

Block

2

INTRAPERSONAL PROCESSES

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BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This block covers various intra personal processes which take place in an organisation. It has four units. The first unit covers the definitions, theories and concept of Personality. It also explains how values and attitudes of an individual play an important role in organisations. The second unit deals with the principles, and applications of learning in organisations. Then the concept of behaviour modification and its impact in organisations is explained. The third unit deals with perception and attribution. The last unit is on the motivation which explains its importance and the organisation's role in motivating its employees.



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UNIT 4 PERSONALITY, VALUES AND ATTITUDES

Objectives

After going through this unit you should be able to understand:

- importance of understanding human behaviour;
- types, determinants and approaches to personality;
- theories of personality;
- importance of personality and its impact on OB; and
- concepts of attitude, value and socialisation.

Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Models to Understand Human Behaviour
- 4.3 Implications for the Organisation
- 4.4 Personality
- 4.5 Determinants of Personality
- 4.6 Type and Trait Approaches to Personality
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- 4.14 Schein Socialisation Model
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4.1 INTRODUCTION

Personality is a concept that we use continuously in our day-to-day routine while dealing with people. Personality can be reflected in a person's temperament and is a key factor influencing individual behaviour in organisations. The study of personality is very essential and helpful in ensuring effective job performance. This means that the personality of an individual represents personal characteristics

and traits which can lead to consistent patterns of behaviour. So while trying to understand the personality, it is to be understood that the behaviour is the outcome of a complex interaction between the person and the situation. Hence, it will be necessary to have knowledge of those personality traits which predetermine the parameters for employee's (or people's) behaviour and thus provide a paradigm for predicting behaviour. The theories of personality are many, and most important of them are trait, type, psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, and self-theory. Each theory seeks to add a new perspective to the nature of personality.

It is very essential to understand human behaviour in today's world as the existence of the organisation depends on the employees/individuals.

Without understanding human behaviour it is very difficult to work in an organisation. In order to understand human behaviour let us see how the perception of human being has changed from time to time.

All organisations are composed of individuals, with different personality, attitudes, values, perception, motives, aspirations and abilities. The main reason to understand behaviour is that individuals are different. No two individuals are similar. In the early studies, theories of organisation and management treated people as though they were the same; scientific management was based on the similarities among workers, not the differences. In contrast, modern theories of human behaviour are based upon the differences among people and how those differences can affect the organisation. Individual differences are many for example some employees are motivated to work and some are not. This can be due to several reasons, and can be known by further reading the unit.

Before we proceed to understand human behaviour, it is better to know what the term '**behaviour**' means. Behaviour can be defined as a response/s which is observed directly/indirectly. Direct observation is possible by studying the responses of people

to a work environment. Indirect observations are decision making processes and attitudes, in terms of results or how people describe them verbally.

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

In an organisational set up it is essential for managers to understand behaviour. as they are constantly with people, interacting with them in terms of communication (either written or oral) in terms of work (either by specifying the work and getting things done).

Understanding past behaviour is important for developing effective human skills, and it also provides a framework for predicting behaviour. It also gives an idea to managers as to how behaviour is similar in certain circumstances and changing in changing environmental conditions.

Another skill which an effective manager or leader needs is the ability to direct, change and control behaviour.

Managers have to understand that there are-going to be individual differences among the employees, as no individual is similar to other. Each individual is unique by themselves. Then one has to understand that each individual has to be taken care of as a whole person by taking care of. his needs as well as training and making him up to date in terms of work. Ultimately human beings have to be treated with respect only then you can expect effective performance. With the following descriptions you will be able to understand the concept better.

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

1. Individual Differences

Behaviour is the result of interaction between individual characteristics and the characteristics of the environment in which the behaviour occurs.

Each person has a unique combination of characteristics. Some of these characteristics are present from birth; others develop over time. These can be called as inherited and learned characteristics. Although there are some inherited

Table 1: Learned Characteristics and its Effect on Behaviour

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Relationship found</i>
Tolerance for conflict	Perceived role conflict	Less role conflict with greater tolerance for conflict
Relative importance of extrinsic versus intrinsic rewards	Expressed job satisfaction	"Extrinsic Managers" expressed less job satisfaction
Value or work ethic	Attendance	Stronger work ethic associated with greater attendance
Diversity of interests	Salary based measure of performance	High general interest diversity associated with better performance
Locus of control	Experienced job stress	More stress with emphasis on external locus of control

characteristics, but these are very few, and not so significant. Learned characteristics are very important. Individual differences can be because of environment, personal and psychological factors. It is also due to physical and social factors. Learned characteristics are acquired as people grow, develop and interact with their environments. This is depicted by Table 1.

'Environmental factors' are characteristics of the broader environment such as economic conditions, social and. cultural norms, and political factors that can affect the individuals behaviour. Personal factors include physical and personal attributes e.g., age, sex, race, education and abilities, psychological factors are less observable. They are mental characteristics and attributes such as values, attitudes, personality and aptitudes that affect behaviour through complex psychological processes. These are studied, in the subsequent units.

All aspects of the physical world that can be seen, heard, felt, smelled or touched are part of the physical environment of behaviour. The social environment of an

individual includes relationships with family, friends, co-workers, supervisors and subordinates and membership in groups such as unions. The behaviour of others (as distinct from the individual's relationship with them) is also part of an individual's social environment. Any 'norms, rules, laws or reward systems that originate with other individuals or groups help to form an individual's social environment.

2. A Whole Person

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

3. Caused Behaviour (Motivation)

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

4. Value of the Person (Human Dignity)

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

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

4.2 MODELS TO UNDERSTAND HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Early classical approaches made the assumptions that people are naturally lazy and self-serving, neutral, or positive and self-motivated. In simpler terms they need to be pushed and controlled and kept under surveillance, never to be trusted to put in a good day's work by themselves. Economic rewards were the only one considered, and close autocratic supervision was suggested.

Systems and contingency theorists viewed people as adaptable and felt that much of behaviour was learned and not attributable to predispositions to be negative or positive. Likert, Mc Gregor and Bennis who developed and extended the findings of human-relations theorists had a positive view of human nature. Employees were seen as striving for personal and social well-being. If left alone, they would work hard for the intrinsic satisfaction of a job well done. The emphasis was on democratic decision making and leadership. Jobs were to be challenging and allowed the individual employee to be creative.

Models of Human Behaviour

Psychoanalytic Model: Freudian approach depends on conflict model of humans. By using clinical techniques of free association and psychotherapy Freud felt that behaviour is not always consciously explained. "Unconscious" is the major factor which guides the individual's behaviour. Freud felt that the individual's behaviour depends on three factors: (i) id, (ii) Ego and (iii) Super ego.

Id: By Id it means pleasure. To certain degree of having Id in an individual is constructive but may also lead to destructive tendencies like being aggressive, dominating, fighting and generally destroy. This kind of instinctive is more dominating in childhood. But once individuals develop and mature they learn to control the id. But it is always unconscious. Throughout life the 'id' becomes important source of thinking and behaving.

Ego: Ego represents 'conscious' stage in one's behaviour. Though Id comes in conflict with ego, the ego depends on the super ego.

Superego: It represents "conscience". An individual is not aware of the superego's functioning. The conscience is dependent on two factors that is cultural values and moral of a society. Superego's development depends mostly on parent's influence. Once the child grows up the child will unconsciously identifies with parents value and morals.

There is always tussle between id, ego and superego. The degree of each of them varies from person to person. So the variations in individual's behaviour can be better understood with the help of this model.

But the modern theories have severely criticised this theory as it is not based on any empirical facts and as such it can not be accepted in totality. But the concept of "unconscious" is a significant contribution in understanding specific behaviour of humans.

Existential Model: This model is not scientifically based. Its base is literature and philosophy.

The existentialists believe that the depersonalising effects of this environment forces individuals to make their own destiny. So the individuals shape their own identity and make their "existence" meaningful and worthwhile to themselves.

This is more true and happening in today's urbanisation. Because people have become so materialistic and busy, they do not have time for traditional values and norms and it becomes impractical sometimes to follow them. Existential model is, especially true when you are employed in today's world.

Though this model is not scientific it can be definitely be used in understanding human behaviour.

Internal vs. External Determinants of Behaviour

Environment plays a major role in shaping behaviour and genetic endowment and personality development is influenced by our historical heritage.

Personality vs the Environment

Both personality and situational variables must be taken into account in order to explain an individual's behaviour but a focus on the environment is as important or perhaps slightly more important than focusing on personality traits.

Cognition vs the Environment

To understand one's behaviour all we have to know is the individual's past responses to similar (stimulus) situations and the rewards or punishments that followed that response.

There are two models which come out of these approaches:

1. **Behaviouristic Model:** In this model the behaviour is dependent on two factors i.e., stimulus and response. Learning occurs with this kind of model. Pavlov and Watson with their research felt that behaviour can be best understood by stimulus and response.

Behaviourist model is represented as: S - R (Stimulus-Response)

2. **Cognitive Model:** S-OR-R. This model emphasises the positive and free-will factors of human beings and uses concepts such as expectancy, demand and incentive.

Tolman with his experiments found that the basis of learning is of 'expectancy' which is understood as one particular event leading to a particular consequence i.e., goal. Human behaviour is based on these goals.

The cognitive model is represented as:

S - O - R (Stimulus-Organism-Response model)

Both approaches see learning and the environment as having a major impact on behaviour.

From these different approaches it can be said that:

- i) Behaviour is caused by instincts, genetic background and personality traits that are formed at an early age. Change is very difficult for the individual and that one's capacity is severely limited.
- ii) Behaviour is mostly learned through our interactions with the environment. Present events rather than past events are important. Even though there are some limitations on one's capacities, one is capable of great amounts of change.

4.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION

Behaviour of individuals is caused, and follows a pattern, because of this, behaviour is unpredictable. Study of behaviour is however, rewarding and necessary for management. It is doubtful whether the manager can perform the tasks satisfactorily without developing a fair degree of understanding of the people around him.

Any attempt to learn why people behave as they do in organisations requires

some understanding of individual differences. Managers spend considerable time making judgements about the fit between individuals, job tasks and from these approaches it can be concluded that there is an overwhelming consensus that the environment has a much greater effect than it is believed. The implications for organisations are important. It means that large areas of human behaviour are modifiable. Organisational design, training and development can have a profound impact on the behaviour of the members of an organisation.

4.4 PERSONALITY

Gordon Allport defined Personality as the dynamic organisation within the individual of those Psycho-Physical Systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

Personality can be described more specifically as "how a person affects others, how one understands and views oneself and the pattern of inner and outer measurable traits."

From this definition, it can be understood one's physical appearance and behaviour affects others. Understanding oneself means one is unique with a set of attitudes and values and a self-concept. Finally, the pattern of measurable traits refers to a set of characteristics that the person exhibits.

Some of the other definitions are "Personality is a vehicle to integrate perception, learning, values and attitudes and thus to understand the total person." "Personality is an individual's total sense of self, it is an organising force for the person's particular pattern of exhibited traits and behaviours." "Personality is the culmination of experiences and genetic influences." Personality is influenced by the personal life and where he is working.

4.5 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

Personality is the result of both heredity and environment and also the situation.

Heredity

Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical appearance, temperament, energy level and biological rhythms are the characteristics which are generally influenced by one's Parents' i.e., One's Biological, Physiological and Inherent Psychological Make up. The Heredity approach feels that personality of an individual is the Molecular Structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes.

Environment

Culture plays an important role in the formation of personality, i.e., early conditioning, the norms among the family, friends and social groups. With the socialisation process in the group, personalities are altered over time.

Situation

Though an individual personality is constant, it does change depending on the situation. Different demands in different situations call forth different aspect of one's personality.

The relationship of these three factors affects the formation and development of Personality. Psychological inheritance is entirely an internal contribution. Group and culture are the early environmental factors that form later behaviour. Family and social setting during the early stages of education are the important factors which influences the initial formation of personality. Whatever the child learns here lasts for life time. Later in life, it is the Peer groups or Primary affiliations at work, social activities which shape the Personality.

4.6 TYPE AND TRAIT APPROACHES TO PERSONALITY

The traditional viewed individuals as Shy, Lazy, Melancholy, Ambitious, Aggressive. These were called a Traits. Groups of these traits were then aggregated to Personality types.

Trait Approach

Cattel (1973) identified 16 source traits/Primary Traits. These traits were found to be generally steady and constant sources of behaviour. But there was found to be no scientific relevance.

Figure 1: Sixteen Source Traits

-
- 1) Reserved - Outgoing
 - 2) Less intelligent - More intelligent
 - 3) Affected by feelings - Emotionally stable
 - 4) Submissive - Dominant
 - 5) Serious - Happy go Lucky
 - 6) Expedient - Conscientious
 - 7) Timid - Venturesome
 - 8) Tough minded - Sensitive
 - 9) Trusting - Suspicious
 - 10) Practical - Imaginative
 - 11) Forthright - Shrewd
 - 12) Self-Assured - Apprehensive
 - 13) Conservative - Experimenting
 - 14) Group-dependent - Self-sufficient
 - 15) Uncontrolled - Controlled
 - 16) Relaxed - Tense
-

In the type approach, several behaviours are seen as cluster characterising individuals with high degree of stability.

Locus of control: People are assumed to be of two types: 'Internals' and 'Externals'. Internals are people who believe that much of what happens to them is controlled by their destiny. Externals believe that much of what happens to them is controlled by outside forces.

Machiavellianism: High Machs tend to take control, especially in loosely structured situations; Low Machs respond well to structured situations. High Machs tend to be more logical, rational and Pragmatic. They are more skilled in influencing and coalition building.

Type 'A' or Type 'B'

People who are Hard-driving, impatient, aggressive, and super competitive are termed as Type 'A' Personality. Those who are easy-going, sociable, laid-back and non-competitive are termed as

Type 'B' Personality.

Type A people tend to be very productive and work very hard. They are workaholics. The negative side of them is that they are impatient, not good team players, more irritable, have poor judgement.

Type B people do better on complex tasks involving judgement, accuracy rather than speed and team work.

4.7 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Carl Jung identified three basic assumptions in theory, 1) Personalities are developmental in that they are influenced by past and hopes for the future. 2) All people have the potential for growth and change. 3) Personality is the totality of a person's interacting sub-systems.

Emotional Orientations

Jung feels that the two basic Orientations of People are extroversion and introversion. Introverts are primarily oriented to the subjective world. They look inward at themselves, avoid 'social contacts and initiating interaction with others, withdrawn, quiet and enjoy solitude. Extroverts are friendly, enjoy interaction with people, are generally aggressive and express their feelings and ideas openly.

Managers should gain an understanding of themselves and learn how understanding others can make them better managers.

Validity results showed that introvert/extrovert is really applicable to only the rare extremes. Most individuals tend to be ambiverts, that is, they are in between introversion and extroversion.

Figure 2: Extroverts versus Introverts: Characteristics of Each

Extroverts	Introverts
Likes variety and action.	Like quiet for concentration
Tend to work faster, dislike complicated procedure.	Tend to be careful with details, dislike sweeping statements.

Intrapersonal Processes

Are often good at greeting people.	Have trouble in remembering names and faces.
Are often impatient with slow jobs.	Tend not to mind working on one project for a long time uninterruptedly.
Are interested in results of their job, getting it done and in how other people do it.	Are interested in the idea behind their job.
Often do not mind interruption of answering the telephone.	Dislike telephone intrusions and interruptions.
Often act quickly, sometimes without thinking.	Like to think a lot before they act, sometimes without acting.
Like to have people around.	Work contentedly alone.
Usually communicate freely.	Have some problems in communicating.

Problem-solving Styles

Jung identified two basic steps in problem solving: collecting information and making decision. Collecting data occurs in a continuum from sensing to intuition. In terms of decision-making, it ranges from 'thinking' to 'feeling' types.

Sensing-type: The person approaches the problem in a step by step organised way. The person works steadily and patiently with details.

Intuitive type: One who does not show a lot of emotion, who can put things in a logical order and who can be firm and fair.

The feeling type is aware of other people, dislikes telling people unpleasant things and prefers harmony among people.

The interaction of these two aspects of problem solving results in four problem-solving types.

- 1) The sensing-feeling person likes to collect data in an orderly way and make decisions that take into account the needs of people. This person is very concerned with high-quality decisions that people will accept and implement.
- 2) The intuitive-feeling person is equally concerned with the people side of decisions but the focus is on new ideas which are often broad in scope and lacking in details.
- 3) Sensing-thinkers emphasise details and quality of a decision. They are not as concerned with the people aspect of an organisation as with a technically sound decision.
- 4) Intuitive-thinking likes to tackle new and innovative problems, but make decisions primarily on technical terms. They tend to be good planners, but not so good at implementing.

There is always a combination of these types in a person.

General attitudes: The last personality sub-system Jung identified was general attitude work, namely judging and perceptive. Judging types like to follow a plan, like to make decisions, and want only essentials for their work. On the other hand, perceptive types adapt well to change, want to know all about a job and may get overcommitted.

Figure 3: Sensing Types versus Intuitive types: Characteristics of Each

Sensing Types	Intuitive Types
Dislike new problems unless there are standard ways to solve them.	Like solving new problems.
Like an established way of doing things.	Dislike doing same thing repeatedly.
Enjoy using skills already learned more than learning new ones.	Enjoy learning a new skill more than using it.
Work more steadily, with realistic idea of how long it will take.	Work in bursts of energy powered by enthusiasm, with slack periods in between.
Usually reach a conclusion step by step.	Reach conclusion quickly.
Are patient with routine details.	Are impatient with routine details.
Are impatient when the details get complicated.	Are patient with complicated situations.
Are not often inspired, and rarely trust the inspiration when they are.	Follow their inspirations, good or bad.
Seldom makes errors of fact.	Frequently makes errors of fact.
Tend to be good at precise work.	Dislike taking time for decision.

Figure 4: Thinking Types versus Feeling Types: Characteristics of Each

Thinking Types	Feeling Types
Do not show emotion readily and are often uncomfortable dealing with people's feelings.	Tend to be very aware of other people and their feelings.
May hurt people's feelings without knowing it.	Enjoy pleasing people, even in unimportant things.
Like analysis and putting things in logical order; can get along without harmony.	Like harmony. Efficient but are badly disturbed by office feuds.
Tend to decide impersonally, sometimes paying insufficient attention to people's wishes.	Often let decisions be influenced by their own or other people's personal likes and wishes.
Need to be treated fairly.	Need occasional praise.
Are able to reprimand people or fire them when necessary.	Dislike telling people unpleasant things.
Are more analytically oriented; respond easily to people's thoughts.	Are more people-oriented; respond easily to people's values.
Tend to be firm minded.	Tend to be sympathetic.

Figure 5: Judging Types versus Perceptive Types: Characteristics of Each

Judging Types	Perceptive Types
Work best when they can plan their work and follow the plan.	Adapt well to changes.
Like to get things settled and finished.	Do not mind leaving things open for alterations.
May decide things too quickly.	May have trouble making decisions.
May dislike to interrupt the project they are on for a more urgent one.	May start too many projects and have difficulty finishing them.
May not notice new things that need to be done.	May postpone unpleasant things.

Want only essentials needed to begin their work.	Want to know all about a new job.
Tend to be satisfied once they reach a judgement on a thing, situation, or person.	Tend to be curious and welcome new information on a thing, situation, or person.

Development of Personality: Erikson's eight life stages

Erikson identified eight stages of life that characterise the unending development of a person. He characterised each stage by a particular conflict that needs to be resolved successfully before a person can move to the next stage. However, These eight stages are not totally separate, and the crises are never fully resolved. Movement between stages is developmental. Movement can even involve regression to earlier stages when traumatic events occur.

Stage One, Infancy: During the first year of life a person resolves the basic crisis of trust vs. mistrust. An infant who is cared for in a loving and affectionate way learns to trust other people. Lack of love and affection results in mistrust. This stage makes a serious impact on a child that influences events for remaining life.

Stage Two, early childhood: In the second and third years of life, a child begins to assert independence. If the child is allowed to control these aspects of life that the child is capable of controlling, sense of autonomy will develop. If the child encounters constant disapproval or inconsistent rule setting, a sense of self-doubt and shame is likely to develop.

Stage Three, play age: The four and five year olds seek to discover just how much they can do. If a child is encouraged to experiment and to achieve reasonable goals, he or she will develop a sense of initiative. If a child is blocked and made to feel incapable, he or she will develop a sense of 'guilt and lack of self- confidence'.

