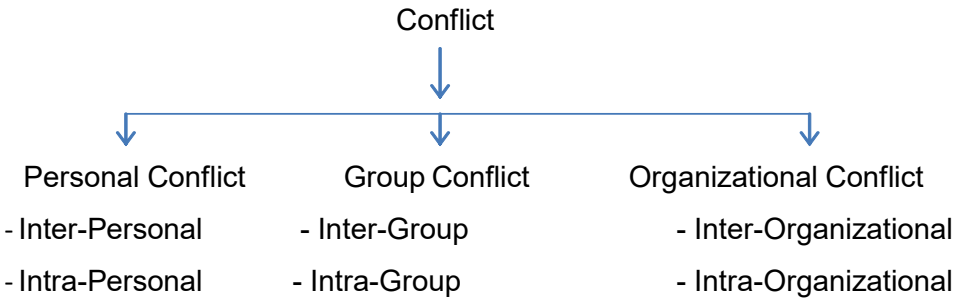
Q2: Name the two forces of conflict.

a. .....

b. .....

14.5 TYPES OF CONFLICT

Conflict in organizations manifests itself in different forms. Broadly there are three types of conflict: personal, group, and organizational. All these types can be further classified in terms of being "intra" meaning within, and "inter", meaning across. These conflicts are interrelated and affect each other in organization.



14.5.1 Personal Conflict

1. **Inter-personal Conflict:** Inter-personal conflict involves two or more individuals rather than one individual. Two men vying for the same accommodation, two mangers competing for the same promotion, two executives maneuvering for a larger share of corporate capital are examples of conflict between individuals are quite familiar. So inter-personal conflict occur when two person's attitudes, behavior, and actions are in

opposition. Personality clashes lead to interpersonal conflicts in organizations. Inter-personal conflict also results when there is a lack of clarity in terms of understanding one's role in a given situation with respect to another person. The most commonly cited reasons for interpersonal conflict are: personality differences, differences in perception, clashes of values and interests and power and status differences.

2. **Intra-Personal Conflict:** Intra-personal conflict is internal to the person and is probably the most difficult type of conflict to analyze. All people have needs and these needs form the basis for their behavior at work, at home, at play and in every activity they pursue. Everything people do are directed at satisfying some need. Need satisfaction spur people on; non-satisfaction of needs frustrates people and lead to behavior that negatively affects job performance. Organizations are basically formed for the purpose of meeting humanistic and economic needs of individuals. However, the nature of formal organization is such that it tends to create innumerable problems for individuals working therein. The goals of organization life are in direct conflict with the individual goals of workers causing them to be frustrated, alienated and threatened. It happens because the person is not clear about his role; he sets two mutually exclusive goals for himself. An individual is expected to play a variety of role in his life. A role is a set of expectations placed on any individual by other. The person who occupies the role becomes the role incumbent, and there are other surrounding the person and having certain expectations from him. Since it is practically impossible to live up to everyone's expectations, the role incumbent starts experiencing frustration and anxiety from within. These ultimately lead to interpersonal conflict.

