**Chapter One – An Overview of Organizational Behavior**

Organizational behavior is a scientific discipline in which a large number of research studies and conceptual developments are constantly adding to its knowledge base. It is also an applied science, in that information about effective practices in one organization is being extended to many others.

The human organization of today is not the same as it was yesterday, or the day before. In particular, the workforce has become richly diverse, which means that employees bring a wide array of education backgrounds, talents and perspectives to their jobs. Occasionally, this diversity presents challenges for management to resolve as when some employees have examined their uniqueness through alternative dress or jewelry. While others present unique challenges through substance abuse or life threatening illnesses. Other employees have examined their values and are determined to put their personal goals ahead of total commitment to the organization. Managers need to be tuned into these diverse patterns and trends, and be prepared to adapt to them.

**Definitions of Organizational Behavior**

Organizational behavior is the study of human behavior, attitudes and performance within the organization setting; drawing on theory, methods, and principles from such disciplines as psychology, sociology, and cultural anthropology to learn about individual perceptions, values, learning capacities, and actions while working in groups and within the total organization; analyzing the external environment’s effect on the organization and its human resources, missions, objectives, and strategies.

Organizational behavior is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behavior within organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization’s effectiveness.

Organizational behavior is an interdisciplinary field dedicated to better understanding and managing people at work. Organizational behavior(often abbreviated OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behavior within organizations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization’s effectiveness. Let’s break it down. Organizational behavior is a field of study, meaning that it is a distinct area of expertise with a common body of knowledge. What does it study? It studies three determinants of behavior in organizations: individuals, groups, and structure.

In addition, OB applies the knowledge gained about individuals, groups, and the effect of structure on behavior in order to make organizations work more effectively. To sum up our definition, OB is the study of what people do in an organization and how their behavior affects the organization’s performance. And because OB is concerned specifically with employment-related situations, you should not be surprised that it emphasizes behavior as related to concerns such as jobs, work, absenteeism, employment turnover, productivity, human performance, and management. Although debate exists about the relative importance of each, OB includes the core topics of motivation, leader behavior and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and processes, learning, attitude development and perception, change processes, conflict, work design, and work stress.

**The three levels of analysis in Organizational** B**ehavior**

Organizational behavior provides a useful set of tools at many levels of analysis. That is, Organizational behavior can be analyzed at three levels. For example, it helps managers look at the behavior of individuals within the organizations. It also aids their understanding of the complexities involved in interpersonal relations, when two people (two coworkers or a superior subordinate pair) interact.

At the next level, organization behavior is valuable for examining the dynamics of relationships within small groups both formal teams and informal groups. When two or more groups need to coordinate their efforts, such as engineering and sales, managers become interested in the inter group relations that emerge. Finally, organization can also be viewed and managed as whole systems that have inter-organizational relationships (e.g. mergers and joint ventures).

Replacing Intuition with systematic Study

Each of us is a student of behavior. Since our earliest years, we have watched the actions of others and have attempted to interpret what we see, Whether or not you have explicitly thought about it before you have been "reading" people almost all your life. You watch what others do and try to explain to yourself why they have engaged in their behavior. Additionally, you've attempted to predict what they might do under different sets of conditions.

You have already developed some generalizations that you find helpful in explaining and predicting what people do and 'will do. But how did you arrive at these generalizations? *You* did so by observing, sensing, asking, listening, and reading. That is, your understanding comes either directly from your own experience with things in the environment, or secondhand, through the experience of others.

How accurate are the generalizations you hold? Some may represent extremely sophisticated appraisals of behavior and may prove highly effective in explaining and predicting the behavior of others. However, most of us also carry with us a number of beliefs that frequently fail to explain why people do, what they do. To illustrate, consider the following statements about work related behavior:

1. Happy workers are productive workers.

2. All individuals are most productive when their boss is friendly, trusting, and approachable.

3. Interviews are effective selection devices for separating job applicants who would be high-performing employees from those who would be low performers.

4. Everyone wants a challenging job.

5. You have to scare people a little to get them to do their jobs.

6. Everyone is motivated by money.

7. Most people are much more concerned with the size of their own salaries than with others'.

8. Most effective work groups have no conflict.

How many of these statements do you think are true? For the most part, they are all false, and we touch on each later in this course. But whether these statements are true or false is not really important at this time. What is important is to be aware that many of the views you hold concerning human behavior are based on intuition rather than fact. As a result, a systematic approach to the study of behavior can improve your explanatory and predictive abilities.

**A Review of a manager’s job and its relation to the study of organizational behavior**

Let's begin by briefly defining the terms *manager* and the place where managers work-the *organization.* Then let's look at the manager's job: specifically, what do managers do? Managers get things done through other people or achieve goals through other people. They make decisions, allocate resources, and direct the activities of others to attain goals. Managers do their work in an organization. This is a consciously coordinated social unit, composed of two or more people that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals. Based on this definition, manufacturing and service firms are organizations and so are schools, hospitals, churches, military units, retail stores, police departments, and local, state, and federal government agencies. The people who oversee the activities of others and who are responsible for attaining goals in these organizations are their managers (although they're sometimes called *administrators,* especially in not for- profit organizations). While managers plan, organize, direct, and control or discharge their managerial roles, they interact with people.

One common thread runs through the functions, roles, skills, and activities approaches to management: Each recognizes the paramount importance of managing people. As David Kwok found out when he became a manager at The Princeton Review, regardless of whether it's called "the leading function," "interpersonal roles," "human skills," or "human resource management and networking activities," it's clear that managers need to develop their people skills if they're going to be effective and successful in their job. To develop their people skills, managers need to know behavior of employees or people systematically or scientifically.

**Characteristics of Organizational Behavior**

One major strength of organizational behavior is its interdisciplinary nature. It integrates the behavior science (the systematic body of knowledge pertaining to why and how people behave as they do) with other social sciences that can contribute to the subject. It applies from these disciplines any ideas that will improve the relationship between people and organizations. Its interdisciplinary nature is similar to that of medicine, which applies knowledge from the physical, biological, and social sciences into a workable medical practice.

First, organizational behavior is an interdisciplinary body of knowledge with strong ties to the behavioral science, psychology, sociology, and anthropology – as well as to allied social science such as, economics and political science.

Second, organizational behavior uses scientific methods to develop and empirically test generalizations about behavior in the organizations.

Third, the research in organizational behavior focuses on applications and seeks relevancy in answering practical questions relating to human behavior in organization.

Fourth, organizational behavior uses contingency thinking in its search for ways to improve up on these outcomes rather than assuming that there is one “best” or “universal” way to manage people and organization.

**Generally, a framework (level, scope) to study OB can be viewed as follow.**

The three levels of study in organizational behavior are:

* 1. Individual level
  2. Groups and interpersonal relations level
  3. Organizational system level.

1. **Individual level: -** Individual differences, Learning, perception and attribution, Attitudes, values and ethics, Creativity, Motivation, etc.
2. **Group and Interpersonal: -** Communication, Group dynamics, Teams, Leadership, Power, politics and influence, Conflict, stress and well-being.
3. **Organizational System level: -** Structure and design, Change and knowledge management and Cultural diversity.

Contributing Disciplines to the OB Field

Organizational behavior is an applied behavioral science that is built on contributions from a number of behavioral disciplines. The predominant areas are psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, and political science. As we shall learn, psychology's contributions have been mainly at the individual or micro level of analysis; the other disciplines have contributed to our understanding of macro concepts such as group processes and organization.

Following are some of the major contributions to the study of organizational behavior:

Psychology

Psychology is the science that seeks to measure, explain, and sometimes change the behavior of humans and other animals. Psychologists concern themselves with studying and attempting to understand individual behavior. Those who have contributed and continue to add to the knowledge of OB are learning theorists, personality theorists, counseling psychologists, and, most important, industrial and organizational psychologists.

Early industrial/organizational psychologists concerned themselves with problems of fatigue, boredom, and other factors relevant to working conditions that could impede efficient work performance. More recently, their contributions have been expanded to include learning, perception, personality, training, leadership effectiveness, needs and motivational forces, job satisfaction, decision-making processes, performance appraisals, attitude measurement, employee selection techniques, job design, and work stress.ur

Sociology

Whereas psychologists focus their attention on the individual, sociologists study the social system in which individuals fill their roles; that is, sociology studies people in relation to their fellow human beings. Specifically, sociologist’s greatest contribution is through their study of group behavior in organizations, particularly formal and complex organizations.

Some of the areas within OB that have received valuable input from sociologists are group dynamics, design of work teams, organizational culture, formal organization theory and structure, organizational technology, bureaucracy, communications, power, conflict, and intergroup behavior.

Social Psychology

Social psychology is an area within psychology, but blends concepts from both psychology and sociology. It focuses on the influence of people on one another. One of the major areas receiving considerable investigation from social psychologists has been change-how to implement it and how to reduce barriers to its acceptance. Additionally, we find social psychologists making significant contributions in the areas of measuring, understanding, and changing attitudes; communication patterns; the ways in which group activities can satisfy individual needs; and group decision-making processes.

Anthropology

Anthropologists study societies to learn about human beings and their activities. Their work on cultures and environments, for instance, has helped us understand differences in fundamental values, attitudes, and behavior between people in different countries and within different organizations. Much of our current understanding of organizational culture, organizational environments, and differences between national cultures is the result of the work of anthropologists or those using their methodologies.

There are few absolutes in OB

There are few, if any, simple and universal principles that explain organizational behavior. There are laws in the physical sciences---chemistry, astronomy, and physics-that are consistent and apply in a wide range of situations. They allow scientists to generalize about the pull of gravity or to confidently send astronauts into space to repair satellites. But as one noted behavioral researcher aptly concluded, "God gave all the easy problems to the physicists." Human beings are very complex. They are not alike, which limits the ability to make simple, accurate, and sweeping generalizations. Two people often act very differently in the same situation, and the same person's behavior changes in different situations. For instance, not everyone is motivated by money, and you behave differently at church on Sunday than you did at the beer party the night before. That doesn't mean, of course, that we can't offer reasonably accurate explanations of human behavior or make valid predictions. It does mean, however, that OB concepts must reflect situational or contingency conditions. We can say that x leads to y, but only under conditions specified in *z* (the contingency variables). The science of OB was developed by using general concepts and then altering their application to the particular situation. So, for example, *OB* scholars would avoid stating that effective leaders should always seek the ideas of their subordinates before making a decision. Rather, we find that in some situations a participative style is clearly superior, but in other situations, an autocratic decision style is more effective. In other words, the effectiveness of a particular leadership style is contingent on the situation in which it is utilized. As you proceed through this course, you'll encounter a wealth of research based theories about how people behave in organizations. But don't expect to find a lot of straightforward cause-effect relationships. There aren't many! Organizational behavior theories mirror the subject matter with which they deal.

People are complex and complicated, and so too must be the theories developed to explain their actions. Consistent with the contingency philosophy, you'll find point-counterpoint debates at the conclusion of each chapter. These debates are included to reinforce the fact that within the OB field there are many issues over which there is significant disagreement. By directly addressing some of the more controversial issues using the point-counterpoint format, you get the opportunity to explore different points of view, discover how diverse perspectives complement and oppose each other, and gain insight into some of the debates currently taking place Within *the* OB field.

So at the end of this chapter, you'll find the argument that leadership plays an important role in an organization's attaining its goals, followed by the argument that there is little evidence to support this claim. Similarly, at the end of other chapters, you'll read both sides of the debate on whether money is a motivator, clear communication is always desirable, bureaucracies have become obsolete, and other controversial issues. These arguments are meant to demonstrate that OB, like many disciplines, has disagreements over specific findings, methods, and theories. Some of the point-counterpoint arguments are more provocative than others, but each makes some valid points you should find thought provoking. The key is to be able to decipher under what conditions each argument may be right or wrong.

**Historical Development of Organizational Behaviour**

A Brief History of Organizational Behavior

1. Classical theories of management-Bureaucracy-Scientific management : E W Taylor-Process management theory – Henri Fayol
2. Neo-classical theories - Human relations era -Hawthorne studies : Elton Mayo -Need Hierarchy Theory – Maslow, Theory X and Theory Y – McGregor
3. Modern management theories: Re-engineering -Bench marking - Empowerment - Systems approach to management ,Total quality in human resource management

**Ethics and Organizational Behavior: Introduction, Definition and Concepts**

An ethical organization can achieve better business results. This idea is now making more and more corporate leaders accept their social responsibilities and organizational ethics. Organizations indulging in unethical business practices or even in unethical dealings with their employees are now quickly identified and globally exposed in this era of technology intensive communication systems. Organizational activities require redesigning and updating, keeping pace with public expectations and ever-rising standards. With the pattern of organizational behaviour (OB), injustice, corporate dishonesty, exploitation, and negligence being more visible and attracting public opinion and criticism, ethical violations are carefully avoided.

For organizations, ethical issues encompass every citizen of the world. The definition of stakeholder is no longer limited to shareholders, investors, and partners. A stakeholder is any group that has an interest in, involvement with, dependence on, contribution to, or is affected by the organization. A stakeholder is any individual or group who could lose or gain something because of the actions of the organization

**Organization as a system**: - Organizational components that need to be managed are: People, Structure, Culture, Technology, Jobs, etc. Therefore, organization is a system having many interrelated components (departments, divisions, Branches, Manpower, etc) which work together to achieve common organizational goals or objectives.

Summary and Implications for Managers

Managers need to develop their interpersonal or people skills if *they're* going to be effective in their job. Organizational behavior (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact which individuals, groups, and structure have on behavior within organizations, and then applies that knowledge to make organizations work more effectively. Specifically, OB focuses on how to improve productivity, reduce absenteeism and turnover, and increase employee job satisfaction.

We all hold a number of generalizations about the behavior of people. While some of these generalizations provide valid insights into human behavior, many are often erroneous. OB uses systematic study to improve behavioral predictions that would be made from intuition alone. But because people are different, we need to look at OB in a contingency framework, using situational variables to moderate cause-effect relationships.

Organizational behavior offers a number of challenges and opportunities for managers. It can help improve quality and employee productivity by showing managers how to empower their people as well as design and implement change programs. It offers specific insights to improve a manager's people skills. OB recognizes differences and helps managers see the value of work force diversity and practices that may need to be made when managing in different countries. In times of rapid and ongoing change! OB can help managers learn to cope in a world of "temporariness" and declining employee loyalty. Finally! OB can offer managers guidance in creating an ethically healthy work climate.

**Chapter Two**

**Foundation of Individual Behavior and Learning in an Organization**

**Understanding Individual difference /Understanding Individual Behavior**: - individual behavior is different in terms of the following: Personality, Perception, Emotions, Values, Attitudes, Stress, motivation, ability, Role perception, age, situational factors, etc.

**Perception**

What is Perception?

Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. However, as we have noted, what one perceives can be substantially different from objective reality. It need not be, but there is often disagreement. For example, it is possible that all employees in a firm may view it as a great place to work-favorable working conditions, interesting job assignments, good pay, an understanding and responsible management-but, as most of us know; it is very unusual to find such agreement. Thus, perception is the process by which individuals organize and interpret their impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.

Why perception is important?

- Because people’s behavior is based on their perception of what reality is, not on reality itself.

- Because the world as it is perceived is the world that is behaviorally important.

- Because perception is used to better understand how people make attributions about events.

- Because we don’t see reality. But, we interpret what we see and call it reality.

- Because the attribution process guides our behavior, regardless of the truth of the attribution.

**Factors Influencing Perception**

How do we explain that individuals may look at the same thing yet perceive it differently? A number of factors operate to shape and sometimes distort perception. These factors can reside in the *perceiver,* in the object or *target* being perceived, or in the context of the *situation* in which the perception is made.

The Perceiver

When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she sees, that interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of the individual perceiver. *Have* you ever bought a new car and then suddenly noticed a large number of cars like yours on the road? It's unlikely that the number of such cars suddenly expanded. Rather, your own purchase *has* influenced your perception so you are now more likely to notice them. This is an example of how factors related to the perceiver influence what he or she perceives. Among the more relevant personal characteristics affecting perception are attitudes, motives, interests, past experience, expectations, and so on.

Sandy likes small classes because she enjoys asking her teachers a lot of questions. Scott prefers large lectures and he rarely asks questions. On the first day of classes this term, Sandy and Scott find themselves walking into the University for their Introductory Course in psychology. They both recognize that they will be among some 800 students in this class. But given the different attitudes held by Sandy and Scott, it shouldn't surprise you to find they interpret what they see differently. Sandy feels worry, while Scott's smile does little to hide his relief in being able to blend unnoticed into the large lecture. They both see the same thing, but they interpret it differently. A major reason is that they hold divergent *attitudes* concerning large classes.

Unsatisfied needs or *motives* stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perceptions. This was dramatically demonstrated in research on hunger. Individuals in the study had not eaten for varying numbers of hours. Some had eaten an hour earlier; others had gone as long as 16 hours without food. These subjects were shown blurred pictures, and the results indicated that the extent of hunger influenced the interpretation of the blurred pictures. Those who had not eaten for 16 hours perceived the blurred images as pictures of food far more frequently than did those subjects who had eaten only a short time earlier.

This same phenomenon has application in an organizational context as well. It would not be surprising, for example, to find that a boss who is insecure perceives a subordinate's efforts to do an outstanding job as a threat to his or her own position. Personal insecurity can be transferred into the perception that others attempt to "get my job" regardless of the intention of the subordinates. Likewise, people who are devious are prone to see others as also devious. The supervisor who has just been reprimanded by her boss for the high level of lateness among her staff is more likely to notice lateness by an employee tomorrow than she was last week. If you are preoccupied with a personal problem, you may find it hard to be attentive in class. These examples illustrate that the focus of our attention appears to be influenced by our *interests.* Because our individual interests differ considerably, what one person notices in a situation can differ from what others perceive. Just as interests narrow one's focus, so do one's *past experiences.* You perceive those things to which you can relate. However, in many instances, your past experiences will act to nullify an object's interest.

Objects or events that have never been experienced before are more noticeable than those that have been experienced in the past. You are more likely to notice a machine you have never seen before than a standard filing cabinet that is exactly like a hundred others you have previously seen. Similarly, you are more likely to notice the operations along an assembly line if this is the first time you have seen an assembly line. Finally, *expectations* can distort your perceptions in that you will see what you expect to see. If you expect personnel directors to "like people", you may perceive them this way regardless of their actual traits.

**The Target**

Characteristics in the target that is being observed can affect what is perceived. Loud people are more likely to be noticed in a group than quiet ones. Motion, sounds, size, and other attributes of a target shape the way we see it. Because targets are not looked at in isolation, the relationship of a target to its background influences perception, as does our tendency to group close things and similar things together. What we see depends on how we separate a figure from its general background. For instance, what you see as you read this sentence is black letters on a white page.

Objects that are close to each other will tend to be perceived together rather than separately. As a result of physical or time proximity, we often put together objects or events that are unrelated. Employees in a particular department are seen as a group. If two people in a four-member department suddenly resign, we tend to assume their departures were related when, in fact, they may be totally unrelated. Persons, objects, or events that are similar to each other also tend to be grouped together. The greater the similarity, the greater the probability we will tend to perceive them as a common group.

**The Situation**

The context in which we see objects or events is important. Elements in the surrounding environment influence our perceptions. Factors such as time, work setting, social setting and so on affect our perception of reality or environment. The following diagram summarizes factors influencing perception.

**Perceptual Errors**

* **Attribution problem** - there are two attribution theories: a) Fundamental Attribution Error:- The tendency to underestimate external factors and overestimate internal factors when making judgments about others’ behavior. e.g. lower salary. b) Self-Serving Bias: - The tendency to attribute one’s successes to internal factors while putting the blame for failures on external factors. e.g. student grade.
* **Selective Perception** - People selectively interpret what they see based on their interests, background, experience, and attitudes.
* **Halo Effect** - Drawing a general impression about an individual based on a single characteristic.
* **Contrast Effects** -A person’s evaluation is affected by comparisons with other individuals recently encountered.
* **Projection** - Attributing one’s own characteristics to other people.
* **Stereotyping** - Judging someone on the basis of your perception of the group to which that person belongs.
* **Prejudice** -An unfounded dislike of a person or group based on their belonging to a particular stereotyped group.
* **Self-Fulfilling Prophecy** - A concept that proposes a person will behave in ways consistent with how he or she is perceived by others.

Attitude

Attitude is evaluative statements or judgments concerning objects, people, or events. Attitudes are evaluative statements- either favorable or unfavorable- concerning objects, people, or events. They reflect how one feels about something. When you say “I like my job”, you are expressing your attitude about your work. Attitude reflects how one feels about something.

**Components of Attitude**

There are three components of an attitude: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. The belief that "discrimination is wrong" is a value statement. Such an opinion is the cognitive component of an attitude. It sets the stage for the more critical part of an attitude-its affective component. Affective component is the emotional or feeling segment of an attitude and is reflected in the statement "I don't like John because he discriminates against his friends." Finally, affective aspect can lead to behavioral outcomes. The behavioral component of an attitude refers to an intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something. So, to continue our example, “I might choose to avoid John because of my feeling about him”.

Viewing attitudes as made up of three components- cognition, affect, and behavior -is helpful toward understanding their complexity and the potential relationship between attitudes and behavior. But for the sake of clarity, keep in mind that the term *attitude* essentially refers to the affective part of the three components. Therefore, cognitive component of an attitude is the opinion or belief segment of an attitude. Affective component of an attitude is the emotional or feeling segment of an attitude. Behavioral component of an attitude is an intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something.