Stage Four, school age: From ages 6 to 12, a child learns many new skills and develops social abilities. If a child experiences real progress at a rate compatible with his or abilities, the child will develop a sense of industry. The reverse situation results in a sense of inferiority.

Stage Five, adolescence: The crisis of the teenage years is gain a sense of identity rather than to become confused about who you are. While undergoing rapid biological changes, the teenager is also trying to establish himself or herself as socially separate from parents. The autonomy, initiative, and industry developed in earlier stages are very important in helping the teenager successfully resolve this crisis and prepare for adulthood.

Stage Six, young adulthood: The young adult (20's and 30's) faces the crisis of intimacy versus isolation. The sense of identity developed during the teenage years allows the young adult to begin developing deep and lasting relationships.

Stage Seven, adulthood: During their 40's and 50's adults face the crisis of generativity versus self-absorption. Self-absorbed persons never develop an ability to look beyond themselves. They may become absorbed in career advancements and maintenance; and they may never learn to have concern for future generations, the welfare of organisations to which they belong or the

welfare of society as a whole. Generative people see the world as much bigger than themselves. Productivity in work or child rearing or societal advancement become important to them. Through innovation and creativity, they begin to exert influence that benefits their organisation.

Stage Eight, later life: The adult of integrity has gained a sense of wisdom and prospective that can truly help guide future generations.

Sheldon: He labeled three body builds and certain Personality Characteristics they reflected. The three body types are:

1. Endomorph - Fleshy and inclined towards fatness.
2. Mesomorph - Athletic and inclined to be muscular
3. Ectomorph - Thin and inclined to be fine-boned and fragile. The personality characteristics reflected are:

Endomorph: Friendly, oriented towards people, seek others when troubled, slow to react, loves to eat.

Mesomorph: Seeks physical adventure, needs and enjoys exercise, restless, aggressive, likes risk and chance, competitive.

Ectomorph: Likes privacy, socially inhibited, quick to react and hypersensitive to pain.

Passages Theory

Sheehy (1976) with her extensive research concluded that adults progress through five crises:

- 1) **Pulling up Roots:** This period occurs between the ages of eighteen and twenty two, when individuals exit from home and incur physical, financial, and emotional separation from parents. They cover their fears and uncertainty with acts of defiance and mimicked confidence.
- 2) **The Trying Twenties:** This period is a time of opportunity, but also includes the fear that choices are irrevocable. Two forces push upon us - one is to build a firm, safe structure for the future by making strong commitments and the other is to explore and experiment and keep flexible as to commitments.
- 3) **The Catch - Thirties:** Approaching the age thirty is a time in which life commitments are made, broken or renewed. It may mean setting towards a new phase or calming down of idealistic dreams to realistic goals. Commitments are changed or they are deepened. There is change, turmoil, and often an urge to be out of the routine.
- 4) **The Deadline Decade:** The ten years between the age of thirty-five and forty- five represent a crossroad. This period is characterised by a re-examination of one's purposes and how the resources will be spent from now on.
- 5) **Renewal or Resignation:** The mid forties bring a period of stability. The individual who can find a purpose and direction upon which to continue building his or her life, the mid forties may well be the best years.

These stages are related to working places. It is expected that all employees face crises during their careers - Just as young people pass through identity crises, during their teenage years, adults too go through stages - insecurity, opportunities presented, opportunities forgone and lost, and either the acceptance of new challenges or resignation. These crises create the opportunity for an employee to alter his or her goals, commitments, and loyalties to the organisation. When employees reach their forties, they re-examine their goals and make important adjustments in their lives. Their personalities may undergo significant changes resulting in behavioural patterns quite different from his or her environment.

Maturation Theory: Chris Argyris has postulated a maturation theory of personality development that proposes that all healthy people seek situations that offer autonomy, wise interests, to be treated equally, and the opportunity to exhibit their ability to deal with complexity. Healthy individuals tend to move from immaturity to maturity:

- 1) From being passive to engaging in increasing activity.
- 2) From dependence on others to independence.
- 3) From having few ways to behave to possess many alternatives.
- 4) From having shallow interests to developing deeper interests.
- 5) From short time perspective to having a longer time perspective.
- 6) From being in a subordinate position to viewing oneself as equal or superior.
- 7) From lack of awareness of oneself to awareness of oneself.

According to Argyris, healthy people will show the behaviours of maturity while unhealthy people tend to demonstrate childlike immature behaviours. Further, Argyris argues that most organisations tend to treat their employees like children, making them dependent.

The manager who understands personality development is better able to predict these crises and recognise them as natural transitions that adults encounter. Neither trait nor type approach, or theories of personality presented help in predicting behaviour of an individual. The reason is, they ignore situational contexts.

4.8 IMPACT OF PERSONALITY TRAITS ON ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Personality trait typically refers to the basic components of personality. The names are generally the terms used by people to describe one another. There may be hundreds or thousands of such terms and practically impossible to keep a track of these. Now, research has identified several general factors which can be used to describe an individual's personality. These are depicted in the form of "Big Five" personality factors describing an individual's adjustment, sociability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and intellectual openness.

Each personality includes a large number and range of specific personality traits dimensions. Thus, each factor is said to contain both a collection of related traits

as well as a continuum. For instance, an individual having a personality at one extreme will be sociable, gregarious, and energetic; and at the other extreme will be shy and withdrawn. It will be interesting to note the individual personality in the study of organisational behaviour because it provides the linkage between personality and behaviour. Even though each personality factor represents a collection of related traits, the link between personality and specific behaviours will become clear when we concentrate on particular traits rather than on all the five factors. We will briefly examine the specific personality traits which are particularly important for understanding the various aspects of organisational behaviour.

There are many different personality traits, but some of the important ones for organisational behaviour are risk-taking, self-monitoring, type A and type B personality, self-esteem, locus of control, machiavellianism, goal orientation, introversion versus extroversion, dogmatism, and authoritarianism.

Risk-Taking

People differ in their willingness to take chances. Their propensity to assume or avoid risk has been shown to have an impact on how long it takes managers to make a decision and how much information they require before making their choice.

While it is generally correct to conclude that managers in organisations are risk averse, there are still individual differences. As a result, it makes sense to recognise those differences and even to consider aligning risk-taking propensity with specific job demands. For instance, a high risk-taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stock trader in a brokerage firm. This type of risk demands rapid decision-making. On the other hand, this personality characteristic might prove a major obstacle to accountants performing auditing activities. This type of job might be better filled by someone with a low risk-taking propensity.

Self-Monitoring

Another personality trait that has received increased attention is self-monitoring. It refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external factors. Individuals high in self-monitoring can show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external factors. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. Low self-monitors cannot deviate from their behaviour. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitude in every situation; hence there is high behavioural consistency between who they are and what they do. The high self-monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behaviour of others and are more capable of conforming than low self-monitors.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is the outcome of an individual's continuous evaluation of himself or herself which will be assessments reflecting his/her response to others' opinions, situational requirement, and successes and failures. Such assessments are usually stable and accurate enough to be considered as a personality trait. In terms of the Big Five personality factors, self-esteem is most likely to be a part of the adjustment factor.

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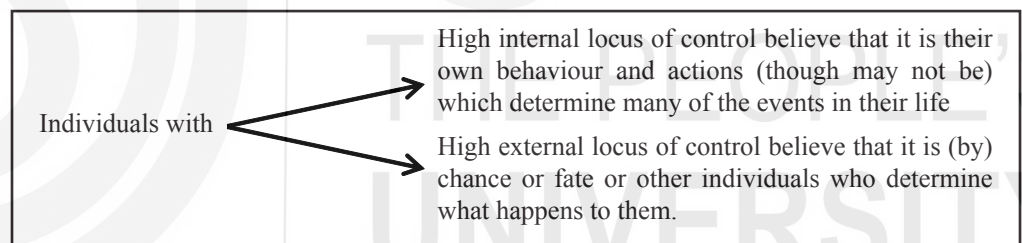
Some of the ways in which self-esteem can affect organisational behaviour are:

- Self-esteem reflects an individual's choice of vocation.
- Individuals with high self-esteem are likely to be attracted towards higher status jobs. They also select unconventional jobs as compared to individuals with low esteem.
- Self-esteem affects individuals as to how they set goals and attach value in attaining them.
- Employees with high self-esteem set high goals for themselves and place more value on actually attaining goals; and this would work the other way around in case of employees with low self-esteem.
- Employees with low self-esteem are more sensitive to adverse job conditions such as stress, conflict, ambiguity, poor supervision, poor working conditions and so on when compared to employees with high self-esteem.

Simply stated, self-esteem is clearly indicative of the willingness of the employee to assert himself or herself towards completion of the task assigned and thus having positive links to achievement.

Locus of Control

Locus of control indicates the belief of the individual on the extent to which he or she can control events affecting them.



Machiavellianism

This term is derived from Niccolo Machiavelli's writings, who wrote on how to gain and use power i.e., on an individual's ability to manipulate people. Thus, such Machs can easily be game for participating in organisational politics.

Those who are high Machs, believe 'ends justify means'. They try manipulating more, winning more, persuade others more and are themselves less persuaded. Yet, there are situational factors which affect high Machs and they are able to flourish in indirect situations. The situations involving minimum rules and regulations and emotional involvement with details are irrelevant to winning, and act as a cause of distraction for low Machs. For instance, where jobs involve good bargaining skills, or where rewards are awarded for good performance and winning, Machiavellians can perform better.

Goal Orientation

Another visible difference in individual behaviour in work environment is related to goal orientation or the preference for one type of goal against another.

While trying to understand some aspects of individual job performance, we will have to consider two types of goal orientation:

- (a) **Learning Goal Orientation** — A predisposition to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations.
- (b) **Performance Goal Orientation** — A predisposition to demonstrate and validate competence by trying to obtain favourable judgments from others (such as one's supervisor) and refrain from negative judgments.

But when applying this goal orientation to work setting, a dramatic response pattern in behaviour emerges. An individual with strong goal orientation may refrain from accepting work challenges and their performance suffers when they are unable to overcome obstacles and when faced with failure, become unhappy and are likely to withdraw from such situations.

Individuals with a strong learning goal orientation try to overcome failure and setback by putting in more efforts and looking out for new solutions to the problems. Although an individual's goal orientation may vary from situation to situation, evidence suggest that a significant amount of goal orientation can be indicative of an individual's personality.

Introversion Versus Extroversion

The terms introvert and extrovert describe a person's congeniality. These terms can be extended to refer to a personality dimension also.

Introversion refers to the tendency to direct everything inward; develop a greater affinity for abstract ideas and sensitive to personal feelings. Extroversion refers to the tendency to orient towards other people, events and objects.

An introvert by nature is quiet, introspective and emotionally unimpressive. An extrovert is one who is sociable, lively, impulsive and emotionally very expressive.

People displaying characteristics of both introversion and extroversion are found in all types of educational, gender, and occupational groups. The extremes of both extroversion or introversion may not be good and can even come in the way of the person's effectiveness.

It is understood that the introversion – extroversion personality dimension can affect the task performance in various environments. That is introverts perform the job better when alone in a quiet environment, while extroverts perform better in an environment having many people with a high level of activity.

Dogmatism

High dogmatism refers to the tendency of the individual to be very rigid, perceives the world as a threatening place, prefers to treat legitimate authority as absolute and either accepts or rejects other people on the basis of their agreement or disagreement with accepted authority or doctrine.

Simply stated, a high-dogmatic (HD) person appears to be close-minded and prefers to depend on authoritative people in organisations for guidance and direction, and hence can more easily be influenced by such persons. As against

this, people with low-dogmatic (LD) tendency are more open-minded and cannot be easily influenced by authoritative figures in the organisation like HD persons.

With regards to the degree of dogmatism and its relationship with interpersonal and group behaviour it is noted that HDs typically are in need of more group structure as compared to LDs. So the performance of HDs will also be dependent on how the group performs. But a high degree of dogmatism can at times lead to poor managerial performance because they may be involved only in a limited search for information especially in decision making situations.

Authoritarianism

Authoritarianism though closely related to dogmatism, is narrower in scope. It refers to a person who displays qualities such as adherence to conventional values, obeys recognised authority, has a negative view of society, respects power and toughness, and opposes expression of personal feelings.

In an organisational set up, such persons may prefer superiors who have a highly directive and structured leadership style. Both dogmatism and authoritarianism can be related to the 'intellectual openness factor' of the 'Big Five' factors.

4.9 IMPORTANCE OF PERSONALITY

Understanding of personality is very important because by determining what characteristics will make for effective job performance, it can aid in personnel selections; by increasing understanding of how personality and job characteristics interact it can result in better hiring, transfer and promotion decisions, and by providing insights into personality development it can help to anticipate, recognise and prevent the operationalising of costly defenses by organisational members. There are certain procedures by which personalities can be predicted:

- 1) 'Rating Scales' from peers or friends help in predicting the behaviour.
- 2) 'Experimental procedures' which help in the assessment of some characteristics of person.
- 3) With the help of 'Questionnaire' one can assess behaviour of the other, provided the answers are genuine.
- 4) Projective Tests like Thematic Appreciation Test, Rorschach's Ink-Blot test help in predicting the personality of an individual.

These measures help in effectiveness of the organisation.

4.10 ATTITUDES

Attitudes are a way of responding either favourably or unfavourably to objects, persons, concepts etc. They are evaluative statements. They reflect how one feels about something. Attitudes are related to behaviour. It is an unidimensional variable, i.e., positive or negative. They are hypothetical constructs. It is something inside a person. It may be observed but the attitude itself cannot.

Attitudes in a person could be observed in three ways: 1) Direct experience with the person or situation. 2) Association with other similar persons or situations. 3) Learning from others their association with the person or situation. 'Direct experience' is the concrete experience stage of learning. Association is similar to abstract conceptualisation and generalisation. Learning from others is like reflection and observation. Attitudes evolve out of perception and learning process. One is not born with attitudes but acquires them through life experiences. But certain basic attitude of trust or mistrust occurs during the infancy. If a child's basic needs are met in a loving manner, the child will develop a sense of trust otherwise a sense of mistrust develops. The child also develops a sense of autonomy or shame and doubt. All these affects one's behaviour. And this linkage to behaviour is what managers are concerned with; and they also tend to understand the ways in which behaviour affects attitudes.

4.11 ATTITUDES AND ORGANISATION

In organisations, attitudes are important because they affect the job behaviour. These job related attitudes top positive or negative evaluations that employees hold about aspects of their work environment. There are three primary attitudes; job satisfaction, job involvement, and organisational commitment.

Job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitude towards his or her job, which is either positive or negative, i.e., satisfied or dissatisfied.

Job involvement measures the degree to which a person identifies with his job, actively participates in it and considers his performance important to his self-worth.

Organisational commitment is an orientation in terms of loyalty, identity and involvement in the organisation. These attitudes are measured so that behaviours like productivity, absenteeism and turnover can be predicted.

Managers need not be interested only in understanding the attitudes of the people, but also in changing them. Since attitudes are learned they can be changed. Persuasive communications are used to change attitudes. But attitudes are slow to change.

Because they are based on deep-seated beliefs and values.

4.12 VALUES

Values are encompassing concepts. American Management Association indicated that values are at the core of personality, and that they are ,powerful, though silent force affecting behaviour.

Values are so embedded that it can be inferred from people's behaviour and their expressed attitudes. But values are a strong force in people. What may 'appear' to be strange behaviour in an employee can make sense if managers understand the values underlying that behaviour.

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

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Rokeach divided values into two broad categories: 'Terminal values' relate to ends to be achieved e.g. comfortable life, family security, self-respect and sense of accomplishment. 'Instrumental values' relate to means for achieving desired ends,

e.g. ambition, courage, honesty and imagination. Terminal values reflect what a person is ultimately striving to achieve, whereas instrumental values reflect how the person get there.

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

Allport (1951) identified six types of values.

- 1) **Theoretical** - Places high importance on the discovery of truth through critical and rational approach.
- 2) **Economic** - Emphasises to be useful and practical.
- 3) **Aesthetic** - Places the highest value on form and harmony.
- 4) **Social** - The highest value is given to the love of people.
- 5) **Political** - Places emphasis on acquisition of power and influence.
- 6) **Religious** - Concerned with the unity of experience and understanding of the cosmos as a whole.

People in different occupations place different importance on the six value types.

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

Some individuals, for example, are classified as "tribalistic" - people who want strong, directive leadership from their bosses; some are "egocentric" desiring individual responsibilities and wanting to work as lovers in an entrepreneurial style; some are "sociocentric" seeking primarily the social relationship that job provides, and some are "existential", seeking full expression of growth and self-fulfilment needs through their work, much as an artist does. Charles Hughes, director of personnel and organisation development at Texas Instruments, believes the variety of work that needs to be done, in his organisation is great enough to accommodate these different types work personalities in such a manner that an individual and organisational goals are fused.

Work Values

Values provide a framework for making choices between desirable and undesirable responses. Values also refer to priorities that an individual assigns

to multiplicity of goals. These thus provide direction to and determine intensity of individual responses. The stronger the value system, the more intense will be the action in pursuit of that value. For an organisation to achieve unity of action amongst diverse employees, it is imperative for them to **articulate core values and seek adherence to those values by every individual**. The core values of an organisation are derived from the vision and expectations of strategic stakeholders.



Defining Values

Values may be defined as a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence that is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

As organisations struggle to survive in a highly uncertain and turbulent environment, they have no option but to carve out a space for themselves in the global economic order. Organisations can no longer afford to remain passive recipients of environmental forces; instead their sustained growth will depend on becoming active agents in transforming the environment to make it conducive to give expression to their ideas and intentions. It is these compulsions that have led most organisations to develop vision and articulate a set of values providing focus on their responses to the demands of internal and external stakeholders.

Values are derived from the basic assumptions held by a group of people about themselves, others and the world. They provide a framework enabling individuals to prioritise their actions, make a choice of options, determine preferred ways of responding and distinguishing between desirable and undesirable responses. Values thus influence all our decisions and actions and have a self-prophetic impact on our being. Given its significance, it is obvious that unity of action amongst employees towards the common purposes of the organisation cannot be achieved unless they adhere to a common set of values.

Values operate at three levels: individual, socio-cultural and organisational.

At individual level, values tend to differ in terms of their importance and intensity. Every individual therefore develops a hierarchy of values. Individuals belonging to the same socio-cultural milieu may differ in terms of their value system. Socio-cultural value systems are derived from the basic belief about the nature of society and its relationship with environment. It has its historical roots in cultural traditions and heritage of the society and in its triumphs and trials. Likewise an organisation designed by people develops its own value system arising primarily out of compulsions to survive as a viable entity.

Most organisations articulate core values such as quality, customer satisfaction, environmental protection, human resource development, human dignity and respect, technological development, social responsibility, etc.

Adherence to Core Values: Most organisations articulate certain core values that must be adhered to by the employees. Identification with these values by

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the employees is significant, as it becomes a substitute for sacrifices made by them by virtue of their membership in the organisation. Employees learn to accept these values and start believing that the organisation will not do anything that would hurt them. The personal costs of working long hours, meeting strict schedules and the like are overcome by adhering to higher human values such as serving the community or the society with high quality products and services. In the power sector, some of the private utilities have demonstrated better adherence to core values than public sector undertakings. That is why the political leadership is forced to privatise distribution of power. How far is it true in the case of your utility?

Value Actualisation: Core values developed by an organisation must be internalized by all members so as to bridge the gap between the value system of the individuals and the whole. In the absence of conscious effort to develop shared value system, the employees will continue to adhere to their archaic value system derived from the old assumptions, or by the pre-dominant value system prevalent in their socio-cultural milieu. In either case, the organisation will not be able to optimally channelise the energies and efforts of its members towards purposive action.

Although organisations have been quick to realize the significance of value driven responses, and have thus articulated their core values, adherence or internalization of those values on the part of the employees still remains an illusion. Because of abstract nature of values, employees often find it difficult to give concrete shape and translate them in their day to day activity, divided as they are along the lines of function, hierarchical levels, nature of product and services'. It is advisable therefore within the overall framework of the corporate value system that every department, every function and identifiable product or service group must develop operational values relevant to the demands of their task and their respective contexts.

What should be the core values in a power utility? Managing the operation and maintenance of equipment to ensure good quality power supply, preventing commercial losses, instilling confidence in customers about correct billing, prompt redressal of grievances and above all giving them sympathetic hearing should be the minimum core values.