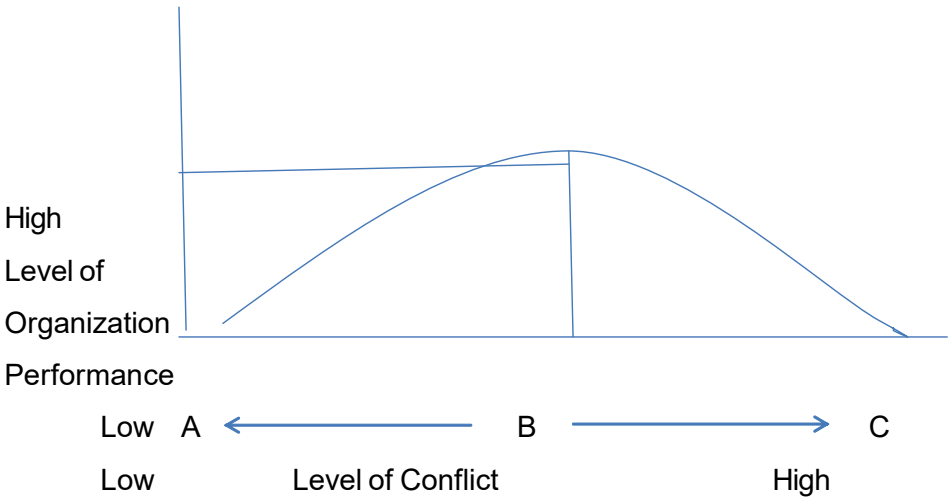


Figure 14.1 : Level of conflict and organisational Performance

Situation	Level of Conflict	Type of Conflict	Organization's Internal Characteristics	Level of Organizational Performance
A	Low	Dysfunctional	Apathetic, Stagnant, Unresponsive to change, Lack of new ideas	Low
B	Optimal	Functional	Viable, Self-critical, Innovative	High
C	High	Dysfunctional	Disruptive, Chaotic, Uncooperative	Low

Table 14.1 : Types of conflict and organisational Performance

14.5.2 Group Conflict

1. **Inter-Group Conflict:** Conflicts between teams and groups are termed inter-group conflicts. They result because of opposition, disagreements, and disputes between the teams. It can have both positive and negative consequences. On the positive side, the intergroup conflict increases the cohesiveness among the group members, thereby generating enhanced

commitment and loyalty towards the group. On the negative side, it distances people from each other in organizations and enhances the gap between teams and departments.

A heightened level of intergroup conflict can be dysfunctional for organizations. In organizations when groups compete for a common goal in situation of scarce resources, such conflicts are likely to result in hostility towards each other. Managers should try to encourage cooperative behavior among members and also try not to be prejudiced towards certain groups or individuals. They should encourage intergroup or interdepartmental activities so that a desirable level of trust can be established.

2. **Intra-group Conflict:** Intragroup conflict is a form of interpersonal conflict. It includes disagreements within group members on certain issues, thereby leading to ineffectiveness in the group's functioning. It is very common feature of family-run businesses where the conflict becomes more intense when the owner or the founder is about to retire or dies untimely. The conflict between the Ambani brothers of the Reliance Group is a recent example of intergroup conflict.

14.5.3 Organizational conflict

1. **Inter-organizational Conflict:** Conflicts between organizations are termed inter-organizational conflicts. An example of this form of conflict is the Pepsi-Cola war in the recent past. Corporate takeovers, mergers, acquisitions can also produce inter-organizational conflict. The degree of conflict generated may depend on the extent to which the organization create uncertain conditions for competitors, suppliers or customers and try to control the same resources. Attempts to resolve inter-organizational conflicts can be made so that it creates a positive impact on organizational performance and result in the formation of strategic alliances and partnership.

2. **Intra-organizational Conflict :** Intra-organizational conflicts occur across departments in an organization, within work teams and other groups, and between individuals. It is widely acknowledged that intra-organizational disputes can negatively impact an organization in significant way. These disputes can reduce productivity, harm morale and diminish a stated goal of hiring and retaining the best qualified and competent employees. Mediation/arbitration techniques are increasingly being utilized to manage and resolve intra-organizational conflict.

14.6 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Conflict may be harmful to an organization, but there are times when it is useful. It is for this reason the managers must learn to recognize the difference between constructive and destructive conflict situations, analyze and manage carefully.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q3: Write the meaning of Inter-personal conflict.

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Q4: What is Intra-orgnisational Conflict?

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14.7 STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING CONFLICTS

People can handle interpersonal conflict in five ways or styles. The styles are identified by their locations on two dimensions: (i) concern for self and (ii) concern for others. The desire to satisfy one's own concerns depends on the extent to which one is assertive or unassertive in pursuing personal goals. Again, one's desire to satisfy the concern of others depends

on the extent to which one is cooperative or uncooperative.