**Sources of Attitudes**

Attitudes are acquired from parents, teachers, peer group members and so forth. And also, we are born with certain genetic predispositions. Then, in our early years, we begin modeling our attitudes after those we admire, or respect. We observe the way family and friends behave, and we shape our attitudes and behavior to align with theirs. People also imitate the attitudes of popular individuals and those they admire and respect. In contrast to values, your attitudes are less stable. Advertising messages, for example, attempt to alter your attitudes toward a certain product or service. In organizations, attitudes are important because they affect job behavior. If workers believe, for example, that supervisors, auditors, bosses, and time and motion engineers are all in conspiracy to make employees work harder for the same or less money, then it makes sense to try to understand how these attitudes were formed, their relationship to actual job behavior, and how they might be changed.

**Characteristics and formation of Attitude**

Many of the attitudes of the individual have their source and support in groups with which the individual comes in alliance. His attitudes tend to reflect the beliefs, values and the norms of his group, and to maintain his attitude the individual must have the support of his group. The group helps in the foundation of attitudes. The son of an unskilled worker, aspiring for middle class status will tend to accept the middle class values and attitudes. His middle class outlook will embrace the attitudinal issues of that class. The attitudes of individual reflect personality.

**Types of Attitudes**

A person can have thousands of attitudes, but OB focuses our attention on a very limited number of job-related attitudes. These job-related attitudes tap positive or negative evaluations that employees hold about aspects of their work environment. Most of the research in OB has been concerned with the following attitudes: job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, employee engagement, perceived organizational support, etc.

**JOB SATISFACTION** - The term *job satisfaction* refers to an individual's general attitude toward his or her job. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes toward the job; a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds negative attitudes about the job. When people speak of employee attitudes, more often than not they mean job satisfaction. In fact, the two are frequently used interchangeably.

**JOB INVOLVEMENT** - The degree to which a person identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it, and considers his or her performance important to self- worth. The term job involvement is a more recent addition to the OB literature. While there isn't complete agreement over what the term means, a workable definition states that job involvement measures the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his or her job and considers his or her perceived performance level important to self-worth. Employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do. High levels of job involvement have been found to be related to fewer absences and lower resignation rates. **ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT** - The degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to monitor membership in the organization. It's defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization. So high *work involvement* means identifying with one's specific job; high *organizational commitment* means identifying with one's employing organization.

As with job involvement, the research evidence demonstrates negative relationships between organizational commitment and both absenteeism and turnover. Organizational commitment is probably a better predictor because it is a more global and enduring response to the organization as a whole than is job satisfaction. An employee may be dissatisfied with his other particular job and consider it a temporary condition, yet not be dissatisfied with the organization as a whole. But when dissatisfaction spreads to the organization itself, individuals are more likely to consider resigning. Are all these job attitudes are distinct? No! Because these attitudes are highly related. Variables may be redundant *(measuring the same thing under a different name).*While there is some distinction; there is also a lot of overlap.

**Predicting Behavior from Attitudes**

Important attitudes have a strong relationship to behavior. The closer the match between attitude and behavior, the stronger the relationship:

* Specific attitudes predict specific behavior
* General attitudes predict general behavior
* The more frequently expressed an attitude, the better predictor it is.
* High social pressures reduce the relationship and may cause dissonance.
* Attitudes based on personal experience are stronger predictors.

Consistency of Attitudes

People seek consistency among their attitudes and their behavior. When there is an inconsistency, the individual may alter either the attitudes or behavior, or develop a rationalization for the discrepancy. Did you ever notice how people change what they say so it doesn't contradict what they do? Perhaps a friend of yours has consistently argued that the quality of domestic products isn't up to that of the imports and that he'd never own anything but a domestic ones. Research has generally concluded that people seek consistency among their attitudes and between their attitudes and their behavior. This means that individuals seek to reconcile divergent attitudes and align their attitudes and behavior so they appear rational and consistent. When there is an inconsistency, forces are initiated to return the individual to an equilibrium state where attitudes and behavior are again consistent. This can be done by altering either the attitudes or the behavior or by developing a rationalization for the discrepancy.

Personality

Why are some people quiet and passive, while others are loud and aggressive? Are certain personality types better adapted for certain job types? What do we know from theories of personality that can help us explain and predict the behavior of people? In this section, we attempt to answer such questions.

What is Personality?

When we talk of personality, we don't mean a person has charm, a positive attitude toward life, a smiling face, or is a finalist for "Happiest and Friendliest". When psychologists talk of personality, they mean a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person's whole psychological system. Rather than looking at parts of the person, personality looks at some aggregate whole that is greater than the sum of the parts.

The most frequently used definition of personality was produced by Gordon Allport nearly 60 years ago. He said personality is "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment. For our purposes, you should think of personality as the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others. This is most often described in terms of measurable personality traits that a person exhibits. Personality is the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts.

Personality Determinants

An early argument in personality research was whether an individual's personality was the result of heredity or environment. Was the personality predetermined at birth, or was it the result of the individual's interaction with his or her environment? Clearly, there is no simple black-and-white answer. Personality appears to be a result of both influences. Additionally, today we recognize a third factor-the situation. Thus, an adult's personality is now generally considered to be made up of both hereditary and environmental factors, moderated by situational conditions.

**HEREDITY**- Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are generally considered to be either completely or substantially influenced by who your parents were, that is, by their biological, physiological, and inherent psychological make-up. The heredity approach argues that the Ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes. But personality characteristics are not completely dictated by heredity.

**ENVIRONMENT** - Among the factors that exert pressures on our personality formation are the culture in which we are raised, our early conditioning, the norms among our family, friends, and. social groups, and other influences we experience. The environment we are exposed to play a substantive role in shaping our personalities. .

For example, culture establishes the norms, attitudes, and values that are passed along from one generation to the next and create consistencies over time. Careful consideration of the arguments favoring either heredity or environment as the primary determinant of personality forces the conclusion that both are important. Heredity sets the parameters or outer limits, but an individual's full potential will be determined by how well he or she adjusts to the demands and requirements of the environment.,

**SITUATION/SITUATIONAL CONDITIONS** - A third factor, the situation, influence the effects of heredity and environment on personality. An individual's personality, while generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The different demands of different situations call forth different aspects of one's personality. We should not, therefore, look at personality patterns in isolation." While it seems only logical to suppose that situations will influence an individual's personality, a neat classification scheme which would tell us the impact of various types of situations has so far eluded us. Apparently we are not yet dose to developing a system for clarifying situations so they might be systematically studied. However, we do know that certain situations are more relevant than others in influencing personality.

What is of interest taxonomically is that situations seem to differ substantially in the constraints they impose on behavior, with some situations - e.g., church, an employment interview-constraining many behaviors and others. Furthermore, although certain generalizations can be made about personality, there are significant individual differences. As we see, the study of individual differences has come to receive greater emphasis in personality research, which originally sought out more general, universal patterns.

Major Personality Attributes Influencing OB

In this section, we want to more carefully evaluate a number of specific personality attributes that have been found to be powerful predictors of behavior in organizations. The first of these is related to where one perceives the locus of control in one's life. The others are Machiavellianism, self-esteem, self-monitoring, propensity for risk taking, Proactive Personality, and Type A personality. In this section, we briefly introduce these attributes and summarize what we know about their ability to explain and predict employee behavior.

**LOCUS OF CONTROL** - Some people believe they are masters of their own fate. Other people see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that what happens to them in their lives is due to luck or chance. The first type, those who believe they r •control their destinies have been labeled internals, whereas the latter, who see their lives as being controlled by outside forces, have been called externals.

A large amount of research comparing internals with externals has consistently shown that individuals who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting, and are less involved on their jobs than are internals. Why are externals more dissatisfied? The answer is probably because they perceive themselves as having little control over those organizational outcomes that are important to them. Internals, facing the same situation, attribute organizational outcomes to their own actions. If the situation is unattractive, they believe they have no one else to blame but themselves. Also, the dissatisfied internal is more likely to quit a dissatisfying job. Internals -Individuals who believe that they control what happens to them. Externals - individuals who believe that what happens to them is controlled by outside forces such as luck or chance.

**MACHIAVELLIANISM** - The personality characteristic of Machiavellianism (Mach) is named after Niccollo Machiavelli, who wrote in the sixteenth century about how to gain and manipulate power. An individual high in Machiavellianism is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance, and believes that ends can justify means. "If it works, use *it"* is consistent with a high-Mach perspective. A considerable amount of research has been directed toward relating high- and low-Mach personalities to certain behavioral outcomes. High-Machs manipulate more, win more, are persuaded less, and persuade others more than do low-Machs. Yet, these high-Mach outcomes are moderated by situational factors. It has been found that high-Machs flourish (1) when they interact face to face with others rather than indirectly; (2) when the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations, thus allowing latitude for improvisation; and (3) where emotional involvement with details irrelevant to winning distracts low-Machs.

Should we conclude that high-Machs make good employees? That answer depends on the type of job and whether you consider ethical implications in evaluating performance. In jobs that require bargaining skills (such as labor negotiation) or where there are substantial rewards for winning (as in commissioned sales), high-Machs will be productive. But if ends can't justify the means, if there are *absolute* standards of behavior, or if the three situational factors noted in the previous paragraph are not in evidence, our ability to predict a high-Mach's performance will be severely curtailed.

**SELF ESTEEM** - People differ in the degree to which they like or dislike themselves. This trait is called self-esteem. The research on self-esteem offers some interesting insights into organizational behavior. For example, self-esteem *is* directly related to expectations for success. High-self esteems believe they possess more of the ability they need in order to succeed at work. Individuals with high self esteem will take more risks in job selection and are more likely to choose unconventional Jobs than people with low self esteem.

The most generalizable finding on self-esteem is that low-self esteems are more susceptible to external influence than high-self esteems. Low-self esteems depend on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. As a result, they are more likely to seek approval from others and more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviors of those they respect than are high-SEs (self esteems). In managerial positions, low-SEs tend to be concerned with pleasing others and, therefore, are less likely to take unpopular stands than are high-SEs.

Not surprisingly, self-esteem has also been found to be related to job satisfaction. A number of studies confirm that high-SEs are more satisfied with their jobs than low-SEs.

**SELF-MONITORING -** A personality trait that has recently received increased attention is called self-monitoring. It refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behavior to external, situational factors. Individuals high in self-monitoring show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behavior to external situational factors. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. High self monitors are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public, personal and their private self. Low self-monitors can't disguise themselves this way. This tends to display their true dispositions and attitudes in every situation; hence there is high behavioral consistency between who they are and what they do.

The research on self-monitoring: is in its infancy, so predictions must be guarded. However, preliminary evidence suggests that high self-monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behavior of others and are more capable of conforming than are low self-monitors. We might also hypothesize that high self-monitors will be more successful in managerial positions where individuals are required to play multiple, and even contradicting roles. The high self-monitor is capable of putting on different "faces" for different audiences.

**RISK TAKING -** People differ in their willingness and propensity to take risks. This 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. High risk-taking managers made more rapid decisions and used less information in making their choices than did the low-risk-taking managers. Interestingly, the decision accuracy was the same for both groups. While it is generally correct to conclude that managers in organizations are risk aversive, there are still individual differences on this dimension. As a result, it makes sense to recognize these 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 because this type of job demands rapid decision making.

On the other hand, this personality characteristic might prove a major obstacle to an accountant who performs auditing activities. The latter job might be better filled by someone with a low-risk-taking propensity.

**Type A personality** - Aggressive involvement in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less likely and, if necessary, against the opposing efforts of other things or other people.

TYPE A PERSONALITY- Do you know any people who are excessively competitive and always seem to be experiencing a chronic sense of time urgency? If so, it's a good bet these people have a Type A personality. A Type A individual is  *aggressively* involved in a *chronic, incessant* struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons. For example, in the North American culture, such characteristics tend to be highly prized and positively associated with ambition and the successful acquisition of material goods.

**Type A's**

1. are always moving, walking, and eating rapidly;

2. feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place;

3. strive to think or do two or more things simultaneously;

4. cannot cope with leisure time; and

5. are obsessed with numbers, measuring their success in terms of how much of everything they acquire.

In contrast to the Type A personality is the Type B, who is exactly opposite. Type B's are "rarely harried by the desire to obtain an increasing number of things or participate in an endless growing series of events in an ever decreasing amount of time”.

**Type B's**

1. never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience;

2. feel no need to display or discuss, either their achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation;

3. play for fun and relaxation, rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost; and

4. can relax without guilt,

Type A's operate under moderate to high levels of stress. They subject themselves to more or less continuous time pressure, creating for themselves a life of deadlines. These characteristics result in some rather specific behavioral *outcomes.* For example, Type *A's* are fast workers. This is because they emphasize quantity over quality. In managerial positions, Type A's demonstrate their competitiveness by working long hours and, not infrequently, making poor decisions because they make them too fast. Type A's are also rarely creative. Because of their concern with quantity and speed, they rely on past experiences when faced with problems. They will not allocate the time that is necessary to develop unique solutions to new problems. They rarely vary in their responses to specific challenges in their milieu; hence their behavior is easier to predict than that of Type B's.

Are Type A's or Type B's more successful in organizations? In spite of the hard work of Type A's, the Type B's are the ones who appear to make it to the top. Great salespersons are usually Type A's; senior executives are usually Type B's. Why? The answer lies in the tendency of Type A's to trade off quality of effort for quantity. Promotions in corporate and professional organizations usually go to those who are wise rather than to those who are merely hasty, to those who are tactful rather than to those who are hostile, and to those who are creative rather than to those who are merely agile in competitive strife.

**Proactive Personality**

A person who identifies opportunities, shows initiative, takes action, and perseveres until meaningful change occurs.

**Matching Personalities and Jobs**

In the previous discussion of personality attributes, our conclusions were often qualified to recognize that the requirements of the job moderated the relationship between possession of the personality characteristics and job performance. This concerns with matching the job requirements with personality characteristics is best articulated in John Holland's personality-job fit theory. The theory is based on the notion of fit between an individual's personality characteristics and his or her occupational environment. Personality job-fit theory identifies personality types and proposes that the fit between personality type and occupational environment determines satisfaction and turnover. John Holland presents personality types and proposes that satisfaction and the propensity to leave a job depend on the degree to which individuals successfully match their personalities to a congruent occupational environment. Each personality type has a congruent occupational environment.

In his theory, John Holland, argues that satisfaction is highest when social individuals in social jobs, conventional people in conventional jobs, and so forth. A realistic person in a realistic job is in a more congruent situation than is a realistic person in an investigative job. The key points of John’s theory are that (1) there do appear to be intrinsic differences in personality among individuals, (2) there are different types of jobs, and (3) people in job environments congruent with their personality types should be more satisfied and less likely to voluntarily resign than people in incongruent jobs.

Learning

The last topic to be discussed in this chapter is learning. It is included for the obvious reason that almost all complex behavior is learned. If we want to explain and predict behavior, we need to understand how people learn.

What is *learning?* A psychologist's definition is considerably broader than the lay person view that "it's what we *did* when we went to school." In actuality, each of us is continuously going "to school." Learning occurs all of the time. A generally accepted definition of learning, therefore, is *any relatively permanent* *change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience.* Ironically, we can say that changes in behavior indicate learning has taken place and that learning is a change in behavior. Obviously, the foregoing definition suggests ‘we never see someone learning’.

We can see changes taking place, but not the learning itself. The concept is theoretical and, hence, not directly observable. You have seen people in the process of learning, you have seen people who behave in a particular way as a result of learning and some of you have "learned" at some time in your life. In other words, we infer that learning has taken place if an individual behaves, reacts, and responds as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formerly behaved.

Our definition has several components that deserve clarification. First, learning involves change. This may he good or bad from an organizational point of view. People can learn unfavorable behaviors or favorable behaviors. Second, the change must be relatively permanent. Temporary changes may be only reflexive and fail to represent any learning. Therefore, this requirement rules out behavioral changes caused by fatigue or temporary adaptations. Third, our definition is concerned with behavior. Learning takes place where there is a change in actions. A change in an individual's thought processes or attitudes, if accompanied by no change in behavior, would not be learning. Finally, some form of experience is necessary for learning. This may be acquired directly through observation or practice. Or it may result from an indirect experience, such as that acquired through reading. The crucial test still remains: Does this experience result in a relatively permanent change in behavior? If the answer is "yes,” we can say that learning has taken place. Learning is any relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience.

**Strategies of reinforcement, punishment and extinction**

**Positive versus Negative Reinforcement**

Reinforcement is an increase in the strength [or frequency] of a response following the change in environment immediately following that response. We have learned that reinforcement occurs when a consequence following the behavior increases the likelihood that the behavior will occur in the future under similar circumstances. We have also learned that the consequence can involve stimuli that are pleasing and stimuli that are aversive. Recall as well that we refer to the stimuli as pleasing or aversive and avoid using the valence terms positive and negative because they are reserved words and will be used elsewhere. We use these terms now to discuss the difference between positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement. Some of the material in this chapter is review and will serve as a basis for the new information you are about to learn. While this seem redundant at first many things that we learn such as math, languages, computer programming, etc. is redundant because it builds on itself. The same is true with behavior modification.

**Positive Reinforcement**

Positive reinforcement is the introduction of a desirable stimulus, contingent upon emitting a target behavior, with the goal of increasing the frequency of a response. With positive reinforcement we are introducing a desirable stimulus. Most reinforcement procedures involve positive reinforcement. Verbal Praise is used in positive reinforcement. Consequences are what an employer or co-worker might say to you for making something for a customer using the correct proportions of ingredients (target behavior). A parent providing a child the opportunity to watch a favorite T.V. program (consequence) once their homework is completed (target behavior). Receiving a $5 tip (consequence) from a bar customer for making their cocktail according to their specifications (target behavior). Praise, watching TV and tips are generally something we want and are reinforcing when they are given (added) to us as positive reinforcement.

**Negative Reinforcement**

Negative reinforcement is the removal of an aversive stimulus, contingent upon emitting a target behavior, with the goal of increasing the frequency of a response. Negative and positive reinforcement only have in common the increasing the behavior as a result of a consequence. Your car insurance agency lowers (takes away) your monthly payment by 25% (consequence/removal of an aversive) for having a clean driving record free of moving violations for six months (target behavior). Your significant other stops leaving you annoying voicemails on your phone (consequence/removal of an aversive) the day after you mowed the lawn (target behavior). You stop blowing a high-pitched whistle (consequence/removal of an aversive) after your dog begins to sit on the floor (target behavior) instead of the couch.

**Conditioned vs. Unconditioned Stimuli**

While the principles and contingencies of reinforcement and punishment refer to Operant Conditioning, which was established by B.F. Skinner, another type of conditioning exists. Classical Conditioning, which led to the emergence of scientific behaviorism as a major subfield of psychological research, was largely the result of work by Ivan Pavlov, a Russian physiologist. Pavlov was examining the digestive systems of dogs in his laboratory when he discovered something interesting that would lead to a plethora of knowledge regarding principles of how organisms learn based on simple stimuli found in a particular organism’s environment.

Pavlov had discovered that when placing meat powder in front of the dogs, their saliva glands would cause the dogs to start drooling. The meat powder caused the dogs to drool in the absence of any additional stimuli. In other words, the meat powder is sufficient to elicit a drooling response, due to the detection of a food stimulus in the environment (i.e., the chemical interaction of smelling the meat powder led to the production of saliva).

This response to the meat powder is based on the dog’s inherent biological mechanisms which cause the dog to drool in response to stimuli (i.e., the meat powder) which could lead to satisfying a biological need (i.e., hunger). In the course of his experiments, Pavlov began to notice that the meat powder was not the only stimulus that elicited salivation. Pavlov began to notice that when he used a bell to signal to the dogs that it was feeding time, the dogs began to drool. Eventually, the dogs began to drool in response to the ringing of the bell without the presence of the meat powder.

What does this mean?

Pavlov’s observational and experimental findings indicate that a variety of stimuli can be conditioned to produce a given basic reflexive response. In the previous example, the meat powder is considered an *unconditioned stimulus* (UCS), because it elicits a natural drooling response from the dogs, called an *unconditioned response* (UCR). These responses are referred to as unconditioned because they are innate and do not have to be learned. The behaviors are reflexive in nature.

However, when the meat powder (UCS) is repeatedly paired along with the tone of a bell, the bell will eventually elicit the drooling response from the dogs. When the bell, in the absence of the meat powder, elicits a drooling response from the dogs, the bell is referred to as a *conditioned* *stimulus* (CS) and the drooling. This is because the animal essentially was taught or conditioned to drool at the sound of the bell. When the drooling occurs solely in response to the ringing of the bell, it is referred to as a *conditioned response* (CR). It is a conditioned response because the response to the bell was learned. We can think of conditioning as learning.

An association between the bell and meat is learned (conditioned) and the drooling as a result of the bell too is learned (conditioned). Once conditioned, the bell (CS) is the only stimulus required to elicit a drooling response from the dog (CR). This influential work by Pavlov will be discussed in greater detail on a different section. However, Pavlov’s work has implications for the following section regarding *primary reinforcers* (i.e., unconditioned) and *secondary reinforcers* (i.e., conditioned) which are associated with operant conditioning and behavior modification principles.

