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MBA - 51
SOCIAL PROCESSES AND BEHAVIOURAL ISSUES

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BLOCK 1 SOCIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURES

India as the tenth largest industrialised country in the world has a growing organised sector. The dynamics of this growth involves political and economic forces on the one hand and social and cultural processes on the other. The impact of history is significant to all these processes and dynamics. The impact of this context on organisation is explored in this block. While the political and economic processes have been touched upon in other courses, the focus here related to sociology and psychology, is on the historical perspective, society in transition and issues of values and ethics.

While rapid change is sought by our society the forces of history, culture and path of technological change often pull in contrary directions in the managerial role in organisation. Ignoring these contrary forces usually makes them more intense. What healthy responses can we make especially in organisation design and management? Block 1 explores this question largely on the basis of living experience of managing organisations in the present scenario.

UNIT 1 INDIAN ENVIRONMENT : PERSPECTIVE ON CULTURAL PROCESSES AND SOCIAL STRUCTURES

Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to understand

- the historical perspective of Indian environment and its effect on organisational and managerial roles
- social issues of Indian environment as they relate to organisations.

Structure

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Indian social environment is seen in various terms depending on the position of the viewer. The diverse views that exist however seem to create a debate on whether the social processes of the country are "good or bad". There exists a long tradition of seeing it from the eyes inherited from the British Colonial perspective in which Indian social processes are seen as passive, non-vibrant, indigent and lazy. There are other points of view which seem to find redeeming features in Indian social processes that are seen as potentially strong and capable of being energetic and productive.

1.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Objectively India has been, for ever, a region wherein diversity of beliefs, faiths and ideologies have poured in from all over the world. Thus today India is one of the largest combinations of faiths, languages and customs. No other nation in the world has so many current languages and customs as India has. No other country boasts of a larger number of faiths and ideologies without coercive forces demanding uniformity.

To this objective fact there exists a diversity of responses. The lines of responses of all alien perspectives find this multiplicity and diversity an unmanageable and bewildering liability. In the nineteen forties the West had predicted a disintegration of India into smaller countries within 20 years of finding Independence from colonial rule. In this line of thinking the fact of India remaining one nation is a matter of mystery. The second line of response to the objective fact of multiplicity of our society is to search for an underlying unity. The underlying unity lies in India being a culture state as opposed to the concept of nation state which has defined national boundaries (for instance) in Europe.

In a nation state political ideology and processes of power distribution remains reasonably uniform giving rise to a national identity. Historically however India has been a culture state in which although many different political entities have flourished in the form of countries with a monarchy, the dominant elements of their culture have been uniform. This basic framework was demonstrated also in medieval Indian imperialism in which Indian culture was a potent fountainhead and helped design societies in the far reaches of South East Asia. These countries were all politically independent but had institutionalised processes which had their origin in India. Thus, there was no central seat of power in India that determined governance of say Kampuchea but the Kampuchean people revelled in the Ramayana, Mahabharata and Budha's teachings. For their social organisation they held in value, ethics and living processes based on Indian philosophies.

Following its own course of development, civilisation in India took a path in which militancy and military capabilities were neglected and allowed to wither away on a large scale. Intellectual and spiritual pursuits flourished however and are being continuously rediscovered by researchers.

Indian society was deeply devoted to the generation of philosophical insights and treatises were written on them in great detail with a bewildering span of topics. In all this a core belief was that man is an expression of nature therefore aggression and violence were devalued, even in their universally accepted form of military prowess. This rendered the country vulnerable to foreign aggression. Earlier foreign aggressions were marked by a subsequent process of absorption and integration. The hallmark of the process of this absorption and integration were institutions which encouraged dialogue and recalibration of social, political, intellectual and religious norms for people to employ and follow.

Box 1

The social design of the classical period in India postulated the institution of Rajasuya/ Dharma Yagna. The institution could be activated through a call issued by a King to intellectuals of different persuasion of a region or the country to assemble for dialogues. A time and locale were set. The assembled intellectuals would be invited by the King to take stock of the social phenomenology, dysfunctionalities, deviances and deviations which had cropped up, dislocating the structural and interpersonal codings conventionally held as legitimate. In the allocated time the dialogue would crystallise recommendations which would legitimise some of the deviances and deviations. The assembly of intellectuals would also recommend structural modifications to create new space and identity for ethnic groups who had entered the area or had come into existence due to cross-marriages across the groups. The institution of Rajasuya/ Dharma Yagna was a potent instrument in maintaining the process ambience of the society. Its constructive function was to recalibrate the correspondence, congruence, convergence and coherence of the human psyche of the era with the social design. The institution kept alive the resilience of the social design to cultural identity with a diverse ethos. The dialogue organised and integrated the experiential elements into new configurations of structural and interpersonal codes. It helped the individual to sustain his relatedness with the society instead of becoming an outsider.