The five interpersonal conflict handling styles represent various combinations of assertiveness and cooperation. The choice and use of the five conflict handling styles is likely to depend on both, the nature of the situation factors and the individuals. The figure below is reflective of a useful two dimensional model of understanding and comparing the conflict resolution behaviors. These represent different combinations of assertiveness and cooperativeness.

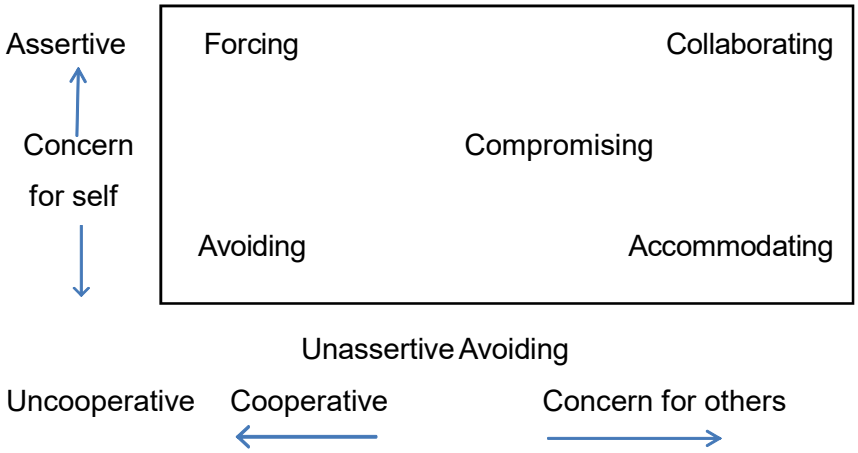


Figure 14.2 : Two dimensional Model of conflict resolution behaviour

1. **Avoiding or Withdrawal Style:** This enables a person to stay away from conflict, ignore disagreements, or remain neutral. This style reflects an aversion to tension and frustrations and may involve a decision to let a conflict work itself out. This strategy is associated with behaviors such as withdrawal, indifference, evasion, apathy, flight, reliance upon fate and isolation. The parties to conflict fail to address important problems. As a result, the conflict is not effectively resolved, nor it is eliminated.
2. **Forcing or Dominating Style:** It refers to assertive and uncooperative behaviors and represent a win-lose approach to interpersonal conflict. Those who use the forcing approach try to attain their own goals without concern for others. This style includes aspects of coercive power and dominance. It may help a person achieve individual goals, but as with avoiding style, forcing tends to result in an unfavorable evaluation by others. This style is power-oriented and is associated with direct

physical aggression and heavy reliance on punishment to gain control over others. One party's gain is another party's loss. It does little to discover innovative, constructive solution acceptable to all.

3. **Accommodating or Smoothing Style:** This refers to cooperative and unassertive behavior. Accommodation may represent an unselfish act, a long-term strategy to encourage cooperation by others, or submission to the wishes of others. While some favorably evaluate individuals using the accommodating style, others may perceive them as weak and submissive. When using accommodating style, an individual can act as though the conflict will go away in time and can appeal for cooperation. The person will try to reduce tensions and stress by reassurance and support. The emphasis is on the common interests of the conflicting group and a de-emphasis on their differences. Parties will be generous and self-sacrificing. Smoothing is more sensitive approach than withdrawal approach. Smoothing can be used when temporary solution is needed in the short run.
4. **Collaborating or Win-Win Style:** It refers to strong, cooperative, and assertive behavior. It is the win-win approach to interpersonal conflict handling. A person using collaboration desires to maximize joint results. Parties openly share information, attempt to listen and develop empathy. There is an attempt to depersonalize the issue. Parties debate the issue of bringing together all relevant information, consider full range of alternatives and try to solve problem rather than merely trying to accommodate different points of view. Through sharing of information and communicating, the problem is mutually defined. All parties are seen as playing a constructive role.
5. **Compromising or Lose-Lose Style:** This refers to behavior at an intermediate level of cooperation and assertiveness. People using this style engage in a give and take strategy and can make series of concessions. This is a traditional method of resolving conflicts. There is no distinct winner or loser because each party is expected to give up something of value for a concession. In this style, the emphasis is on the process of compromise and bargaining. Unlike the collaborating style, the compromising style does not maximize mutual satisfaction. Compromise achieves moderate but partial satisfaction.