Primary Reinforcer

A primary reinforcer, sometimes called an unconditioned reinforcer, is a stimulus that does not require pairing other stimuli to function as a reinforcer. A primary reinforcer has most likely has obtained this function through the evolution and its role in species' survival. Simply put, primary reinforcers are biologically relevant.

Examples of primary reinforcers are water, food, sex, air. Each of these we need in order to survive. Additionally, there is a brain structure, called the hypothalamus, specifically devoted to the motivation toward these primary reinforcers for the purposes of regulating normal functioning of the body. Other primary reinforcers meet safety needs and social needs. These are all basic needs according to researcher Abram Maslow. Primary reinforcers as unconditioned, whereas *secondary reinforcers* are conditioned.

Secondary Reinforcer

A *secondary reinforcer*, sometimes called a *conditioned reinforcer*, is a stimulus or situation that has acquired its function as a reinforcer after pairing with a stimulus which functions as a reinforcer. Pets are very much attuned to the reinforcers in their lives. Food, access to the outside, attention, and sleep are some rather salient reinforcers. Some environmental stimuli can take on the *function* of a reinforce because it becomes associated with the reinforcer by either preceding it or accompanying the reinforcer. Similarly to the bell that preceded the food delivery in the Pavlov example.

We can also see some unintentional conditioning of secondary reinforcers when kittens weaned on canned food soon become keenly aware of the noise associated with the can opener. Because the sound of the can opener is associated with food, we can use the can opener to “call” the cat to the kitchen. This is a good thing to be able to do since many cats are not trained to come when you call them – although they can be. For pets footsteps down the stairs in the morning can also become secondary reinforcers when they are associated with either getting attention or associated with access to the outside for the pets to relieve themselves in the morning. My pet rats are conditioned to the shuffle of my slippers. The come out of their cage and sit on the top waiting for a little snack or pat on the head.

A good way to think of secondary reinforces is to ask yourself if this stimulus occurred in absence of any conditioning, would it be reinforcing? Thus a secondary reinforcer has little to no value until it takes on the value or function of the primary reinforce is has become associative with. Some examples are the lunch bell – if you never heard a lunch bell before you wouldn’t know what it was for; green light at a traffic stop - if you never drove before the lights at the traffic stop would have little meaning; ice cream truck – if you never experience the arrival of an ice cream truck the music they play would have little value to you. You surely wouldn’t run into your house looking for change to buy a snow cone where you heard the music off in the distance.

Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Value, and Punishment and Extinction in relation to behavior: This is your reading assignment.

**Types and Theories of Learning**

How do we learn? Three theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behavior: classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and social learning. .

**CLASSICAL CONDITIONING -** Classical conditioning grew out of experiments to teach dogs to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell, conducted at the turn of the century by a Russian physiologist, Ivan Pavlov.

A simple surgical procedure allowed Pavlov to measure accurately the amount of saliva secreted by a dog. When Pavlov presented the dog with a piece of meat, the dog exhibited a noticeable increase in salivation. When Pavlov withheld the presentation of meat and merely rang a bell, the dog had no salivation. Then Pavlov proceeded to link the meat and the ringing of the bell. After repeatedly hearing the bell before getting the food, the dog began to salivate as soon as the bell rang. After a while, the dog would' salivate merely at the sound of the bell, even if no food was offered. In effect, the dog had learned to respond-that is, to salivate-to the bell. Let's review this experiment to introduce the key concepts in classical conditioning.

The meat was an *unconditioned stimulus;* it invariably caused the dog to react in a specific way, the reaction that took place whenever the unconditioned stimulus occurred *was* called the *unconditioned response* (or the noticeable increase in salivation, in this case). The bell was an artificial stimulus, or what we call the *conditioned stimulus.* While it was originally neutral, after the bell was paired with the meat (an unconditioned stimulus), it eventually produced a response when presented alone. The last key concept is the *conditioned response.* This describes the behavior of the dog salivating in reaction to the bell alone.

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

Classical conditioning can be used to explain why Christmas carols often bring back pleasant memories of childhood-the songs being associated with the festive Christmas spirit and initiating fond memories and feelings of euphoria. In an organizational setting, we can also see classical conditioning operating. For example, at one manufacturing plant, every time the top executives from the head office were scheduled to visit, the plant management would clean up the administrative offices and wash the windows. This went on for years. Eventually, employees would turn on their best behavior and look prim and proper whenever the windows were cleaned-even in those occasional instances when the cleaning was not paired with the visit from the top brass. People had learned to associate the cleaning of the windows with the visit from the head office.

Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific way. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event. As such it can explain simple reflexive behaviors. But most behavior-particularly the complex behavior of individuals in organizations-is emitted rather than elicited. It is voluntary rather than reflexive. For example, employees choose to arrive at work on time, ask their boss for help with problems, or goof off when no one is watching. The learning of these behaviors is better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

**OPERANT CONDITIONING -** Operant conditioning argues that behavior is a function of its consequences. People learn to behave to get something they want or avoid something they don't want. Operant behavior means voluntary or learned behavior in contrast to reflexive or unlearned behavior. The tendency to repeat such behavior is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behavior. Reinforcement, therefore, strengthens a behavior and increases the likelihood it will be repeated.

What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, the late Harvard psychologist B. F. Skinner did for operant conditioning. Building on earlier work in the field, Skinner's research extensively expanded our knowledge of operant conditioning. Even his staunchest critics, who represent a sizable group, admit his operant concepts work.

Behavior is assumed to be determined from without-that is, learned- rather than from within-reflexive or unlearned. Skinner argued that by creating pleasing consequences to follow specific forms of behavior, the frequency of that behavior will increase. People will most likely engage in desired behaviors if they are positively reinforced for doing so. Rewards, for example, are most effective if they immediately follow the desired response. Additionally, behavior that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated.

You see illustrations of operant conditioning everywhere. For example, any situation in which it is either explicitly stated or implicitly suggested that reinforcements are contingent on some action on your part involves the use of operant learning. Your instructor says that if you want a high grade in the course you must supply correct answers on the test. A commissioned salesperson wanting to earn a sizable income finds it contingent on generating high sales in her territory. Of course, the linkage can also work to teach the individual to engage in behaviors that work against the best interests of the organization.

Assume your boss tells you that if you will work overtime during the next three-week busy season, you will be compensated for it at the next performance appraisal. However, when performance appraisal time comes, you find you are given no positive reinforcement for your overtime work. The next time your boss asks you to work overtime, what will you do? You'll probably decline! Your behavior can be explained by operant conditioning: If a behavior fails to be positively reinforced, the probability that the behavior will be repeated declines.

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

While social-learning theory is an extension of operant conditioning that is, it assumes behavior is a function of consequences-it also acknowledges the existence of observational learning and the importance of perception in learning. People respond to how they perceive and define consequences, not to the objective consequences themselves.

The influence of models is central to the social-learning viewpoint. Four processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual. The following processes when management sets up employee training programs will significantly improve the likelihood the programs will be successful:

*1.* Attentional *processes.* People only learn from a model when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. We tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available, important to us, or similar to us in our estimation.

*2. Retention processes.* A model's influence will depend on how well the individual remembers the model's action after the model is no longer readily available.

*3. Motor reproduction processes.* After a person has seen a new behavior by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modeled activities.

*4. Reinforcement processes.* Individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modeled behavior if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviors that are reinforced will be given more attention, learned better, and performed more often.

**CHAPTER THREE**

**FOUNDATION OF GROUP BEHAVIOR**

Defining and Classifying Group

A group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives.Group is two or more people who interact with each other to accomplish certain goals or meet certain needs. Groups can be either formal or informal. By formal groups, we mean those defined by the organization's structure, with designated work assignments/establishing tasks. In formal groups, the behaviors that one should engage in are stipulated by and directed toward organizational goals. The three members making up an airline flight crew are an example of a formal group. In contrast, informal groups are alliances that are neither formally structured nor organizationally determined. These groups are natural formations in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact. Three employees from different departments who regularly eat lunch together are an example of an informal group.

It's possible to sub-classify groups as command, task, interest, or friendship groups. Command and task groups are dictated by the formal organization, whereas interest and friendship groups are informal alliances. A command group is determined by the organization chart. It is composed of the subordinates who report directly to a given manager. An elementary school principal and her 12 teachers form a command group, as do the director of postal audits and his five inspectors. Task groups, also organizationally determined, represent those working together to complete a job task. However, a task group's boundaries are not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior. It can cross command relationships. For instance, if a college student is accused of a campus crime, it may require communication and coordination among the dean of academic affairs, the dean of students, the registrar, the director of security, and the student's adviser. Such a formation would constitute a task group. It should be noted that all command groups are also task groups, but because task groups can cut across the organization, the reverse need not be true.

People who may or may not be aligned into common command or task groups may affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned. This is an interest group. Employees who band together to have their vacation schedule altered, to support a peer who has been fired, or to seek increased fringe benefits represent the formation of a united body to further their common interest.

Groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics. We call these formations friendship groups. Social alliances, which frequently extend outside the work situation, can be based on similar age, support for "Big Red" Nebraska football, having attended the same college, or the holding of similar political views, co- name just a few such characteristics.

Informal groups provide a very important service by satisfying their members' social needs. Because of interactions that result from the close proximity of work stations or task interactions, we find workers playing golf together, riding to and from work together, lunching together, and spending their breaks around the water cooler together. We must recognize that these types of interactions among individuals, even though informal, deeply affect their behavior and performance.

A group is any member of people who interact with one another, are psychologically aware of one another and perceive themselves to be a group. A work group is a collection of people who share most, is not all, of the following characteristics: a definable membership, group consciousness, a sense of shared purpose, interdependence, interaction, and ability to act in a unitary manner.

**Team** - A group whose members work intensely with each other to achieve a specific, common goal or objective.

* + All teams are groups but not all groups are teams.
  + Teams often are difficult to form.
  + It takes time for members to learn how to work together.

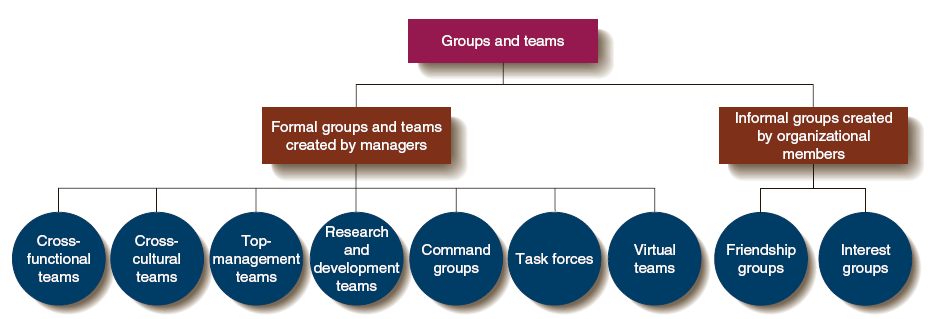
Two characteristics distinguish teams from groups

* + Intensity with which team members work together
  + Presence of a specific, overriding team goal or objective

**Groups’ and Teams’ Contributions to Organizational Effectiveness**

* + - * Enhance performance
      * Increase responsiveness to customers
      * Increase innovation
      * Increase motivation and satisfaction, etc.

**Types of Groups and Teams in Organizations**



Group at work can be both formal and informal. Formal groups are where the organization structure groups together people to carry out a particular task or function. They may be brought together to carry out a sequence of operations. They may be put together because of geography or shared profession. These groups are deliberately planned and organized by management and would often be written down in formal organization charts with reporting relations made clear . their main purpose is to ensure that the work of the individual members is coordinated. These groups can be quiet permanent, even if individual membership changes, may be short-lived for particular purpose. The formal groups will have a formal distribution of power and authority, approved channel of communication and links between sections. Examples of formal groups are task or work groups, command groups, problem solving group, mediating groups, policy making groups and so on. Within this formal structure there will also be more informal groups of people that are based on more personal relationships. These informal groups can often cut across formal groups and can be based on former working partnerships, common interests, sharing lifts to work, belonging to the same clubs and a whole variety of contacts. A very common informal group is the lunch which may include people from different positions and sections.

**Group Size**

* **Advantages of small groups**
  + Interact more with each other and easier to coordinate their efforts
  + More motivated, satisfied, and committed
  + Easier to share information
  + Better able to see the importance of their personal contributions
* **Advantages of large groups**
  + - * More resources at their disposal to achieve group goals
      * Enables managers to obtain division of labor advantages
* **Disadvantages of large groups**
  + Problem of communication and coordination
  + Lower level of motivation
  + Members might not think their efforts are really needed

**Why do people join group/team?**

Security - By joining a group, individuals can reduce the insecurity of standing alone. People feel stronger, however, self-doubts and here more resistant to threats when they are part of a group.

Status - Inclusion in a group that is viewed as important by others provides recognition and status for its members.

Self-Esteem - Groups can provide people with feelings of self-worth. That is, in addition to conveying status to those outside the group, membership can also give increased feelings of worth to the group members themselves.

Affiliation - Groups can fulfill social needs. People enjoy the regular interaction that comes with group membership. For many people, these on-the-job interactions are their primary source for fulfilling their needs for affiliation.

Power - What cannot be achieved individually often becomes possible through group action. There is power in numbers.

Goal Achievement - There are times when it takes more than one person to accomplish a particular task there is a need to pool talents, knowledge, or power in order to get a job completed. In such instances, management will rely on the use of a formal group**.** The following are some other reasons why people form a group:

- Certain tasks can be performed only through the combined efforts of a number of individuals working together.

- collusion between members in order to modify formal working arrangements more to their liking.

- companionship and a source of mutual understanding and support from colleagues.

- membership provides the individual with a sense of belonging.

- Protection for its membership, etc.

No single reason explains why individuals join groups. Since most people belong to a number of groups, it's obvious that different groups provide different benefits to their members.

Stages of Group Development

For 20 years or more, we thought most groups follow a specific sequence in their evolution and that we knew what that sequence was. But we were wrong. Recent research indicates no standardized pattern of group development. In this section, we review the better known five-stage model of group development, and then the recently discovered punctuated-equilibrium model. The latter model is your reading assignment.

The Five-Stage Model

From the rnid-1960s, it was believed groups pass through a standard sequence of five stages. As shown in the following Figure, these five stages have been labeled forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning.



The first stage, forming, is characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure, and leadership. Members are testing the waters to determine what types of behavior are acceptable. This stage is complete when members have begun to think of themselves as part of a group.

The storming stage is one of intra-group conflict. Members accept the existence of the group, but resist the constraints the group imposes on individuality. Further, there is conflict over who will control the group. When this stage is complete, a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership exists within the group.

The third stage is one in which close relationships develop and the group demonstrates cohesiveness. There is now a strong sense of group identity and camaraderie. This norming stage is complete when the group structure solidifies and the group has assimilated a common set of expectations of what defines correct member behavior.

The fourth stage is performing. The structure at this point is fully functional and accepted. Group energy has moved from getting to know and understand each other to performing the task at hand.

For permanent work groups, performing is the last stage in their development. However, for temporary committees, teams, task forces, and similar groups that have a limited task to perform, there is an adjourning stage. In this stage, the group prepares for its disbandment. High task performance is no longer the group's top priority. Instead, attention is directed toward wrapping up activities. Responses of group members vary in this stage. Some are upbeat, basking in the group's accomplishments. Others may be depressed over the loss of camaraderie and friendships gained during the work group's life.

Many interpreters of the five-stage model have assumed a group becomes more effective as it progresses through the first four stages. While this assumption may be generally true, what makes a group effective is more complex than this model acknowledges. Under some conditions, high levels of conflict are conducive to high group performance. So we might expect to find situations where groups in Stage II outperform those in Stages III or IV. Similarly, groups do not always proceed dearly from one stage to the next. Sometimes, in fact, several stages go on simultaneously, as when groups are storming and performing at the same time. Groups even occasionally regress to previous stages. Therefore, even the strongest proponent of this model do not assume all groups follow its five-stage process precisely Of that Stage IV is always the most preferable.

Another problem with the five-stage model, in terms of understanding work-related behavior, is that it ignores organizational context. For instance, a study of a cockpit crew in an airliner found that, within ten minutes, three strangers assigned to fly together for the first time had become a high-performing group. What allowed for this speedy group development "vas the strong organizational context surrounding the tasks of the cockpit crew. This context provided the rules, task definitions, information, and resources needed for the group to perform. They didn't need to develop plans, assign roles, determine and allocate resources, resolve conflicts, and set norms the way the five-stage model predicts. Since much group behavior in organizations takes place within a strong organizational context, it would appear the five-stage development model may have limited applicability in our quest to understand work groups.

**Obstacles to team/group productivity**

Several problems within groups make it difficult to succeed. Trust and cooperation are absent or weak in malfunctioning groups and performance suffers. Managers and team members must try to determine the cause of poor performance and implement changes to improve it. Typical groups performance problems that affect productivity are given below:

**a. Free riders-** free riders don’t participate in team efforts, but they expect to take credit for team success and receive a full share of team rewards.

**b. dysfunctional team conflict-** team can become dysfunctional if some take a personal dislike to others or engage in some other activity.

**c. groupthink-** it is a malady that happens when the team is intolerant of a healthy diversity of opinions.

**d. insecure supervisors -** many team initiatives are derailed by supervisors and managers who feel threatened by any proposed change.

**e. disruptive high performers –** disruptive high performers often cost the team more in terms of cohesiveness and total outcome than their special talents warrant. Self-management opposition and lack of teamwork rewards are also among obstacles of team/group productivity.

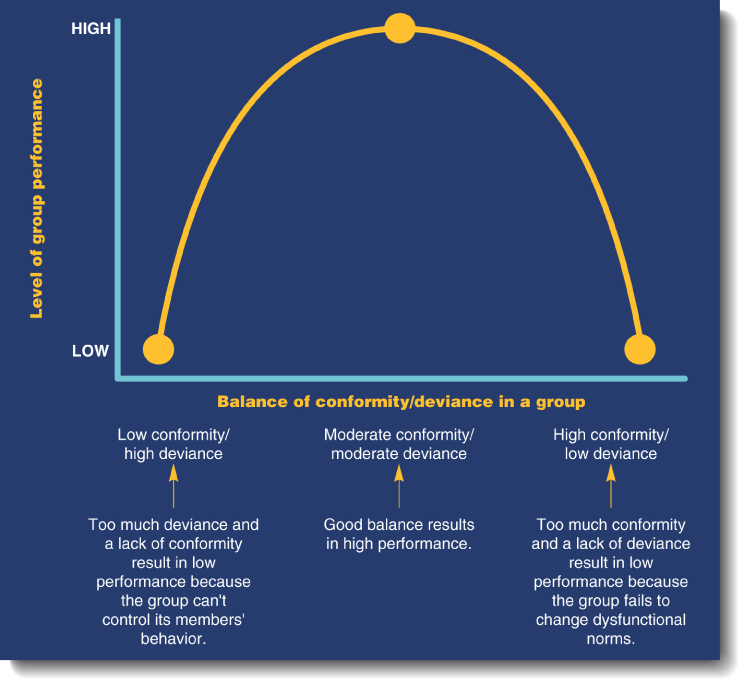
**Group Norms:-** the shared beliefs that regulate the behavior of team members are its team norms. They represent the values and aspirations of the members. Teams enforce norms with rewards and sanctions.

* + Shared guidelines or rules for behavior that most group members follow
  + Managers should encourage members to develop norms that contribute to group performance and the attainment of group goals

**Conformity and Deviance**

* + Members conform to norms to obtain rewards, imitate respected members, and because they feel the behavior is right.
  + When a member deviates, other members will try to make them conform, expel the member, or change the group norms to accommodate them.
  + Conformity and deviance must be balanced for high performance from the group.
  + Deviance allows for new ideas in the group.

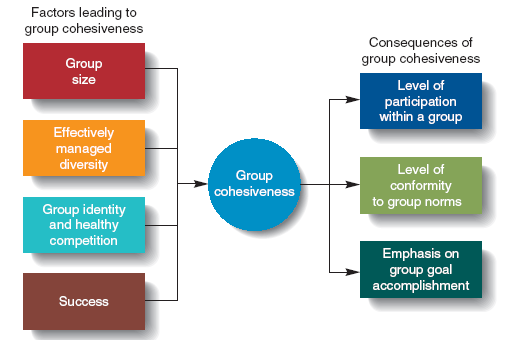
**Balancing Conformity and Deviance in Groups**



**Group Cohesiveness: -** the degree to which members are attracted to their group. The extent to which members feel a high degree of camaraderie, team spirit, and sense of unity is the degree of team cohesiveness.