(From key note Address of Pulin K. Garg, International Conference 1986 "TRANSIENCE AND TRANSITIONS IN ORGANISATIONS", Indian Society for Individual and Social Development)

This hallmark institution provided Indian society the strength to review and recalibrate new inputs thus never creating the forces of majority versus minority, preventing the rise of fundamentalism and leaving society to continuously balance psychological needs and social organisation. But following the expansion of Islam the attacking forces chose to convert the populace rather than integrate with the existing culture. The newly entered crusaders for Islam became a ruling minority, they were then followed by the British, who too chose not to integrate but remain the ruling minority until 1947. The Muslim and the British brought with them a fresh look at the social organisation then prevailing in India. They brought an outlook more vigorous and egalitarian than which existed earlier. This provided a significant impetus to question some of the pathologies of the society such as untouchability, caste and rigid brahminical dogmas where institutional values had long ago disappeared. Until these new learnings from the Islamic and Christian beliefs could get integrated even freedom from foreign rule was difficult. Vivekanand, Dayanand, Ramakrishna and finally Gandhi became the beacons who showed how this new learning could be integrated.

As a society thus India has withstood for nearly a full century coercive state pressures to convert into religious which have had their beginnings in other cultures and climates. Near about 10th century the need to protect indigenous culture from state pressure to convert, turned the vibrancy of the earlier society dormant and created a society which reflected all signs of turning moribund, as if the social elan energy and vibrancy had been put in a kind of cold storage and all processes and institutions of re-vitalisation renewal and change having been put under house-arrest. Later, Akbar attempted a degree of integration by reactivating dialogue and religious electicism but with no success with his **Deen-e-Illahi** movement. The Sufis also tried integration through dialogic processes. Akbar's attempt failed completely and Aurangzeb put the Sufis behind bars. The decay and disintegration of Mughal power was an opportunity which was seized quickly and efficiently by the British to assert their supremacy and governance. British governance drew its principles largely from the church and military ethics. These appeared to some degree non-partisan and "fair". The British however, retained the firm belief that they were "civilizing" an "uncivilized" country. To this end Indian history was re-written by the colonisers to convey this point to the Indians who were learning English and to the rest of the world.

Box 2

"Time has come when an attempt should be made to write the history of India purely from the historical standpoint, untramelled by any Imperialistic or European point of view," wrote Prof. R.C. Mazumdar in 1927. He goes on further, referring to the then most popular historical work which was used as a textbook in the following words. While V. Smith seems to take great pleasure in thus describing at length the Greek conquest of India which demonstrates, to his satisfaction, "the inherent weakness of the greatest Asiatic armies when confronted with European skill and discipline," he has not a word to say about the political or military greatness of India as exemplified by her colonial empires in Asia. Again, in describing the political condition of India after the reign of Harsha, he seeks to "give the reader a notion of what India always has been when released from the control of a supreme authority, and what she would be again, if the hands of the benevolent despotism which now holds her in its iron grasp should be withdrawn." These sentiments, which are echoed in other books, are not only uncalled for and misleading, but are calculated to distort the vision and judgement of modern readers. Those who cannot forget, even while writing the history of ancient India, that they belong to the imperial race which holds India in political subjection, can hardly be expected to possess that sympathy and perspective of ancient Indian history and civilization. European scholars have rendered most valuable service by way of collecting material for ancient Indian history and civilization, and Indians must ever remain grateful to them for their splendid pioneer work. But they would hardly be in a position to write the history of India, so long as they do not cast aside the assumptions of racial superiority and cease to regard Indians as an inferior race.

(From R.C. Majumdar in Preface to "ANCIENT INDIA")

1.3 THE DUAL HISTORY OF INDIA

India began its new history as a political entity a nation state for the first time in 1947 with two streams of history which appear somewhat contradictory. A history of glorious accomplishments and repeated failure to assert. A history of a vibrant society, one of the oldest in the world, unique in its understanding of man and nature, spiritually highly developed.