Effectiveness of Various Styles

Research on various interpersonal conflict handling styles shows that collaboration tends to be the more successful and high performing among the others.

People tend to perceive collaboration in terms of constructive use of conflict. Collaboration seems to result in positive feeling in others, as well as favorable self-evaluation of performance and abilities.

In contrast to collaboration, forcing and avoiding often have negative effects. These styles tend to be associated with less constructive use of conflict, negative feelings from others, and unfavorable evaluation of performance and abilities. Accommodation sometimes results in positive feelings from others, but these individuals do not favorably evaluate the performance and abilities of those using the accommodating style. The use of compromising style is followed by positive feelings from others. However, each style has particular strengths and weaknesses, and no one option is ideal for every situation. The Table below describes when each is best used:

STRATEGY	BEST USED WHEN
Avoidance	Conflict is trivial, when emotions are running high and time is needed to cool them down, or when the potential disruption from an assertive action outweighs the benefits of resolution.
Accommodation	The issue under dispute is not that important to you or when you want to build up credits for later issues.
Forcing	You need a quick resolution on important issues that require unpopular actions to be taken and when commitment by others to your solution is not critical.
Compromise	Conflicting parties are about equal in power, when it is desirable to achieve a temporary solution to a complex issue, or when time pressures demand an expedient solution.
Collaboration	Time pressures are minimal, when all parties seriously want a win-win solution, and when the issue is too important to be compromised.

Table 14.2 : Effectiveness of various styles



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q5: Name any three styles of strategies for managing conflict

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....

14.8 THIRD-PARTY INTERVENTIONS IN ORGANISATIONS

Some conflicts simply cannot be resolved by those involved in the dispute. This lesson will explain the use of third-party interventions to help disputants resolve conflict they could not solve on their own.

In today's complex organizations, there are a variety of reasons why conflict might occur over things like competing agendas, differences of opinions, limited resources, time constraints, and conflicting departmental needs.

Many of these conflicts can be solved by those directly involved in the conflict; however, there are times when those involved in these conflicts find that they are unable to manage their differences by themselves.

The term third party is used to describe a person or group of people who intervene to help those involved in a dispute resolve their conflict.

There are many roles a third party might have in a conflict situation. A third party might act as a facilitator to help organize and arrange meetings between the disputing parties, set agendas, guide productive discussions, and keep a recording of what is being discussed.

A third party might also serve as a consultant by helping the disputing parties analyze and understand the reasons for the conflict so that they can plan a resolution strategy. Both the facilitator and consultant roles allow for minimal involvement from the third party. Unfortunately, not all conflicts can be resolved with this minimal approach, and occasionally, a more invasive strategy is needed.

Resolving Conflict through Negotiation: Negotiation is a means of resolving differences between people. In the process of negotiation, not only are different opinions are taken into account, but also individual needs, aims, interests and differences in background and culture.

a. The Win-Lose Approach to Negotiation: Negotiation is sometimes seen in terms of 'getting your own way', 'driving a hard bargain' or 'beating off the opposition'. While in the short term bargaining may well achieve the aims for one side, it is also a Win-Lose approach. This means that while one side wins the other loses and this outcome may well damage future relationships between the parties. It also increases the likelihood of relationships breaking down, of people walking out or refusing to deal with the 'winners' again and the process ending in a bitter dispute. While this form of bargaining may be acceptable in the market place, and even expected in some cultures, for most situations it has drawbacks. These drawbacks can have serious consequences if applied to social situations\

b. The Win-Win Approach to Negotiation: Many professional negotiators prefer to aim towards what is known as a Win-Win solution. This involves looking for resolutions that allow both sides to gain. In other words, negotiators aim to work together towards finding a solution to their differences that results in both sides being satisfied. This means not allowing the disagreement to damage the interpersonal relationship, not blaming the others for the problem and aiming to confront the problem not the people. This can involve actively supporting the other individuals while confronting the problem.