Globalisation and Core Values: One of the major challenges faced by the organisations functioning in the global economy is to maintain its core values, despite differences in respective local cultures in areas of its operation. It is quite likely that core values of an organisation are not congruent with the existing societal value system. This would necessitate special drive for upholding its core values. For example, most multinationals working in India have service orientation as an important core value. However, for an Indian company, due to the legacy of the state controlled economy, service orientation as a value is attached much less importance.

Box 1 gives the Vision, Mission and Core Values of NTPC, a reasonably successful Indian enterprise in power sector.

VISION

“To be one of the world’s largest and best power utilities, powering India’s growth”

MISSION

- Make available reliable and quality power in increasingly large quantities at appropriate tariffs, and ensure timely realization of revenues.
- Speedily plan and implement power projects, with contemporary technologies.
- Implement strategic diversification in the areas of R&M, Hydro, LNG and non- conventional and eco-friendly fuels and explore new areas like transmission, information technology, etc.
- Promote consultancy.
- Make prudent acquisitions.
- Continuously develop competent human resources to match world standards.
- Be a responsible corporate citizen with thrust on environmental protection, rehabilitation and as utilization.

CORE VALUES (COMIT)

- Customer Focus
- Organisational Pride
- Mutual Respect and Trust
- Initiative and Speed
- Total Quality

Values and Attitudes

Values are expressed in terms of **attitudes**, which, in turn, provide direction to one’s responses. For example, a Professor who believes strongly in the work ethics will tend to exhibit certain attitudes towards students and methods of studies as a means of reflecting this value.

In the pre-liberalisation era, value system in organisations grew primarily out of the societal value system. The organisations were thus microcosms of the larger society. In the current and emerging scenario, organisations need to make deliberate choice with regard to developing value systems which would enable them to gain and maintain competitive edge.

4.13 SOCIALISATION'S INFLUENCE ON PERSONALITY, VALUES AND ATTITUDES

Organisations play a major factor in people's lives and it has a significant impact on people's personality, values and attitudes. Socialisation is the process by which an individual adapts himself to the working environment and gains loyalty and commitment to an organisation. Through this process, a person learns the goals of the organisation, the means to achieve those goals, an employee's responsibilities and accepted ways of behaving in the organisation. In addition, the person learns the organisation's attitudes and values. As the person becomes socialised in the organisation, there is also a tendency to adapt to the attitudes and values of the organisation. Thus, the organisation influences the personality, values and attitudes of an individual.

Stages of Socialisation

- 1) **Pre-arrival stage:** Individuals develop preconceived notions about an organisation based on previous education, work experiences and contacts with organisation.
- 2) **Encounter with the Organisation:** A person's initial orientation, training and experiences with other employees who exhibit the accepted attitudes in the organisation all influence and change the person.

Change of the Person and Acquisition of the new attitudes and values:

When a person works in a company, he or she gradually learns what is expected and begins to develop a new personality that is consistent with the organisation depending, the person works for sometime in the same organization.

Socialisation process is not limited to the entry point in an organisation. Rather, it is a continuous process throughout person's career path.

Socialisation occurs every time employee makes a move in an organisation. As people move vertically up the organisation's hierarchy, they encounter different norms, values and attitudes. At the entry stage, employees must assimilate these new factors if they are to be successful, and the potential is there for an alteration of their personality.

Economic conditions, competitions and technological advances can cause an organisation to change its basic orientation: The resulting adaptation will bring new forces to bear on each organisation member - forces which may alter personalities

4.14 SCHEIN SOCIALISATION MODEL

Schein identified three ways in which individuals respond to the socialisation forces of the organisation and thus exert influence on their own personalities.

- 1) **Rebellion:** The new employee could attempt to fight the organisation. The result might be dismissal, or change in the organisation, or change in the person (regardless of whether the individual wins or losses).
- 2) **Creative Individualism:** Where an employee accepts the organisation's values and attitudes which are important and rejects the others. The employee

uses a combination of personal and organisational values in relation to the organisation.

- 3) **Conform:** A person could simply conform to the organisational forces and exert very little influence on the organisation.

Thus socialisation is a process that exerts influence toward changing personality. But previous socialisation, learning and attitude formation create forces that operate to maintain personality as a consistent type. Perceptual process filters socialisation forces in an attempt to maintain consistency between people's surroundings and their self-concept and it depends on strength of these forces. Personality, Attitude and Values continue to develop and evolve over a time. To understand the process of socialisation is necessary for a manager because it relates directly to work organisation.

4.15 SUMMARY

From this Unit, it was learnt that understanding human behaviour is essential for an effective manager, as it facilitates to achieve organisational goals better. The reasons for individual differences and approaches of understanding human behaviour are explained.

It was understood from this unit, that attitudes are opinions about things. Values represent deep-seated standards by which people evaluate their world. The past plays an important role in the development of attitudes and values. Personality is the result of person's experiences and genetic influences. Approaches, theories and determinants of personality were explained. Finally, the process of socialisation in an organisation that alters one's personality, values and attitudes was discussed.

4.16 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How do you define personality? What are the specific traits that constitute the concept of personality?
2. Differentiate between introvert and extrovert personalities. Is one form of personality necessarily better than the other? Explain pros and cons of both types.
3. What are the determinants of personality? Which of them do you feel are more important in shaping personality?
4. Explain the Freudian and Erikson's stages of personality development.
5. Critically examine the psychoanalytic approach to personality.
6. Discuss the essence of social learning theory of personality.
7. According to you, which theory of personality is more comprehensive? Give reasons.
8. "Heredity determines personality." (a) build an argument to support this statement; and (b) build an argument against this statement.

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UNIT 5 LEARNING AND BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Objectives

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

- understand the nature of learning process
- explain various theories on learning
- discuss how reinforcement helps in motivating a person to learn
- importance of learning in organisations
- understand the concept of behaviour modification
- importance of behaviour modification in organisations

Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Concept and Definition
- 5.3 Theories of Learning
- 5.4 Reinforcement and Learning
- 5.5 Role and Methods of Reinforcement
- 5.6 Punishment
- 5.7 Extinction
- 5.8 Organisational Learning
- 5.9 Learning Organisation
- 5.10 Behaviour Modification
- 5.11 Behaviour Modification Process
- 5.12 Organisational Behaviour Modification (OBM)
- 5.13 Summary
- 5.14 Self-Assessment Questions
- 5.15 Further Readings/ References

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Every action and behaviour of an individual has some element of learning involved. Behaviour is something which can be publicly viewed, but there is also an unobservable, inner cognitive behaviour which will influence the individual. Thus, the outcome can take the form of desirable or undesirable behaviour. Of course, only desirable work behaviour can contribute towards achieving organisational goals. That is why, it is necessary on the part of the individual employee to learn periodically new knowledge and skills. Further, learning

is a powerful incentive for many employees to stick to certain organisations. Learning has significant impact on individual behaviour as it influences abilities, role perceptions, and motivation. Along with its role in individual behaviour, learning is essential for knowledge management that enhances an organisation's capacity to acquire, share, and utilise its resources in ways that improve its survival and success.

In this unit, we try to understand the cognitive aspect and meaning of learning by analysing the various theories of learning. We have also discussed the role of reinforcement, both positive and negative, and its impact on employee behaviour. The unit concludes with focussing on the different reinforcement methods and its administration.

5.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION

The concept of learning is very important for organisational behaviour. It has assumed tremendous significance because everything that we do in an organisation, some learning is definitely involved.

The concept of learning can be used in many contexts. It refers to the process of acquiring the response adequately to a situation which may or may not have previously encountered.

A widely accepted simple definition of 'learning' is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. As per this definition, one cannot see the process of learning but if there is a noticeable change in behaviour then it can be said that learning has taken place. This means we are actually seeing the changed behaviour in individuals as a result of learning. Thus, learning as a concept seems to be an abstract and a theoretical one and is not observable directly.

It is also said that learning is a relatively permanent change in the frequency of occurrence of a specific individual behaviour. In an organisational setting, it is the work-set and organisational norms, which will act as objective bases for determining whether an employee's behaviour is desirable or undesirable and whether he or she needs to learn and practise productive work behaviour. Thus, it is the process by which skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviour are formed and developed as a result of education, training, socialisation and experience.

Learning also occurs as a result of conditioning and restriction. A person is persuaded to adopt guidance or regulation or conformity and compliance based on each situational requirement. Moreover, people learn at different rates, times and stages during their life time. Of course, ultimately it is the individual's own needs and drives, and rewards that enhance one's potential and expertise, marketability along with increased esteem, and respect and status that will act as the motivational drive(s) in inducing the person to learn.

There are six important components of learning:

- 1) Learning involves change, although the change may be for good or bad from an organisation's point of view.
- 2) Not all changes reflect learning. To constitute learning, change should be relatively permanent.

- 3) Learning is reflected in behaviour. A change in an individual's thought process or attitudes, not accompanied by behaviour, is no learning.
- 4) The change in behaviour should occur as a result of experience, practice, or training.
- 5) The practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur. If reinforcement does not accompany the practice or experience, the behaviour will eventually disappear.
- 6) Learning occurs throughout one's life.

When employees learn, they acquire both explicit and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is organised and can be communicated from one person to another.

Explicit knowledge can be written down and given to others. However, this is only a small portion of total knowledge.

Majority of the people have tacit or implied knowledge. Tacit knowledge is the idea that one knows more than what he or she can tell. Tacit knowledge is embedded in our actions and ways of thinking, but is not clearly understood and therefore cannot be communicated explicitly. This knowledge is acquired through observation and direct experience. Most knowledge in organisations is tacit and one of the challenges in knowledge management is to make implicit knowledge explicit so that it may be stored and shared more easily.

5.3 THEORIES OF LEARNING

In a work setting, how can learning take place? Four theories have been used to explain how learning can take place in a work setting. These are: classical conditioning theory, operant conditioning theory, social cognitive theory, and learning theory. Of the four, it is the operant conditioning theory and social cognitive theory which are more helpful in understanding the behaviour of others.

Classical Conditioning Theory

Classical conditioning is the process by which individuals learn to link the information value from a neutral stimulus to a stimulus which in the natural course will not cause a response-. Such learned behaviours (or reflexive behaviour) may not be under an individual's conscious control. In the classical conditioning process, an unconditional stimulus (environmental event) will result in a natural response. Then a neutral environment event (also referred to as conditioned stimulus) is associated with the unconditioned stimulus, which will bring out the behaviour. Subsequently, the conditioned stimulus by itself will bring out the behaviour, which is called the conditioned response.

The name most frequently associated with classical conditioning is the Russian physiologist, Ivan Pavlov, whose experiments with the dogs led to the early formulations of the classical conditioning theory. In Pavlov's famous experiment, the sound of a metronome (the conditioned stimulus) was associated and paired with the conditioned response - the salivation response. Eventually, as per the experiment, the dogs learned to exhibit a salivation response (conditional response) to the sound of metronome alone.

The process of classical conditioning can help to understand a variety of behaviours in organisational life. The special lights displayed in front of the emergency room in any hospital will indicate that a patient who immediately needs medical attention and treatment has arrived; whereas the lights displayed across the building during the opening of a new office will indicate the feeling of joy at the opening of a new business establishment.

Classical conditioning is a passive one i.e., when something happens we react in a particular way. Classical conditioning is not used in work settings mainly because the desired employee behaviours usually do not include responses which can be changed with classical conditioning techniques i.e., it can explain only simple reflexive behaviours and not the complex behaviours that occur in organisations.

Operant Conditioning Theory

B.F. Skinner is closely associated with this learning theory. Skinner proposed that behaviour is determined from outside, which means that it is a learned involuntary behaviour. The term operant conditioning is used in context of voluntary behaviours which are called operants, for they have some influence on the environment. Skinner had opined that if certain pleasant consequences were created to reinforce desirable forms of behaviour, there would be an increase in the frequency of such behaviour. This means that people will be engaged in desirable behaviours provided they are positively reinforced. Also that rewards would be more effective, if the desired behaviour is immediately rewarded. Further, undesirable behaviour if punished, is less likely to be repeated. In fact, most of our behaviours like walking, talking, working can be termed as operant behaviour.

Social Cognitive Theory

Skinner's work was extended by Albert Bandura and others by demonstrating that people learn new behaviour in a social situation, by watching others and then imitating their behaviour. According to the social cognitive theory, the 'social' aspect indicates the involvement of individuals to learn as a part of the society and the 'cognitive' part acknowledges that individuals use thought processes to make decisions. This theory has relevance to organisational behaviour because most of the work that goes on in organisations is based on the knowledge and behaviour generated by others in that organisation.

The social cognitive theory has five dimensions. Understanding of these five dimensions will help one to realise why employees behave differently while facing the same situation.

- **Symbolizing:** People have the tendency to use symbols, which help them to process visual experiences into models which will help them to guide their behaviour and then react to their environment.
- **Forethought:** Forethought is used by persons to anticipate, plan and guide their behaviours and actions.
- **Vicarious Learning:** Almost all forms of learning involve vicariously (or sharing imaginatively in the feelings or action of other persons) by observing the behaviour of other people and the consequences of that behaviour.

- **Self-Control:** Self-control learning is said to occur when a new behaviour is learned even in the absence of any external pressure.

Managers and colleagues of employees can use self-efficacy to help employees learn to believe in themselves. This is possible by creating situations in which the employee may respond successfully to the task required.

Human resource trainers have been using the social cognitive theory in the form of programmes and offer the same to organisations so as to instil team spirit, develop leadership skills, improve an employee's (including managers) self-efficacy and bring about managerial effectiveness.

Learning Theory

Learning theory approach emphasises the assessment of behaviour in objective, measurable (countable) terms. This implies that the behaviour must be publicly observable and does not give due importance to unobservable, inner, cognitive behaviour.

In organisations, desirable work behaviours will contribute towards achieving organisational goals. Conversely, undesirable work behaviours will hinder achievement of these goals. For instance, the HR manager may find the behaviour of a shop floor worker returning late from a coffee break as undesirable; while the friends of the worker may find the same desirable because he is satisfying his social needs. In the work set-up, certain organisational norms are prescribed. The more an employee deviates from the organisational norms, the more undesirable his behaviour is. These organisational norms will vary from organisation to organisation. For instance, in companies like Infosys all employees are encouraged to open up and communicate (two-way communication) with their superiors because professional interactions is considered to be healthy. As against this, among the defence forces, questioning of superior's instructions and orders will be treated as insubordination and may even invite severe disciplinary actions against the subordinate.

To be effective, a manager has to try and identify observable employee behaviours and the environment affecting these behaviours. Then he has to make efforts at controlling and guiding employee behaviour. Thus, the manager's goal will be to provide learning experiences in an environment that will promote employee behaviours desired by the organisation.

5.4 REINFORCEMENT AND LEARNING

Reinforcement as a term refers to the psychological process of motivating a person. Though used synonymously, there is a slight difference between motivation and reinforcement. Motivation is a fundamental psychological process and a broader connotation than reinforcement. Motivation can be referred to as an intrinsic process, whereas reinforcement is related to the environment. Simply put, reinforcement will be any action that a person finds rewarding. Few common reinforcement gestures could be a pat on the back, an increase in pay, and a day off or a citation.

Reinforcement is something which enhances the strength of the response and prompts repetitions of the behaviour that preceded reinforcement. From the

above perspective it may be noted that reinforcement is not merely a reward. This means that the reward aspect is something which is presumed to be desirable from the perspective of the presenter (or manager). Although, if the employee being rewarded does not find it sufficiently rewarding, then no reinforcement will take place.

Contingency of Reinforcement

Contingency of reinforcement refers to the relationship between a person's behaviour and the preceding and following environmental events which will influence that behaviour. A contingency of reinforcement comprises of an antecedent, a behaviour, and a consequence.

It should be noted that the presenting or withdrawal of a particular antecedent increases the probability of a particular behaviour likely to occur. For instance, managers should ideally prepare 'a list of to do' items every day. This list as an antecedent helps to organise their jobs/tasks for the day and also calls for their attention on specific behaviours required. A consequence will be the outcome or result of a behaviour, which can be either positive or negative in terms of accomplishment of the goal. The manager's response to an employee's behaviour is contingent on the consequences of the behaviour.

Reinforcement, punishment, and extinction play a key role in learning process. Reinforcement is used to enhance desirable behaviour while punishment and extinction are employed to minimise undesirable behaviour.

Reinforcement is always knowledge of feedback about the success of past behaviour. Feedback is information that can be used to modify or maintain previous behaviours. However, this information has to be perceived, interpreted, given meaning and used in decisions about future behaviours. The feedback has to be processed.

Reinforcement is the attempt to develop or strengthen desirable behaviour. There are two types of reinforcement – positive and negative reinforcement.

Positive reinforcement: Positive reinforcement strengthens and enhances behaviour by the presentation of positive reinforcers. There are primary reinforcers and secondary reinforcers. Primary reinforcers satisfy basic biological needs and include food, water, and sexual pleasure. However, primary reinforcers do not always reinforce. For instance, food may not be a reinforcer to someone who has just completed a five course meal. Most behaviours in organisations are influenced by secondary reinforcers. These include such benefits as money, status, grades, trophies, and praise from others. These become positive reinforcers because of their association with the primary reinforcers and hence often called conditional reinforcers.

Positive reinforcement is based on certain principles:

- The principle of contingent reinforcement states that the reinforcer must be admitted only if the desired behaviour has occurred.
- The principle of immediate reinforcement states that the reinforcer will be most effective if administered immediately after the desired behaviour has occurred.

- The principle of reinforcement size states that the larger the amount of reinforcement delivered after the desired behaviour, the more effect the reinforcer will have on the frequency of the desired behaviour.
- The principle of reinforcement deprivation states that the more a person is deprived of the reinforcer, the greater it will have on the future occurrence of the desired behaviour.

Negative reinforcement: An unpleasant event that precedes a behaviour is removed when the desired behaviour occurs.

Just as there are positive reinforcers, there are negative reinforcers as well. Negative reinforcers are the stimuli that strengthen responses that permit an organism to avoid or escape from their presence.

We see negative reinforcement in organisations and in personal life. Supervisors apply negative reinforcement when they stop criticising employees whose poor performance has improved. Also negative reinforcement occurs when parents give in to their childrens' tantrums – especially in public places, such as restaurants and shopping malls.

Thus, both positive and negative reinforcement are procedures that strengthen or increase behaviour. Positive reinforcement strengthens or increases behaviour by the presentation of desirable consequences. On the other hand, negative reinforcement strengthens and increases behaviour by the threat of and use of undesirable consequences. Negative reinforcement is sometimes confused with punishment, because both use unpleasant stimuli to influence behaviour.

Activity 1

In the context of your role as a student, identify examples of each schedules of reinforcement that influence your behaviour. Which works best? Why?

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5.5 ROLE AND METHODS OF REINFORCEMENT

From the discussions so far we have seen that reinforcement plays a major role especially in human resources management areas such as training, appraisal, adaption to change and performance. Moreover, reinforcement is also a powerful tool to increase desirable behaviour and reduce undesirable patterns of behaviour. It is to be remembered that more than reinforces, it is the pattern (or manner) and the time in which reinforcement is administered which has an impact on the resulting behaviour. So let us have a look at the methods of administering reinforcement in organisations.

There are four methods of administering reinforcement in organisations: (a) the fixed ratio method; (b) the variable ratio method; (c) the fixed interval schedule; and (d) the variable interval schedule.

a) Fixed Ratio Method

Under this technique reinforcement is given after a certain specified number of responses are shown. A fixed ratio which reinforces after every response is called 1 : 1 to begin with when learning progresses, we shift to a fixed ratio of 2 : 1, 4 : 1, and so on and so forth.

This technique can bring about a high rate of response. This is because when the employee realises that the reinforcement is contingent upon the number of responses, then he is motivated to perform well so as to achieve the specified award. An example is that other things remaining the same, the worker's performance should remain energetic and continue to be steady.

But in reality things may not be the same and this technique may not lead to the same kind of behaviour.

b) Variable Ratio Method

As per this method, a certain number of desired behaviours must occur before reinforcer is delivered. Managers make use of a variable ratio schedule with praise and recognition. State or other lotteries use this method of reinforcement to lure patrons.

c) Fixed Interval Schedule

Under this schedule, the reinforcement is administered after a specific period of time, which is measured from the last reinforced response. For example, in a fixed interval, one hour schedule, the first desired behaviour that occurs after an hour has elapsed is reinforced.