* Three major consequences
  + Level of participation
  + Level of conformity to group norms
  + Emphasis on group goal accomplishment

**Sources and Consequences of Group Cohesiveness**

****

**Group/Team Effectiveness**

Besides the basic research coming out of social psychology, a more applied focus on the impact that groups/teams have on employee behavior, especially the contribution to satisfaction and performance, has also received attention. The following is an overall summary of the way to use groups to enhance satisfaction and performance:

1. Organizing work around intact groups

2. Having groups charged with selection, training, and rewarding of members

3. Using groups to enforce strong norms for behavior, with group involvement in off- the job as well as on-the-job behavior

4. Distributing resources on a group rather than an individual basis

5. Allowing and perhaps even promoting intergroup rivalry so as to build within-group solidarity

**Factors That Affect Group Cohesiveness**

* Agreement on group goals
* Frequency of interaction
* group size
* Unpleasant experiences
* Intergroup competition
* Favorable evaluation
* Domination by one or more members, etc

GROUP BEHAVIOR

The group is individual’s creation and exists for the individual. An individual with other individuals comprise the bricks that make up the building which we call a group. A group can be as powerful as to control individual’s life. A group behavior is not the sum total of the behaviors making the group but it is a unit rather than the components of the group. An individual loses some of his individual personality traits and characteristics in the process of integration of effects of various individuals for efficient working. After transition has occurred, the individual’s personal bonds are changed and become mainly thoughts of the group. Each individual is member of numerous groups. The groups like individuals have structural and integrative characteristics and operate in social environments. The groups have power roles, leadership roles, communication and social structures. Groups have norms, ideologies, system, cohesiveness and morale. Individuals are greatly influenced by the powerful force of his group. The features or behavioral characteristics of effective teams are: cohesive with each other, select high performance norms, cooperative, exhibit interdependence, and trust one another.

**CHAPTER FOUR**

**MOTIVATION CONCEPTS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS**

**What is Motivation?**

Motivation is the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the efforts and ability to satisfy some individual need. Maybe the place to begin is to say what motivation isn't. Many people incorrectly view motivation as a personal trait-that is, some have it and others don't. In practice, some managers label employees who seem to lack motivation as lazy. Such a label assumes an individual is always lazy. Our knowledge of motivation tells us this just isn't true. What we know is that motivation is the result of the interaction of the individual and the situation. Certainly, individuals differ in their basic motivational drive. You may read a complete novel at one sitting, yet find it difficult to stay with a textbook for more than 20 minutes. It's not necessarily you-it's the situation. So as we analyze the concept of motivation, keep in mind that level of motivation varies both between individuals and within individuals at different times.

We define motivation as the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the efforts and ability to satisfy some individual need, while general motivation is concerned with effort toward *any* goal, we narrow the focus to *organizational* goals in order to reflect our singular interest in work-related behavior. The three key elements in our definition are effort, organizational goals, and needs.

The effort element is a measure of intensity. When someone is motivated, he or she tries hard. But high levels of effort are unlikely to lead to favorable job performance outcomes unless the effort is channeled in a direction that benefits the organization. Therefore, we must consider the quality of the effort as well as its intensity. Effort that is directed toward, and consistent with, the organization's goals is the kind of effort we should be seeking. Finally, we treat motivation as a need-satisfying process.

* Motivation refers to forces within an individual that account for the level, direction, and persistence of effort expended at work.
  + Direction — an individual’s choice when presented with a number of possible alternatives.
  + Level — the amount of effort a person puts forth.
  + Persistence — the length of time a person stays with a given action.

A need, in our terminology, means some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within the individual. These drives generate a search behavior to find particular goals that, if attained, will satisfy the need and lead to the reduction of tension. So we can say that motivated employees are in a state of tension. To relieve this tension, they exert effort. The greater the tension, the higher the effort level. If this effort successfully leads to the satisfaction of the need, tension is reduced. But since we are interested in work behavior, this tension reduction effort must also be directed toward organizational goals. Therefore, inherent in our definition of motivation is the requirement that the individual's needs be compatible and consistent with the organization's goals. Where this does not occur, we can have individuals exerting high levels of effort that actually run counter to the interests of the organization.

This, incidentally, is not so unusual. For example, some employees regularly spend a lot of time talking with friends at work in order to satisfy their social needs. There is a high level of effort, only it's being unproductively directed.

Why we deal with Motivation? Because,

**Performance = f (Ability, Motivation, Opportunity, Etc. )**

**Categories of Motivation Theories**

* 1. **Content theories.**
     + Focus on profiling the needs that people seek to fulfill.
  2. **Process theories.**
     + Focus on people’s thought or cognitive processes.
  3. **Reinforcement theories.**

Emphasize controlling behavior by manipulating its consequences

1. **Content Motivation Theories**

* Content theories assumes motivation results from the individual’s attempts to satisfy needs.
* Major content theories of motivation are:
  + Hierarchy of needs theory.
  + ERG theory
  + Acquired needs theory
  + Two-factor theory
  + Theory X and Theory Y
* Each theory offers a slightly different view.

There are two categories of content theories of motivation: early content theories of motivation and contemporary theories of motivation.

1. **Early Content Motivation Theories**

The 1950s were a fruitful period in the development of motivation concepts. Three specific theories were formulated during this time, which, although heavily attacked and now questionable in terms of validity, are probably still the best known explanations for employee motivation. These are the hierarchy of needs theory, Theories X and Y, and the motivation-hygiene theory. As you'll see later in this chapter, we have since developed more valid explanations of motivation, but you should know these early theories for at least two reasons:

(l ) they represent a foundation from which contemporary theories have grown, and

(2) practicing managers regularly use these theories and their terminology in explaining employee motivation.

a. **Hierarchy of Needs Theory**

It's probably safe to say that the most well-known theory of motivation is Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs. He hypothesized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of the following five needs.

*1. Physiological:* Includes hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs

*2. Safety:* Includes security and protection from physical and emotional harm

*3. Social:* Includes affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship

*4. Esteem:* Includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement; and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention.

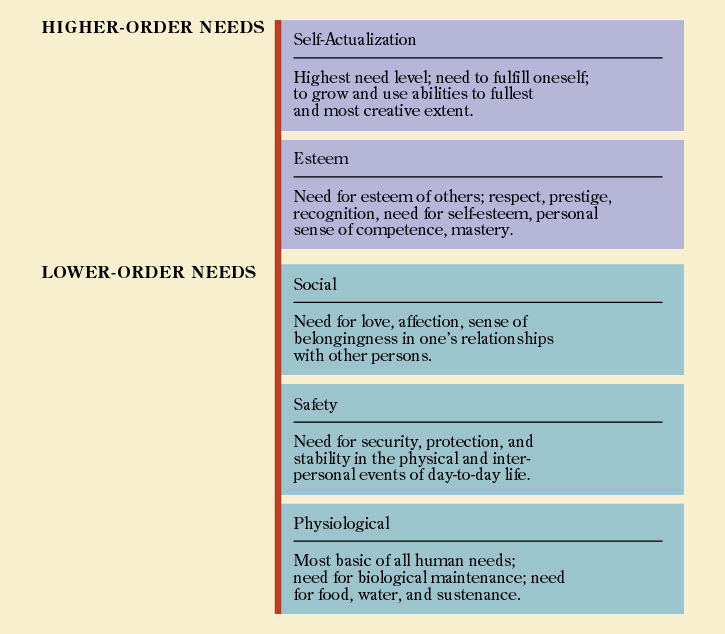
5. Self-actualization: The drive to become what one is capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment.

As each of these needs becomes substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. In terms of the above figure, the individual moves up the steps of the hierarchy. From the standpoint of motivation, the theory would say that although no need is ever fully gratified, a substantially satisfied need no longer motivates. So if you want to motivate someone, according to Maslow, you need to understand what level of the hierarchy that person is currently on and focus on satisfying those needs at or above that level.

Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower orders. Physiological, safety and social needs were described as lower order needs and esteem, and self-actualization as higher order needs. The differentiation between the two orders was made on the premise that higher order needs are satisfied internally (within the person), whereas lower order needs are predominantly satisfied externally (by pay, union contracts, and tenure, for example). In fact, the natural conclusion to be drawn from Maslow's classification is that in times of economic plenty, almost all permanently employed workers have their lower order needs substantially met.

Maslow's need theory has received wide recognition, particularly among practicing managers. This can be attributed to the theory's intuitive logic and ease of understanding. Unfortunately, however, research does not generally validate the theory. Maslow provided no empirical substantiation, and several studies that sought to validate the theory found no support for it.

Little support was found for the prediction that need structures are organized along the dimensions proposed by Maslow, that unsatisfied needs motivate, or that a satisfied need activates movement to a new need level. The following diagram shows order of needs according to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory:



* + - * 1. **Theory X and Theory Y**

Douglas McGregor proposed two distinct views of human beings: one basically negative, labeled Theory X, and the other basically positive, labeled Theory Y. After viewing the way in which managers dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mold his or her behavior toward subordinates according to these assumptions.

According to Theory X, the four assumptions held by managers are as follows:

1. Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.

2. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.

3. Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.

4. Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

In contrast to these negative views about the nature of human beings, McGregor listed four positive assumptions, which he called Theory Y:

1. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.

2. People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.

3. The average person can learn to accept, even seek responsibility.

4. The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.

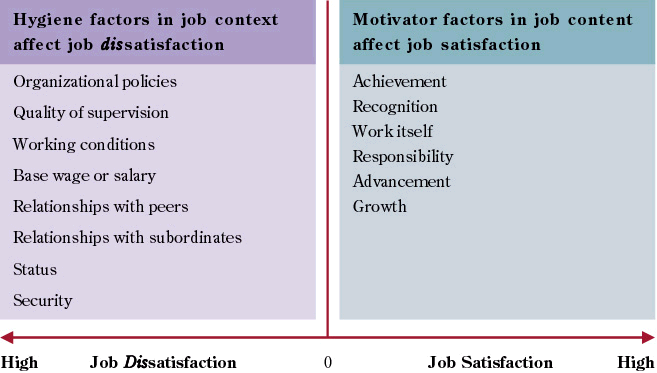
What are the motivational implications if you accept McGregor's analysis?

The answer is best expressed in the framework presented by Maslow. Theory X assumes that lower order needs dominate individuals. Theory Y assumes that higher order needs dominate individuals. McGregor himself held to the belief that Theory Y assumptions were more valid than Theory X. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as participative decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations as approaches that would maximize an employee's job motivation.

Unfortunately, no evidence confirms that either set of assumptions is valid or that accepting theory Y assumptions and altering one's actions accordingly will lead to more motivated workers. As will become evident later in this chapter, either Theory X or Theory Y assumptions may be appropriate in a particular situation.

* + - * 1. **Motivation-Hygiene Theory/Two-factor theory**

Motivation-hygiene theory - intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with job dissatisfaction. The motivation-hygiene theory was proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. In the belief that an individual's relation to his or her work is a basic one and that his or her attitude toward this work can very well determine the individual's success or failure. From his research, Herzberg concluded that the replies people gave when they felt good about their jobs were significantly different from the replies given when they felt bad. As seen from the following figure, certain characteristics tend to be consistently related to job satisfaction (factors on the right side of the figure), and others to job dissatisfaction (the left side of the figure).



Intrinsic factors, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth seem to be related to job-satisfaction. When those questioned felt good about their work, they tended to attribute these characteristics to themselves. On the other hand, when they were dissatisfied, they tended to cite extrinsic factors, such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, and working conditions.

The data suggest, says Herzberg, that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, as was traditionally believed. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying.

Herzberg proposes that his findings indicate the existence of a dual continuum: The opposite of "Satisfaction" is "No Satisfaction," and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction" is "No Dissatisfaction."

According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who seek to eliminate factors that create job dissatisfaction can bring about peace, but not necessarily motivation. They will be placating their work force rather than motivating them. As a result, such characteristics as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and salary have been characterized by Herzberg as hygiene factors. When they are adequate, people will not be dissatisfied; however, neither will they be satisfied. If we want to motivate people on their jobs, Herzberg suggests emphasizing achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and growth. These are the characteristics that people find intrinsically rewarding. They are called by Herzberg as motivators.

However, the motivation-hygiene theory is not without its limitations. The criticisms of the theory include the following:

1. The procedure that Herzberg used is limited by its methodology. When things are going well, people tend to take credit themselves. Contrarily, they blame failure on the external environment.

2. The reliability of Herzberg's methodology is questioned. Since raters have to make interpretations, it is possible they may contaminate the findings by interpreting one response in one manner while treating another similar response differently.

3. The theory, to the degree it is valid, provides an explanation of job satisfaction. It is not really a theory of motivation.

4. No overall measure of satisfaction was utilized. In other words, a person may dislike part of his or her job, yet still think the job is acceptable.

5. The theory is inconsistent with previous research. The motivation-hygiene theory ignores situational variables.

6. Herzberg assumes a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. But the research methodology he used looked only at satisfaction, not at productivity.

**II. Contemporary Content theories of Motivation**

The previous theories are well known but, unfortunately, have not held up well under close examination. However, all is not lost. A number of contemporary theories have one thing in common: Each has a reasonable degree of valid supporting documentation. Of course, this doesn't mean the theories we are about to introduce are unquestionably right. We call them contemporary theories not because they necessarily were developed recently, but because they represent the current state of the art in explaining employee motivation.

* + - 1. ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer has reworked Maslow's need hierarchy to align it more closely with the empirical research. His revised need hierarchy is labeled ERG theory. Alderfer argues that there are three groups of core needs-existence, relatedness, and growth-hence the label ERG theory. The *existence* group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. It includes the items that Maslow considered physiological and safety needs. The second groups of needs are those of *relatedness-the* desire we have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied, and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification. Finally, Alderfer isolates *growth* needs-an intrinsic desire for personal development.

These include the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self-actualization. Besides substituting three needs for five, how does Alderfer's ERG theory differ from Maslow's? In contrast to the hierarchy of needs theory, the ERG theory demonstrates that (1) more than one need may be operative at the same time, and (2) if the gratification of a higher level need is stifled, the desire to satisfy a lower level need increases.

Maslow's need hierarchy is a rigid step like progression. ERG theory does not assume a rigid hierarchy where a lower need must be substantially gratified before one can move on. A person can, for instance, be working on growth need even though existence or relatedness needs are unsatisfied; or all three need categories could be operating at the same time.

ERG theory also contains a frustration-regression dimension. Maslow, you'll remember, argued that an individual would stay at a certain need level until that need was satisfied. ERG theory counters by noting that when a higher order need level is frustrated, the individual's desire to increase a lower level need takes place. Inability to satisfy a need for social interaction, for instance, might increase the desire for more money or better working conditions. So frustration can lead to a regression to a lower need.

In summary, ERG theory argues, like Maslow, that satisfied lower order needs lead to the desire to satisfy higher order needs; but multiple needs can be operating as motivators at the same time, and frustration in attempting to satisfy a higher level need can result in regression to a lower level need. ERG theory is more consistent with our knowledge of individual differences among people. Variables such as education, family background, and cultural environment can alter the importance or driving force that a group of needs holds for a particular individual. Several studies have supported the ERG theory, but there is also evidence that it doesn't work in some organizations. Overall, however, ERG theory represents a more valid version of the need hierarchy.

* + Existence needs:- Desire for physiological and material well-being.
  + Relatedness needs:- Desire for satisfying interpersonal relationships.
  + Growth needs:- Desire for continued personal growth and development.
    - 1. **McClelland's theory of Needs/Acquired needs theory**

This theory is proposed by David McClelland and his associates as being important in organizational settings for understanding motivation. McClelland's theory of needs focuses on three needs: achievement, power, and affiliation. They are defined as follows:

• Need for achievement: - the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed

• Need for power: the need to make others behave in a way they would not have behaved otherwise

• Need for affiliation: - the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

Some people have a compelling drive to succeed. They're striving for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success. They have a desire to do something better or more efficiently than it has been done before. This drive is the achievement need *(nAch).* From research into the achievement need, McClelland found that high achievers differentiate themselves from others by their desire to do things better. They seek situations where they can attain personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, where they can receive rapid feedback on their performance so they can tell easily whether they are improving or not, and where they can set moderately challenging goals. High achievers are not gamblers; they dislike succeeding by chance. They prefer the challenge of working at a problem and accepting the personal responsibility for success or failure rather than leaving the outcome to chance or the actions of others. Importantly, they avoid what they perceive to be very easy or very difficult tasks. They want to overcome obstacles, but they want to feel their success (or failure) is due to their own actions. This means they like tasks of intermediate difficulty.

The need for power *(nPow)* is the desire to have impact, to be influential, and to control others. Individuals high in *nPow* enjoy being in charge, strive for influence over others, prefer to be placed into competitive and status-oriented situations, and tend to be more concerned with prestige and gaining influence over others than with effective performance.

The third need isolated by McClelland is affiliation *(nAft).* This need has received the least attention from researchers. Affiliation can be likened to the desire to be liked and accepted by others. Individuals with a high affiliation motive strive for friendship, prefer cooperative situations rather than competitive ones, and desire relationships involving a high degree of mutual understanding.

First, individuals with a high need to achieve prefer job situations with personal responsibility, feedback, and an intermediate degree of risk. When these characteristics are prevalent, high achievers will be strongly motivated. The evidence consistently demonstrates, for instance, that high achievers are successful in entrepreneurial activities such as running their own businesses and managing a self-contained unit within a large organization.

Second, a high need to achieve does not necessarily lead to being a good manager, especially in large organizations. People with a high achievement need are interested in how well they do personally and not in influencing others to do well. High-nAch salespeople do not necessarily make good sales managers, and the good general manager in a large organization does not typically have a high need to achieve.

Third, the needs for affiliation and power tend to be closely related to managerial success. The best managers are high in their need for power and low in their need for affiliation. In fact, a high-power motive may be a requirement for managerial effectiveness. Of course, what *is* the cause and what is the effect is arguable. It has been suggested that a high-power need may occur simply as a function of one's level in a hierarchical organization. The latter argument proposes that the higher the level an individual rises to in the organization, the greater is the incumbent's power motive. *As* a result, powerful positions would be the stimulus to a high-power motive.

Lastly, employees have been successfully trained to stimulate their achievement need. Trainers have been effective in teaching individuals to think in terms of accomplishments, winning, and success; and then helping them to learn how to *act* in a high achievement way by preferring situations where they have personal responsibility, feedback, and moderate risks. So if the job calls for a high achiever, management can select a person with a high *nAch* or develop its own candidate through achievement training.

* + Need for achievement (nAch):- the desire to do something better or more efficiently, to solve problems, or to master complex tasks.
  + Need for affiliation (nAff):- the desire to establish and maintain friendly and warm relations with others.
  + Need for power (nPower):- the desire to control others, to influence their behavior, or to be responsible for others.

**2. Process Theories of Motivation**

* Process theories focus on the thought processes through which people choose among alternative courses of action. The following are some of the major process theories of motivation: equity theory, expectancy theory, goal setting theory and cognitive evaluation theory.

1. Equity theory

According to this theory people gauge the fairness of their work outcomes in relation to others. Individuals felt negative inequality when they feel that they have received relatively less than others in proportion to work inputs. Individual felt positive inequality when they feel that they have received relatively more than others in proportion to work inputs.

* Equity restoration behaviors.
  + Change work inputs.
  + Change the outcomes received.
  + Leave the situation.
  + Change the comparison person.
  + Psychologically distort the comparisons.
  + Take actions to change the inputs or outputs of the comparison person.
* Coping methods for dealing with equity comparisons.
  + Recognize that equity comparisons are inevitable in the workplace.
  + Anticipate felt negative inequities when rewards are given.
  + Communicate clear evaluations for any rewards given.
  + Communicate an appraisal of performance on which the reward is based.
  + Communicate comparison points that are appropriate in the situation

Employees make comparisons of their job inputs and outcomes relative to those of others. We perceive what we get from a job situation (outcomes) in relation to what we put into it {inputs), and then we compare our outcome-input ratio with the outcome-input ratio of relevant others. We perceive our ratio to be equal to that of the relevant others with whom we compare ourselves, a state of equity is said to exist. We perceive our situation as fair-that justice prevails, When we see the ratio as unequal; we experience equity tension. J. Stacy Adams has proposed that this negative tension state provides the motivation to do something to correct *it.*

The referent that an employee selects adds to the complexity of equity theory. Evidence indicates that the referent chosen is an important variable in equity theory. There are four referent comparisons an employee can use:

1. *Self-inside:* An employee's experiences in a different position inside his or her current organization.

*2. Self-outside:* An employee's experiences in a situation or position outside his or her current organization.

*3. Other-inside:* Another individual or group of individuals inside the employee's organization.

*4. Other-outside:* Another individual or group of individuals outside the employee's organization.

So employees might compare themselves to friends, neighbors, coworkers, colleagues in other organizations, or past jobs they themselves have had. Which referent an employee chooses will be influenced by the information the employee holds about referents as well as by the attractiveness of the referent.

Based on equity theory, when employees perceive an inequity they can be predicted to make one of six choices:

1. Change their inputs (for example, don't exert as much effort)

2. Change their outcomes

3. Distort perceptions of self

4. Distort perceptions of others

5. Choose a different referent

6. Leave the field (for example, quit the job)

Equity theory recognizes that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of rewards they receive for their efforts, but also with the relationship of this amount to what others receive. They make judgments as to the relationship between their inputs and outcomes and the inputs and outcomes of others. Based on one's inputs, such as effort, experience, education, and competence, one compares outcomes such as salary levels, recognition, and other factors. When people perceive an imbalance in their outcome-input ratio relative to others, tension is created. This tension provides the basis for motivation, as people strive for what they perceive as equity and fairness.