14.9 STRESS MANAGEMENT

Stress is a condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint or demand related to what one desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important. According to this widely accepted definition, stress is associated with (i) constraints or demands, (ii) uncertainty over the outcome which is regarded as important. Stress can be constructive (positive) or destructive (negative):

Stress is good when the situation offers an opportunity to a person to gain something. It acts as a motivator for peak performance

Constructive Stress (or Eustress) can indicate a situation where the individual is in balance or behaves within tolerable limits. Low or moderate amount of stress can act in a constructive or energizing way. Moderate stress can increase effort, stimulate creativity and encourage diligence in one's work. It can be equated with tension that causes one to work hard before exams, pay attention in class, and complete project/assignments on time. The same positive results of stress can be found in the workplace.

Stress is negative when a person faces social, physical, organizational and emotional problems.

Destructive Stress (or Distress) is not healthy for the individual and/or organizations. Distress would indicate effects that are out of balance or outside the tolerance limits. Excessive stress may lead to overload and breakdown of a person's physical and mental systems. Performance may suffer and persons may react to high stress through absenteeism, errors, accidents, reduced performance etc.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q6: Define Negotiation.

.....

.....

Q7: Define Stress

.....

.....

14.10 CAUSES OR SOURCES OF STRESS

Factors that are responsible for causing stress are called **stressors**.

A. Causes of Stress at Work: The major causes of stress at work or in organization:



Causes of Stress at Work

Let us discuss the causes of stress at work at work in detail :

1. ***Career Concern:*** If an employee feels that he is very much behind in the corporate ladder, then he may experience stress. If he seems that there are no opportunities for self-growth, he may experience stress. Hence, unfulfilled career expectations are the significant source of stress.
2. ***Role Ambiguity:*** It occurs when the person doesn't know what he is supposed to do, on the job. His tasks and responsibilities are not clear. The employee is not sure what he is expected to do. It creates confusion in the minds of the worker and results in stress.
3. ***Rotating Work Shifts:*** Stress may occur in those individuals who work on different work shifts. Employees may be expected to work on day shift for some days and then on the night shift. That may create problems in adjusting to the shift timings, and it can affect not only personal life but also family life of the employee.
4. ***Role Conflict:*** It takes place when people have different expectations from the person performing a particular role. It can also occur if the

job is not as per expectation, or when a job demands a certain type of behavior that is against the person's moral values.

5. ***Occupational Demands***: Some jobs are more demanding than others. Jobs that involve risk and danger are more stressful. Research findings indicate, job that cause stress needs constant monitoring of equipment and devices, unpleasant physical conditions, making decisions, etc.
6. ***Lack of Participation in Decision-making:*** Many experienced employees feel that management should consult them on matters affecting their jobs. In reality, the superiors hardly ask the concerned employees before taking a decision. That develops a feeling of being neglected, which may lead to stress.
7. ***Work Overload:*** Excessive workload leads to stress as it puts a person under tremendous pressure. Work overload may take two different forms:
   a. Qualitative work overload implies performing a job that is complicated or beyond the employee's capacity.
   b. Quantitative work overload is a result of many activities performed in a prescribed time.
8. ***Work Under load:*** In this, case, too little work or very easy work is expected on the part of the employee. Doing less work or jobs of routine and simple nature would lead to monotony and boredom, which can lead to stress.
9. ***Poor Working Conditions***: Employees may be subject to poor working conditions. It would include bad lighting and ventilation, unhygienic sanitation facilities, excessive noise, and dust, presence of toxic gasses and fumes, inadequate safety measures, etc. All these unpleasant conditions create physiological and psychological imbalance in humans thereby causing stress.
10. ***Lack of Group Cohesiveness:*** Every group is characterized by its cohesiveness, although they differ widely in its degree. Individuals experience stress when there is no unity among work group members.