But administering rewards as per this schedule produces an uneven pattern of behaviour. Prior to the reinforcement, the behaviour is frequent and energetic but immediately after the reinforcement, the behaviour becomes less frequent and energetic. This behaviour could be because the person knows that the next reward will take time to come. A common instance of this reinforcement is the payment of wages to employees on hourly, weekly or monthly basis.

d) Variable or Interval Schedule

Either ratio or interval schedules can be administered on a variable basis. That is, the reinforcement is given in an irregular or haphazard manner. This variable interval schedule is slightly different from the variable ratio schedule. Under this schedule, the reward is reinforced after a randomly distributed length of time rather than after a specified number of responses. For instance, if it is said that the employee is being reinforced after a 50 minute variable interval schedule, it implies that on an average, the individual is reinforced after 50 minutes though the actual reinforcement may be given anywhere from every few seconds to every 2-3 hours.

Although we have mentioned the four most commonly used methods of reinforcement, quite a few organisations use a few combinations of these four reinforcements.

5.6 PUNISHMENT

Punishment is the attempt to eliminate or weaken an undesirable behaviour. It is in two ways – one way to punish a person is to apply a negative consequence called punishers – following an undesirable behaviour. The other way to punish a person is to withhold a positive consequence following an undesirable behaviour. Even though punishment may stop an undesirable behaviour of an employee, the potential negative outcomes may be greater than the cost of undesirable behaviour.

It is generally accepted that the reinforcing desired behaviour is more effective than punishing undesirable behaviour. However, C.C. Walters and J.E. Brusek (1977) suggested after a review of research that punishment can be effective if it meets the following conditions:

- The punishment should be quick and short.
- It should be administered immediately after the undesirable behaviour.
- It should be limited to its intensity.
- It should specifically relate to behaviour and not to character traits.
- It should be restricted to the context in which the undesirable behaviour occurs.
- It should not send ‘mixed messages’ about what is accepted behaviour.
- Penalties should take the form of withdrawal of rewards, not physical pain.

Managers rely on punishment because it produces faster and immediate change in the employee’s behaviour. However, it is imperative on the part of the manager to view the long term detrimental effects of punishment and only try to use a punishment suitable to the situational requirement.

Activity 2

What type of punishment should be used by the managers of your organisation for disciplining employees? Give reasons.

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5.7 EXTINCTION

An alternate to punishing undesirable behaviour is extinction. Extinction is the weakening of a behaviour by ignoring it or making sure it is not reinforced. The rationale for using extinction is that a behaviour not followed by any reinforcer is weakened. In other words, if rewards are withdrawn for behaviour that were previously reinforced, the behaviours probably will become less frequent and eventually die out. Extinction needs time and patience to be effective.

Extinction, as a type of reinforcement is applied to reduce undesirable behaviour, especially when such behaviours were previously rewarded. From organisational point of view, if an employee is consistently late to work and thus consistently fails to get praise from his superior and is not recommended for a pay raise, then we would expect this reinforcement to lead to “extinction” of the habit of behaviour of coming late to work.

5.8 ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

The importance of learning was first put forward by a Chinese philosopher, Confucius (551-479 BC) in these words: “Without learning, the wise become foolish; by learning, the foolish become wise”. Learning refers to relatively permanent changes in behaviour occurring as a result of experience. The concept of learning organisation is not new; many authors have talked about it from others and their own past experiences. Probably, Garratt was the first to publish a book on the subject in 1987. But the concept was popularised by Senge when his famous book “The Fifth Discipline” was released in 1990. Senge’s book triggered a great deal of interest in the subject of learning organisations. A large number of publications appeared on the subject during the current decade.

Concept and Definition

In 1970s, Argyris proposed the concept of a different qualitative learning. Contrasted with traditional learning, or the ‘single-loop’ learning (involving incremental change within an existing framework), ‘double-loop’ learning emphasised testing of the underlying assumptions and achieving transformational change. Senge contrasted adaptive learning with generative learning.

David Garvin (1993), defines a learning organization as “an organization skilled at creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge and at modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights.”

The above definition is of interest for a number of reasons. First, it focuses on ‘behaviour’. Second, it implies that organisations have skills, an essential one being that of learning. Third, it focuses on ‘transferring knowledge’. Finally, the use of concepts such as ‘skills’, ‘knowledge’, and ‘modifying behaviour’ indicate a language suggestive of HRD practice.

Peter M. Senge in his ground breaking book, *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of The Learning Organization*, described a learning organization as “a place where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to learn together.”

Ross, Smith, Roberts and Kleiner advocate this definition: “Learning in an organization means the continuous testing of experience and the transformation of that experience into knowledge - accessible to the whole organization and relevant to its core purpose.”

Organisational learning means the process of improving actions through better knowledge acquisition, clearer understanding, and improved performance. It is a method of detecting and correcting errors. The main issues in organisational learning are (three Ms):

- Meaning - Well-grounded definition of learning organisations; It must be actionable and easy to apply.
- Management - Clearer guidelines for practice, filled with operational advice rather than high aspirations.
- Measurement - Better tools for assessing an organisation's rate and level of learning to ensure that gains in fact have been made.

Further, a learning organisation is one which facilitates the learning of all its members, and which continuously transforms itself.

5.9 LEARNING ORGANISATION

A learning organisation:

- Is an active philosophy; not merely an organisational system.
- Believes that its only competitive advantage is learning.
- Encourages people to learn to produce the results they desire.
- Nurtures creative and innovative patterns of collective learning.
- Develops fresh organisational capabilities all the time.

New ideas are essential if learning is to take place. Whatever their source, these ideas trigger organisational improvement. However, creating or acquiring new knowledge is not enough; what is more important is the successful application of knowledge in one's own activities. Learning organisations are skilled at five main activities:

- 1) Systematic Problem-Solving:
 - Relying on the scientific method rather than guesswork for diagnosing problems.
 - Insisting on data rather than assumptions, as background for decision-making.
 - Depending on simple statistical tools to organise data and draw inferences
- 2) Experimentation:
 - Systematic searching for and testing of new knowledge. Continuous improvement in new methods and technologies.
 - Successful ongoing programmes to ensure a steady flow of new ideas, even if imported from outside the organisation.
 - Demonstration of organisational capabilities by introducing self-managing teams and high level of worker autonomy.
- 3) Learning from Past Experience:
 - Companies must review their success and failures, assess them systematically and record lessons in a form that employees find open and accessible.

- 4) Learning from Others:
 - Sometimes, the most powerful insights come from one's immediate outside environment.
 - Even companies in completely different businesses can be fertile sources of ideas and catalysts for creative thinking.
 - Best industry practices are to be uncovered, analysed, adopted and implemented.
 - The greatest benefits come from studying practices; the way work gets done rather than results.
- 5) Transferring Knowledge:
 - Knowledge must spread quickly and efficiently throughout the organisation.
 - Make use of mechanisms such as written and oral communications, site visits and tours, personnel rotation programmes, education and training programmes for transferring knowledge.
 - Transfer may be from division to division, department to department, or facility to facility; they may involve senior, middle, or first level managers.

Characteristics of Learning Organisation

Some of the common operational practices of learning organisations dealing with people are openness, systematic thinking, creativity, awareness of personal and organisational values, empathy and sensitivity.

Senge, who popularised the term learning organisation states that such organisations have the following five principles:

- 1) **Personal Mastery:** Creating an organisational environment, which encourages all its members to develop themselves toward goals and purposes they choose.
- 2) **Mental Models:** Reflecting upon, continually clarifying, and improving internal pictures of the world, and seeing how they shape our actions and decisions.
- 3) **Shared Vision:** Building a sense of commitment in a group, by developing shared images of the future and guiding principles and practices.
- 4) **Team Learning:** Transforming conversational and collective thinking skills, so that groups of people can reliably develop intelligence and ability greater than the sum of individual members' talents.
- 5) **Systems Thinking:** Thinking about, and a language for describing and understanding forces and interrelationships that shapes the behaviour of systems.

These principles translate into the following three key practices that enable an organisation to promote and support continuous learning:

- 1) The ability to learn from each other
- 2) The ability to learn from personal experience
- 3) The ability to learn from the system (that is, organisation successes and failures)

A learning organisation is characterised by:

Openness: The learning organisation has to be open to enquiry and tolerant of criticism and debate.

Innovation: The learning organisation has an organic structure and culture which permits it to evolve rapidly. It has a deep skill base and capacity to deal internally with complexity and uncertainty.

Strategic Orientation: The learning organisation cares both for its customer and its employees.

Pedler (1991), suggest eleven features or characteristics that will be present in a learning organisation. They are as follows:

- 1) The learning approach or strategy
- 2) Participative policy making
- 3) Informating
- 4) Formative accounting and control
- 5) Internal exchange
- 6) Reward flexibility
- 7) Enabling structures
- 8) Boundary workers as environmental scanners
- 9) Inter-company learning
- 10) Learning climate
- 11) Self-development opportunities for all

Organisations of the future will not survive without becoming communities of learning. It is absolutely essential for organisations to learn from their environments, to continually adjust to new and changing data, and just as in the case with the individual, to learn how to learn from the uncertain and unpredictable future.

Garvin argues that organisations learn through five main activities: (1) systematic problem solving; (2) experimentation with new approaches; (3) learning from their own experience and past history; (4) learning from the experiences and best practices of others; and (5) transferring knowledge quickly and efficiently throughout the organisation.

Organisational learning is the result of an ongoing process that includes the following:

Intrapersonal Processes

- 1) Assimilating information.
- 2) Translating that information into knowledge.
- 3) Applying that knowledge to real needs.
- 4) Receiving feedback to revise the information and reshape the knowledge.

Three levels of training interact to make up organisational learning:

- a) individual learning,
- b) small group learning; and
- c) whole organisational learning.

Individual learning occurs as each employee acquires the knowledge, develops the skills, and adopts the attitudes and beliefs that will help the organisation succeed.

Small group learning occurs as the members of a group discover together how best to contribute to the performance of the group as a whole. They learn from and about each other, they learn how to work effectively as a group, and how to apply that knowledge in order to achieve the purposes of the group.

Organisational learning occurs through the shared insights, knowledge, and mental models of the organisation. Organisational learning builds on past knowledge and experience, i.e., on organisational memory, which depends on institutional mechanisms (e.g. policies, strategies, and explicit models) used to retain knowledge.

Application of Learning in Organisations

Three systematic approaches to incorporating learning in organisations involve training, organisational behaviour management and discipline.

Training: Training is the process through which people systematically acquire and improve the skills and knowledge needed to better job performance. Many executive training programmes systematically attempt to develop the skills of their top managers. This is accomplished either by bringing in outside experts to train personnel in-house, or by sending them to specialised programmes conducted by outside agencies.

The principles that help in the effectiveness of training are:

- 1) **Participation:** People not only learn more quickly, but also retain the skills longer when they have actively participated in the learning process.
- 2) **Repetition:** The benefits of repetition for learning new skills or performing a task need not be emphasised.
- 3) **Transfer of Training:** What is learned during training sessions must be applied on the job.
- 4) **Feedback:** It is extremely difficult for learning to occur in the absence of feedback - that is, knowledge of the results of one's actions. Feedback provides information about the effectiveness of one's training.

Organisational Behaviour Management: It implies systematic application of positive reinforcement principles in organisational settings for the purpose of raising the incidence of desirable organisational behaviours. To be effective in using organisational behaviour management programmes, managers should:

- 1) Pinpoint the desired behaviour.
- 2) Determine exactly how will people perform the behaviour they wish to change.
- 3) Determine exactly what performance goal is being sought.
- 4) Decide exactly how the desired behaviour will be rewarded.
- 5) Facilitate learning by rewarding behaviours that come closer to the criterion.
- 6) Reevaluate the programme periodically.

Discipline: Just as organisations systematically use rewards to encourage desirable behaviour, they also use punishment to discourage undesirable behaviour. There are innumerable problems in an organisation such as absenteeism, late coming, theft, alcoholism, substance abuse, which cost companies vast sums of money. The companies manage such situations by timely administration of punishment.

Learning Disabilities

Senge in his book has identified a number of learning disabilities. Some of them are listed below:

- a) The myth of teamwork (i.e., most teams operate below the level of lowest IQ in the group).
- b) The delusion of learning from experience (i.e., attempting to understand the future by relying on the past, which means we solve the same problem over and over again, hence we make the problem worse).
- c) To offset the learning disabilities, he has enunciated Laws of the Fifth Discipline:
 - 1) Today's problems come from yesterday's "solutions".
 - 2) The harder you push, the harder the system pushes back.
 - 3) Behaviour grows better before it grows worse.
 - 4) The easy way out usually leads back in.
 - 5) The cure can be worse than the disease.
 - 6) Faster is slower.
 - 7) Cause and effect are not closely related in time and space.
 - 8) Small changes can produce big results — but the areas of highest leverage are often the least obvious.
 - 9) You can have your cake and eat it too — but not at once.

- 10) Dividing an elephant in half does not produce two small elephants.
- 11) There is no blame.

Developing the Learning Organisation

There are three primary tasks toward developing the learning organisation.

- 1) First, leaders and managers must create opportunities for learning.
- 2) Second, they must foster desirable norms and behaviours.
- 3) Third, they must personally lead the process of discussion, raise questions, listen attentively and provide feedback.

Organisations learn only through individuals who learn. Individual learning does not guarantee organisational learning; but without it no organisational learning occurs. The approach that needs to be taken is that learning must be continuous and integrated so that employees understand and accept the need for change which finally results in improved work culture.

Learning organisations are not built overnight. It is a slow and steady process of cultivated attitudes, commitments and management processes. Any company that wishes to become a learning organisation can begin by taking a few simple steps. The first step is to foster an environment that is conducive to learning. The second step is to open up boundaries and stimulate the exchange of ideas. The third step is to eliminate barriers that impede learning and assign learning a higher position in the organisational agenda.

Based on a large number of case studies, Ramnarayan and Bhatnagar (1993), laid out the following factors that facilitate organisational learning:

- 1) Commitment to well-defined organisational priorities.
- 2) Effective HRD systems.
- 3) Mechanisms of collective thinking.
- 4) Flexible and participative leadership styles.
- 5) Collaboration and teamwork.

They also found the following factors that hinder organisational learning:

- 1) Culture of complacency arising from past successes.
- 2) Excessive bureaucratic and centralised methods of working leading to delays.
- 3) Narrow definition of roles of organisational members in hierarchical organisation leading to loss of creativity among employees.
- 4) Due to preoccupation with day-to-day firefighting functions, less attention is usually given to important issues of change and innovation.

5.10 BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Ashok was recently transferred to ABC firm's office in Mumbai. Though the

Manager did not know much about Ashok she realised that, Ashok was a little aggressive in his approach and whenever he was expected to work in a team, he would end up arguing. This was having grave impact on the other team members and the employees in the firm.

Udit worked as a clerk in accounts department of an organization. Any time a job was assigned to him, though he would try to do his best, he could never complete in time and would make lots of errors. This would not only affect his performance but would also impact the overall work of that department.

In the above case studies it can be seen that something is wrong with the behaviours of Ashok and Udit that may call for behaviour modification.

Before we try to understand what is behaviour modification, we first need to understand the term behaviour. Behaviour can be described as any overt manifestation of the individual. It can be related to what is said or done by the individual behaviour can be further described in terms of behaviour deficit or behaviour excesses. Behaviour deficit indicates absence or lack of something, where as behaviour excesses indicates certain behaviour that is not under control and is excessive. For example, in a work set up, if an employee is not been able to adequately interact with others which has resulted in lowering of team productivity and performance then it can be said that there is behaviour deficit. On the other hand is an employee has been very aggressive, which has resulted in damage to the organisational property then this can be termed as behaviour excessive. Such behaviours can cause problem and need modification.

Behaviour Modification is mainly based on learning theories and there are five main principles underlying this technique (Rao, 2003):

- 1) As human behaviour is mainly learned (except in case of maturation process), it is possible to modify it.
- 2) Behaviour can be changed based on the changes in the environment.
- 3) The principles of social learning can be effectively used to change or modify behaviour, for example, modelling can be used effectively to change behaviour (as is done in various advertisements).
- 4) The behaviour change can be an indicator of effectiveness of counselling or the behavioural modification process.
- 5) The counselling or the behaviour modification technique used needs to be based on the needs of the individual whose behaviour is to be modified.

Behaviour modification involves encouragement of desirable behaviour and removal or minimisation of behaviour that is undesirable. This can also be done with the help of reinforcement, which can be positive or negative. Behaviour modification thus involves techniques that are scientifically tested and can be used to reduce certain behaviours that are maladaptive in nature and increase behaviours that are healthy or adaptive.

The first reference to behaviour modification can be traced to an article written by Thorndike in 1911 titled “Provisional Laws of Acquired Behaviour or Learning in which he referred to ‘modifying behaviour’. Various learning theories

like Classical conditioning by Pavlov, Operant Conditioning by Skinner and social learning theory by Bandura further contributed to the development of this field. Various experiments were carried out by Skinner that indicated that behaviour could be modified with the help of reinforcements (both positive and negative).

Concepts in Behaviour Modification

Let us understand the significant concepts in this regard

- **Law of effect:** One of the main principles of behaviour modification is that the behaviour mainly depends of its outcome. Thus if the outcome is controlled or manipulated the behaviour can also be managed. For example, if the out come of tantrums by a child is gaining of the toy he/she wanted then the likelihood of this behaviour (of throwing tantrums) being repeated is high. But if the outcome is manipulated then this behaviour can be changed. Thus the law of effect has significantly contributed to behaviour modification. Law of effect states that “a person tends to repeat behaviour that is accompanied by favourable consequences and tends to not repeat behaviour that is accompanied by unfavourable consequences (Newstrom and Davis, 1997, pg 132). Thus this also requires the counsellor or the immediate superior or manager of the employee to identify the possible consequences that need to be modified or manipulated. In this regard either positive or negative reinforcement can be suitably used.
- **Positive reinforcement and shaping:** Using positive reinforcement increases the likelihood that the behaviour that is reinforced will be repeated. “A positive reinforcement is a stimulus or event which, when it follows a response, increases the likelihood that the response will be made again (Morgan et al, 1996, pg 149). For example, if an employees is punctual then this behaviour can be reinforced by his/ her manager/ supervisor by recognising it and even verbally complementing the employee. Yet another concept in this context is that of shaping. This mainly involves application of positive reinforcement in a more systematic and gradual manner. This can help shape the behaviour of the employee. For example, when a new recruit joins, the manager can systematically and gradually shape his/her behaviour towards becoming more productive by giving positive reinforcement as and when the right behaviour is displayed by him/her. Rewards can also be effectively used to promote right behaviours.
- **Negative reinforcement and punishment :** Using negative reinforcement increases the likelihood that the behaviour that is reinforced will not be repeated. “A negative reinforcer is a stimulus or event which, when its cessation or termination is contingent on a response, increases the likelihood that the response will occur again” (Morgan et al, 1996, pg 149) This mainly involves removal of an outcome that is not favourable. For example in order to avoid the smell of chemicals the employee is encouraged to use a mask. In this case the use of a safety device that is mask is reinforced due to the negative reinforcement that is created by the smell of the chemicals.

Punishment is not same as negative reinforcement and in punishment, the behaviour is followed by outcome that is not favourable. “ A punisher is a

stimulus or event which, when its onset is contingent on a response, decreases the likelihood that the response will occur again” (Morgan et al, 1996, pg 150). For example, if an employee has not been following the safety norms then he/ she has to pay a fine. Punishment have its own advantages and disadvantages. Whee on one hand it conveys strong message, on the other, the punisher may not be liked by others or the employee or subordinates.

- **Extinction:** It is also to be noted that if a particular reinforced behaviour is not reinforced, extinction of that behaviour could take place due to lack of reinforcement. For example, an employee who was earlier awarded for his/ her innovative ideas, was not reinforced recently when he/ she came up with a creative solution to an impending problem, then this behaviour is likely to become extinct. Thus the managers also need to be cautious in this regard so as to avoid certain favourable behaviours of the employees from going extinct.