1. Expectancy Theory

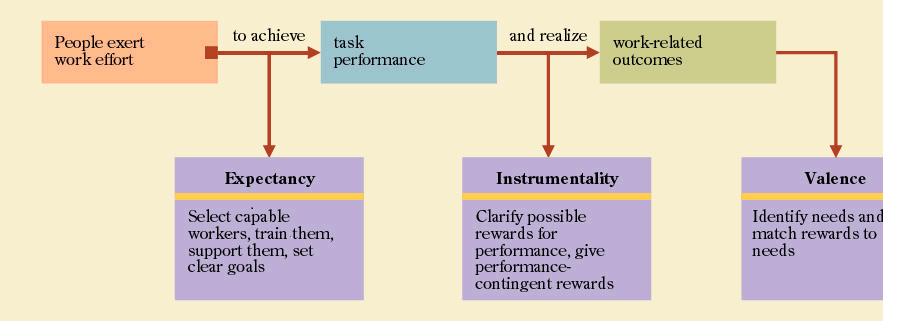
Currently, one of the most widely accepted explanations of motivation is Victor Vroom's expectancy theory. Although it has its critics, most of the research evidence is supportive of the theory. Expectancy theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. In more practical terms, expectancy theory says an employee is motivated to exert a high level of effort when he or she believes effort will lead to a good performance appraisal; a good appraisal will lead to organizational rewards like a bonus, a salary increase, or a promotion; and the rewards will satisfy the employee's personal goals. The theory, therefore, focuses on three relationships:

*1. Effort-performance relationship:* The probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance.

*2. Performance-reward relationship:* The degree to which the individual believes that performing at a particular level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome.

*3. Rewards-personal goals relationship:* The degree to which organizational rewards satisfy an individual's personal goals or needs and the attractiveness of those potential rewards for the individual.

In summary, the key to expectancy theory is the understanding of an individual's goals and the linkage between effort and performance, between performance and rewards, and, finally, between the rewards and individual goal satisfaction. As a contingency model, expectancy theory recognizes that there be no universal principle for explaining everyone's motivations. Additionally, just because we understand what needs a person seeks to satisfy does not ensure that the individual himself perceives high performance as necessarily leading to the satisfaction of these needs.



1. **Cognitive Evaluation Theory**

* Extrinsic rewards.
  + Positively valued work outcomes given to the individual by some other person.
* Intrinsic rewards.
  + Positively valued work outcomes that the individual receives directly as a result of task performance.
* Guidelines for the distribution of extrinsic rewards:
  + Clearly identify the desired behaviors.
  + Maintain an inventory of rewards that have the potential to serve as positive reinforces.
  + Recognize individual differences in the rewards that will have a positive value for each person.
  + Let each person know exactly what must be done to receive a desirable reward; set clear target antecedents and give performance feedback.
  + Allocate rewards contingently and immediately upon the appearance of the desired behaviors.
  + Allocate rewards wisely in terms of scheduling the delivery of positive reinforcement.

Cognitive evaluation theory states that allocating extrinsic rewards for behavior that had been previously intrinsically rewarded tends to decrease the overall level of motivation.

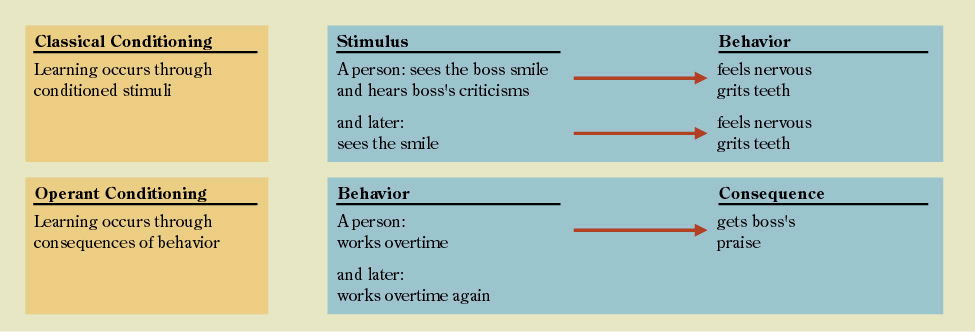
In the late 1960s one researcher proposed that the introduction of extrinsic rewards, such as pay, for work effort that had been previously intrinsically rewarding due to the pleasure associated with the content of the work itself would tend to decrease the overall level of motivation. This proposal-which has come to be called the cognitive evaluation theory-has been extensively researched, and a large number of studies have been supportive. The major implications for this theory relate to the way in which people are paid in organizations. Historically, motivation theorists have generally assumed that intrinsic motivations such as achievement, responsibility, and competence are independent of extrinsic motivators like high pay, promotions, good supervisor relations, and pleasant working conditions. That is, the stimulation of one would not affect the other. But the cognitive evaluation theory suggests otherwise. It argues that when extrinsic rewards are used by organizations as payoffs for superior performance, the intrinsic rewards, which are derived from individuals doing what they like, are reduced. In other words, when extrinsic rewards are given to someone for performing an interesting task, it causes intrinsic interest in the task itself to decline. Why would such an outcome occur? The popular explanation is that the individual experiences a loss of control over his or her own behavior so the previous intrinsic motivation diminishes. The cognitive evaluation theory has been supported in a number of studies. Yet it has also met with attacks, specifically on the methodology used in these studies and in the interpretation of the findings.

1. **Goal-Setting Theory**

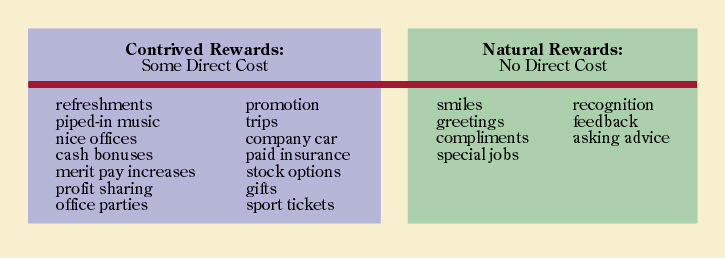
Goal-setting theory states that specific and difficult goals that lead to higher performance. It addresses the issues of the effect of goal specificity, challenge and feedback on performance. In the late 1960s Edwin Locke proposed that intentions to work toward a goal are a major source of work motivation. That is, goals tell an employee what needs to be done and how much effort will need to be expended. The evidence strongly supports the value of goals. More to the point, we can say that specific goals increase performance; that difficult goals, when accepted, result in higher performance than do easy goals; and that feedback leads to higher performance than does no feedback. Specific hard goals produce a higher level of output than does the generalized goal of "do your best ." The specificity of the goal itself acts as an internal stimulus. Our overall conclusion is that intentions-as articulated in terms of hard and specific goals-are a potent motivating force. Under the proper conditions, they can lead to higher performance. However, no evidence supports the idea that such goals are associated with increased job satisfaction.

**3. Reinforcement Theory**

Reinforcement deals with the administration of a consequence as a result of a behavior. Proper management of reinforcement can change the direction, level, and persistence of an individual’s behavior. Behavior is a function of its consequences.



* Law of effect:- theoretical basis for manipulating consequences of behavior. It states that behavior that results in a pleasant outcome is likely to be repeated while behavior that results in an unpleasant outcome is not likely to be repeated.



* Organizational behavior modification: it is the systematic reinforcement of desirable work behavior and the no reinforcement or punishment of unwanted work behavior.
  + It uses four basic strategies: Positive reinforcement, Negative reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction.
* Positive reinforcement.
  + The administration of positive consequences to increase the likelihood of repeating the desired behavior in similar settings.
  + Rewards are not necessarily positive reinforces.
  + A reward is a positive reinforce only if the behavior improves.
* Principles governing reinforcement.
  + Law of contingent reinforcement.
    - The reward must be delivered only if the desired behavior is exhibited.
  + Law of immediate reinforcement.
    - The reward must be given as soon as possible after the desired behavior is exhibited.
* Scheduling reinforcement.
  + Continuous reinforcement.
    - Administers a reward each time the desired behavior occurs.
  + Intermittent reinforcement.
    - Rewards behavior periodically — either on the basis of time elapsed or the number of desired behaviors exhibited.
* Negative reinforcement.
  + Also known as avoidance.
  + The withdrawal of negative consequences to increase the likelihood of repeating the desired behavior in a similar setting.
* Punishment.
  + The administration of negative consequences or the withdrawal of positive consequences to reduce the likelihood of repeating the behavior (bad behavior) in similar settings.

**Chapter Five – Management of Organizational Conflict**

Definition of Conflict

There has been no shortage of definitions of conflict. But despite the divergent meanings the term has acquired, several common themes underlie most definitions. Conflict must be *perceived* by the parties to it; whether or not conflict exists is a perception issue. If no one is aware of a conflict, then it is generally agreed no conflict exists. Additional commonalities in the definitions are opposition or incompatibility and some form of interaction. These factors set the conditions that determine the beginning point of the conflict process.

We can define conflict then, as a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something the first party cares about. This definition is purposely broad. It describes that point in any ongoing activity when an interaction crosses over to become an interparty conflict. It encompasses the wide range of conflicts that people experience in organizations- incompatibility of goals, differences over interpretations of facts, disagreements based on behavioral expectations and the like. Finally, our definition is flexible enough to cover the full range of conflict levels, from overt and violent acts to subtle forms of disagreement. Conflict occurs whenever disagreements that exist over issues of substance or emotional antagonisms that causes frictions between individuals or groups.

**Causes of conflict in an organization**

* **Role conflicts** - occur when the communication of task expectations proves inadequate or upsetting.
* **Work-flow interdependencies** - occur when people or units are required to cooperate to meet challenging goals.
* **Domain ambiguities** - occur when individuals or groups are placed in ambiguous situations where it is difficult to determine who is responsible for what.
* **Power or value asymmetries** - occur when interdependent people or groups differ substantially from one another in status and influence or in values.
* **Resource scarcity -** When resources are scarce, working relationships are likely to suffer.

**Types of conflict**

Substantive conflict:- A fundamental disagreement over ends or goals to be pursued and the means for their accomplishment.

Emotional conflict:- Interpersonal difficulties that arise over feelings of anger, mistrust, dislike, fear, resentment, etc.

Conflict could be functional (or constructive) conflict or Dysfunctional (or destructive) conflict.

**Levels/types of conflict**

* Intrapersonal conflicts- occurs between two individuals
* Interpersonal conflict - Occurs between two or more individuals who are in opposition to one another.
* Intergroup conflict - occurs between groups
* Inter organizational conflict - occurs between two organizations
* Vertical conflict - occurs between hierarchical levels.
* Horizontal conflict- occurs between persons or groups at the same hierarchical level.
* Line-staff conflict- involves disagreements over who has authority and control over specific matters.

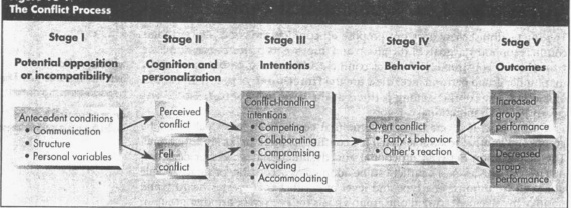
**Functional Vs. Dysfunctional Conflict**

The interactionist view does not propose *all* conflicts are good. Rather, some conflicts support the goals of the group and improve its performance; these are functional or constructive forms of conflict. Additionally, there are conflicts that hinder group performance and these are dysfunctional or destructive forms of conflict. Of course, it is one thing to argue that conflict can be valuable for the group, and another to be able to tell if a conflict is functional or dysfunctional. The demarcation between functional and dysfunctional is neither clear nor precise. No one level of conflict can be adopted as acceptable or unacceptable under all conditions. The type and level of conflict that creates healthy and positive involvement toward one group's goals today may, in another group or in the same group at another time, be highly dysfunctional. The criterion that differentiates functional from dysfunctional conflict is group performance. Since groups exist to attain a goal or goals, it is the impact the conflict has on the group rather than on any individual member, that determines functionality. Of course, the impact of conflict on the individual and its impact on the group are rarely mutually exclusive, so the ways that individuals perceive a conflict may have an important influence on its effect on the group. However, this need not be the case, and when it is not, our focus will be on the group. So whether an individual group member perceives a given conflict as being personally disturbing or positive is irrelevant. For example, a group member may perceive an action as dysfunctional, in that the outcome is personally dissatisfying to him or her. However, for our analysis, that action would be functional if it furthers the objectives of the group.

**Nature of conflict in an organization**

**Conflict Process**

The conflict process can be seen as comprising five stages: potential opposition or incompatibility, cognition and personalization, intentions, behavior, and outcomes. The process is diagrammed as follows:



* + Conflict antecedents- set the conditions for conflict.
  + Perceived conflict - substantive or emotional differences are sensed.
  + Felt conflict - tension creates motivation to act.
  + Manifest conflict - conflict resolution or suppression, conflict aftermath.

**Stage I: Potential Opposition or Incompatibility**

The first step in the conflict process is the presence of conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. They need notlead directly to conflict, but one of these conditions is necessary if conflict is to arise. For simplicity purpose, these conditions (which also may be looked at as causes or sources of conflict) have been condensed into three general categories: communication, structure, and personal variables.

Communication - can be a source of conflict. It represents those opposing forces that arise from semantic difficulties, misunderstandings, and "noise" in the communication channels. "If we could just communicate with each other, we could eliminate our differences." Such a conclusion is not unreasonable, given the amount of time each of us spends communicating. But, of course, poor communication is certainly not the source of all conflicts, although there is considerable evidence to suggest that problems in the communication process act to retard collaboration and stimulate misunderstanding.

A review of the research suggests that semantic difficulties, insufficient exchange of information, and noise in the communication channel are all barriers to communication and potential antecedent conditions to conflict. Specifically, evidence demonstrates that semantic difficulties arise as a result of differences in training, selective perception, and inadequate information about others. Research has further demonstrated a surprising finding: The potential for conflict increases when either too little or too much communication takes place. Apparently, an increase in communication is functional up to a point, whereupon it is possible to over communicate, with a resultant increase in the potential for conflict. So, too much information as well as too little can lay the foundation for conflict. Further, the channel chosen for communicating can have an influence on stimulating opposition. The filtering process that occurs as information is passed between members and the divergence of communications from formal or previously established channels offer potential opportunities for conflict to arise.

Structure - the term *structure* is used, in this context, to include variables such as size, degree of specialization in the tasks assigned to group members, jurisdictional clarity, member-goal compatibility, leadership styles, reward systems, and the degree of dependence between groups. Research indicates that size and specialization act as forces to stimulate conflict. The larger the group and the more specialized its activities, the greater the likelihood of conflict. Tenure and conflict have been found to be inversely related. The potential for conflict tends to be greatest where group members are younger and where turnover is high. The greater the ambiguity in precisely defining where responsibility for actions lies, the greater the potential for conflict to emerge. Such jurisdictional ambiguities increase intergroup fighting for control of resources and territory. Groups within organizations have diverse goals. For instance, purchasing is concerned with the timely acquisition of inputs at low prices, marketing's goals concentrate on disposing of outputs and increasing revenues, quality control's attention is focused on improving quality and ensuring that the organization's products meet standards, and production units seek efficiency of operations by maintaining a steady production flow. This diversity of goals among groups is a major source of conflict. Where groups within an organization seek diverse ends, there are increased opportunities for conflict.

There is some indication that a close style of leadership-tight and continuous observation with general control of others' behaviors-increases conflict potential, hut the evidence is not particularly strong. Too much reliance on participation may also stimulate conflict. Research tends to confirm that participation and conflict are highly correlated, apparently because participation encourages the promotion of differences. Reward systems, too, are found to create conflict when one member's gain is at another's expense. Finally, if a group is dependent on another group (in contrast to the two being mutually independent) or if interdependence allows one group to gain at another's expense, opposing forces are stimulated.

Personal variables – there are people who you dislike, Most of the opinions they expressed, you disagreed with. Even insignificant characteristics such as the sound of their voice, and their personality annoyed you. We've all met people like that. When you have to work with such individuals, there is often the potential for conflict. So our last category of potential sources of conflict is personal factors. As indicated, they include each person's individual value systems and the personality characteristics that account for individual idiosyncrasies and differences.

The evidence indicates that certain personality types-for example, individuals who are highly authoritarian and dogmatic, and who demonstrate low esteem-lead to potential conflict. Most important, and probably the most overlooked variable in the study of social conflict is differing value systems. Value differences, for example, are the best explanation of such diverse issues is prejudice, disagreements over one's contribution to the group and the rewards one deserves.

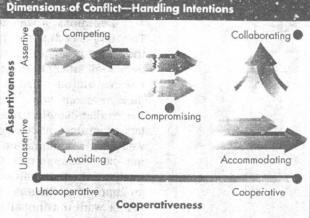
**Stage II: Cognition and Personalization**

If the conditions cited in Stage I negatively affect something that one party cares about, then, the potential for opposition or incompatibility becomes actualized in the second stage. The antecedent conditions can only lead to conflict when one or more of the parties are affected by, and aware of the conflict. As we noted in our definition of conflict, perception is required. Therefore, one or more of the parties must be aware of the existence of the antecedent conditions. However, because a conflict is perceived does not mean it is personalized. In other words, "A may be aware that B and A are in serious disagreement, but it may not make A tense or anxious, and it may have no effect whatsoever on A's affection toward B." It is at the felt level, when individuals become emotionally involved, that parties experience anxiety, tenseness, frustration or hostility.

Keep in mind two points. First, Stage II is important because it's where conflict issues tend to be defined. This is the place in the process where the parties decide what the conflict is about. And, in turn, this "sense making" is critical because the way a conflict is defined goes a long way toward establishing the sort of outcomes that might settle it. So the definition of a conflict is important, for it typically delineates the set of possible settlements. Our second point is that emotions play a major role in shaping perceptions. For example, negative emotions have been found to produce oversimplification of issues, reductions in trust and negative interpretations of the other party's behavior. In contrast, positive feelings have been found to increase the tendency to see potential relationships among the elements of a problem, to take a broader view of the situation, and to develop more innovative solutions.

**Stage III: Intentions**

Intentions intervene between people's perceptions and emotions and their overt behavior. These intentions are decisions to act in a given *way.* Why are intentions separated out as a distinct stage? You have to infer the other's intent in order to know how to respond to that other's behavior. A lot of conflicts are escalated merely by one party attributing the wrong intentions to the other party. Additionally, there is typically a great deal of slippage between intentions and behavior, so that behavior does not always accurately reflect a person's intentions.



The above figure represents one author's effort to identify the primary conflict-handling intentions. Using two *dimensions-cooperativeness* (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfythe other party's concerns) and *assertiveness* (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfyhis or her own concerns) five conflict handlingintentions can be identified: *competing* (assertive and uncooperative); *collaborating* (assertiveand cooperative); *avoiding* (unassertiveand uncooperative); *accommodating* (unassertiveand cooperative); and *compromising* (midrangeon both assertiveness and cooperativeness).

Competing- When one person seeks to satisfy his or her own interests, regardless of the impact on the other parties to the conflict, he or she is competing. Examples are intending to achieve your goal at the sacrifice of the other's goal, attempting to convince another, your conclusion is correct and theirs is mistaken, and trying to make someone else accept blame or a problem.

Collaborating - When the parties in conflict each desire to fully satisfy the concern of all parties, we have cooperation and the search for a mutually beneficial outcome. In collaborating, the intention of the parties is to solve the problem by clarifying differences rather than by accommodating various points of view. Examples are attempting to find a win-win solution that allows both parties' goals to be completely achieved and seeking a conclusion that incorporates the valid insights of both parties.

Avoiding- A person may recognize that a conflict exists and want to withdraw from it or suppress it. Examples of avoiding are trying to just ignore a conflict and avoiding others with whom you disagree.

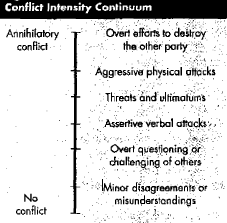
Accommodating - When one party seeks to appease an opponent, that party may be willing to place the opponent's interests above his or her own. In other words, in order for the relationship to be maintained, one party is willing to be self-sacrificing. We refer to this intention as accommodating. Examples are a Willingness to sacrifice your goal so the other party's goal can be attained, supporting someone else's opinion despite your reservations about it, and forgiving someone for an infraction and allowing subsequent ones.

Compromising- When each party to the conflict seeks to give up something, sharing occurs, resulting in a compromised outcome. In compromising, there is no clear winner or loser. Rather, there is a Willingness to ration the object of the conflict and accept a solution that provides incomplete satisfaction of both parties' concerns. The distinguishing characteristic of compromising, therefore, is that each party intends to give up something. Examples might be willingness to accept a raise of $1 an hour rather than $2, to acknowledge partial agreement with a specific viewpoint, and to take partial blame for an infraction.

Intentions provide general guidelines for parties in a conflict situation. They define each party's purpose. Yet people's intentions are not fixed. During the course of a conflict, they might change because of reconceptualization or because of an emotional reaction to the behavior of the other party. However, research indicates that people have an underlying disposition to handle conflicts ·in certain ways. Specifically, individuals have preferences among the five conflict-handling intentions just described; these preferences tend to be relied on quite consistently; and a person's intentions can be predicted rather well from a combination of intellectual and personality characteristics. So it may be more appropriate to view the five conflict-handling intentions as relatively fixed rather than as a set of options from which individuals choose to fit an appropriate situation. That is, when confronting a conflict situation, some people want to win it all at any cost, some want to find an optimum solution, some want to run away, others want to be obliging, and still others want to split the difference.