There are mistrust, jealousy, frequent quarrels, etc., in groups and this lead to stress to employees.

11. ***Interpersonal and Intergroup Conflict:*** These conflicts take place due to differences in perceptions, attitudes, values and beliefs between two or more individuals and groups. Such conflicts can be a source of stress for group members.
12. ***Organizational Changes:*** When changes occur, people have to adapt to those changes, and this may cause stress. Stress is higher when changes are significant or unusual like transfer or adoption of new technology.
13. ***Lack of Social Support:*** When individuals believe that they have the friendship and support of others at work, their ability to cope with the effects of stress increases. If this kind of social support is not available, then an employee experiences more stress.

B. Causes of Stress outside Work: There are certain factors outside the scope of an organization also cause stress. The main causes of stress outside work or organization:



Figure 14.4 : Causes of stress outside work

Let us discuss the causes of stress outside work in detail:

1. ***Civic Amenities:*** Poor civic amenities in the area in which one lives can be a cause of stress. Inadequate or lack of public facilities like improper water supply, excessive noise or air pollution, lack of proper

transport facility can be quite stressful.

2. ***Life Changes:*** Life changes can bring stress to a person. Life changes can be slow or sudden. Gradual life changes include getting older, and abrupt life changes include death or accident of a loved one. Sudden life changes are highly stressful and very difficult to cope.
3. ***Frustration:*** Frustration is another cause of stress. It arises when goal-directed behavior gets blocked. Management should attempt to remove barriers and help the employees to reach their goals.
4. ***Racial, Caste, and Religious Conflicts:*** Employees living in areas, which are often prone to conflicts among people based on differences seen in their race, caste and religion do suffer more from stress. In the case of a religion, the minorities and lower-caste people (especially in India) are subject to more stress.
5. ***Personality:*** 'Type A' and 'Type B' personalities. The characteristics of Type A personalities gravitate towards occupations that encourage heavy work. They are ambitious, hard-driving and set tough targets for themselves. They are willing to oppose others to get what they want. They take on increasing amount of work and work at incredible speed, in order to meet deadlines. They are fiercely competitive and would like to win all the time. They feel guilty while relaxing. They get irritated by minor mistakes of self and others. They feel impatient and dislike waiting. They also multitask and prefer to do several things at one time. The 'Type B' people are exactly opposite. They do not work against the clock, rather work at a steadier pace. They set reasonable target for themselves and do not feel the pressures.The Type A's are more prone to stress than Type B's
6. ***Technological Changes:*** When there are any changes in technical fields, employees are under the constant fear of losing jobs or need to adjust to new technologies. It can be a source of stress.
7. ***Career Changes:*** When a person suddenly switches to another job, he is under stress to shoulder new responsibilities adequately. Under-promotion, over-promotion, demotion and transfers can also cause stress.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q8: Write any three causes of stress outside work

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....

14.11 STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING STRESS

As noted in the Introduction, you can learn to manage stress. The first step is understanding yourself better—how you react in different situations, what causes you stress, and how you behave when you feel stressed. Once you've done that, take the following steps:

1. ***Set priorities***. Use the time-management tips. Make a To-Do-list. Decide what is really important to get done today, and what can wait. This helps you to know what you are working on, your most immediate priorities, and you don't have the stress of trying to remember what you should be doing.
2. ***Practice facing stressful moments***. Think about the event or situation you expect to face and rehearse your reactions. Find ways to practice dealing with the challenge. If you know that speaking in front of a group frightens you, practice doing it, perhaps with a trusted friend or fellow student. If the pressure of taking tests causes you to freeze up, buy some practice tests at the bookstore or online and work with them when there are no time pressures.
3. ***Examine your expectations***. Try to set realistic goals. It's good to push yourself to achieve, but make sure your expectations are realistic. Watch out for perfectionism. Be satisfied with doing the best you can. Nobody's perfect—not you, not your fellow classmate, nobody. Allow people the liberty to make mistakes, and remember that mistakes can be a good teacher.