5.11 BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION PROCESS

The behaviour modification process is discussed as follows:

- 1) **Setting of the goal:** The main goal of behaviour modifications is bringing about a change in behaviour, as discussed before, this change can be in terms of a behaviour that is newly developed like learning a new skill or further strengthening of a behaviour, for example, a person may have leadership skills but they can be further enhanced. It can also include maintenance of a particular behaviour like safety related behaviour and practices or hygienic behaviour and last but not the least, decreasing or eliminating the unwanted behaviour, aggressive behaviour, for example, can be completely eliminated.
- 2) **Behavioural Assessment:** As discussed above, before the behaviour modification process is started, the goal has to be whether behaviour is to be strengthened or reduce or a new behaviour is to be developed or a particular behaviour is to be maintained is to be decided. This can be decided based on the behavioural assessment. A behavioural assessment will help understand the problem in a better manner. This assessment includes the following:
 - **Frequency:** How frequent is the behaviour. For example, if a person has been aggressive just once, we can say that it was due to the situation and the person may not be as such aggressive by nature. But if the person has been aggressive a number of times then this is a matter of concern.
 - **Duration:** For how long the behaviour has been persistent is also important to be noted. For example, the duration that the employee has been aloof or upset or displaying lack of interest in job related activities.
 - **Intensity:** This has to do with the severity of the behaviour. For example, how extreme was the aggressiveness displayed by the employee.

The behaviour is further analysed with the help of functional analysis, that can be done using ABC,

A, that stands for Antecedent, that is, what happened before the behaviour B, stands for Behaviour, the behaviour of the employee C, stands for consequences. What happened after the behaviour.

3) **The intervention or techniques that could be used are specified:** To suggest or specify a particular intervention or technique it is necessary that

- the antecedent factors are mentioned and described,
- the consequences are also noted down,
- the goals of behaviour modification are specified and,
- target response that requires to be changed is noted

Once this is done then suitable technique for behaviour modification can be used.

4) **Evaluation and followup:** Evaluation and follow up are carried out to see if any change in the behaviour has taken place or not. If there are no changes in the behaviour after use of a particular intervention or technique, the same can be changed or modified.

Activity 3

Explain behavioural assessment.

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5.12 ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION (OBM)

OBM can be defined as “a programme in which manager identifies a work related behaviour and encourages the same by suitable intervention strategy having positive motivation till the undesirable behaviour is weakened and desirable behaviour is strengthened” (Singh, 2003 pg 330).

Organisational Behaviour Modification (OBM) can be described as a form of operant conditioning that mainly used by Lutherans and Kreitner in order to shape the behaviours of the employees (Quick, Nelson and Khandelwal, 2013). Stajkovic and Lutherans (1997) carried out a meta analysis of the effect of OBM on task performance. The review indicated that OBM had a positive and significant effect on the task performance of employees in both service and manufacturing organisations.

OBM can be effectively applied in an organisational set up in order to:

- Improve employee productivity
- Promote discipline amongst the employees

- Ensure and enhance the safety related behaviour of the employees.
- Development of training programs
- Employee self management

OBM also helps the immediate supervisors or managers to carry out an analysis of the employees' behaviour, the reasons for its occurrence and consequences so that it can be changed. Thus the manager/ supervisor can become more observant and learn to carefully monitor employee behaviour. In this context some of the general principles to be followed by the manager/ supervisor (Newstrom and Davis, 1997) are highlighted as follows:

- 1) **The behaviour that needs modification has to be identified:** The manager/ supervisor has to first identify the behaviour that requires modification. For example, if the employee has been frequently smoking in the workshop area, thus violating the norm of not smoking, this is the behaviour that needs modification.
- 2) **Using positive reinforcement whenever possible and sparingly using punishment:** Positive reinforcements should be used more often and punishments should be avoided and to be used only when absolutely necessary.
- 3) **Certain minor behaviours that are undesirable could be ignored:** Certain behaviours that do not have major repercussions or negative consequences could be ignored. This again will depend on the judgement of the manager/ supervisor.
- 4) **Shaping can be adequately used:** Systematic and gradual positive reinforcement can be used effectively to reinforce desirable behaviour.
- 5) **The time between the correct response or behaviour and the reinforcement should be minimal:** This is especially important as the employee will then associate the reinforcement with the behaviour and only then the likelihood of desirable behaviour being repeated and undesirable behaviour being avoided will increase. For example, if an employee achieved a target given to him in given time, then he/ she should be immediately rewarded.
- 6) **Reinforcement should be frequently provided:** This is also to be done to avoid extinction of behaviours besides to encourage desirable behaviours and discourage undesirable behaviours.

Role of Manager in application of OBM

The role of the manager and is extremely important in this context and besides above there certain other guidelines are to be followed by them (Furnham, 2005), these are discussed as follows:

- 1) All the employees should not be reinforced or rewarded in the same manner. In this regard there is no doubt that the manager has to be fair and just. However, the reinforcement or the reward should be linked to the individual performance or based on some criteria also needs to be informed

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- to the employees before hand. Further, the reinforcement provided should also match the behaviour or the performance output.
- 2) The employees need to know what is expected of them, only then they will be motivated to work in that direction. They should have a fair idea about whether quality, quantity or both is expected and how exactly they perform will be measured. There should be great transparency in this and further no discrimination should exist to ensure successful behavioural modification.
 - 3) Besides informing the employees about what they are doing in a right manner, they also need to be informed of what they are doing wrong. For example, if an employee is not using safety devices, he/ she needs to be informed that it is wrong. Such feedback will help in bringing about behavioural change.
 - 4) As it is said, praise in public but criticise in a closed room. In same lines any unwarranted behaviour preferably should be criticised or punished in absence of others as otherwise there could be detrimental effects as the employee may feel insulted and the necessary change will not be in the direction that it was expected.

The managers/ supervisors need to be adequately trained to use the principles and techniques of OBM in order for it to be effective. Besides the managers/ supervisor as well as the employees and the management should have positive attitude towards OBM and its application.

Criticisms of Organisational Behaviour Modification

Though to a greater extent organisational behaviour modification can be effectively used to modify behaviour, it has also been criticised. Most often the principles of behaviour modifications can be applied to very controlled situation, however, when it comes to situations involving subtle interactions and performances that are necessarily interdependent, it may not be possible to apply behaviour modification. This can be effectively used with workers or employees at lower levels, but not much evidence is available with regard to how it can be used successfully with higher level employees (Mckenna, 2012). OBM has also been criticised due to ethical issues, as it mainly involves manipulation of behaviour or even punishment and in this context what is right or wrong depends on the manager or superior. This can also be misused by the managers and they may abuse this power to control the behaviours of their subordinates. It is thus necessary that the manipulation of the behaviour is done in a constructive and positive manner

Activity 4

A) Define Organisational Behaviour Modification.

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B) Discuss the role of managers in application of OBM.

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5.13 SUMMARY

In this unit, we tried to understand concept of learning and its relevance in organisations. Then it explained the concept of learning organisations and how they can be evolved. The process of behaviour modification and its relevance in organisations is explained.

5.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What is learning? What are its distinguishing features?
- 2) What are the four basic reinforcement strategies employed in encouraging desirable behaviour and discouraging undesirable behaviour?
- 3) How do you distinguish between classical and operant conditioning? What relevance these concepts have in an organisational setting?
- 4) Explain the various approaches to learning. How does each approach differ from the other?
- 5) What are the schedules of reinforcement? In your opinion, which one of the schedules is more suitable for continuous desirable behaviour?
- 6) Define learning curves. Differentiate between positive and negative reinforcement.
- 7) What is learning organisation? What are its distinguishing characteristics?

5.15 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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UNIT 6 PERCEPTION AND ATTRIBUTION

Objectives

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

- understand the meaning and nature of perception
- identify various factors influencing perception
- explain different characteristics of perceiver and facets of impression management.

Structure

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Definition and Nature of Perception
- 6.3 Basic Elements in Perceptual Process
- 6.4 Factors Influencing Perception
- 6.5 Perceptual Organisation
- 6.6 Social Perception
- 6.7 Impression Management
- 6.8 Attribution
- 6.9 Perception: Errors and Remedies
- 6.10 Perception and its Application in Organisations
- 6.11 Summary
- 6.12 Self-Assessment Questions
- 6.13 Further Readings/ References

6.1 INTRODUCTION

We humans seem to attach meanings, interpretations, values and aims to our actions. What we do in the world depends on how we understand our place in it, depends on how we perceive ourselves and our social and physical environment, depends on how we perceive our circumstances. We explain behavior with terms like ‘reasons’, ‘motive’, ‘intention’, ‘purpose’, ‘desire’ and so on.

Therefore, the issue is- each one of us perceives the world around us in different ways. It is our personal perception of that reality which shapes and directs our behavior, and some ‘objective’ understanding of external reality. For example, if one person on a hillside perceives that it is cold, he will reach for his sweater. On the other hand, if the person standing next to him perceives that it is warm, he will remove his sweater. These contrasting behaviours can be witnessed happening at the same time, regardless of the actual ambient temperature as measured by a thermometer. Another example would be the universal assumption made by managers that subordinates always want promotion when,

in fact, many subordinates really psychologically forced to accept a promotion. Managers seldom attempt to find out and some times themselves do not know, whether promotion should be offered. In other words, the perceptual world of the manager is quite different from the perceptual world of the subordinates and both may be different from reality. Thus, it is clear that human behavior is a function of the way in which we perceive the world around us, and how we perceive other people and events in that world.

We often find ourselves unable to understand other people's behaviour. To understand each other's behaviour, we need to be able to understand each other's perceptions. First of all, we need to be able to understand why we perceive things differently.

Perception is the selection and organisation of environmental stimuli to provide meaningful experiences for the perceiver. It is the process through which the information from outside environment is selected, received, organised and interpreted to make it meaningful. It is an important input in individual behaviour. The receiver, the received, and the situation influences one's perception. It is an important variable affecting several areas of an organisation. The differences between the perceptual worlds of the employees and managers and the reality of the organisation will provide the basic inputs into the understanding of organisational behaviour.

In this unit, we try to understand the individual differences in terms of the various factors affecting perception, the perception process, and the working of perceptual organisation. Attribution theory also forms a part of this unit.

6.2 DEFINITION AND NATURE OF PERCEPTION

Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment – seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling. In simple terms, perception is understood as the act of seeing what is there to be seen. “The study of perception is concerned with identifying the processes through which we interpret and organise sensory information to produce our conscious experience of objects and object relationship.” It is the process of receiving information about and making sense of the world around us.

Perception implicates the search for obtaining and processing of the information in the mind. It can also be referred to as a psychological process where people obtain (or take) information from the environment and make sense of their worlds.

Very often two people who have seen the same thing end up interpreting it differently. The reason for such occurrence is because of the involvement of an extremely complex cognitive process mentioned above. Each person has a unique perception resulting in individual differences in processing information which is received. Perception plays a very important role in shaping the personality of an individual. Through the process of perception individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions, so as to provide meaning to their environment. It is possible that what is perceived by the individual may be quite different from actual reality.

Nature of Perception

It is to be noted that perception is a unique interpretation of the situation by the individual and that it is not an identical recording of it. Thus, we have to remember:

- Perception is a complex cognition process, giving a unique interpretation (or picture) of the world, which may be very much different from reality at times.
- There is a lot of difference between the perceptual world and the real world.
- Many of the problems occurring in organisations (related to organisational behaviour) are often found to be the problems of perception.

Activity 1

Choose a film that you have seen recently and which you enjoy particularly. Now, find a friend or colleague who has also seen the same film but disliked it. Share your views of that film. What factors (age, sex, background, education, interests, values and beliefs, social views, past experience, and so on) can you identify that explain the differences in perception between you and your friend or college?

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6.3 BASIC ELEMENTS IN PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

We process and interpret the incoming raw data in the light of our experiences, in terms of our current needs and interest, in terms of our knowledge, expectations, beliefs and motives. Perception may be defined as the dynamic psychological process elements in the perceptual process are illustrated in Figure 1.

From a psychological point of view, the process of sensation, on the one hand, and perception, on the other, work together through what are termed respectively ‘bottom-up’ and ‘top-down’ processing.

The bottom-up phase concerns the way in which we process the raw data received by our sensory apparatus. One of the key characteristics of bottom-up processing concerns the need for selectivity. We are simply not able to process all of the sensory information available to us at any given time. Bottom-up processing screens or filters out redundant and less relevant information so that we can focus on what is important.

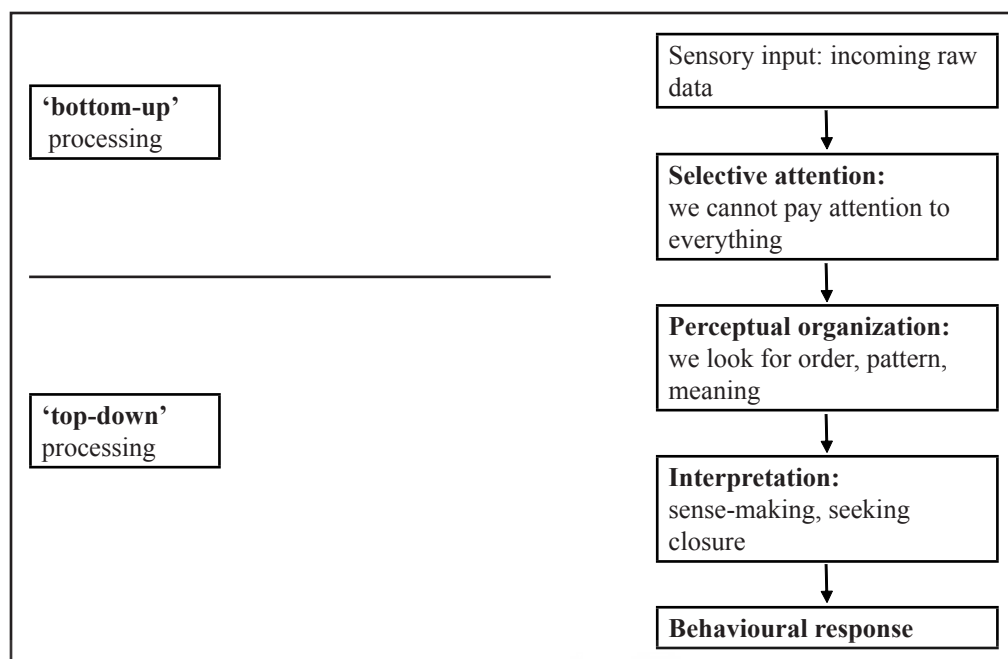


Figure 1: The Process of Perception

On the other hand, ‘top-down’ phase concerns the mental processing that allows us to order, interpret and make sense of the world around us. One of the key characteristics of top-down processing concerns our need to make sense of our environment and our search for meaning.

This distinction between sensation (bottom-up) and perception (top-down) can be illustrated in our ability to make sense of incomplete or even incorrect sensory information. For example, the missing letter or comma, or the incorrectly spelled term, does not normally interfere with the comprehension of the human reader:

This sentence is incorrect, but you will still be able to understand it

In the above example, our top-down conceptual processing ability means that we are able to fill in the gaps and correct the mistakes and thus make sense of ‘imperfect’ incoming raw data.

All of us have a similar nervous system and share more or less common sensory equipment. However, we have different social and physical backgrounds which give us different values, interests and expectations and therefore different perceptions. We do not behave in, and in response to, the world ‘as it really is’. This idea of the ‘real world’ is somewhat arbitrary. In fact, we have, and in response to, the world as we perceive it. We each live in our own perceptual world.

Perception is a dynamic process because it involves ordering and attaching meaning to raw sensory data. Our sensory apparatus is bombarded with vast amounts of information. We are not ‘passive recorders’ of this sensory data. We are constantly sifting and sorting this stream of information, making sense of it and interpreting it. Therefore, it can be said that perception is an information-processing activity. This information processing concerns the phenomena of selective attention (perceptual selectivity) and perceptual organisation.

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Selective attention is the ability, often exercised unconsciously, to choose from the stream of sensory data to concentrate on particular elements and to ignore others. The internal and external factors which affect selective attention are illustrated in Figure 2.

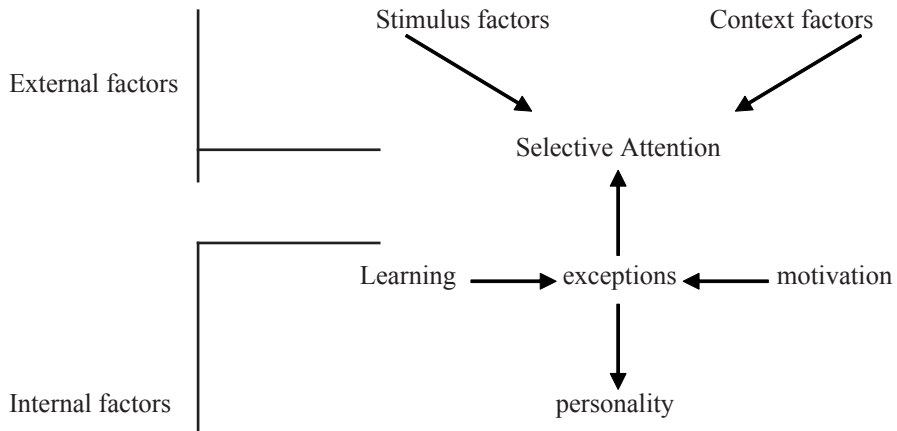


Figure 2: External and Internal Factors Influencing Selective Attention

The external factors affecting selective attention concern stimulus factors and context factors. With respect to the stimulus factors, for example, our attention is drawn more readily to stimuli which are described in Table 1.

Table 1

large	rather than	small
bright		dull
loud		quiet
strong		weak
unfamiliar		familiar
moving		stationery

However, it may be noted that we do not merely respond to single feature rather we respond to the pattern of stimuli available to us.

Activity 2

Identify examples of the ways in which advertisements creatively use stimulus factors to attract or attention in newspapers and magazines and on billboards and television.

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Our attention is also influenced by context factors. For example, the naval commander on the ship’s bridge and the cook in the kitchen may both have occasion to shout “fire”, but these identical utterances will mean quite different things to those within earshot and will lead t radically different forms of behaviour (involving the taking and the saving of lives respectively). Thus, it is clear that knowledge of the context also affect our attention.

The internal factors affecting perception are:

- **Learning:** Our past experience leads to the development of perceptual expectations or perceptual sets which give us predispositions to perceive and to pay attention to some stimuli and to ignore other information.
- **Personality:** Our personality traits also predispose us to perceive the world in particular ways, to pay attention to some issues and events and human characteristics and not others.
- **Motivation:** We are more likely to perceive as important, and thus to respond to, stimuli that we find motivating.

Much of perception can be described as classification or categorisation. We categorise people as male or female, lazy or energetic, extrovert or shy. We classify objects as cars, buildings, furniture, crockery and so on and we refine our classification schemes further under these headings. It may be noted here that these categories are learned. They are social constructs. What we learn is often culture-bound or culture-specific. For example, the British revulsion at the thought of eating dog (classified as pet), the Hindu revulsion at the thought of eating beef (classified as sacred) and the Islamic aversion to alcohol (classified as proscribed by the Koran) are all culturally transmitted emotions based on learned values.

However, different people within the same culture have different experiences and develop different expectations. The internal factors- our past experience and what we have learned, our personalities, our motivations- contribute to the development of our expectations of the world around us, what we want from it, what will happen in it and what should happen. We tend to select information that fits our expectations and pay less attention to information that does not.

Our categorization process and the search for meaning and pattern are key characteristics of perception. This perceptual work is captured by the concept of perceptual organization. Perceptual organisation is the process through which incoming stimuli are organized or patterned in systematic and meaningful ways.

Max Wertheimer first identified the principles by which the process of perceptual organization operates. The 'proximity principle' states that we tend to group together or to classify stimuli that are physically close to each other and which thus appear to 'belong' together. For example, note how you 'see' tree pairs rather than six blobs here:



The 'similarity principle' states that we classify or group together stimuli that resemble each other in appearance in some respect. For example, note how you 'see' four pairs here, not eight objects:



The fact that we are able to make use of incomplete and ambiguous information by 'filling in the gaps' from our own knowledge and past experience is known as the 'principle of closure'.

It has been noted that often different people perceive a situation differently, in terms of what is selectively perceived and how it is organised, interpreted and finally perceived by them. Individuals receive stimuli from the environment through their five senses namely, taste/smell/hearing/sight/touch. There is a tendency to selectively pay attention to certain aspects of the environment. In other words, a person's perceptual selection may be on account of the interplay of a complex set of factors, some are the internal factors while some form a part of external factors. Say, for instance, the personal secretary to the manager may ignore the sounds (or voices) of the other employees talking but jumps up and becomes alert as soon as the telephone starts ringing.

The next step involves the **perceptual organisation**. Since there will be variations in how people interpret what they perceive i.e., the person organises the stimuli selected into meaningful patterns depending upon the circumstances and the state of mind of those involved.