Box 3

Just as in the period of the deflation of the revealed gods of the Vedic pantheon, so today revealed Christianity has been devalued. The Christian, as Nietzsche says, is a man who behaves like everybody else. Our professions of faith have no longer any discernible bearing either on our public conduct or on our private state of hope. The sacraments do not work on many of us their spiritual transformations we are bereft and

> at a loss where to turn. Meanwhile, our academic secular philosophies are concerned rather with information than with that redemptive transformation which our souls require. And this is the reason why a glance at the face of India may assist us to discover and recover something of ourselves.
>
> (From Heinrich Zimmer, "PHILOSOPHIES OF INDIA")

On the other hand a modern history in which internal forces and the very people *themselves* seemed to have turned against their own country and repeatedly done damage to it, in short a history to be ashamed of. The shame of this history is further reinforced by looking at Indian society purely with Western criteria of technological achievements and economic prosperity. Objectively in the world order of today only those nations which were militarily active and aggressive in the last three centuries are the ones which are also now technologically advanced and economically powerful. Objectively also it is true that the technologically advanced nations consume per capita many times over the resources that the individuals of 'less developed' countries consume (including food and energy).

The duality of India's history is important from a managerial perspective in that, the thinking and rational processes are guided by Western beliefs while emotional processes of affiliation and risk management are guided by the Indian experience. The shame, induced by Imperialist doctrines of the west and partly by Indians having let themselves down, time and again, has created a large-scale "losing team" syndrome in our contemporary society. Thus, all rational thought processes are guided by Western beliefs but the feelings associated while engaging in converting plans to action — an Indian in their structure and values. It is impossible thus to expect Indian managers to being in spectacular results in comparison with Germany or Japan. Indians however when convinced and determined can bring in excellent results which are brilliant in their own rights. The green revolution is only such example. Perhaps such revolution can spread to a managerial revolution or work revolution in organisations.

As is well known "nothing succeeds like success"; a society which has lost its pride invariably finds it difficult to even recognise its own success.

1.4 SOCIAL ISSUES

The new history, beginning from 1947 was started with the euphoria of regaining freedom, this released a great deal of energy and fervour towards nation building. In order to accelerate the processes of nation building, the country chose to industrialise itself as rapidly as possible and Western models were emulated on a large scale. This resulted in almost everything Indian being seen as intrinsically inferior. The collective impact of this was a loss of élan as a result of which before taking any new step India looked abroad for precedents. Thus the reality of local experience was rapidly hidden under a false mask of Western intellectual rationality. For instance, all education began to focus itself on only techno-economic information rather than helping the youth develop appropriate perspectives and create a new culture of belonging, achievements and commitment.

All social institutions which reinforce and strengthen the sense of belonging of Indians both to India and to their respective communities and organisation began to get devalued resulting in a large scale erosion of norms to follow and values to live by. Spontaneous solutions to realistic problems facing people in the lifestyle and their work place were no longer easily available.

All this in managerial and organisational terms generated a search for security such that employment generally came to mean a source of social status and economic security. A syndrome of survival emerged on a large scale. In this syndrome creativity or productivity took a secondary place but ensuring continuance of security became the primary concern in the individual's relationship with the organisation. Mechanisms for management of differences both in society and subsequently within organisations nearly broke down. Thus the decade starting mid sixties began to see large scale emergence of both industrial unrest and communal tensions.

More urbanised and more industrialised parts of the country began to offer greater opportunities for economic success and at the same time began to show greater amount of stresses, valuelessness and breakdown of fundamental social institutions such as the family.

The attempt to create rapid industrialisation has generated rapid urbanisation in India. A large part of our industrial workforce (including white collar) are often only second generation urban and industrial members. The values of agrarian society still characterise much of the work processes within organisations.

The Indian economy has been largely based on agriculture. As such large part of its design of living and social structure have been centered around the imperatives of the technology of agriculture. From a management perspective it is important to note that in an agrarian life-style people know how to live together and work independently, often in isolation, while the industrial world today demands the ability to work together and live in small families. In an agrarian society there are no significant or major group tasks that are undertaken, group tasks are undertaken in crises or for community activities such as festivals. Economic activity of the individual is rarely interdependent with others except in the market place. Also in an agrarian society formal organisations for achieving specialised output is an unknown phenomenon.

As such it is easier to find individual brilliance in performance while synergistic efforts and team work are difficult to generate.

Structures in the minds of people are drawn almost entirely from the family. As such all authority relations are given a totality which is often illegitimate and uncalled for. That authority in a task system comes from the task role the individual holds is normally not seen, but he is attributed authority on a total scale by the subordinates. Mahatma Gandhi is the most illustrious example, who showed how the exercise of authority need to be placed within legitimate limits from time to time.