4. ***Live a healthy lifestyle***. Get plenty of exercise. Eat healthy foods. Allow time for rest and relaxation. Find a relaxation technique that works for you—prayer, yoga, meditation, or breathing exercises. Look for the humor in life, and enjoy yourself.
5. ***Learn to accept change as a part of life***. Nothing stays the same. Develop a support system of friends and relatives you can talk to when needed. Believe in yourself and your potential. Remember that many people from disadvantaged backgrounds have gone on to enjoy great success in life.

   At the same time, avoid those activities that promise release from stress while actually adding to it. Drinking alcohol, drinking caffeine, smoking, using narcotics, and overeating - all add to the body's stress in addition to their other harmful effects.

Here are some ***other strategies*** for dealing with stress:

- Schedule time for vacation, breaks in your routine, hobbies, and fun activities.
- Try to arrange for uninterrupted time to accomplish tasks that need your concentration. Arrange some leisure time during which you can do things that you really enjoy.
- Avoid scheduling too many appointments, meetings, and classes back-to-back. Allow breaks to catch your breath. Take a few slow, deep breaths whenever you feel stressed. Breathe from the abdomen and, as you exhale, silently say to yourself, "I feel calm."
- Become an expert at managing your time. Read books, view videos, and attend seminars on time management. Once you cut down on time wasters, you'll find more time to recharge yourself.
- Learn to say "no." Setting limits can minimize stress. Spend time on your main responsibilities and priorities rather than allowing other people's priorities or needs to dictate how you spend your time.
- Exercise regularly to reduce muscle tension and promote a sense of well-being.
- Tap into your support network. Family, friends, and social groups can

help when dealing with stressful events.

Further, the following habits can remarkably help to relieve stress:

Regular meditation,

Physical exercise,

Balanced diet,

Focused thinking,

Control of anger,

Managing Depression,

Maintaining calmness in stressful situations,

Having a positive attitude towards life,

Harmony towards self and others, etc.



14.12 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed about conflict and stress management.Conflicts exist whenever an action by one party is perceived as interfering with the goals, needs, or action of another party. Conflict is inevitable and has the potential to be dysfunctional, but if managed constructively, it can be functional and enhance performance. Attitude towards conflict may range from positive to negative. Sources of conflict can be identified as scarcity of resources, specialization, interdependence, incompatible goals, status differences, incompatible personalities, differences in perception, and differences in values, communication distortions, and cultural barriers.

Conflict can be divided into various types. The first is intrapersonal conflict, which is the result of tensions and frustrations within the individual. This can be based on role conflict including intra-role conflict, inter-role conflict and person-role conflict, and goal conflict. The second type is interpersonal conflict which occurs where there is opposition in two person's attitudes, behaviors and actions. The third type is intragroup conflict that can be summarized as a form of interpersonal conflict. The fourth type is intergroup conflict occurring between teams and groups. It results because

of opposition, disagreements, and disputes between teams. The fifth type of conflict is inter-organizational conflict, which occurs between organizations. Sixth form of conflict is intra-organizational which remains hidden, or covert, and if not managed properly may cause malfunctioning of the organization.

One of the techniques of resolving conflict is through third-party mediation, which requires the involvement of a third-party consultant to settle the dispute between two parties. The process of third party mediation involves of opening, information sharing, exchanging and negotiating, reaching an agreement and concluding. Negotiation occurs when two or more conflicting parties attempt to resolve their divergent goals. Different strategies for negotiations are distributive bargaining and integrative bargaining. The most distinctive feature of distributive bargaining is that it operates under a zero-sum game, that is, the gain made by one person is the loss incurred by the other person, and integrative bargaining is characterized by win-win situation and, therefore, uses a collaborative style of conflict resolution.