PERCEPTUAL SETS AND PERCEPTUAL WORLDS

In this unit, you have seen how the perceptual process selects incoming stimuli and organizes them into meaningful patterns. It has also been shown that this processing is influenced by learning, motivation and personality – factors which give rise to expectations. These expectations, in turn, make us more ready to respond to certain stimuli in certain ways and less ready to respond to others. This readiness to respond is called the individual's perceptual set.

A perceptual set is an individual's predisposition to respond to events in a particular manner. A perceptual set is also known as a mental set. As we tend to perceive what we expect to perceive, this can also be called our perceptual expectations. We must accept the fact that two people can observe the 'same' thing but perceive it in quite different ways. Many organisational problems, and particularly communication problems are created by failure to appreciate this feature of the perceptual process. For example, top management of an organisation may perceive that junior employees are overreacting to trivial issues and may dismiss their complaints lightly. On the other hand, the junior employees may perceive that their grievances are genuine and that the top management are simply not taking them seriously. In a situation like this, it makes little sense to ask whose perceptions are correct. The starting point for resolving issues such as this must lie with the recognition that different people hold different, but equally legitimate, views of the same set of circumstances.

Another common example is the differences in perception that occur between the union and management. Some researchers believe that perceptual differences are a major explanation for industrial disputes. The same "facts" in a dispute are perceived quite differently by union members and by management. For example, union members may perceive that they are underpaid whereas management perceives that they are overpaid for the amount of work they do. In reality, pay may have nothing to do with the ensuing dispute. It might be due to the workers not having control over their own jobs and getting any recognition and they are reacting by perceiving that they are underpaid.

We each have a perceptual world that is selective and partial which concentrates on features of particular interest and importance to us. The individual's

perceptual world is their personal internal image, map or picture of their social. Physical and organisational environment. Through the processes of learning, motivation and personality development, we each have different expectations and different degrees of readiness to respond to objects, people and events in different ways.

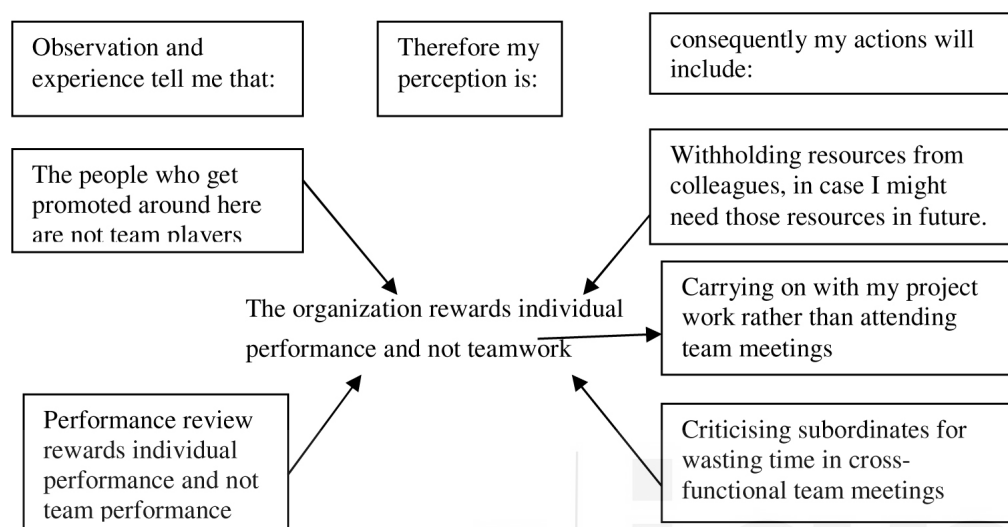


Figure 3: The information-perception-actions link

It may be noted here that our perceptions, that is the meanings that we attach to the information available to us, shape our actions. Behaviour in an organization context can usually be understood once we understand the way in which the individual perceives that context. Figure 3 illustrates the links between available information based on observation and experience, the perception based on that information and outcomes in terms of decisions with respect to actions.

Cultural factors also play a significant role in determining how we interpret available information and experience. Perceptual learning and development take place in the context of socio-cultural environment. It is therefore expected that the socio-cultural background of the individual will influence his/her perceptions. Accordingly, the nature of perceptual organisations will vary.

For example, one well-known piece of research compared the pace of life in six countries (Britain, Italy, Indonesia, Japan, Taiwan and the United States) by measuring:

- The accuracy of clocks in city bank branches,
- The speed at which city pedestrians walked, and
- The length of time it took to buy a postage stamp.

The research revealed that Japanese cities had the most accurate clocks, the fastest pedestrians and the most efficient post office clerks. Indonesian cities, in contrast, had the least accurate clocks and slowest pedestrians. Italy had the slowest post office clerks.

Therefore, it is clear that to understand an individual's behaviour, we need to know something of the elements in their perceptual world and the pattern of information and other cultural influences that have shaped that world. To

change an individual's behaviour, therefore, we first have to consider changing their perceptions through the information and experiences available to them.

6.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION

It has been understood that each one of us may be the same person, object or event and yet think of it differently. Supposing you visit an arts and craft exhibition, took a look around and then ask your friend also to visit the exhibition. Later on, when you exchange notes with your friend, you will be surprised to note that your friend's views and expressions about the display differ. Usually individuals are involved in a process of perceptual selection whereby people filter out most stimuli so that they can deal with the most important ones. This process depends on several factors. Let us have a look at those factors which affect the perceptual process:

The Perceiver

- **The understanding of what a person interprets when looking at the object or target being perceived will be influenced by the personal traits of the individual who perceives this:** For instance, we presume an individual is planning to purchase a car then it is observed that he starts noticing other brands of cars (falling within his budget) with more interest. Of course, this results in the purchase of a particular brand of car which is influenced by his perception. And this is how factors associated with the perceiver can greatly influence his or her perceptual process.
- **Attitude influences a person's perception:** We can take example, Suma and Uma are two friends who have cleared their bachelor's degree in management and are interested in pursuing further studies and get into reputed business management institutes for obtaining a MBA degree. In order to improve their personality, both of them get enrolled; into a well-known personality development centre. Suma enjoys interacting in a small group because of personal interaction between the lecturer and the student group. However, Uma basically being an introvert preferred to be a part of a large group so as to enjoy anonymity amidst the group. When both Suma and Uma sat down for the first session on 'personality development', with a class of fifty students, Suma seemed unhappy to be amidst a large class while Uma looked relieved to be able to merge unnoticed into the large class. This example reveals that both Suma and Uma saw the same thing but interpreted it differently.
- **Unsatisfied needs or motives influence an individual's perception strongly:** This particular aspect was highlighted in a study with hungry subjects. This research study revealed that people who had been hungry for as long as 16 hours saw more frequently images of food when they were shown blurred pictures in comparison to those who had been hungry only for a short time.
- **The perceptual process can also be influenced by one's interest:** For instance, a fashion designer is more likely to be noticed a beautiful outfit worn by a girl crossing the road rather than the traffic policeman. This can be because his chosen profession has narrowed down his focus.

- **One's experience in the past can also narrow down one's focus. And newness or novelty also influences perception:** An individual has the tendency to perceive those things (or objects) to which he or she can relate. But very often one's past experience may reduce or nullify an object's interest.

In India, the breaking away of the joint family set-up and making way to the working couple nuclear family set up had not been easily accepted by the society especially during the 70's and 80's of the century. However, from the 90's onwards with a significant increase in the number of women joining industries and also occupying senior managerial positions, there is a gradual change and people's negative perception/views/apprehensions about women executives is slowly taking a back seat.

- **Expectations also influence an individual's perception:** At times expectations can affect one's perception such that if we expect to see something we may actually end up seeing that. For instance, if we expect lawyers to be unscrupulous, politicians to be corrupt, youngsters to be rude and so on, we will perceive them to be so, totally ignoring the individual's real traits.

The Target

Perception is impacted by the motion, sound, size and other such characteristics of the target. This usually occurs because the target is not perceived in isolation but along with its background. Moreover, we have a tendency to group close things and similar things together.

- **What one sees and perceives (observes) will generally depend on how one separates the figure from its general background:** For instance, when the lecturer uses the blackboard for teaching and for writing uses white chalk pieces, the students are not seeing them as patches of white chalk but recognise each alphabet and see the words accordingly.
- **At times even physical and time proximity makes one put together objects or targets even when they are unrelated:** For instance, recently we have been hearing of plane crashes involving fighter planes and domestic plane carriers. Suddenly many people may conclude that it is dangerous to travel by air. Though the above incidents may be unrelated, their proximity in time may have led people to develop such unrealistic perceptions about flying.
- **At times people have the tendency to perceive people, objects or events that are similar to each other also as being grouped together:** Greater is the similarity, more is the probability of perceiving them as a common group.

The Situation

The context in which we perceive events or objects is also important. There are elements in our surrounding environment which influence our perception. For instance, if the managing director of a company calls for a meeting with his general managers, and on that day a junior manager makes a small mistake, the general manager is more likely to register and notice that which otherwise on

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any other normal day would have been overlooked. If, say a person attired in a dhoti-kurta were to enter the office premises, he is likely to draw more eyes compared to if he were to be attired in the same dress when walking around in the compound of his house. This means that perception is influenced by various situational factors such as time, location, light, heat and so on. These may simultaneously impact the perception process making it extremely complex.

In brief, the following are the factors influencing perception:

The Perceiver

- Attitudes
- Motives
- Interests
- Past experience
- Expectation

The Target

- Background
- Physical and Time Proximity
- Novelty
- Motion
- Sounds
- Size

The Situation

- Time
- Work environment
- Social environment
- Light
- Heat

Activity 3

Identify examples of the way in which advertisements creatively use stimulus factors to attract our attention in newspapers and magazines, billboards, and television.

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6.5 PERCEPTUAL ORGANISATION

Perceptual organisation is the process by which people group environmental stimuli into recognizable patterns. That is, an attempt is made to explain what happens during the perceptual process when information from the situation is received. A person is not likely to perceive patches of colour, or light or smell. On the contrary, the person usually perceives some organised patterns of stimuli and clearly whole objects which are identifiable.

For instance, if your father gifts you a motor bike, you do not merely perceive the colour, or mileage or looks or the seat cover but you perceive the motor bike as a whole. Simply stated, a person's perceptual process organises the incoming information into a meaningful whole. Even though it is still too early (because a lot is still to be learned) to clearly state on how the human mind assembles, organises and categorises information.

Now, let us take a look at some forms of perceptual organisation, namely: Figure-Ground principle, perceptual grouping, perceptual constancy, perceptual context and perceptual defence.

Figure-Ground Principle

According to this principle perceived objects will be separate from its background. i.e., the figure is always perceived to be in contrast to its background and hence will be noticed. Of course, the manner in which the figure is perceived will depend upon the background. For instance, if one were to have a look at the triangles given below:



What is your observation of the above diagram? Yes, you must have noticed the one dark triangle in the centre more prominently than the other triangles. This is because of that triangle's dissimilarity (it has a darker shade than others) and its position is in the centre of the diagram. Thus, very often our perception of a particular object (or person) is also shaped depending upon the positioning of that object.

Perceptual Grouping

This fundamental principle of perceptual grouping refers to the tendency to group several stimuli into a recognisable pattern. This grouping is usually done on the basis of continuity, closure, proximity and similarity. These factors are briefly explained below:

- a) **Continuity:** The tendency to perceive objects as continuous patterns.
- b) **Closure:** This refers to the tendency to close or complete an object or event and perceive it as a whole even though only a part of the object is evident.

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- c) **Proximity:** This refers to the tendency to perceive a group of objects to be related merely because of their closeness.
- d) **Similarity:** More is the similarity between the objects (or ideas), greater is the tendency to perceive them as a common group.

Perceptual Constancy

“Perceptual constancy can be said to be a sophisticated form of perceptual organisation. Constancy will highly be appreciated in this tremendously changing and highly complex world. Perceptual constancy works on the principle of learning and that it (perceptual constancy) emanates from patterns of cues.

According to this principle, irrespective of the information received by the senses, the size, shape, colour, brightness and location of an object remain fairly constant. The patterns of cues are very often learned by the individual. This learning takes place even though each situation is different and there are interactions between the inborn and learned tendencies within the entire perceptual process.

It is this constancy which helps people to make sense and order out of the chaotic world we live in. For example, with the sudden exit of a financial executive from the firm ABC, a chartered accountant is hired and within a short span of time he is able to put the financial statements in the desired sequence. Take another example, have you not witnessed the ease with which a plumber picks up a particular piece from the heap of plumbing material. In both the above examples, it is due to constancy that both the chartered accountant and the plumber were able to go ahead with their task. For if it were not so, both of them would have seen the size, colour, and shape change every time they looked around and would not have been able to perform their job efficiently.

Perceptual Context

Perceptual context is the highest form of perceptual organisation. It is this context which gives meaning and value to simple stimuli, objects, events, situations, and other individuals in the environment. For instance, just take a look at some doodles given hereunder:



Is one able to understand the meaning of these doodles? Obviously No! But if these doodles were to be communicated in a verbal or written context, it would have indicated some understanding or meaning to a person. This can also be explained with reference to an organisation. The organisation structure and organisation culture are a primary context for the employees and all their behaviour will be relevant to this. For instance, within the organisation, a piece of information communicated in the form of a circular, a notice, a suggestion, a pat on the back, a smile, and a raised eyebrow will acquire a special meaning and added value when placed in the context of the work organisation. Since each context is unique, it will impart a special connotation or meaning to stimuli.

Perceptual Defence

Perceptual defence can be said to be a form of perceptual error, which could occur in reference to perceptual context. It is based on the principle that may prompt a person to build up a defence (or a block or a refusal) to recognise a stimulus or a situational event in a context which may be personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Simply put, perceptual defence refers to the tendency among people to protect themselves against ideas, objects or situations which may seem threatening.

6.6 SOCIAL PERCEPTION

Of particular interest in organisational behaviour is the process of social perception or person perception. Person or social perception is the process by which individuals attribute characteristics or traits to other people. It is closely related to attribution which will also be discussed in this unit later on.

The concept of social perception has relevance to organisational behaviour because here the object being perceived in the environment is another person. Even though an understanding of perceptions of situations, events and objects are important, it is the knowledge of individual differences in perception of other people which plays a crucial role in employee behaviour in work environment. Thus, social perception is merely concerned with knowing how one individual perceives other individuals.

We usually categorise factors that influence how a person perceives another in terms of:

- Characteristics or attributes of the person being perceived
- Characteristics of the perceiver
- Situation or context within which the perception takes place.

Characteristics of the Perceiver

The profile of the perceiver can be as follows:

- a) If a person knows himself, it will be easier for him to see others accurately.
- b) One's own characteristics affect the traits one is likely to see in others.
- c) People who accept themselves are more likely to see the positive aspects of other people.
- d) Perceiving others accurately is not a single skill.

The above mentioned characteristics of the perceiver can highly influence the way in which one perceives others.

Characteristics of the Perceived

There are also certain characteristics of the person being perceived which can influence the social perception process. The following are characteristics of the perceived one which influences social perception:

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- a) One gets influenced by the status of the person perceived.
- b) To simplify the viewer's perceptual activities, the person being perceived is usually put into two categories — status and role.
- c) The visible attributes of the person perceived also affect and influence the social perception process.

Thus, it is such attributes which make the social perception a very complex phenomenon. It is important to note that usually one's social perception process is greatly influenced by one's own characteristics and also the characteristics of the other person. Let us take an example. For instance, if the marketing manager with a high self-esteem sees an attractive and pleasant regional manager (sales) is relocated to head office, the marketing manager is likely to perceive the regional manager in a favourable and positive frame of mind. But if the marketing manager was a person with average or low self-esteem while the regional manager is confident and outspoken and aggressive, he may be perceived in a negative and unfavourable manner. Thus, attributes do play a significant role in social perception. Simply stated, very often we have the tendency to perceive others through the filters of our own image of ourselves.

Situation

The setting or situation also influences one's perception about others. The situation may be particularly significant especially while understanding first impressions or primary effects. For instance, when you happen to meet somebody for the first time in a five-star hotel accompanied by a well-known personality whom you admire and respect, such an association is likely to have a positive influence on your assessment of the new acquaintance. But, if he is with someone whom you dislike intensely, you are likely to form a negative first impression.

Of course, the initial perception may change over a period of time when you interact more with the person and get to know him better. Nevertheless, the first impression may come in the way to colour your later perception of the individual.

Problems in Social Perception

There are four common problems or errors which affect the social perception process namely, halo effect, stereotyping, projection, and expectancy.

Halo Effect Error

Evaluation of another person solely on the basis of one attribute, either favourable or unfavourable, is called the halo effect. This means the halo effect blinds the perceiver to take notice of the other attributes which also are to be considered if the evaluator has to obtain a complete and accurate impression of the other person. Managers have to make efforts to guard against the halo effect especially during a preliminary interview with a prospective employee or rating an existing employee's job performance. One trait may be singled out and used for passing judgment on the performance of the individual. For instance, the interviewer may perceive a beautiful candidate to be suitable to be a personal secretary, though actually she may be a poor typist and bad

secretary. Or an excellent attendance record may indicate perceptions of high productivity, quality work and industriousness irrespective of whether this is accurate or not.

Stereotyping

Stereotyping refers to the tendency to assign attributes to a person solely on the basis of a category of people of which he or she is a member. People have a tendency to expect someone identified as a doctor, lawyer, or a politician to possess certain attributes even if they have met few others who did not have these attributes.

Stereotyping often results in attributing favourable or unfavourable traits to the person being perceived. Very often the person may be aware of only the overall category to which the person being perceived belongs and is thus put into a stereotype. (The perceiver fails to recognise the characteristics that will distinguish the person as an individual and his unique traits and qualities). For instance, common man may refer to a politician saying “he is a politician and hence will be corrupt.” It can be inferred from this statement that what the common man may want to say was that because he belongs to the class of politicians he can safely be labelled as “corrupt”.

Stereotyping affects social perceptions in organisations where the most common stereotyped groups are managers, blue collared workers, supervisors, administrative staff and trade union members.

Projection

Under certain conditions, people tend to see in another person traits that they themselves possess. That is, they project their own feelings, tendencies, or motives into their judgement of others. This may be particularly true regarding undesirable traits which the perceiver possesses but fails to recognise in himself. For example, an individual who is himself not very energetic may see others as lazy or may explain their lack of achievement as resulting from their unwillingness to work hard. One who is dishonest may be suspicious of others and may perceive dishonest intentions in others where they do not exist. People who are afraid may interpret others' behaviour as fearful or anxious.

Expectancy

Expectancy is a tendency to perceive people, objects or events on the basis of what we expected them to be in the first place. It is sometimes referred to as “pygmalion effect”. Pygmalion was a mythical Greek sculptor who made a statue of a girl that he wanted and made her come to life so that what sprang to life was what he expected. Through expectancy, one may create certain things in the work situation that he/she is expected to start with. This aspect is also known as “self-fulfilling prophecy”.

6.7 IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

Impression management sometimes also referred to as self-presentation may be defined as an attempt by an individual to manipulate and control the impression that others form about them (the person). In a simple way impression management can be said to be the process by which people attempt to manage or control the

perceptions formed by others. People have a tendency to present themselves in such a way that they seek to impress others in a socially desirable manner.

Impression management plays an important part in understanding a person's perception. Impression management has two distinct facets.

- Impression motivation (the degree to which an individual actively manages the impression that he or she makes).
- Impression construction (how an individual has consciously chosen an image to convey and also on how he goes about doing that).

Everybody is concerned about the impression that he or she makes on others. In organisations also the employee may be motivated to control the way his superior perceives him. Of course, the extent of motivation to impression management will depend on the relevance of impressions to the person's goals, value of these goals, and the differences between the image one would like others to hold and the image one believes others already have.

It is said that there are five factors which have relevance on the kinds of impression that people try to construct. These are: self-concept, desired and undesired identity images, role constraints, target values, and current social image. However, there is only little information on how people select ways to manage other's perceptions of them. But there is no doubt about the fact that in organisations the impression made on others may make significant implications on an employee's career.

Impression Management Strategies

Here we briefly touch upon two basic strategies used by employees to manage impressions. When an employee tries to minimise his responsibility for an unfavourable event or say he wants to be out of trouble, he may use a demotion-preventive strategy. On the other hand, when an employee wants to maximise responsibility for a favourable outcome or wants to portray a better image of himself or herself, then he or she may use a promotion-enhancing strategy.