Organisations, most of which are designed on the concept of contractual links, thus find themselves getting pulled in the direction of becoming affiliative systems. Employees at all levels end up remaining concerned for their own security.

Box 4

Profit and Loss of Insecurity : Creating Institutions in Organisations

Let us look at an example, Laxman Nylon Co. was a young successful organisation. Set up by a young dynamic businessman the company had its initial difficulties in establishing the market. Being one of the early manufacturers in the field, however, they managed to consolidate and within 10 years was a major success story.

The entire organisation was staffed by people in their 20s and 30s. The top management team were in the early and mid-30s. The members of the top management found themselves repeatedly engaging in fruitless battles and arguments leading to a serious soul searching internally. In the meantime the organisation began to face threats in the market with the entry of two major national level business houses in the market. The internal soul searching indicated that large part of the senior and top management attributed the success of the Company to good luck rather than to their own efforts. The internal soul searching further revealed that at all levels there was a doubt that a statement of truths about the organisation's internal functioning may lead to losing the job. Further exploration revealed that as a result of this doubt there were huge amounts of waste both of material and of human effort. This waste, if controlled, would lead to an increase of nearly 50% in the gross profit before tax. On consultation with behavioural scientists the organisation decided to examine these issues openly in non-task settings. These meetings clearly brought to the surface the un-examined doubt about the loss of jobs. It also became apparent that in addition to feeling together through the task it was necessary for members of the organisation to feel together as human beings who are members of the organisation. Of their own executives at all levels, including the Chief Executive decided to hold regular meetings in which people could share and discuss their experiences about the organisation on an on-going basis. Within two years Laxman Nylon Co. had then set up four more highly successful organisation and had consolidated and increased its profitability to levels nearly twice that earlier.

Organisations thus soon begin to aquire a network of social and inter-personal linkages which seem to dilute the task relationships.

In the Western ethos most relationships have a significant contractual element. In India however relationships are heavily tilted towards an affiliative nature. The Western designs do not take this into account, thus organisations usually do not give scope to its people to fulfil their social and affiliative needs. These needs then get displaced to task level transactions making the processes of task management and exercise of authority difficult.

Organisations thus have the responsibility of helping their own members develop reasonably uniform codes and attitudes towards work, as well as design and manage suitable social activities in the nature of ceremonies and events. Failure to do this tends to heighten doubts, fears, anxieties and isolation which then create defensive behaviour.

1.5 SUMMARY

The history of the country, as it has been held, often in distorted form has contributed to Indians often doubting their own capabilities. Thus efforts at organising coordinated work output is often clouded with predicting defeat and failure. A losing team syndrome had set in which made seeking success difficult. An associated syndrome of "survival" often makes it difficult for organisations to review their own processes and bring in improvements. Thus every manager individually and organisations as system of people carry the responsibility of finding solutions to their barriers along with doing their chosen or given tasks.

1.6 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1 Discuss the reason why 'Indian Culture' was a potent 'fountainhead' for both its diverse states as well as for other independent countries.

2 How has India, as a whole, managed to withstand the numerous cultural pressures, emerging from each of its independent states?

3 How and why did India succumb to the political overtures made by the British which eventually led to the Raj?

4 Discuss the controversy which occurred due to the contradiction among the two streams of Indian history after 1947.

5 What were the social effects of nation building and its processes after freedom was gained in 1947?

6 In what way do you see Indian history influencing your own organisation.

7 When you next watch a match (say hockey or cricket) in which India is playing keep track of the prediction you make before the match and compare it with the result. Discuss them in a group and try to relate this with the historical perspective of our society.

8 Search and list, then discuss, five achievements after Independence that make you feel proud to be an Indian. Similarly, take five aspects that you feel most difficult to accept in your immediate social environment. Explore possible action you can take.

9 Discuss the "Losing team" and "Survival syndrome" in groups.

1.7 FURTHER READINGS

Discovery of India. Jawaharlal Nehru.

Masks of God (Vol I-IV) : Joseph Campbell.

An Advanced History of India : R.C. Majumdar, H.C. Raychudhuri, Kalikinka Datta, MacMillan: New York, 1967.

Pygmalion in Management : Sterling Livingston, Harvard Business Review, July-August 1969.