**Stage IV: Behavior**

When most people think of conflict situations, they tend to focus on Stage IV. Why? The reason is, this is where conflicts become visible. The behavior stage includes the statements, actions, and reactions made by the conflicting parties. These conflict behaviors are usually overt attempts to implement each party's intentions. But these behaviors have a stimulus quality that is separate from intentions. As a result of miscalculations or unskilled enactments, overt behaviors sometimes deviate from original intentions. It helps to think of Stage IV as a dynamic process of interaction. For example, you make a demand on someone; He responds by arguing; you threaten him; He threatens you back; and *so* on.



The above diagram provides a way of visualizing conflict behavior. All conflicts exist somewhere along this continuum. At the lower part of the continuum, we have conflicts characterized by subtle, indirect, and highly controlled forms of tension. An illustration might be a student questioning in class a point the instructor has just made. Conflict intensities escalate as they move upward along the continuum until they become highly destructive. Strikes, riots, and wars clearly fall in this upper range. For the most part, you should assume conflicts that reach the upper ranges of the continuum are almost always dysfunctional. Functional conflicts are typically confined to the lower range of the continuum.

**Stage V: Outcomes**

The action-reaction interplay between the conflicting parties results in consequences. As our model demonstrates, these outcomes may be functional, in that the conflict results in an improvement in the group's performance, or dysfunctional, in that it hinders group performance.

**Functional outcomes** - How might conflict add as a force to increase group performance? It is hard to visualize a situation where open or violent aggression could be functional. But there are a number of instances where it is possible to envision how low or moderate levels of conflict could improve the effectiveness of a group. Because people often find it difficult to think of instances where conflict can be constructive, let's consider some examples and then review the research evidence.

Conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovation, encourages interest and curiosity among group members, provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released, and fosters an environment of self-evaluation and change. The evidence suggests that conflict can improve the quality of decision making by allowing all points, particularly the ones that are unusual or held by a minority, to be weighed in important decisions. Conflict is an antidote for groupthink. It doesn't allow the group passively to rubber-stamp decisions that may be based on weak assumptions, inadequate consideration of relevant alternatives, or other debilities. Conflict challenges the status quo and therefore furthers the creation of new ideas, promotes reassessment of group goals and activities, and increases the probability that the group will respond to change.

Research studies in diverse settings confirm the functionality of conflict. Consider the following findings. The comparison of six major decisions made during the administration of four different U.S. presidents found that conflict reduced the chance that groupthink would overpower policy decisions. The comparisons demonstrated that conformity among presidential advisers was related to poor decisions, whereas an atmosphere of constructive conflict and critical thinking surrounded the well-developed decisions.

The bankruptcy of the Penn Central Railroad has been generally attributed to mismanagement and the failure of the company's board of directors to question actions taken by management. The board was composed of outside directors who met monthly to oversee the railroad's operations. Few questioned decisions made by the operating management, although there was evidence that several board members were uncomfortable with many decisions made by them. Apathy and a desire to avoid conflict allowed poor decisions to stand unquestioned. This, however, should not be surprising, since a review of the relationship between bureaucracy and innovation has found that conflict encourages innovative solutions. The corollary of this finding also appears true: Lack of conflict results in a passive environment with reinforcement of the status quo.

Not only do better and more innovative decisions result from situations where there is some conflict, but evidence indicates that conflict can be positively related to productivity. It was demonstrated that, among established groups, performance tended to improve more when there was conflict among members than when there was fairly close agreement. The investigators observed that when groups analyzed decisions that had been made by the individual members of that group, the average improvement among the high conflict groups was 73 percent greater than was that of those groups characterized by low-conflict conditions. Others have found similar results: Groups composed of members with different interests tend to produce higher quality solutions to a variety of problems than do homogeneous groups.

Similarly, studies of professionals-systems analysts and research and development scientists-support the constructive value of conflict. An investigation of 22 teams of systems analysts found that the more incompatible groups were likely to be more productive. Research and development scientists have been found to be most productive where there is a certain amount of intellectual conflict. Conflict can even be constructive on sports teams and in unions. Studies of sports teams indicate that moderate levels of group conflict contribute to team effectiveness and provide an additional stimulus for high achievement. An examination of local unions found that conflict between members of the local was positively related to the union's power and to member loyalty and participation in union affairs. These findings might suggest that conflict within a group indicates strength rather than, as in the traditional view, weakness.

**Dysfunctional outcomes** -The destructive consequences of conflict on a group or organization's performance are generally well known. A reasonable summary might state the following: Uncontrolled opposition breeds discontent, which acts to dissolve common tics, and eventually leads to the destruction of the group. And, of course, a substantial body of literature documents shows how conflict- the dysfunctional varieties-can reduces group effectiveness.

Among the more undesirable consequences are a retarding of communication, reductions in group cohesiveness, and subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting between members. At the extreme, conflict can bring group functioning to a halt and potentially threaten the group's survival. This discussion has again returned us to the issue of what is functional and what is dysfunctional. Research on conflict has yet to dearly identify those situations where conflict is more likely to be constructive than destructive. However, growing evidence indicates that the type of group activity is a significant factor determining functionality. The more non routine the tasks of the group are, the greater the probability that internal conflict will be constructive.

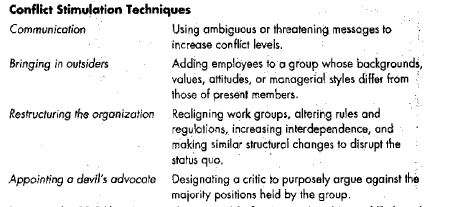
Groups that are required to tackle problems demanding new and novel approaches- as in research, advertising, and other professional activities—will benefit more from conflict than will groups performing highly routine activities- for instance, those of work teams on an automobile assembly line. Creating functional conflict. We briefly mentioned conflict stimulation as part of Stage IV of the conflict process. Since the topic of conflict stimulation is relatively new and somewhat controversial, you might be wondering, if managers accept the interactionist view toward conflict, what can they do to encourage functional conflict in their organizations. There seems to be general agreement that creating functional conflict is a tough job, particularly in large American corporations. As one consultant put it, a high proportion of people who get to the top are conflict avoiders. They don't like hearing negatives, they don't like saying or thinking negative things. They frequently make it up the ladder in part because they don't irritate people on the way up. Another suggests that at least 7 out of 10 people in American business keep quiet when their opinions are at odds with those of their superiors, allowing bosses to make mistakes even when they themselves know better. Such anti-conflict cultures may have been tolerable in the past, but not in today's fiercely competitive global economy. Those organizations that don't encourage and support dissent may not survive the 1990s.

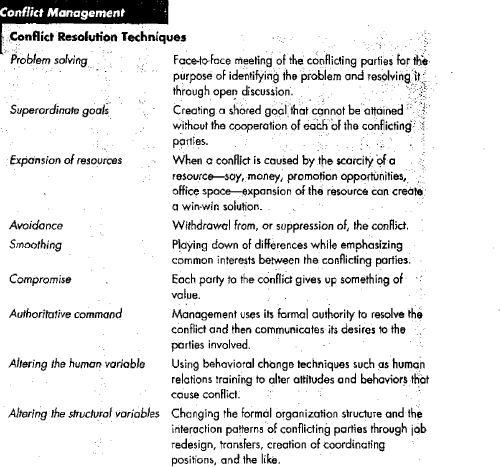
Let's look at some of the approaches organizations are taking to encourage their people to challenge the system and develop fresh ideas. Hewlett-Packard rewards dissenters by recognizing go-against-the-grain types, or people who stay with the ideas they believe in even when those ideas are rejected by management. Herman Miller Inc.,' an office furniture manufacturer, has a formal system in which employees evaluate and criticize their bosses. IBM also has a formal system that encourages dissension. Employees can question their boss with impunity. If the disagreement can't be resolved, the system provides a third party for counsel, Royal Dutch Shell Group, General Electric, and Anheuser-Busch build devil's advocates into the decision process. For instance, when the policy committee at Anheuser-Busch considers a major move, such as getting into or out of a business or making a major capital expenditure, it often assigns teams to make the case for each side of the question. This process frequently results in decisions and alternatives that previously hadn't been considered.

The governor of Maryland stimulates conflict and invigorates his organization by requiring state cabinet officials to swap jobs for one month every year, then, write reports and suggestions based on their experiences. One common ingredient in organizations that successfully create functional conflict is that they reward dissent and punish conflict avoiders. The president of Innovis Interactive Technologies, for instance, fired a top executive who refused to dissent. His explanation: "He was the ultimate yes-man. In this organization, I can't afford to pay someone to hear my own opinion." But the real challenge for managers is when they hear news they don't want to hear. The news may make their blood boil or their hopes collapse, but they can't show it. They have to learn to take the bad news without flinching. No tirades, no tight-lipped sarcasm, no eyes rolling upward, no gritting of teeth. Rather, managers should ask calm, even-tempered questions: "Can you tell me more about what happened?" "What do you think we ought to do?" A sincere "Thank you for bringing this to my attention" is likely to reduce the likelihood that managers will be cut off from similar communications in the future.

**Conflict Management Strategies**

If a conflict is dysfunctional, what can the parties do to deescalate it? Or, conversely, what options exist if conflict is too low and needs to be increased? This brings us to conflict management techniques. The following figures list the major resolution and stimulation techniques that allow managers to control conflict levels. Notice that several of the resolution techniques were earlier described as conflict-handling intentions. This, of course, shouldn't be surprising. Under ideal conditions, a person's intentions should translate into comparable behaviors.



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How can conflict be managed successfully?

* Conflict resolution is a situation in which the underlying reasons for a given destructive conflict are eliminated.
* Effective resolution begins with a diagnosis of the stage to which conflict has developed and recognition of the causes of the conflict.
* Conflict resolution is a situation in which the underlying reasons for a given destructive conflict are eliminated.
* Effective resolution begins with a diagnosis of the stage to which conflict has developed and recognition of the causes of the conflict.

**Indirect conflict management approaches**

* Reduced interdependence-used for adjusting level of interdependency when work-flow conflicts exists
* Appeals to common goals- focusing the attention of potentially conflicting parties on one mutually desirable goal
* Hierarchical referral- makes use of the chain of command for conflict resolution
* Alterations in the use of mythology and scripts- scripts are behavioral routines that become part of the organization’s culture

**Direct conflict management approaches**

* + Direct conflict management approaches are based on the relative emphasis that a person places on assertiveness and cooperativeness.
    - Assertiveness.
      * Attempting to satisfy one’s own concerns.
    - Cooperativeness.
      * Attempting to satisfy the other party’s concern.

**Avoidance**

* + Unassertive and uncooperative.
  + Downplaying disagreement.
  + Failing to participate in the situation and/or staying neutral at all costs.

**Accommodation or smoothing**

* + Unassertive and cooperative.
  + Letting the other’s wishes rule.
  + Smoothing over differences to maintain superficial harmony

**Compromise**

* + Moderate assertiveness and moderate cooperativeness.
  + Working toward partial satisfaction of everyone’s concerns.
  + Seeking acceptable rather than optimal solutions so that no one totally wins or loses.

**Competition and authoritative command**

* + Assertive and uncooperative.
  + Working against the wishes of the other party.
  + Fighting to dominate in win/lose competition.
  + Forcing things to a favorable conclusion through the exercise of authority.

**Collaboration and problem solving**

* + Assertive and cooperative.
  + Seeking the satisfaction of everyone’s concerns by working through differences.
  + Finding and solving problems so everyone gains as a result.

**Chapter Six - Stress Management**

What is Stress?

Stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important. This is a complicated definition. Let's look at its components more closely. Stress is not necessarily bad in and at itself. While stress is typically discussed in a negative context, it also has positive value. It is an opportunity when it offers potential gain. Consider, for example, the superior performance that an athlete or stage performer gives in "clutch" situations. Such individuals often use stress positively to rise to the occasion and perform at or near their maximum. Stress - An adaptive response to a situation that is perceived as challenging or threatening to the person’s well- being. Stressors- an environmental condition or stimuli that places physical or emotional demand on a person

More typically, stress is associated with constraints and demands. Constraint- is forces that prevent individuals from doing what they desire. Demand - is loss of something desired. The former prevent you from doing what you desire. The latter refers to the loss of something desired. So when you take a test at school or you undergo your annual performance review at work, you feel stress because you confront opportunities, constraints, and demands. A good performance review may lead to a promotion, greater responsibilities, and a higher salary. But a poor review may prevent you from getting the promotion. An extremely poor review might even result in your being fired.

Two conditions are necessary for potential stress to become actual stress. There must be uncertainty over the outcome and the outcome must be important. Regardless of the conditions, it is only when there is doubt or uncertainty regarding whether the opportunity will be seized, the constraint removed, or the loss avoided that there is stress. That is, stress is highest for those individuals who perceive they are uncertain as to whether they will win or lose and lowest for those individuals who think that winning or losing is a certainty. But importance is also critical. If winning or losing is an unimportant outcome, there is no stress. If keeping your job or earning a promotion doesn't hold any importance for you, you have no reason to feel stress over having to undergo a performance review.

**Types of stress**

* Episodic Stress- pattern of high stress followed by intervals of relief.
* Chronic Stress- constant confrontation of stressors without relief with effects constant and Additive
* Distress- stress that has a negative consequence on a person’s well-being.

**Understanding Source of Stress and its Consequences**

What causes stress? What are its consequences for individual employees? Why is it that the same set of conditions which creates stress for one person seems to have little or no effect on another person? There are three sets of factors-environmental, organizational, and individual- that act as *potential* sources of stress. Whether they lead to *actual* stress depends on individual differences such as job experience and personality. When stress is experienced by an individual, its symptoms can surface as physiological, psychological, and behavioral outcomes.

**Potential Sources of Stress**

The three categories of potential stressors: environmental, organizational, and individual. Let's take a look at each.

**Environmental factors**- Just as environmental uncertainty influences the design of an organization's structure, it also influences stress levels among employees in that organization. Changes in the business cycle create *economic uncertainties.* When the economy is contracting, people become increasingly anxious about their security. It was not a chance occurrence that suicide rates skyrocketed during the Great Depression of the 1930s. Minor recessions, too, increase stress levels. Downward swings in the economy are often accompanied by permanent reductions in the work force, temporary layoffs, reduced pay, shorter workweeks, and the like. New innovations can make an employee's skills and experience obsolete in a very short period of time. *Technological* *uncertainty,* therefore, is a second type of environmental factor that can cause stress. Computers, robotics, automation, and other forms of technological innovation are a threat to many people and cause them stress.

**Organizational factors** - Numerous factors within the organization can cause stress. Pressures to avoid errors or complete tasks in a limited time period, work overload, a demanding and insensitive boss; and unpleasant coworkers are a few examples. We've categorized these factors around task, role, and interpersonal demands, organization structure, organizational leadership, and the organization's life stage.

*Task demands* are factors related to a person's job. They include the design of the individual's job (autonomy, task variety, degree of automation), working conditions, and the physical work layout. Assembly lines can put pressure on people when their speed is perceived as excessive. The more interdependence between a person's tasks and the tasks of others, the more potential stress there is. Autonomy, however, tends to lessen stress. Jobs where temperatures, noise, or other working conditions arc dangerous or undesirable can increase anxiety. So, too, can working in an overcrowded room or in a visible location where interruptions are constant.

*Role demands* relate to pressures placed on if person as a function of the particular role he or she plays in the organization. Role conflicts create expectations that may be hard to reconcile or satisfy. Role overload is' experienced when the employee is expected to do more than time permits. Role ambiguity is created when role expectations are not clearly understood and the employee is not sure that he or she is to do.

*Interpersonal demands* are pressures created by other employees. Lack of social support from colleagues and poor interpersonal relationships can cause considerable stress, especially among employees with a high social need.

*Organization structure* defines the level of differentiation in the organization, the degree of rules and regulations, and where decisions are made. Excessive rules and lack of participation in decisions that affect an employee are examples of structural variables that might be potential sources of stress.

*Organizational leadership* represents the managerial style of the organization's senior executives. Some chief executive officers create a culture characterized by tension, fear, and anxiety. They establish unrealistic pressures to perform in the short run, impose excessively tight controls, and routinely fire employees who don't measure up.

Organizations go through a cycle. They're established; they grow, become mature, and eventually decline. An *'organization's life* stage-that is, where it is in this four-stage cycle-s-creates different problems and pressures for employees. The establishment and decline stages are particularly stressful. The former is characterized by a great deal of excitement and uncertainty, whereas the latter typically requires cutbacks, layoffs, and a different set of uncertainties. Stress tends to be least in maturity where uncertainties are at their lowest point.

**Individual Factors -** The typical individual only works about 40 to 50 hours a week. The experiences and problems that people encounter in those other l20-plus non-work hours each week can spillover to the job. Our final category, then, encompasses factors in the employee's personal life. Primarily, these factors are family issues, personal economic problems, and inherent personality characteristics.

Factors such as Marital difficulties, the breaking off a relationship, and discipline troubles with children are examples of relationship problems that create stress for employees and aren't left at the front door when they arrive at work. *Economic* problems created by individuals overextending their financial resources is another set of personal troubles that can create stress for employees and distract their attention from their work. Regardless of income level-people who make $80,000 a year seem to have as much trouble handling their finances as those who earn $l8, 000. Some people are poor money managers or have wants that always seem to exceed their earning capacity.

Recent research in three diverse organizations found that stress symptoms reported prior to beginning a job accounted or most of the variance in stress symptoms reported nine months later. This led the researchers to conclude that some people may *have* an inherent tendency to accentuate negative aspects of the world in general. If true, then a significant individual factor influencing stress is a person's basic dispositional nature. That is, stress symptoms expressed on the job may actually originate in the person's *personality.*

Stressors are additive - a fact that tends to be overlooked when stressors are reviewed individually is that stress is an additive phenomenon. Stress builds up. Each new and persistent stressor adds to an individual's stress level. A single stressor may seem relatively unimportant in and of itself, but if it is added to an already high level of stress, it can be the straw that breaks the camel's back. If we want to appraise the total amount of stress an individual is under, we have to sum up his or her opportunity stresses, constraint stresses, and demand stresses.

**Individual Differences and Stress**

Some people thrive on stressful situations; others are overwhelmed by them. What is it that differentiates people in terms of their ability to handle stress? What individual difference variables moderate the relationship between *potential* stressors and *experienced* stress? At least five variables: perception, job experience, social support, belief in locus of control, and hostility have been found to be relevant moderators.

Perception - employees react in response to their perception of reality rather than to reality itself. Perception, therefore, will moderate the relationship between a potential stress condition and an employee's reaction to it. One person's fear that he'll lose his job because his company is laying off personnel may be perceived by another as an opportunity to get a large severance allowance and start his own business. Similarly, what one employee perceives as an efficient and challenging work environment may be viewed as threatening and demanding by others. So the stress potential in environmental, organizational, and individual factors doesn't lie in their objective condition. Rather, it lies in an employee's interpretation of those factors.

Job experience - Experience is said to be a great teacher. It can also be a great stress reducer. Think back to your first date or your first few days in college. For most of us, the uncertainty and newness of these situations created stress. But as we gained experience, that stress disappeared or at least significantly decreased. The same phenomenon seems to apply to work situations. That is, experience on the job tends to be negatively related to work stress. Two explanations have been offered. First is the idea of selective withdrawal. Voluntary turnover is more probable among people who experience more stress. Therefore, people who remain with the organization longer are those with more stress-resistant traits or those who are more resistant to the stress characteristics of their organization. Second, people eventually develop coping mechanisms to deal with stress. Because this takes time, senior members of the organization are more likely to be fully adapted and should experience less stress.

Social support- Increasing evidence shows that social support-that is, collegial relationships with co-workers or supervisors - can buffer the impact of stress. The logic underlying this moderating variable is that social support acts as a palliative, mitigating the negative effects of even high-strain jobs. For individuals whose work associates are unhelpful or even actively hostile, social support may be found outside the job. Involvement with family, friends, and community can provide the support-especially for those with a high social need-that is missing at work and this can make job stressors more tolerable.

Belief in locus of control- Those with an internal locus of control believe they control their own destiny. Those with an external locus believe their lives are controlled by outside forces. Evidence indicates that internals perceive their jobs to be less stressful than do externals. When internals and externals confront a similar stressful situation, the internals are likely to believe they can have a significant effect on the results. They, therefore, act to take control of events. Externals are more likely to be passive and defensive. Rather than do something to reduce the stress, they acquiesce. So externals, who are more likely to feel helpless in stressful situations, are *also* more likely to experience stress.

Hostility- For much of the 1970s and 1980s, a great deal of attention was directed at the Type A personality. In fact, throughout the 1980s, it was undoubtedly the most frequently used moderating variable related to stress. Type A personality is characterized by feeling a chronic sense of time urgency and by an *excessive* competitive drive. A Type A individual is *aggressively* involved in a *chronic, incessant* struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons.

Until quite recently, researchers believed Type A's were more likely to experience stress on and off the job. More specifically, Type A's were widely believed to be at higher risk for heart disease. A closer analysis of the evidence, however, has produced new conclusions. By looking at various components of Type A behavior, it's been found that only the hostility and anger associated with Type A behavior is actually related to heart disease. The chronically angry, suspicious, and mistrustful person *is* the one at risk. So just because a person is a workaholic, rushes around a lot, and is impatient or competitive does not mean he or she is unduly susceptible to heart disease or the other negative effects of stress. Rather, it's the quickness to anger, the persistently hostile outlook, and the cynical mistrust of others that are harmful.