Again, we discussed about stress management.Stress has a disastrous effect on both the quality of life and the quality of work life. A variety of factors contribute towards stress. Sometimes, stress can be functional and may add up to the energy levels of the incumbents, but most of the time it is dysfunctional and has a negative impact. Stress can be classified lsin two ways – constructive vs destructive stress. The sources of stress can be traced back to both the personal life and the work life of individuals. The personal factors leading to stress are life changes, personal problems, and possessing a Type A personality. The organizational factors leading to stress are task demands, role demands, and physical demands.



14.13 FURTHER READING

1) P. C. Tulsian & Pandey Vishal (2008). Business organization andmanagement. New Delhi, Pearson Education Ltd.

2) Knootz Harold & Weihrich Heinz (2007). Essentials of management: An international perspective. New Delhi, Tata McGraw Hill.

3) Massie Joseph (2007). Essentials of management. New Delhi, Prentice – Hall of India Pvt. Ltd.



14.14 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: Conflict is a disagreement between two or more parties, such as individuals, groups, departments, organizations or countries, who perceive that they have incompatible concerns.

Ans to Q No 2: a. Positive Attitude towards Conflict
b. Negative Attitude towards Conflict

Ans to Q No 3: Inter-personal conflict involves two or more individuals rather than one individual. For example, two men vying for the same accommodation, two mangers competing for the same promotion.

Ans to Q No 4: Intra-organizational conflicts occur across departments in an organization, within work teams and other groups, and between individuals.

Ans to Q No 5: a. Avoiding or Withdrawal Style
b. Forcing or Dominating Style
c. Accommodating or Smoothing Style

Ans to Q No 6: Negotiation is a means of resolving differences between people.

Ans to Q No 7: Stress is a condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint or demand related to what one desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important.

Ans to Q No 8: a. Frustration
b. Racial, Caste, and Religious Conflicts
c. Personality



14.15 MODEL QUESTIONS

Q 1: What is conflict? Should some conflicts be encouraged?

Q 2: Describe the five primary conflict resolution techniques.

Q 3: Discuss the different types of conflict. How do role-related conflicts differ from goal-related conflicts? Explain with examples.

Q 4: The styles of conflict handling are based on assertiveness and cooperativeness. Discuss the different styles that emerged based on these two dimensions. Which is the most effective style?

Q 5: Is integrative bargaining more effective than distributive bargaining? Will integrative negotiation always work? Explain.

Q 6: Assess different techniques for managing conflict in organizations with their relative effectiveness.

Q 7: Some people feel that conflict is necessary for organizations activity. Explain why?

Q 8: Distinguish between intragroup and intergroup conflicts.

Q 9: Assume that you found an apartment that you wanted to rent and the ad had said, “Rs 30,000/- per month, negotiable”. What could you do to improve the likelihood that you would negotiate the lowest possible price?

Q 10: Define stress. What are the factors that contribute to stress and their impact on human and organizations?

Q 11: How do work overload, role conflict, and role ambiguity contribute to employee stress?

Q 12: Highlight the process of management of stress with the help of an example

Q 13: Discuss the major strategies for coping with stress.

Q 14: Describe the symptoms and consequences of stress.

Q 15: Discuss the various sources of stress.

Q 16: Discuss the individual as well as organizational stress handling strategies aimed at preventing and eliminating them.

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4) Gupta R.N. (2006), '*Business Organisation and Management'*, New Delhi, S. Chand &b Company Ltd.
5) Knootz Harold & Weihrich Heinz (2007), '*Essentials of Management: An international perspective*'. New Delhi, Tata McGraw Hill.
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7) P. C. Tulsian & Pandey Vishal (2008), '*Business organization and Management'*. New Delhi, Pearson Education Ltd.
8) Rao, V. S. P. and Hari Krishna, V.(2009), *'Management : Text and Cases'*, Excel Books, New Delhi.
9) Robbins, Stephen P., Judge, Timothy A. and Sanghi Seema(2010), *'Organizational Behavior'*, Prentice Hall, Delhi.
10) Smarth, M. W. & Siriya M. Pratibha (2001), '*Fundamentals of Management: Perspective Management*'. New Delhi, S. Chand & Company Ltd.