The demotion preventive strategies may take the form of:

- a) **Justification of action:** If not completed his work, the employee may try to justify himself by saying that he was not keeping well.
- b) **Forwarding an apology:** The employee may apologize to the boss for some unfavourable happening and tries to impress upon his boss that he is extremely sorry for the occurrence and promises to see that it does not reoccur.
- c) **Disassociation:** When an employee is indirectly associated with something that went wrong, he will try to convey the impression that he was only distantly associated and in spite of being against the decision/action was overpowered by others.

Some of the promotion-enhancing strategies can take the form of:

- a) **Entitlements:** When an employee feels that he has not been given due credit for the work done, he will communicate either formally or informally his feelings to the people concerned.

- b) **Enhancement:** When an employee may have received credit but feels that he deserves more, he will highlight about how his efforts in the future can result in enhanced profits.
- c) **Obstacles disclosure:** Under this strategy, the employee is trying to create the perception that since his achievements have been on account of the big obstacles (either personal or organisational hindrances) cleared by him, he deserves more credit.
- d) **Association:** Here the employee tries to be seen with the right people at the right time to create the impression that he is well connected and associated with successful projects.

The above strategies are adopted to build impressions and perceptions. Thus, employees have to be wary of such deliberate attempts at manipulation while evaluating people.

Impression management has its impact on the success of getting a job and also on his or her career. It also has an influence on his or her relationships with others. Superiors feel better disposed towards those subordinates who manage to project better image.

Impression management is not practised only by individuals. Organisations also seek to create impressions. Called the corporate image, organisations gain considerably by this exercise. A good corporate image means better employees, expanded markets, and more responsive investors.

6.8 ATTRIBUTION

Attribution is the process by which we make sense of our environment through our perceptions of causality. An attribution, therefore, is a belief about the cause or causes of an event or an action. Fritz Heider and Harold Kelley developed attribution theory during 1950s and 1960s. They stated that our understanding of our social world is based on our continual attempts at causal analysis based on how we interpret our experience.

Why is that person so successful? Why did that project fail? If we understand the causes of success, failure and conflict, we may be able to adjust our behaviour and other factors accordingly. Attribution is simply the process of attaching or attributing causes or reasons to the actions and events we see. Causality is usually described in terms of internal causality and external causality. For example, we may explain a particular individual's success or promotion with reference to his/her superior skills and knowledge (internal causality) or with reference to luck, 'friends in high places' and coincidence (external causality).

In recent years, attribution theories have been playing an increasingly important role in work motivation, performance appraisal and leadership but are also recognized to influence perceptions. Attributions have been found to strongly affect evaluation of others' performance, to determine the manner in which supervisors behave towards subordinates and to influence personal satisfaction with one's work. For example, what the manager perceives as the cause of a subordinate's behaviour will affect the manager's perception of and resulting behaviour toward the subordinate.

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Research has revealed patterns in our attributions. For instance, when we are explaining our personal achievements, we point to our capabilities. But, when we are explaining our lack of success, we blame our circumstances. On the other hand, when speaking about others, we tend to attribute success and failure to personality features. In psychology, this tendency to exaggerate the influence of personality when explaining the behaviour of others to overlook the effect of contextual factors is known as the fundamental attribution error.

Attribution refers to the tendency one develops to explain the ways in which a person judges another person's behaviour. Very often we make attempts to understand the more lasting causes behind others' actions by interpreting their traits, motives and intentions through the attribution process. Simply stated, an attribution is the complex process in which we observe others' behaviour and try to infer causes behind it from various areas.

With reference to social perception there are types of attributions which people generally tend to make. These are:

- a) Dispositional attributions (such as personality traits, motivation or ability) or internal factors.
- b) Situational attribution (social influence of others, equipments, and so on) or external factors.

The attribution theory makes attempts to explain how individuals when observing behaviour attempt to determine whether it is internally or externally caused, based on three factors: (1) Distinctiveness, (2) Consensus, and (3) Consistency. There are significant contributions from attribution theories especially in the areas involving psychological and personality processes like motivation, performance appraisal and leadership.

Attribution theory has important implications for managers. If the manager attributes poor performance to internal factors, he or she can adopt certain strategies to improve those factors. On the other hand, if the manager attributes poor performance to external factors, he or she can take relevant steps relating to performance improvement.

Let us take an example in an organisational setting. When the production manager notices the outstanding performance of his supervisor, the assessment of his performance will depend on the causes to which he attributes this performance. If he believes that the performance of the supervisor is on virtue of his competence and inner drive, he may praise him and also reward him. If the production manager believes that the performance is the result of using a newer and superior technology, he is likely to treat it in a different manner. This means that perceptions and the subsequent behaviours change depending upon whether internal or external situational attributes are made.

One can make attribution to oneself. If one attributes pay raise to hard work, he or she continues to work hard. Instead, if poor performance is attributed to external factors (such as boss's friendliness) he or she may put more effort into cementing that friendship.

The fundamental attribution error is: (a) the tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors when making judgements about the behaviour of others; and (b) the tendency for individuals to attribute their own success to internal factors while putting the blame for failures on external factors.

6.9 PERCEPTION: ERRORS AND REMEDIES

The main sources of errors in perception include the following:

- i. Not collecting enough information about other people.
- ii. Basing our judgements on information that is irrelevant or insignificant.
- iii. Seeing what we expect to see and what we want to see and not investigating further.
- iv. Allowing early information about someone to affect our judgement despite later and contradictory information.
- v. Accepting stereotypes uncritically.
- vi. Allowing our own characteristics to affect what we see in others and how we judge them.
- vii. Attempting to decode non-verbal behaviour outside the context in which it appears.
- viii. Basing attributions on flimsy and potentially irrelevant evidence.

Thus, it is clear that errors in perception can be overcome by:

- i. Taking more time and avoiding instant or 'snap' judgements about others.
- ii. Collecting and consciously using more information about other people.
- iii. Developing self-awareness and an understanding of how our personal biases and preferences affect our perceptions and judgements of other people.
- iv. Checking our attributions- particularly the links we make between aspects of personality and appearance on the one hand and behaviour on the other.

Therefore, it can be said that if we are to improve our understanding of others, we must first have a well-developed knowledge of ourselves- our strengths, our preferences, our weaknesses and our biases. The development of self-knowledge can be an uncomfortable process. In organisational settings, we are often constrained in the expression of our feelings (positive and negative) about other people due to social or cultural norms and to the communication barriers erected by status and power differentials. This may in part explain the enduring emphasis in recent years on training courses in social and interpersonal skills, self-awareness and personal growth.

Adrian Furnham (1997) argues that the process of making evaluations, judgements or ratings of the performance of employees is subject to a number of systematic perception errors. This is particularly problematic in a performance appraisal context. These are:

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- Central tendency: Appraising everyone at the middle of the rating scale.
- Contrast error: Basing an appraisal on comparison with other employees rather than on established performance criteria.
- Different from me: Giving a poor appraisal because the person has qualities or characteristics not possessed by the appraiser.
- Halo effect: Appraising an employee undeservedly on one quality (performance, for example) because s/he is perceived highly by the appraiser on another quality (attractiveness).
- Horn effect: The opposite of the halo effect. Giving someone a poor appraisal on one quality (attractiveness) influences poor rating on other qualities (performance).
- Initial impression: Basing an appraisal on first impressions rather than on how the person has behaved throughout the period to which appraisal relates.
- Latest behaviour: Basing an appraisal on the person's recent behaviour.
- Lenient or generous rating: Perhaps the most common error, being consistently generous in appraisal mostly to avoid conflict.
- Performance dimension error: Giving someone a similar appraisal on two distinct but similar qualities, because they happen to follow each other on the appraisal form.
- Same as me: Giving a good appraisal because the person has qualities or characteristics possessed by the appraiser.
- Spillover effect: Basing this appraisal, good or bad, on the results of the previous appraisal rather than on how the person has behaved during the appraisal period.
- Status effect: Giving those in higher level positions consistently better appraisals than those in lower level jobs.
- Strict rating: Being consistently harsh in appraising performance.

6.10 PERCEPTION AND ITS APPLICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

People in organisations are always assessing others. Managers must appraise their subordinate's performance, evaluate how co-workers are working. When a new person joins a department he or she is immediately assessed by the other persons. These have important effect on the organization.

Employment Interview: Interviewers make perceptual judgments that are often inaccurate. Different interviewers see different things in the same candidate and arrive at different conclusions about the applicant. Employment interview is an important input into the hiring decision, and perceptual factors influence who is hired and vis-à-vis the Quality of an organisation's labour force.

Performance Appraisals: an employee's performance appraisal is very much dependent on the perceptual process. An employees' future is closely tied to his or her appraisal- promotions, increments and continuation of employment are among the common outcomes. The performance appraisal represents an assessment of an employee's work. While this may be objective most jobs are evaluated in subjective impression of an employee's work, to the degree that the managers use subjective measures in appraising employee's the evaluator perceives to be 'good or bad' employee characteristics/behaviours will significantly influence the appraisal outcome.

Assessing Level of Efforts: In many organisations, the level of an employee's effort is given high importance. Assessment of an individual's effort is a subjective judgement susceptible to perceptual distortions and bias.

Assessing Loyalty: Another important judgement that managers decide about employees is whether they are loyal to the organisation.

Implications of Perception on Performance and Satisfaction

Productivity: What individuals perceive from their work situation will influence their productivity. More than the situation itself than whether a job is actually interesting or challenging is not relevant. How a manager successfully plans and organises the work of his subordinates and actually helps them in structuring their work is far less important than how his subordinates perceive his efforts. Therefore, to be able to influence productivity, it is necessary to assess how workers perceive their jobs.

Absenteeism and Turnover: Absence and Turnover are some of the reactions to the individuals perception. Managers must understand how each individual interprets his job and where there is a significant difference between what is seen and what exists and try to eliminate the distortions. Failure to deal with the differences when individuals perceive the job in negative terms will result in increased absenteeism and turnover.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction is a highly subjective, and feeling of the benefits that derive from the job. Clearly his variable is critically linked to perception. If job satisfaction is to be improved, the worker's perception of the job characteristics, supervision and the organization as a whole must be positive.

Understanding the process of perception is important because (1) It is unlikely that any person's definition of reality will be identical to an objective assessment of reality. (2) It is unlikely that two different person's definition of reality will be exactly the same. (3) Individual perceptions directly influences the behaviour exhibited in a given situation.

The important fact is that people who work together often see things differently, and this difference can create problems in their ability to work together effectively.

In order to decrease the errors involved in perception, one has to keep in mind the way the perceptual process works. By understanding the process one can do a better job at minimizing their negative effect. Secondly, one can compare one's perception with other people, if they are representing different backgrounds,

cultures or training. This may lead to agreements or otherwise, communications can help to sort out the differences. Thirdly, one should understand other person's point of view, it may help to know when one is wrong. The point is that one should listen and understand the other person rather than try to convince him or her that one is right. Fourthly, one should be willing to change, when one comes across new information. Finally, one should view the world in dynamic terms, because one's behaviour can alter the phenomenon that is the basis for one's perceptions, so, one must notice the impact of one's own behaviour.

In short, it can be said that perceptual skills can be enhanced by:

- 1) Knowing and perceiving oneself accurately.
- 2) Being emphatic i.e. to see a situation as it is experienced by others.
- 3) Having positive attitudes, which helps in reduction of perceptual distortions.
- 4) Enhancing one's self-concept, which helps in perceiving more accurately.
- 5) Making a conscious effort to avoid the possible common biases in perception.
- 6) Communicating with employees to erase incorrect perceptions.
- 7) Avoiding attributions.

Perception is an important process in an organization. It plays a vital role in forming the basis of one's behaviour by which one formulates a view of the world.

6.11 SUMMARY

- Perception is the act of seeing what is there to be seen.
- Perception refers to the process of receiving stimuli, selecting, grouping, understanding, and reaction to the external stimuli.
- Perception is influenced by the object of perception, the perceiver, and the situation in which the process occurs.
- A person's needs, habits, impact of past experience, ethics and values, attitudes and personality, all influence the perception process.
- Perceptual process comprises five important stages: (a) receiving, (b) selecting, (c) organising, (d) interpreting, and (e) reacting to the stimuli.
- Each stage in the perceptual process is influenced by several factors.
- Perception plays spoil sport with human behaviour.
- Barriers like stereotyping, halo effect, projection, attribution and self-fulfilling prophecy distort perception.
- Halo effect refers to the tendency of perceiving people in terms of good or bad and assigning all good qualities to one who is good and bad qualities to one who is bad.

- Stereotyping, one of the most common barriers in accurately perceiving others, is a tendency to classify people and events into already known or perceived general categories.
- Projection refers to a tendency for individuals to see their own traits in others.
- Expectancy is the extent to which prior expectations bias perceptions of events, objects, and other persons.
- Perceptual defence is the tendency among people to protect themselves against ideas, objects or situations that may seem to be threatening.
- Being an important variable in individual behaviour, perception needs to be managed effectively.
- Social perception is the process of understanding other people accurately.
- Perceptual organisation is the process by which people group stimuli into patterns.
- Figure-ground principle states that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its background and occupies the cognitive space of the individual.
- Perceptual grouping includes similarity, proximity, closure, continuity, and area.
- Previously held beliefs about objects influencing an individual's perceptions of similar objects is called perceptual-set.
- Role of perception is more felt in performance assessment of employees.
- Impression management refers to the calculated efforts to get others to think of them in the best possible way.
- Attribution is a corollary of perception.
- Attribution has implications for perception, leadership, and motivation.
- Attribution theory refers to the process in which people interpret the reasons or causes for their behaviour.
- Attribution theory suggests that we observe behaviour and then attribute causes to it; i.e., we attempt to explain why people behave as they do.

6.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) Define perception. Explain the perception process.
- 2) What is perception? Why does perception fail?
- 3) Why is it important for managers to have working knowledge of perception and attribution?
- 4) What do you mean by perceptual errors? Cite suitable examples.

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- 5) How does perception affect the organisational process? What type of perceptual processes would be detrimental to the efficient operation of an organisation?
- 6) What is attribution theory? What is its application in OB?

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UNIT 7 MOTIVATION

Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the concept of motivation;
- discuss the concepts related to employee motivation; and
- describe the techniques that can be used for motivating employees.

Structure

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Motivation: Evolution of the Concept
- 7.3 Types of Motivation
- 7.4 Motivation and Morale
- 7.5 Motivating employees in actual practice
- 7.6 Motives and Managerial Behaviour
- 7.7 Summary
- 7.8 Self – Assessment Questions
- 7.9 Further Readings/ References

7.1 INTRODUCTION

We all know that motivation drives a person to achieve beyond normal. As such, it is an environment can also make individuals think: What motivates people? How can I motivate others? By asking about the source of motivation, one is looking for an understanding or explanation of what is known psychologically about the tendency of people to expend their energies. By asking how to motivate others, a manager is assuming (a) that s/he can affect the behaviour of others, and (b) that his/her effect can override the other's behaviour.

Motivation as a factor influencing human behaviour became an area of increasing importance after the Second World War to fulfill the imperative need of increased production. Motivation, concerned with all important human inputs, assumes crucial importance when a system is confronted with challenges of development or a crisis situation.

What is motivation? Who is responsible for motivation: individual or management? The answers to these questions are not simple. While some see motivation as being contained within an individual, others view it as arising from sources outside the individual. As such, these views cannot be considered independent of each other especially in the organisational context. Motivation in an organisation encompasses forces both within and external to the individual member. Let us now learn how the concept of motivation evolved.

7.2 MOTIVATION: EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT

Literally, motivation means incitement or inducement to act or move. In an industrial setting, it means to make a subordinate act in a desired manner. Obviously “desired” implies the interests of the organisation, as well as the employee. It implies not only that the subordinate should act in a disciplined manner, but also that s/he should act in an efficient and productive manner. To motivate, therefore, is to persuade, stimulate, even compel (as and when fear becomes the motivator) an employee to act in a manner which may help in attaining organisational objectives. This may be a limited view. Motivation really comprises all the internal urges which are described as desires, wishes, drives, etc., which make a person strive for doing a thing. Motivation is what makes people do things. Motivation may not be the same as incentive. In incentives we generally expect greater output with the same inputs, while motivation involves some more inputs considered necessary for changing the work, attitude and behaviour. As such, financial incentives may not motivate all, particularly those employees whose physical needs are already satisfied. To motivate means really to produce a goal-oriented behaviour, which may not be made possible by mere provision of incentives with the object of higher earnings and higher output.

The importance of motivation is too obvious. Survival and growth of an undertaking depends considerably on the performance of its employees, which in turn, depends on their ability and will to work. The ability is determined by the quality of education, training and experience that one has acquired. Even if there is any deficiency in the same, it can be made good by arranging further training and developing facilities for them. The willingness to work involves change in behaviour and attitude of a person towards work, or motivating him/ her to work in a desired manner and give better performance. Motivated workforce is essential for efficient working, optimum productivity, and attaining organisational objectives. The motivation in personnel management follows planning and organising. Any managerial decision becomes meaningful, if it can be converted into an effective action through motivation of subordinates. In fact, every aspect of personnel function is pervasively endowed with motivational attributes. Therefore, a successful personnel manager incorporates the principles and concept of motivation into her/his own philosophy of management. By applying them s/he can influence others in attaining a better or positive motivation.

Now you know that motivating people is difficult. But it is very challenging for changing human behaviour. The study of motivation began to attract attention in the early part of the 19th century. However, with the development of theories of learning, it came to occupy a central position. The application of psychology in education and industry led us to realise that motivation as a process is highly significant in achieving excellence. However, in spite of the relevance and popularity of motivation, its applicability was not well understood till 1953 when McClelland extended its applicability in industry, education and a wide range of areas and contexts. He identified achievement motive and developed a general theory of motivation and method of measuring

the same. According to him, motivation consists of the learned anticipation of a goal as arousing positive or negative emotional reaction. His ideas highlighted an ever increasing significance of the entrepreneurial roles in society vis-à-vis organisation, especially so in economic development.

Another concept of motivation is in the form of five human needs placed in hierarchical order: **Psychological, safety/security, social, self-esteem and self-actualization**. This concept is based on assumption of internal motivation – the needs, wants and desires, which exist within an individual and influence him/her by determining his/her thoughts. These, in turn, determine the ultimate behaviour in a particular situation.

The underlying assumption here is that individual motivation depends on urgency and potency of the needs. As the lower order needs are satisfied, the higher order needs take precedence over them.

Another way of looking at motivation is in terms of the internal dynamics of an individual vis-a-vis the power of contextual factors like money, work conditions, etc. An entirely different hypothesis of motivation is based on the nature of man, i.e., being lazy, idle and indolent or creative, open-minded and energetic. An idler is averse to any effort and would like to avoid any kind of responsibility. Idlers prefer being directed and avoid being independent decision makers. They only work under direct control and threat of punishment. For a creative person, the work is as pleasant and natural as play. Responsibility is a welcome concept and such people seek self-regulatory behaviour. Motivation is also influenced by an organisation, and its style of management. Management styles can be depicted to be in a continuum. This concept is based on the effectiveness of management in ensuring participation of subordinates in decision making and action orientation. This theory of motivation is action oriented and projects the organisation as a task oriented, highly structured and authoritarian establishment on one hand and completely democratic, people oriented and emphasizing a participative management style on the other extreme. These are interspersed with two intermediate stages system where definitive relations between superior and subordinates have varying trust and confidence.

In the late nineteen sixties and thereafter, the concept of motivation expanded its horizon and in that process lost some of its sharp focus on human needs but in no way lost the significance for organisations and their members. The emphasis shifted from the study of motivational notions to such fields as job enrichment, quality of work life, meaning of work, organisational climate and to a very broad spectrum of organisational culture. There has been a paradigm shift in understanding the relevance and contribution of motivation vis-à-vis organisations. The enmeshing of individual identity with his/her motivation is being given a wider but well defined boundaries of social/organisational context. This may have caused some haziness in understanding and application of the concept. A psychologist likes to put a premium on the individual, whereas an organisational strategist would like to focus on the collectiveness. And the debate continues. Since each organisation is unique in its boundaries and contextual parameters, so is an individual. The concept of motivation and its complexities helps us understand and create a unique relationship between the two.