UNIT 2 SOCIETY IN TRANSITION

Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to understand Society in Transition with reference to

- social Institutions : the family, the community and education
- relate to stresses of transition with organisation processes
- explore new organisation designs and action to manage the forces of transition.

Structure

2.1 BRIEF GLOBAL OVERVIEW

The last 150 years have been marked the world over for rapidity of change ushered in by the advent of technology and industrial revolution in the West. This period has also been marked for its attempt to generate unquestioning faith in human reason and intellect.

The period prior to the industrial revolution was marked by a search for command over resources for consumption and survival. This search was accompanied by a search for social order. Social order was governed to a large extent by beliefs, ideologies and dogmas arising from religion. Religion served the critical function of providing some explanations, through mythology and legend, of the origin of man and the natural phenomena which man saw around him. As such this long period was characterised by an anxiety of survival, holy wars and the need to acquire land, and control over people. The emergence of many new explanation of the natural phenomena (floods, planetary motion, climate etc.) however created a dazzling attraction for reason and intellect. Religion and faith was replaced by reason and intellect. However social processes and psychological processes seemed to always keep one large area which defined explanation in the same way. Thus, while some areas of human behaviour became more easily explanable, this led to discovering yet more areas which on such extraordinary powers within grasp began to find its limitation in understanding human phenomenon for it still failed to answer some of the root questions that had haunted man ever before.

The last century has seen reason and intellect becoming the corner stones of society. In the last two decades however, the limitations of this belief are beginning to become clearly visible. For example, the myth of unlimited progress which has driven a large part of the Western world and which has also been emulated by the rest of the world, has now become a matter of debate. The myth of unlimited progress drove man into treating the world as limitless resource, damaging the environment and the ecology of the planet. It is becoming increasingly evident that this could, if continued over a period of time, threaten the very existence of mankind on earth, not only by warfare but the degradation of the ecology such as reduction in green matter and changes in climate.

This age of reason has also generated a loss of faith and trust in the collectivities of mankind. Material progress has been persistently accompanied by loss of sense of relatedness of man with his environment.

An individual today is impinged upon with far more information that he can cope with, physical distances are no longer such a barrier as they were and affiliative patterns of relationships have been increasingly replaced with the possibility of people increase their range of choices of occupation, place of residence and beliefs to relate with. All this has created a state where very little of the history and past culture appear to provide solutions to the problems of day to day living. In the process the world view that people hold appears to display contradictions. This creates anxiety, scepticism and seems to justify the process of "each for himself"

These rapid changes on the hand accelerated improvements in standards of living, at the same time they creates a loss of sense of relatedness in communities, uncertainties in relationships and inter-personal behaviours, scepticism about values, and loss of sense of finding freedom through formal education.

2.2 THE INDIAN SCENE

The greatest impact of the transition from the agrarian to the industrial demands is the discovery that much of the social and psychological needs which agrarian society filled through its community processes and festivals and ceremonies are no longer available to a large part of the work force in the organised sector (see Box 5).

Box 5

Two Examples of Transition to Industrialism

a) The Western experience : The process of industrial development in the west was accompanied by changes in all aspects of the social structure and culture indicated by the term "industrialism". The technological as well as the social-cultural changes were indigenous and generally complimentary. The new process of production almost inevitably brought about a change in the organisational structure and culture. The goal of maximisation of profit through efficiency was to stay. Entrepreneurs, managers, workers and their union, the government, and the society in general accepted this goal. In pursuit of this goal, all efforts were directed to improve the efficiency: rationalisation of processes and relationships, merit based on achievement, equality of opportunity, dignity of labour, discipline and hard work are some of the important values of the work-culture which developed in the pursuit of efficiency.

Until recently western model of industrialisation was the only one before the developing nations of the world. It was piously behaved that industrial development will proceed on the same path technologically, economically, structurally (political, legal, educational institutions), and culturally, no matter what the traditional pattern of the society be. (Sheth: 1974, p.166)

b) The Japanese experience: Japan borrowed from the western experience, technical and scientific knowledge and adopted the scientific spirit more than technology. Indigenous innovation was encouraged. (McMillan: 1984, pp.103, 105; Norbeck: 1967, p. 9) To the nationalist Japanese leadership, the agents of economic development had to be Japanese corporations and not foreign multi-nationals. The goal of maximisation of profit through efficiency was adopted by the Japanese. However, the Japanese organisational culture, unlike the Western, is characterised by life-time Japanese organisational culture, unlike the Western, is characterised by life-time employment, indoctrination with company philosophy, continuous broad based employee training, worker participation in the development of the company, loyal, hardworking dependable labour, with a sense of belongingness. Innovativeness and merit were encouraged. To quote McMillan (1984, p. 3) " The pattern of social values and institutions give rise to consensus and group collectivism. In the perspective the Japanese are unique and while various management practices may work well in Osaka and Tokyo, they are not likely to be very successful in Cleveland, Leeds, or Milan ."