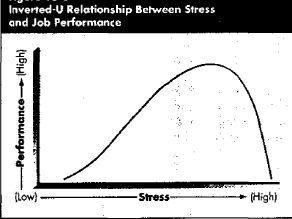
**Consequences of Stress**

Stress shows itself in a number of ways. For instance, an individual who is experiencing a high level of stress may develop high blood pressure, ulcers, irritability, difficulty in making routine decisions, loss of appetite, accident proneness, and the like. These can be subsumed under three general categories: physiological, psychological, and behavioral symptoms.

**Physiological Symptoms**- Most of the early concern with stress was directed at physiological symptoms. This was primarily because the topic was researched by specialists in the health and medical sciences. This research led to the conclusion that stress could create changes in metabolism, increase heart and breathing rates, increase blood pressure, bring on headaches, and induce heart attacks. The link between stress and particular physiological symptoms is not clear. There are few, if any, consistent relationships. This is attributed to the complexity of the symptoms and the difficulty of objectively measuring them. But of greater relevance is the fact that physiological symptoms have the least direct relevance to students of OB. Our concern is with behaviors and attitudes. Therefore, the two other categories of symptoms are more important to us.

**Psychological Symptoms -** Stress can cause dissatisfaction. Job-related stress can cause job-related dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction, in fact, is lithe simplest and most obvious psychological effect of stress. But stress shows itself in other psychological states-for instance, tension, anxiety, irritability, boredom, and procrastination. The evidence indicates that when people are placed in jobs that make multiple and conflicting demands or in which there is a lack of clarity as to the incumbent's duties, authority, and responsibilities, both stress and dissatisfaction are increased. Similarly, the less control people have over the pace of their work, the greater the stress and dissatisfaction. While more research is needed to clarify the relationship, the evidence suggests that jobs providing a low level of variety, significance, autonomy, feedback, and identity to incumbents create stress and reduce satisfaction and involvement in the job.

**Behavioral Symptoms -** Behaviorally related stress symptoms include changes in productivity, absence, and turnover, as well as changes in eating habits, increased smoking or consumption of alcohol, rapid speech, fidgeting, and sleep disorders. A significant amount of research has investigated the stress-performance relationship. The most widely studied pattern in the stress-performance literature is the inverted-U relationship. This is shown in Figure Below:



The logic underlying the inverted U is that low to moderate levels of stress stimulate the body and increase its ability to react- Individuals then often perform their tasks better, more intensely, or more rapidly. But too much stress places unattainable demands or constraints on a person, which results in lower performance. This inverted-U pattern may also describe the reaction to stress over time, as well as to changes in stress intensity. That is, even moderate levels of stress can have a negative influence on performance over the long term as the continued intensity of the stress wears down the Individual and saps his or her energy resources. An athlete may be able to use the positive effects of stress to obtain a higher performance during every Saturday's game in the fall season, or a sales executive may be able to psych herself up for her presentation at the annual national meeting. But moderate levels of stress experienced continually over long periods of time-as typified by the emergency *worn* staff in a large urban hospital-can result in lower performance. This may explain *why* emergency room staffs at such hospitals are frequently rotated and why it is unusual to find individuals who have spent the bulk of their career in such an environment.

In effect, to do so would expose the individual to the risk of career burnout. In spite of the popularity and intuitive appeal of the inverted-U model, it doesn't get a lot of empirical support. At this point managers should be careful in assuming this model accurately depicts *the* stress-performance relationship.

**Managing Stress or Stress management strategies**

From the organization's standpoint, management may not be concerned when employees experience low to moderate levels of stress. The reason, as we showed earlier, is that such levels of stress may be functional and lead to higher employee performance. But high levels of stress, or even low levels sustained over long periods of time, can lead to reduced employee performance and; thus, require action by management.

While a limited amount of stress may benefit an employee's performance, don't expect employees to see it that way. From the individual's standpoint, even low levels of stress are likely to be perceived as undesirable. It's not unlikely, therefore, for employees and management to have different notions of what constitutes an acceptable level of stress on the lob. What management may consider as "a positive stimulus that keeps the adrenaline running" is very likely to be seen as "excessive pressure" by the employee.

**Individual approaches**- An employee can take personal responsibility for reducing his or her stress level. Individual strategies that have proven effective include implementing time-management techniques, increasing physical exercise, relaxation, training, and expanding the social support network.

Many people manage their time poorly. The things they have to accomplish in any given day or week are not necessarily beyond completion if they manage their time properly. The well-organized employee, like the well-organized student, can often accomplish twice as much as the person who is poorly organized. So an understanding and utilization of basic *time-management* principles can help individuals’ better cope with tensions created by job demands. A few of the more well-known time-management principles are (1) making daily lists ·of activities to be accomplished; (2) prioritizing activities by importance and urgency; (3) scheduling activities according to the priorities set; and (4) knowing your daily cycle and handling the most demanding parts of your job during the high part of your cycle when you are most alert and productive.

Noncompetitive physical exercise such as aerobics, walking/jogging, swimming, and riding a bicycle have long been recommended by physicians as a way to deal with excessive stress levels. These forms of *physical exercise* increase heart capacity, lower at-rest heart rate, provide a mental diversion from work pressures, and offer a means to let off steam. Individuals to teach themselves to reduce tension through *relaxation* *techniques* such as meditation, hypnosis, and biofeedback. The objective is to reach a state of deep relaxation, where one feels physically relaxed, somewhat detached from the immediate environment, and detached from body sensuous. Fifteen or 20 minutes a day of deep relaxation releases tension and pro*vides* a person with a pronounced sense of peacefulness. Importantly, significantchanges in heart rate, blood pressure, and other physiological factorsresult from achieving the deep relaxation condition.

As we noted earlier in this chapter, having friends, family, or work colleagues to talk provide an outlet when stress levels become excessive. Expanding your social support network therefore, can be a means for tension reduction. It provides you with someone to hear your problems and a more objective perspective on the situation. Research also demonstrates that social support moderates the stress-burnout relationship. That is, high support reduces the likelihood that heavy work stress will result in job burnout.

**Organizational approaches**- Several of the factors that cause stress particularly task and role demands, and organization structure-are controlled by management. As such, they can be modified or changed, Strategies that management might want to consider include improved personnel selection and job placement, use of realistic goal setting, redesigning of jobs, increased employee involvement, improved organizational communication, and establishment of corporate wellness programs.

We know, for example, that individuals with little experience or an external locus of control tend to be more stress prone: *Selection and placement* decisions should take these facts into consideration. Obviously, although management shouldn't restrict hiring to only experienced individuals with an internal locus, such individuals may adapt better to high-stress jobs and perform those jobs more effectively.

Based on an extensive amount of research, we concluded that individuals perform better when they have specific and challenging goals and receive feedback on how well they are progressing toward these goals. The use of goals can reduce stress as well as provide motivation. Specific goals that are perceived *as* attainable clarify performance expectations. Additionally, goal feedback reduces uncertainties as to actual job performance. The result is less employee frustration, role ambiguity, and stress.

*Redesigning jobs* to give employees more responsibility, more meaningful work, more autonomy, and increased feedback can reduce stress because these factors give the employee greater control over work activities and lessen dependence on others. But as we noted in our discussion of work design, not all employees want enriched jobs. The right job redesign, then, for employees with a low need for growth might be less responsibility and increased specialization. If individuals prefer structure and routine, reducing skill variety should also reduce uncertainties and stress levels.

Role stress is detrimental to a large extent because employees feel uncertain about goals, expectations how they'll be evaluated, and the like. By giving these employees a voice in those decisions that directly affect their lob performances, management can increase employee control and reduce this role stress. So managers should consider increasing *employee involvement* in decision making.

Increasing formal *organizational communication* with employees reduces uncertainty by lessening role ambiguity and role conflict. Given the importance that perceptions play in moderating the stress-response relationship, management can also use effective communications as a means to shape employee perceptions. Remember that what employees categorize as demands, threats, or opportunities are merely an interpretation, and that interpretation can be affected by the symbols and actions, communicated by management.

Our final suggestion is *to* offer organizationally supported wellness programs. These programs focus on the employee's total physical and mental condition. For example, they typically provide workshops to help people quit smoking, control alcohol use, lose weight, eat better, and develop a regular exercise program. The assumption underlying most wellness programs is that employees need to take personal responsibility for their physical and mental health. The organization is merely a vehicle to facilitate this end. Organizations, of course, aren't altruistic. They expect a payoff from their investment in wellness programs. And most of those firms that have introduced wellness programs have found the benefits to exceed the costs. For instance, Du Pont saw a 14 percent decline in sick days among employees at 41 plants; nonhospital health-care costs shrank 43 percent at Tenneco Inc.; and the average annual employee health claim at Steelcase Inc. fell from $1,155 to $537.95 Adolph Coors, the beer company, estimates it saves $6.15 for each dollar spent on wellness.

**The following are some the Organizational Level Strategies to manage stress:**

* Organizational polices should be clear
* Authority and responsibility must be clear
* Organizational structure, redesigning of jobs and improved Communication reduces stress.
* Corporate policies, physical work environment should be suitable for higher productivity.
* An updated systems and processes increase efficiency.
* Management must create a healthy working environment.
* Career plan for mangers must be developed and implemented in letter and spirit.
* Employees must be empowered

Stress and Occupations

Low-Stress Medium-Stress High -Stress

Occupations Occupations Occupations

**Summary and Implications for Managers**

Technology is changing people's jobs and their work behavior. TQM and its emphasis on continuous process improvement can increase employee stress as individuals find that performance expectations are constantly being increased. Reengineering is eliminating millions of jobs and completely reshaping the jobs of those who remain. Flexible manufacturing systems require employees to learn new skills and accept increased responsibilities. And technology is making many job skills obsolete and shortening the life span of almost all skills-technical, administrative, and managerial.

An understanding of work design can help managers design jobs that positively affect employee motivation. For instance, jobs that scores high in motivating potential increase an employee's control over key elements in his or her work. Therefore, jobs that offer autonomy, feedback, and similar complex task characteristics help satisfy the individual goals of those employees who desire greater control over their work. Of course, consistent with the social information processing model, the perception that task characteristics are complex is probably more important in influencing an employee's motivation than the objective task characteristics themselves. The key, then, is to provide employees with cues suggesting their jobs score high on factors such as skill variety, task identity, autonomy, and feedback.

We found that the existence of work stress, in and of itself, need not imply lower performance. The evidence indicates that stress can be either a positive or negative influence on employee performance. For many people, low to moderate amounts of stress enable them to perform their jobs better, by increasing their work intensity, alertness, and ability to react. However, a high level of stress, or even a moderate level sustained over a long period of time, eventually takes its toll and performance declines. The impact of stress on satisfaction is far more straightforward. Job-related tension tends to decrease general job satisfaction. Even though low to moderate levels of stress may improve job performance, employees find stress dissatisfying.

**Chapter Seven - Culture and Diversity**

**Culture and Cultural Diversity**

**Organizational Culture**

Set of key characteristics that distinguish one organization from other. It is the collections of traditions, values, policies, beliefs and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything we do and think in an organization. As individuals come into contact with organizations, they come into contact with dress rooms, stories tell about what goes on, the organization’s formal rules and procedures, its formal codes of behavior, rituals, tasks, pay systems jargon, and jokes only understood by insiders, and so on. These elements are some of the manifestations of the organizational culture.

There appear to be ten characteristics that, when mixed and matched, tap the essence of an organization’s culture. These are:

* Individual initiative- degree of responsibility, freedom, independence,
* Risk tolerance- degree to which employees aggressive, innovative, risk-seeking
* Direction- clear objectives and performance expectations
* Integration- units in the organization.
* Management support- clear support, communications.
* Control – rules and regulations
* Identity – members identify with the organization as a whole rather than individual
* Reward system – reward allocations
* Conflict tolerance – the way of treating conflicts and criticisms openly
* Communication patterns – organizational communications restricted

**Characteristics of Organizational culture**

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The following are characteristics of organizational culture:

* Culture is descriptive
* Organizations’ do not have uniform cultures
* Strong vs. weak cultures

What is strong culture?

In a strong culture, the organization’s core values are both intensely held and widely shared. Strong cultures will have great influence on the   
behavior of its members and results in lower employee turnover.

What is weak culture?

* Culture vs. formalization
* Innovation and risk taking
* Attention to detail
* Outcome orientation
* People orientation
* Team orientation
* Stability

**Organizational Culture’s Overall Function or The role of organizational culture**

The following are some of the roles or functions of organizational culture:

* Culture is the social glue that helps hold an organization together.
* It gives members an organizational identity
* It facilitates collective commitment.
* It promotes systems stability
* It shapes behavior by helping members make sense of their surroundings.
* It provides a boundary.
* It has a boundary- defining roles
* It conveys a sense of identity for organizational members
* It facilitates the generation of commitment
* It enhances social system stability
* It serves as a sense-making and control mechanisms

**How Organizational Culture manifests itself?**

Organizational Culture manifests itself in two ways:

* **High profile symbols** - deliberately designed to create the image of the company, the mission statement, company logo, uniform, etc.
* **Low profile symbols** - practices, communications ,physical forms , common language, etc

**Do Organizations Have Uniform Cultures?**

* **A dominant culture** - expresses the core values that are shared by a majority of the organization’s members (personality of the organization).
* **Core values** - are those values which form the foundation on which members of an organization perform work and conduct themselves
* **Subcultures** - tend to develop in large organizations to reflect common problems, situations, or experiences that members face.

**Types of organizational culture**

There are four types of organizational culture

1. **Tough guy, macho culture** – a world of individuals who regularly take high risks and get quick feedback on whether their actions were right or wrong.
2. **Work hard/pay hard culture** – fun and action are the rule here, employees take few risks, all with quick feedback; to succeed, the culture, and the culture encourages them to maintain a high level of relatively low-risk activity.
3. **Bet your company culture** - cultures with big stakes decisions, where years pass before employees know where decisions have paid off. A high risk, slow-feedback environment
4. **The process culture -** a world of little or no feedback where employees find it hard to measure what they do; instead they concentrate on how it’s done. It’s another name is bureaucracy.

**Culture as a Liability**

* Shared values do not agree with organization’s effectiveness.
* Dilemma of hiring a diverse workforce but wanting people to fit into a single culture.
* Cultural incompatibility in mergers and acquisitions.
* Culture is not good or bad, only it exists.
* Valuable for both organization and employee
* It enhances organizational commitment and increases the consistency of employee behavior.
* From employee stand point, culture is valuable because it reduces ambiguity.

**How a Culture Begins/formed**

Culture is created in three ways:

* + Founders hire and keep those who think and feel the same way they do.
  + They indoctrinate and socialize these employees to their way of thinking and feeling
  + Their behavior acts as a role model encouraging employees to identify with them

**How employees learn culture?**

Culture is transmitted to employees in a number of forms:

a. Rituals – it is repetitive sequences of activities that expresses and reinforce the key values of the organization.

b. Material symbols

c. Language - many organizations and units within organizations uses language to identify members of culture or sub-culture.

d. National culture – there is a growing body of evidence to indicate that national culture differ widely and the result is marked differences in behavior patterns worldwide.

e. Cultural clusters- are grouping of countries into meaningful categories based on geography, shared language and similar religions.

f. Stories – many stories circulate through organizations. They serve as powerful social perceptions of the way things should (should not) be done.

**Organizational Culture vs. National Culture**

* National culture has a greater impact on employees than does their organization’s culture.
* Expect that organizations hire employees who are a better fit with the organization’s dominant culture even though they may not fit the national culture.

**Cultural Dimensions**

As identified by Hofstede the following are national culture dimensions:

* Individualism vs. collectivitism
* Power distance
* Uncertainty avoidance
* Masculinity vs. femininity.

**National culture and Organizational behavior**

* Motivation
* Leadership
* Organizational design
* Organizational culture

**Managing Cultural Change and Implications for Managers**

* **Cultural change is most likely to take when the following conditions exist:** 
  + Dramatic crisis exists or is created.
  + Turnover in leadership.
  + Young and small organization.
  + Weak culture.
* **Implications for Managers**
* Create the culture you want when the organization is small.
* If established culture needs to be changed, expect it to take years.

**Globalization, People at work and Diversity**

The preceding also leads us to predict that the increasing cultural diversity of the work force should provide benefits to organizations. And that's what the evidence indicates. Research demonstrates that heterogeneity among group and organization members can increase creativity, improve the quality of decisions, and facilitate change by enhancing member flexibility. For example, researchers compared decision-making groups composed of members or individuals from the same ethnic groups/country/continent with groups that also contained members from Asian, African and so forth groups. The ethnically diverse groups produced more effective and more feasible ideas and the unique ideas they generated tended to be of higher quality than the unique ideas produced by the all member group from the same ethnic group.

**N.B**: - globalization and people at work is your reading assignment.

**Chapter 8- Power and Politics in an Organization**

**A Definition of Power**

Power A capacity that A has to influence the behavior of B so that B does things he or she would not otherwise do.

Dependency - B's relationship to A when A possesses something that B requires.

Power refers to a capacity that A has to influence the behavior of B, so B does something he or she would not otherwise do. This definition implies (1) a potential that need not be actualized to be effective, (2) a dependency relationship, and (3) the assumption that B has some discretion over his or her own behavior.

Let's look at each of these points more closely. Power may exist but not be used. It is, therefore, a capacity or potential. One can have power but not impose it. Probably the most important aspect of power is that it is a function of dependency. The greater B's dependence on A, the greater is A's power in the relationship. Dependence, in turn, is based on alternatives that B perceives and the importance that B places on the alternative(s) that A controls. A person can have power over you only if he or she controls something you desire. If you want a college degree and have to pass a certain course to get it, and your current instructor is the only faculty member in the college who teaches that course, he or she has power over you. Your alternatives are highly limited and you place a high degree of importance on obtaining a passing grade. Similarly, if you're attending college on funds totally provided by your parents, you probably recognize the power they hold over you. You're dependent on them for financial support. But once you're out of school, have a job, and are making a solid income, your parents' power is reduced significantly. Who among us, though, has not known or heard of the rich relative who is able to control a large number of family members merely through the implicit or explicit threat of "writing them out of the will"?

For A to get B to do something he or she otherwise would not do means B must have the discretion to make choices, At the extreme, if B's job behavior is so programmed he is allowednno room to make choices, he obviously is constrained to his ability to do something other than what he is doing. For instance, job descriptions, group norms, and organizational rules and regulations, as well as community laws standards, constrain people's choices. As a nurse, you may be dependent on your supervisor for continued employment. But, in spiting of this dependence, you're unlikely to comply with her request to perform heart surgery on a patient steal several thousand dollars from ‘A’ petty cash. Your job description and laws against stealing constrain your ability to make these choices

**Contrasting Leadership and Power**

A careful comparison of our description of power with our description of leadership in the previous chapter reveals that the two concepts are closely inter-twined. Leaders use power as a means of attaining group goals. Leaders achieve goals, and power is a means of facilitating their achievement. What differences are there between the two terms? One difference relates to goal compatibility. Power does not require goal compatibility, merely dependence, Leadership, on the other hand, requires some congruence between the goals of the leader and the led. A second difference relates to the direction of influence. Leadership focuses on the downward influence on one's subordinates. It minimizes the importance of lateral and upward influence patterns. Power does not. Still another difference deals with research emphasis. Leadership research, for the most part, emphasizes style. It seeks answers to such questions as: How supportive should a leader be? How much decision making should be shared with subordinates? In contrast, the research on power has tended to encompass a broader area and focus on tactics for gaining compliance. It has gone beyond the individual as exerciser because power can be used by groups as well as by individuals to control other individuals or groups.

**Bases of Power**

Where does power come from?

What is it that gives an individual or a group influence over others? The answer to these questions is a five-category. Classification scheme identified by French and Raven." They proposed five bases or sources of power: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent

**Coercive Power**

The coercive power base is defined by French and Raven as being dependent on fear. One reacts to this power out of fear of the negative results that might occur if one failed to comply. It rests on the application, or the threat of application, of physical sanctions such as the infliction of pain, the generation of frustration through restriction of movement, or the controlling by force of basic physiological or safety needs. In the 19305, when John Dillinger went into a bank, held a gun to a teller's head, and asked for money, he was incredibly successful at getting compliance with his request. His power base was coercive.

A loaded gun gives its holder power because others are fearful they will loosen something they hold dear-their lives. Of all the bases of power available to man, the power to hurt others is possibly most often used, most often condemned, and most difficult to control the state relies on its military and legal resources to intimidate nations, or even its own citizens. Businesses rely upon the control of economic resources.

Schools and universities rely upon their rights to deny students formal education, while the church threatens individuals with loss of grace. At the personal level individuals exercise coercive power through a reliance upon physical strength, verbal facility, or the ability to grant or withhold emotional support from others. These bases provide the individual with the means to physically harm, bully, humiliate, or deny love to others.

At the organizational level, A has coercive power over B if A can dismiss, suspend, or demote B, assuming B values his or her job. Similarly, if A can assign B work activities that B finds unpleasant or treat B in a manner B finds embarrassing, A possesses coercive power over B in their directives are viewed to be within the authority of their positions, teachers, tellers, and first lieutenants listen and usually comply.