Some Common Assumptions about Motivation

- i) It is commonly said that it is the subordinates or non-supervisory staff in an organisation who need to be motivated. The fact, however, is that every one in an organisation needs to be motivated; first the supervisory and managerial staff need it so that they will be able to motivate their subordinates.
- ii) Motivation and higher productivity go together. This may be true by and large, but individual motivation at the workplace or group motivation as in the case of trade unions may not have such a correlation with productivity.
- iii) All motivational techniques are designed and applied by the personnel, and managers and other line executives, who directly control and take work from those under them. In fact, the latter are more concerned as it is their primary function to see the persons under them work most efficiently. As they are in closer touch with their workers, they can understand their problems better and also know their needs. If necessary, they can take the advice of the personnel or industrial psychologist or any other consultant.
- iv) Standard theories of motivation developed by psychologists will also apply to the industrial situation with varying degrees of dependability.

7.3 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

In an industrial set-up, motivation may be intrinsic as well as extrinsic. **Intrinsic motivation** is related to the job one is doing. When a skilled operative performs a job well, s/he derives a sense of satisfaction. This is intrinsic motivation which satisfies the creative instinct of an individual.

Extrinsic motivation is external to the job or task. For example, financial incentives for doing a job well or giving higher production may motivate the workers. Other external motivators are praise from the superior for good work, recognition of good performance by the company in the form of public citation and award, admiration of fellow workers, and improved working conditions and other facilities.

Determinants of Motivation

The traditional approach that a person could be made to work by monetary rewards has been gradually giving place to a more complete pluralistic explanation which recognizes that an individual works to fulfill a variety of needs. It is recognized that the motivation is the result of the following three groups of factors:

- i) **Individuals:** To know what can motivate employees, we must know their aims, objectives and values. Human needs are both numerous and complex, and often it is difficult to identify them. Motivation is not an easily observed phenomenon. We have to first observe individual action and behaviour at work and interpret the same in terms of the underlying motivation. Our interpretation may not necessarily reveal the individual's true motivation, as some of the human needs may be difficult to describe and identify.
- ii) **Organisational Components:** Organisational structure, technological system, physical facilities, which constitute internal environment of an

organisation, affect motivation. Some machines are more interesting to work with than others or certain kinds of work may be boring to many persons; job-connected experience of a worker determines motivation.

- iii) **External or Exogenous Variables:** A worker's life outside the factory is also an important factor affecting his motivation or willingness to work inside the factory. Life at work and life outside the work are bound together. Troubles and joys of off- job life cannot be put aside when reporting for work, nor can the factory matters be dropped when returning home after work. A strong motivational role is also played by culture, customs and norms, images and attributes conferred by the society on particular jobs. An individual, for example, may find that his/her work commands a substantial degree of respect and social acceptance quite apart from holding a position in a particular organisation, and so s/he may be more willing or motivated to perform such a work.

Characteristics of Motivation

Some important characteristics of motivation which follow from the discussion of its determinants are:

- i) **Individuals differ in their motivation:** There is no single economic drive which determines behaviour. As the desires and goals of individuals differ, so do their motivations; one may do a job because it is remunerative, another may do it because it gives a sense of achievement, or enables him/her to serve a cause which is dear to him/her.
- ii) **Motivation is highly situational:** A person may work very well in one organisation and poorly in another in the same position or type of the job. The performance may vary with working conditions and type of supervision.
- iii) **Motivation change:** Motivation of each individual changes from time to time even if he/she may continue to behave in the same way. For example, a temporary worker may produce more in the beginning to become permanent. After being made permanent, he/she may continue to produce more to gain promotion and so on.
- iv) **Motivation is expressed differently:** Needs and the way in which they are translated into action may vary considerably from one individual to another. Different persons may also react differently to successful or unsuccessful fulfillment of their needs. One may feel frustrated if his/her need has not been met, but the other may be motivated by his/her failure and redouble his/her effort to get his/her need met (say, by writing and publishing additional scholarly articles or books). Again one individual with strong security need may avoid accepting responsibility for fear of failure and dismissal and the other with a similar need may seek out responsibility for fear of being fired for low performance.
- v) **Motivation is complex:** It is difficult to explain and predict the behaviour of workers. Use of one motivational device may not produce the desired result if it brings an opposing motive into play. In a factory when a blue-green device was introduced to reduce eye strain, the output of male workers increased while that of female workers decreased. It was found that the

latter disliked this change as the new type of light falling on them made them look simply ghastly in appearance.

7.4 MOTIVATION AND MORALE

These two expressions are not synonymous or interchangeable. But the fact remains that a motivated group of workers generally has a high degree of morale. Morale is a composite attitude of various individuals employed by a company. It is generated by the group and may be considered as a by-product of the group. It is not an average of individual attitudes. Morale has been defined in a number of ways. It can be seen as “an attitude of satisfaction, with a desire to continue in, and willingness to strive for, the goals of a particular group or organisation”. It has also been defined as “the possession of feeling of being accepted by and the belonging to a group of employees through adherence to a common goal and confidence in the desirability of these goals”. Put simply, morale is a group concept, while motivation is largely an individual concept. Morale is the summation of feeling of employees as a group towards various aspects of their work job, the company, working conditions, fellow workers, supervisors and so on. If the attitude of employees towards all these aspects is more positive than negative, the morale of the group can be said to be high, otherwise it is low.

Studies in India show that high morale among workers may not be an indication of high productivity. Higher morale of union members may enable them to continue to strike and fight out the issue.

Important components and determinants of morale are (a) a feeling of togetherness, (b) need for a clear goal or objective to be achieved, (c) expectation of success towards the attainment of the goal, (d) feeling of each member within the group that s/he has a meaningful task to perform for achieving the goal and that s/he also matters whatever may be the job assigned to her/him, and (e) supportive and stimulative leadership. All these determinants of morale are equivalent to that of job satisfaction which is a precursor of morale. However, the two differ as the term job satisfaction is used for individual and morale for groups.

An enlightened management should be conscious of the need for assessing the morale of its employees by opinion polls or attitude surveys from time to time. Low morale can be caused by factors beyond the control of the organisation. However, workers' morale can be boosted up by (a) better methods of working in which workers or their representatives may have a bigger say, (b) utilization of incentive schemes with the widest possible coverage, and (c) consultative and participative style of management.

What Demotivates or Demoralises the Employees?

There are some management practices which affect the morale and motivation or willingness of employees to give their best or work in the desired manner. Some of these practices are:

- a) Under assignment: If a skilled man is assigned an unskilled or routine job, it may cause frustration or job dissatisfaction and thus demotivation.

- b) Over assignment: If a good worker is overloaded to the point where s/he feels that s/he being exploited, this may make her/him lose interest in work. In big organisations, it is a rather common practice to overload good workers as others cannot be trusted or depended upon.
- c) Buckmastership: Superiors or leaders avoiding hard work themselves and passing on the same to their subordinates, and then finding fault with them may erode employee motivation.
- d) Coercive types of control or supervision which may give a worker a feeling that s/he is not being trusted may also demotivate her/him or erode her/his interest in the work. Some control no doubt is essential but if it is too coercive resulting in frequent warnings or punishments, or withdrawal of facilities to chasten the employee, morale and motivation of the employee are bound to go down.
- e) Manipulative behaviour of the management which may take the form of divide and rule policy or tactics, making promises which are not fulfilled, encouraging groupism and appealing to the patriotic sense in times of national crisis, may also have a demotivating effect. When employees perceive such behaviour, they lose interest in work.

7.5 MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES IN ACTUAL PRACTICE

We now know that motivation has something to do with our way of life and thinking. Since there is a wide spectrum of human nature, there is no single magic wand to motivate employees as their needs and priorities of satisfaction differ. What may motivate one may not necessarily motivate the other. However, the employer should find out the right way that could make workers more productive. Since an employee has a lot of untapped energy, s/he would be ready to work and contribute the most if trained properly and treated fairly. In managing an organisation, some of the important factors which could improve motivation and morale of its employees are as follows:

- i) **Devising a well-defined humanistic personnel policy**, wherein the workforce is regarded as the valuable asset of the organisation, and sufficient care is taken to maintain and develop it, not only to attain organisational objectives but also to satisfy the normal aspirations of employees.
- ii) **A long-term employment policy projecting image of fairness** in recruitment and selection, placement of the right person to the right job, sound and fair promotion and transfer policies, well-planned need-based training and development programmes for grooming employees for higher job or building their career in the organisation, and suitable workforce planning.
- iii) **Fair wages and salary administration** ensuring equitable wage structure free from internal and external inequalities.
- iv) **Rewarding good performance adequately** at the earliest and also giving it deserving publicity.

- v) **A constructive and objective system of performance appraisal and merit rating** of employees aimed at servicing and improving them and not punishing them.
- vi) **Prompt handling of workers' grievances** by having a short time-bound procedure well-known to employees. In handling grievances, the attitude of persons managing grievances should be cooperative and positive and not negative, and the worker should have the feeling that s/he will be properly heard and justice will be done.
- vii) In handling disciplinary cases, the **management should not only be fair but also seem to be fair**. Disciplinary procedure should conform to the principles of natural justice. A corrective and not punitive approach in this respect may be more motivating.
- viii) **Participative and consultative style of management and supervision and increasing autonomy** in work may create necessary conditions for motivating workers to give their best.
- ix) **Job enrichment and enlargement**, or making the job more challenging are also essential for motivating the workers to give their best, as these will not only reduce job boredom and frustration, but also increase job satisfaction, and satisfy the esteem or ego and self-actualisation needs of employees, which are perpetual motivators.
- x) **Self-motivation by top management**, senior and middle managers and supervisors is essential if the persons working under them are to be motivated. The dictum "before you motivate others, you must first motivate yourself" should not be lost sight of. Seniors are expected to provide their juniors effective leadership and set an example of dedication and superior skill.

Specific Actions to Motivate Others

Managerial action, in general, can take four forms:

- Provide more of the valued rewards to the person.
- Change the values of the person towards the rewards, which are available.
- Improve the person's perception of the behaviour-reward linkage.
- Improve the reality of the behaviour-reward linkage.

The first two of these deal with actions which affect the goals which people value as outcome for their work; the latter two deal with their expectation of whether the paths available to them will lead to those rewards. Let us see how each of the three forms of influence may be used to achieve one or more of these four forms of action.

With respect to individual motivation, and in the context of the path-goal theory, managerial action which constitutes indirect influence is aimed at arranging the appropriate strategies, structures and policies to encourage and support motivated people to achieve organisational goals. This includes, for example, establishing incentive and reward system which will be valued by

employees. Indirect influence also includes selecting and employing people who have necessary skills and who value the kinds of rewards available in the organisation. Finally, indirect influence includes developing in oneself and others the managerial skills, particularly, the management style or pattern of behaviour in dealing with subordinates, which will have the effect of creating higher motivation.

You may recall that semi-direct influence is exercised when a manager acts to affect an individual through his or her social relationships at work. The emergent group has a strong effect on what its members value and what their expectations are with respect to the outcomes from behaviour. The group reward may serve as a highly visible symbol of the need for intra-company cooperation as well.

Direct influence on the individual involves communication and the personal, face-to-face relationship. A manager who attempts to increase the level of motivation through direct influence is typically trying to do the second and third actions mentioned above with respect to that person's value and expectations. Thus, the manager may work overtime to convince an employee to value more highly the rewards already existing and available in the organisation. This may be particularly difficult in times of major social change. The other form of action for direct influence is to improve the employee's perception of the linkage between behaviour and reward. This might involve, for example, personal conversations about what can result from certain levels of performance, such as promotion, bonus, or greater responsibility.

As important as what to do to motivate others is the question of how to do it. We turn now to a closer look at a manager's behaviour required to motivate others. To do this, we discuss *management style and leadership*.

Management Style and Leadership

In working relationships with others, and particularly in direct influence in motivating others, a manager exhibits one or more characteristic styles of behaviour. We may define management style as the pattern of a manager's behaviour in working relationships with others over time. This definition is relatively loose being more a concept than a precise variable. In order to be more precise, we need to set up one or more categories of behaviour characteristics where employees for one reason or another see their work only as a means of economic rewards. A second style is a supportive, people-oriented, humanistic style, which may be appropriate for employees who value social rewards. A third is a participative, mutual goal-setting style in which the manager works with subordinates who value autonomy and are rewarded by self-fulfillment. In a way, then, we say that a manager who holds one of the three basic sets of assumptions about what motivates others should exhibit a style which is consistent with those assumptions in order to provide the appropriate means to exercise direct influence. In other words, managers need to understand what rewards subordinates value, and behave in a pattern which will fit with that understanding as one part of providing a consistent environment for the employee.

The manager who believes, as a part of his or her perspective, that people are complex, is going above and beyond the three operational sets of assumptions

about valued rewards. The “complex person” assumptions imply that a manager will have no fixed beliefs about what motivates people in general or what style to employ in all situations. Rather, the manager will attempt to understand the particular subordinates, the particular situation, and ideally, select a style to fit the situation. Thus, they recognize that people are complex and that a diagnosis with a goal as a path-goal theory must be performed before employing a style. The manager cannot have one particular style for all situations. Rather, the manager must be able to choose an appropriate style for a situation and then change that style, if necessary. One may call this approach a “contingent” management style, but it is important to note that it refers to the process of diagnosis and choice of managerial behaviour rather than to the pattern of behaviour itself.

7.6 MOTIVES AND MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOUR

As a manager, we may have asked: What motivates managers to become successful in a large organisation? Among other things, they need to make an impact to be strong and to influence the behaviour of others for the organisational good. What separates good managers from poor managers is the “need for power”. However, it should neither be dictatorial, nor power for personal goals. It is not crude power, or power used impulsively. It can be referred to as altruistic power, meaning the power to influence people for the good of the organisation for which they work. It may also be called socialized power, meaning power which is tempered by a large dose of self-control and perspective. When a large number of executives are grouped according to their success in a running large, complex corporation, the profile of the effective manager looks like this:

The top managers of a company must possess a high concern for influencing people and commensurate authority. However, this need must be disciplined and controlled so that it is directed towards the benefit of an institution as a whole and not toward the manager's personal benefits. Moreover, the top manager's need for power ought to be greater than her/his need for being liked by people.

A good manager is not primarily motivated by the need for affiliation. The affiliation need refers to the desire to be liked and accepted by other people. People with strong affiliation need not necessarily do well in management positions. To maintain a high morale and productive environment, policies must be applied universally and consistently. A manager concerned with developing friendly relationships may make too many “exceptions to the rule” for certain subordinates, thereby upsetting these subordinates who do not receive special treatment. A manager motivated by the affiliation need may create poor teamwork and low morale. This, of course, would be inadvertent; as such an individual would not purposefully do anything to upset the relationships in the work group. It would occur most likely because of the failure of the manager to focus on the task to be accomplished.

The need for achievement is not extreme among effective managers. The need for achievement means a desire to do things better. Entrepreneurs, for example, are high in the need to achieve. This is understandable since people high in this need try to do things better themselves and want constant feedback on

their performance to see how well they are working. While good managers may be high in the need to achieve, it is usually not greatly out of balance when compared to the power and affiliation motives. A manager with an usually high need to achieve would in all probability be characterized by the inability to delegate authority. But good managers get things done with and through other people. They are, therefore, required invariably to delegate authority. The manager must get others to do things through influence or through persuasion. By definition, then, one aspect of a manager's job is to help others perform their jobs better, rather than trying to better perform the many short-term projects alone. A mature, self-controlled need for power will help create a good manager who helps subordinates, feels strong and responsible, rewards them properly for good performance and sees that things are organized in such a way that subordinates feel they know what they should be doing. Above all, managers should foster among others a strong sense of team spirit, of pride in working as part of a particular team. If a manager creates and encourages this spirit, her/his subordinate(s) certainly should perform better.

The actions of managers can be measured along two dimensions – a concern for people and a concern for productive output. A strong power need combined with a weak need for affiliation does not conflict with being people-oriented or democratic toward subordinates. Power is a motive while being people-oriented is a behaviour or an action. Effective managers, in their effort to influence subordinates and get work done, express their strong power needs in democratic, people-oriented ways. Research on power in organisations indicates that the managers who were strong in power needs were also rated strong on the people-oriented supervisory style by their own subordinates.

7.7 SUMMARY

- Motivation is defined as a “process governing choices, made by persons or lower organisms, among alternatives forms of voluntary activity”. As such motivation is concerned with (1) the direction of behaviour, or what a person chooses to do when presented with a number of possible alternatives, (2) the amplitude, or strength of the effect once the choice is made and (3) the persistence of the behaviour, or how long the person continues with it. Choices behaviour refers to decisions directed toward occupational preference, choices, organisation choices, job attendance, self- training, creativity, spontaneity and job termination.
- Almost all workers are motivated to have a high level of self-esteem in the work situation. Often when a person is not in a work situation providing high self- esteem, the person will be “fighting back” – actively or passively like a slave – with all sorts of sly country measures. People do not want to be pushed around, misunderstood, unappreciated, mistreated, controlled or laughed at. All these things cause low self-esteem. The individual does not want to expect success to be active, to be respected to exercise self-control and to be self-starting.
- Factors within the job (intrinsic factors) are usually effective motivators and can help awaken the urge to accomplish and to be self-starting. Such factors include feelings of achievement, recognition and responsibility

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- among others. These feelings sometimes “surprise” workers and in so doing inspire and encourage high motivation
- Jobs not providing for intrinsic motivation are low in “cultivation” or stimulation. Some form of job redesign is suggested for this type of job.
 - High task performance results when (1) employees are able to use their valued abilities and skills in becoming task competent, (2) employees perceive valued and equitable rewards to be linked to task performance, and (3) employees acknowledge a differential reward system based on performance within the organisation.
 - The power motive is important to effective managers. This need is not for dictatorial power or crude impulsive power but rather socialized power and the power to influence people for the sake of the organisation. While some balance of motives is usually present within most individuals a high need for power seem to be critical to a person’s ability to function as a manager.
 - Motivation is a complex problem in organisation because the needs, wants, and desires of each worker differ as each individual is unique in his/ her biological and psychological makeup and in his/her learning experiences. Motivation is either internal or external, depending on where the action is initiated.
 - External motivation builds on internal motivation and depends on the motivational assumptions and techniques used by the manager.

7.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Study the case given below and answer the questions following them.

Case 1

The procedure manual of Naidu Enterprises stated that backorders should be filed numerically by the invoice number appearing on Naidu’s purchase order to its suppliers. But one morning Hariharan spent several hours refilling the backorders suppliers. When a customer called to check on an item that was backordered, it was time-consuming for Ram to locate the order that was written up after it had been determined that the item was not in stock. Consequently, the customer had no idea what the invoice number of its backorder was. Hariharan was proud of what he had done and wanted the opportunity to show off his system to the branch manager, John

Rowlings. After lunch that same day, Mr. Rowlings needed a backorder invoice to answer a question a customer had about his order. It was no problem for Ram to find the invoice since it was filed alphabetically under the name of the account. Mr. Rowlings told Joe that although the invoice had been easily located, his filing system for backorder invoices did not conform to company procedures and they would have to be refilled by invoice number before the branch’s semiannual inspection next week. Hariharan was depressed that he had to conform to company procedures even when they were inefficient. He spent the entire afternoon refilling the invoices by number, not caring that he didn’t get anything else done.

- a) Will Hariharan be motivated to try other methods of improving the efficiency of the job in the future? Explain.
2. Study the cases given below and answer the questions following them.

Case 2

Arun was the first repair manager to be hired at Chawla Supply Centre. He was a field repairman for another company before he took a position. In the past, the repair department had operated without a manager. The repairman, Nand Kishore and George Brown simply divided the work between themselves in whatever manner they wanted. There was always a backlog of work, but It was finished on time.

When Arun came, he decided to divide the work load into repairs for company and individual accounts and to assign certain types of repairs to each man. He had to check all repairs before they were returned to the customer, and he wanted all problems discussed with him before action was taken on them. He started holding meetings with the repairmen to discuss problems the section was having.

At first, meetings were held during working hours, then after work, and finally on Saturdays. During these meetings, the increasing number of problems were discussed, but no solutions were ever offered. In the meantime, the work load was getting greater and some of the work was not being finished on time. It seemed that Nand Kishore and George were spending most of their time getting Arun's approval on their work so they could have it shipped back to the customer. Arun then decided that the repair department should start working overtime.

- a) Discuss this case in terms of job satisfaction and job enrichment.
 - b) Is anyone to blame for the increase in workload, or could it be just an increase in business?
 - c) Do you believe that the repairmen should be motivated to increase their productivity because they now have their own manager?
 - d) Discuss morale in terms of the relationship of satisfaction to productivity.
3. Explain how motivation plays an important role in organisations
 4. Distinguish between Motivation and Morale.
 5. What can organisations do to improve Motivation and Morale?

7.9 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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