**Expert Power**

Expert power is influence wielded as a result of expertise, special skill, or knowledge. Expertise has become one of the most powerful sources of influence as the world has become more technologically oriented. As jobs become more specialized, we become increasingly dependent on "experts" to achieve goals. So, while it is generally acknowledged that physicians have expertise and hence expert power-most of us follow the advice our doctor gives us-you should also recognize that computer specialists, tax accountants, solar engineers, industrial psychologists, and other specialists are able to wield power as a result of their expertise.

**Referent Power**

The last category of influence that French and Raven identified was referent power. Its base is identification with a person who has desirable resources or personal traits. If I admire and identify with you, you can exercise power over me because I want to please you.

Referent power develops out of admiration of another and a desire to be like that person. In a sense, then, it is a lot like charisma. If you admire someone to the point of modeling your behavior and attitudes after him or her, this person possesses referent power over you. Referent power explains why celebrities are paid millions of dollars to endorse products in commercials. Marketing research shows that people like Bill Cosby, Elizabeth Taylor, and Michael Jordan have the power to influence your choice of photo processors, perfume, and athletic shoes. With a little practice, you or I could probably deliver as smooth a sales pitch as these celebrities, but the buying public doesn't identify with you and me.

In organizations, if you are articulate, domineering, physically imposing, or charismatic, you hold personal characteristics that may be used to get others to do what you want.

**Power in groups: Coalitions**

Those "out of power" and seeking to be "in" will first try to increase their power individually. Why spread the spoils if one doesn't have to? But if this proves ineffective, the alternative is to form a coalition. There is strength in numbers. The natural way to gain influence is to become a power holder. Therefore, those who want power will attempt to build a personal power base. But, in many instances, this may be difficult risky, costly, or impossible. In such cases, efforts will be made to form a coalition of two or more "outs" who, by joining together, can combine their resources to increase rewards for themselves.

Historically blue-collar workers in organizations who were unsuccessful in bargaining on their own behalf with management resorted to labor unions to bargain for them. In recent years, white-collar employees and professionals have increasingly turned to unions after finding it difficult to exert power individually to attain higher wages and greater perceived, as hostile or abusive.

**POLITICAL IMPLICATIONS OF POWER**

Power and politics are very closely related concepts. A popular view of organizational politics is how one can pragmatically get ahead in an organization. Alvin Toffler, the noted author of *Future Shock, The Third Wave,* and *Power shift,* observed that “companies are always engaged in internal political struggles, power struggles, infighting, and so on. That’s normal life.” There is even the view that there may be an inverse relationship between power and politics. For example, a recent publication aimed at practicing human resources (HR) managers noted that in this era of competing for limited resources, managers who lack power must use more politics. This means that “Those who lack political skills will gain a reputation for folding under pressure and having no convictions.” Such political skills largely deal with the acquisition of power. In this latter view, power and politics become especially closely intertwined. A recognition of the political realities of power acquisition in today’s organizations and an examination of some specific political strategies for acquiring power are of particular interest for understanding the dynamics of organizational behavior.

**A Political Perspective of Power in Organizations**

The classical organization theorists portrayed organizations as highly rational structures in which authority meticulously followed the chain of command and in which managers had legitimatized power. The discussion in the next chapter on informal managerial roles and organization portrays another, more realistic view of organizations. It is in this more realistic view of organizations that the importance of the political aspects of power and strategic advantage comes to the forefront. As Peffer notes: “Organizations, particularly large ones, are like governments in that they are fundamentally political entities. To understand them, one needs to understand organizational politics, just as to understand governments, one needs to understand governmental politics.”

The political perspective of organizations departs from the rational, idealistic model. For example, Walter Nord dispels some of the dreams of ideal, rationally structured, and humanistic organizations by pointing out some of the stark realities of political power. He suggests four postulates of power in organizations that help focus on the political realities:

1. Organizations are composed of coalitions that compete with one another for resources, energy, and influence.

2. Various coalitions will seek to protect their interests and positions of influence.

3. The unequal distribution of power itself has dehumanizing effects.

4. The exercise of power within organizations is one very crucial aspect of the exercise of power within the larger social system.

In other words, the political power game is changing, but is still very real in today’s organizations. Researchers on organizational politics conclude that politics in organizations is simply a fact of life. Personal experience, hunches, and anecdotal evidence for years have supported a general belief that behavior in and of organizations is often political in nature. More recently, some conceptual and empirical research has added further support to these notions. Even though the organizational politics has and will continue to flourish, its nature and how it is expressed changes over time. For example, younger workers often disdain the “Boomer” form of politics as “so last century.” However, as an expert on organizational politics warns the young generation:

By shunning the conventions of office politics, they risk burning bridges. So because you never know how long you’ll be at a firm, I’d still advise sticking to the same old directives. They’re the same today as they were two decades ago.

Like other aspects of organizational behavior dynamics, politics is not a simple process. Besides the age of the participants, politics can vary from organization to organization and even from one subunit of an organization to another. A comprehensive definition drawing from the literature is that “organizational politics consists of intentional acts of influence undertaken by individuals or groups to enhance or protect their self-interest when conflicting courses of action are possible.” There is also a more recent view that different forms of power in organizations are connected to specific learning processes that help explain why some political insights become institutionalized and others do not. The political behavior of organizational participants tends to be traditionally viewed as opportunistic for the purpose of maximizing self-interest,68 but a counterargument is that organizational politics is actually the cornerstone of organizational democracy. As one theoretical analysis noted: politics is central to the development of real organizational democracy. It provides practical advice on how to work with a constructive political “mindset” and highlights how such behavior underpins, rather than undermines, the process of redistributing organizational influence. Thus, like other dynamics of today’s organizations, the nature of politics is quite complex and still being studied for better understanding.

Research on organizational politics has identified several areas that are particularly relevant to the degree to which organizations are political rather than rational. These areas can be summarized as follows:

1. *Resources.* There is a direct relationship between the amount of politics and how critical and scarce the resources are. Also, politics will be encouraged when there is an infusion of new, “unclaimed” resources.

2. *Decisions.* Ambiguous decisions, decisions on which there is lack of agreement, and uncertain, long-range strategic decisions lead to more politics than routine decisions.

3. *Goals.* The more ambiguous and complex the goals become, the more politics there will be.

4. *Technology and external environment.* In general, the more complex the internal technology of the organization, the more politics there will be. The same is true of organizations operating in turbulent external environments.

5. *Change.* A reorganization or a planned organization development (OD) effort or even an unplanned change brought about by external forces will encourage political maneuvering.

The preceding implies that some organizations and subunits within the organization will be more political than others. By the same token, however, it is clear that most of today’s organizations meet these requirements for being highly political. That is, they have limited resources; make ambiguous, uncertain decisions; have unclear yet complex goals; have increasingly complex technology; and are undergoing drastic change. This existing situation facing organizations makes them more political, and the power game becomes increasingly important. Miles states: “In short, conditions that *threaten* the status of the powerful or *encourage* the efforts of those wishing to increase their power base will stimulate the intensity of organizational politics and increase the proportion of decision-making behaviors that can be classified as political as opposed to rational.” For example, with the political situation of today’s high-tech, radically innovative firms, it has been suggested that medieval structures of palace favorites, liege lordship, and fiefdoms may be more relevant than the more familiar rational structures. Recent theory-building does recognize the reality of territoriality in organizations. “Organization members can and do become territorial over physical space, ideas, roles, relationships, and other potential possessions in organizations.” As the accompanying OB in Action: You Are Where You Sit indicates, even where one sits at the table of a meeting indicates power and political maneuvering. The next section presents such practical political strategies for power acquisition in today’s organizations.

**Political Strategies for Attaining Power in Organizations**

* Taking counsel
* Maintaining maneuverability
* Promoting limited communication
* Exhibiting confidence
* Controlling access to information and persons
* Making activities central and non substitutable
* Creating a sponsor-protégé relationship
* Stimulating competition among ambitious subordinates
* Seek out and befriend the most influential individual in a situation
* Neutralizing potential opposition
* Making strategic replacements
* Committing the uncommitted
* Forming a winning coalition
* Developing expertise
* Building personal stature
* Employing trade-offs
* Interact with others with the goal of building a positive relationship
* Using research data to support one’s own point of view
* Restricting communication about real intentions
* Withdrawing from petty disputes

Obviously, the strategies discussed are only representative, not exhaustive, of the many possible politically based strategies for acquiring power in organizations. Compared to many of the other topics covered in the text, there is relatively less research backup for these ideas on power and, especially, politics. There is also a call for a better framework and guidelines to evaluate the ethics of power and politics in today’s organizations. This ethical concern goes beyond the notions of success or effectiveness. For example, of the 10 most unethical activities one study identified, three are directly political: (1) making arrangements with vendors for the purposes of personal gain; (2) allowing differences in pay based on friendships; and (3) hiring, training, and promoting personal favorites rather than those who are most qualified.

To help overcome the negative impact that organizational politics can have on the ethics of an organization, the following guidelines can be used:

1. Keep lines of communication open.

2. Role-model ethical and nonpolitical behaviors.

3. Be wary of game players acting only in their own self-interests.

4. Protect individual privacy interests.

5. Always use the value judgment “Is this fair?”

As one analysis pointed out: “When it comes to the ethics of organizational politics, respect for justice and human rights should prevail for its own sake.” There is recent research evidence of the role that the perceptions of organizational politics play in fairness and justice.

Besides the possible ethical implications of power and politics carried to the extreme, there are, as previously mentioned, dysfunctional effects such as morale being weakened, victors and victims being created, and energy and time spent on planning attacks and counterattacks instead of concentrating on getting the job done. There is also evidence that politics may play a large role in both base-pay and incentive-pay decisions, and in one company the power struggles and political gamesmanship were the death knell of a gain sharing plan. There is some empirical evidence that those managers who are observed to engage in more political activity are relatively more successful in terms of promotions but are relatively less effective in terms of subordinate satisfaction and commitment and the performance of their unit. There is research evidence that this finding of the importance of political maneuvering in getting ahead in the organization, but detracting from effective performance of the unit, may hold across cultures (at least in Russia).

The dynamics of power continue to evolve. In particular, information technology and the Internet/Intranet provide information access that was not previously available. Organizations with fewer boundaries and wider, even global, access to intellectual capital have political systems and processes that are altered considerably. Also, the ups and recently the extreme downs of the economy in both the United States and the rest of the world have dramatically changed traditional power bases and processes. In the current social environment, many employees are as interested in jobs with meaning as they are with scoring political points and gaining power. As indicated earlier, this seems especially true of today’s younger generation who seem more interested in economic control than in control over people or in status and climbing the corporate ladder. In other words, today’s organizational participants’ passion for the good life and meaning may be replacing their ruthless search for power.

One thing about power and politics, however, remains certain: modern, complex organizations tend to create a climate that promotes power seeking and political maneuvering. And, in today’s environment, these political activities extend beyond the traditional boundaries of an organization. For example, Microsoft learned, the hard way, that ingratiation political tactics may have been much more successful than simply trying to bully government regulators when antitrust law violations were being investigated. Other important firms such as Google are learning from Microsoft’s mistakes; it makes sense to investigate and carefully implement the best political approach when seeking to deal with outside agencies and individuals who could alter or harm a firm’s inside operations and growth. Power and politics are a fact of modern organizational life, and it is hoped that more future research will help managers better understand their dynamics, meaning, and successful application.

**Chapter Nine – Organizational Design and Structure**

**The Essence of Organizational Design and Structure**

Organizational design refers to the overall configuration structural components that define jobs, grouping of jobs, the hierarchy, patterns of authority and approaches to coordination, and line-staff differentiation into a single, unified organizational system. Similarly, Ivancevich and Matton defined the concept of organizational design as a managerial decision making aimed at determining the structure and purposes that coordinate and control the jobs of the organization. And, the outcome of organizational design decision is the framework or structure of the organization.

Organizational design is the creation and modification of organizational structure.

The purpose of the manager in organization is to achieve coordinated behavior so that an organization is judged effective by boss who evaluates its records. Those who evaluate organizations can be concerned with any number of specific or general criteria and with output, process or input measures. To achieve coordinated behavior and to satisfy evaluators, managers engage in activities intended to plan, organize, lead and control behavior. Major factors in determining individual and group behavior are task and authority relationships.

**Principles of designing organizational structure**

Peter Drucker, is a well known management philosopher and scientist, advances the following principles for designing organizations:

**Clarity** – each manager and every part of the organization, whether a division, a department or a section must know its place in the system as a whole. He/she should know how he/she is related to others, what contributions he/she has to make to enable others to perform successfully, and what contributions he/she should expect to from others for the performance of his/her own tasks and achievement his/her goals. This clarity is need in all kinds of organizations for the performance of coordinated effort. Clarity, however, does not mean rigidity. It only means that everyone knows his/her position, tasks, responsibilities and contribution in relation to others.

**Economy** – organization structure should encourage people to take initiative and responsibility and exercise judgment in making decisions and taking required actions. It should need minimum control and supervision.

**The direction of vision** – patterns of interaction and communication should also be designed as to direct the employees’ vision not toward tasks, activities and efforts but towards goals. Moreover, this vision should be directed not only toward one’s own goals and but also toward the goals of the enterprise as a whole, so that the achievement of individual goals leads to the achievement of total enterprise goals.

**Understanding one’s own task and the common task** – organization should enable each of its employees to understand his/her task. It should also enable him/her to understand the common task of the organization.

**Decision-making** – organization structure should be so designed as to permit decisions to be made at the appropriate level. Decisions that can be made at the operative level should be made at the level, and decisions that can be made at supervisory level should not be pushed up to higher levels in management. It should strengthen the decision making process by making it possible that right decisions are made at the right level.

**Stability and adaptability** – every organization needs a certain degree of stability. Too frequent changes may indeed jeopardize it by putting undue strain on it. Reasonable stability enables an organization to plan, introduce and accommodate change. Stability, however, does not mean rigidity. It only focuses on the need to maintain balance between stability and change. In fact, organization structure should have a built-in ability to adapt to new situations in its internal as well as external environment.

**Perpetuation and self-renewal** – in order to perpetuate, an organization should be capable of renewing itself continually. The internal forces operating within the organization should be able to throw out the weed and plant new seeds. It should produce tomorrow’s managers from within. It should also provide motivation to its employees to learn and develop, to utilize their existing abilities and realize their full potential. Finally, a self-renewing organization should have the quality of open-mindedness and receptivity to new ideas.

**Technology and Job Design**

Job design is the process of assigning tasks to a job including the inter-dependency of those tasks with other jobs. A job is a set of tasks, each requiring, limited skill or effort; other jobs include a very complex set of tasks and can be accomplished by only few highly trained trades people or professionals.

We are currently seeing something of a revolution in the ways jobs are designed. Information technology has reshaped the type of work that organization new requires (e.g. more information processing, less physical labor) as well as the degree of control that people have over the work they perform. Some critics argue that computers increasingly control the pace of work and reduce the employees’ freedom on the job. However, others claim that corporate leaders can influence the way jobs are designed around information technology and that work can be redesigned with employee needs in mind.

Jobs are also being transformed as companies move toward more flexible workforce. The trend toward employability- means that many organizations now expect employees to perform a variety of work activities rather than hold specific jobs, and employees are expected to continuously learn skills that will keep then employed. In terms of job design, this means that employees are no longer hired into specific, narrowly defined job. Instead, they hold genetic titles (associate, team member) and are expected to perform several clusters of tasks.

Whether the change occurs through information technology or workforce flexibility, job design often produces an interesting conflict between the employee’s motivation and ability to complete the work. To understand this issue more fully, we begin by describing early job design efforts aimed at increasing work efficiency through job specialization.

* Employability – the “new deal” employment relationship in which the job is a temporary event and employees are expected to continuously learn skills that will keep them employed in a variety of work activities.

**Types of Organizational Structure**

1. **Line Organization**

**Nature of line organization**

Historically, this is the oldest and simplest form of organization. All other kinds of structures are modifications of line structure. It is characterized by vertical relationships which connects jobs and positions at each level with those above and below it. It thus, creates network of hierarchy throughout the organization based on a chain of command. A superior makes a decision and tells to a subordinate who in turn make decisions and tells to a subordinate who in turn make decisions and tells to operative workers. It forms a line from the very top to the very bottom level of the organization. It is uninterrupted flow of authority relationships and communication flows. Line units are those that contribute directly to accomplishing an organization’s goal.

**Advantages of line organization**

* Simplicity and clarity
* Speed
* Less expensive
* Stability
* It makes a person responsible for the work of a unit and the goals of the organization.
* It ensures flexibility to suit to lacks upward flow of information changing conditions.
* As a single person manages all the activities in a department, coordination becomes easy.

**Disadvantages of line organization**

* In the absence of staff supervision, few executives/ line managers are not overloaded, required to perform all the functions related to their jobs and the details of operation.
* It lacks specialization as each department looks after its own staff function, as the organization grows and jobs become complex, requiring various types of abilities and skills for effective performance, line managers find it difficult to cope fully with their job.
* As only one person controls all the activities of the department, favoritism and nepotism would likely to grow.
* The communication system is one way flowing from top to bottom.
* The operation of the organization will be totally disrupted in the absence of superiors replacing management members.

1. **Line and staff organization**

Line and staff authority allows staff units to provide specialized expertise, advice, support or service to line managers in the effective performance of their functions. They have no general command authority over line but within their own units staff specialists are related with one another in scalar chain. The staff units contribute indirectly to accomplishing an organization’s goal. Each staff is a specialist in his/her area and operates with considerable independence. In most enterprise staff is used to get help in handling details, offering counseling on specific managerial problems, and locating data for decisions. They are customarily indicated on organization charts by a broken line. This shows that they fall outside an organization’s direct chain of command.

**Advantages**

* Line managers receive specialized advice and service from staff specialists.
* Line managers can concentrate more on their own specialty. It reduces their burden and limits their functions.
* It reduces relaying on one manager or discourages the disadvantages of one-man control system.
* It separates staff (manual) and line (mental) function that facilitate mass production. It increases the speed and quality of line manager’s work.
* Decisions can be easily implemented and controlled.
* The services of the staff can train line officers.

**Disadvantages**

* It makes the organizational relationships more complex and complicate coordination, communication and control problems. Since staff specialists operate with considerable independence, it is difficult to control them and enforce their direction to the end.
* It violated the unity of command principle. As workers are working under different bosses, it is difficult to maintain discipline and order among them. It often creates conflict. The line managers often regard staff advice as interference.
* It is difficult to trace responsibility and causes of poor performance.
* It is difficult to find specialized skill in all fields.
* Line managers may depend too much on staff experts. Due to this, line managers lose judgment and initiative.
* If the staff recommendations are not well taken, staff specialists may be dissatisfied and be inactive in the future.
* Since the staff has no responsibility for their advice, they will not take care of their advice.

1. **Functional and matrix structure**
2. **Functional structure**

Functional authority exists when staff units exercise command authority over specific matters of line functions. Example, if a quality control manager prescribes quality specifications, it binds the production manager and the quality control manager exercises functional authority over the latter. Similarly, the personal manager may lay down specifications or systems that line managers are obliged to follow when hiring and promoting workers. Functional managers generally lay down policies, methods, and procedures to be followed by line mangers and exercise functional control to ensure whether all these are followed or not.

**Advantages**

* It makes possible the adoption and implementation of uniform policies, systems, and procedures throughout the organization.
* It facilitates more effective coordination and control in various parts of the organization.

**Disadvantages**

* It creates dual accountability and weakens the unity of command. The departmental heads feel loss of control and resent the exercise of functional authority over their subordinates by staff specialists.
* It causes conflict among line and staff managers.

1. **Matrix organization**

This type of authority relationship is introduced in response to the growing complexity and size of technically oriented enterprises, which needed more flexibility. It is the result of the need for specialized decision making and to achieve more balanced form of organization structure.

It organizes activities by combining functional and task force or product departmentalization to form a rigid or matrix. As a result, many employees belong to two groups simultaneously, a functional group and a product or project group. They report to two or more superiors ( a permanent boss in a functional or technical department and one or more temporary bosses called project managers or administrators) who direct various projects.

**Advantages**

* Efficiently use resources by eliminating duplication of overloaded costs and through better planning and control. It brings economies of scale.
* Project integration. It helps to synchronize the multiple components for a single activity.
* It permits maximum use of functional specialists.
* Improves the flow of information throughout the organization because there are vertical and horizontal lines of communication (more channels of information).
* Makes specialized functional assistance equally available to all projects.
* Makes possible to respond to several market segments simultaneously.
* Easily adapts to fluctuating workloads (more flexible).
* Provides a home basis for functional specialists while working in projects.
* Establishes one-person as a focal point for all matters pertaining to an individual project.
* Provides excellent training for running a diversified organization.

**Disadvantages**

* Creates power struggles between project managers and functional heads.
* Increase competition over scarce resources. This leads to interpersonal conflict.
* Consultation and shared decision-making retards timely decision-making (slow reaction).
* People are drawn temporarily from different departments. This creates difficulty in monitoring, controlling and coordination.
* Excessive overhead cost because more management positions are created.
* Dual reporting relations contribute to ambiguity and role conflict.
* The success of functional managers is evaluated on their functional performance. This often leads them to emphasize on the performance of the department, not to the success of the organization.