Japanese work culture indicates some similarity with the work culture of the west in acceptance of the industrial goals and management principles. There are similarities in the emphasis on indigenisation of industry, innovativeness and discipline and hard work. However, there are differences in their practices according to different social structure. Japan had certain inherent strength in existing value structure, which was in keeping with the work values necessary for rapid and long-term industrialisation and economic development. Kahn (1980, p.121) mentions that societies based on Confucian Ethic may in many ways be superior to west in the pursuit of industrialisation, affluence and modernisation. "A properly trained member of a Confucian culture will be hard working, responsible, skillful, and (within the assigned or understood limits) ambitious and creative in helping the group." There is much less emphasis on advancing individual (selfish) interests.

(From Work Values and Industrial Development—R. Punekar, V.B. Indian Journal of Industrial Relations Vol. 24, No. 3, January 1989).

Thus the individual working in the organised sector often finds his psychological world, his work world and his social world poorly matched with one another. The only sustaining factor is the combination of new aspirations, new opportunities and goals that the transition to industrialisation offer. It permits a significant improvement of standards of living but raises very serious stress in quality of life. Stress in quality of life dimension are often then displaced into the world of work. The objective fact is that the world of work in the organised sector today demands over 2/3rds of the individual's working time and perhaps more of his psychological energy. As such the relationship with the work organisation tends to get loaded with a complex multiplicity of expectations many of which are difficult to fulfil with existing assumptions and design of organisations (see Box 6).

Box 6

"Who is Leaving?"

A large organisation employing about 500 managerial personnel and over five times that number of workers had its corporate headquarters in Bombay. A leader in the chemical industry, the organisation has a significant national network to support its sales. Highly professionalised, the company is one of the best pay-masters in the corporate sector. Wholly Indian owned the company's top management firmly believes in looking after its employees well by giving an excellent package of remuneration and perks at all levels in the organisation. Believing in professional management the organisation had in its ranks a large number of professionally qualified individuals with degrees in engineering and management from the best academic institutions in the country. Soon after this kind of professionalisation became well established in the company some of the best young professionals began to leave. Within a few years time this attrition began to assume serious proportions. Concerned about stemming this the Chairman and Managing Director alongwith his top team and the personnel chief upgraded the compensation package at all levels. The attrition however continued. Through various informal discussions and meetings, reasons were sought and despite best efforts the number of professionals leaving the organisation or wanting to leave continued to be high. After three years of internal attempts which had only marginally reduced the turnover, a professor of organisational behaviour was invited as a consultant to try and diagnose the problem in 1982. As he searched for reasons he found many but none of them sufficiently concrete to warrant such a large outflow of otherwise satisfied and trained successful executives. Towards the end of his diagnostic exercise the professor was not fully satisfied with the reasons that had emerged. Shortly before he returned back to his institute one of the executives invited the professor alongwith some of the other ex-students to a dinner. This gave rise to a possible new area of exploration in which random samples of executive's wives were interviewed. It is at this stage that the reasons began to appear about the sufficient cause for the turnover. High level of engagement and involvement with the job left the families feeling neglected. While there was enough financial support from the organisation, there was no support for the wives to run the homes and look after the children especially since many of them came from parental homes not in Bombay. The Professor's diagnosis came down to one simple statement to the CMD, "It's not your manager who are leaving, it's their wives who do not have sufficient support to sustain a healthy lifestyle. The organisation will have to find ways of providing support in such mundane matters as booking for cooking gas, security of wives when executives travel out and the confidence that in the event of illness there would be someone who would help out."

(Source : From Discussions of consulting experience of Prof. Pulin Garg.)

The process of transition places a demand upon people in the organised sector to give up their social moorings and relocate themselves in ever new grounds through changes in organisations, changes in roles and changes in place of work.

2.3 CHANGES IN SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Man's relationship with himself is heavily influenced by his relationships with the core social institutions within which he lives. Then social institutions help generate in each individual, values, ethics, the capacity for action willing application of effort and the meanings he gives to his experiences. The core institutions are the family, the community of belonging and education. These influences are carried into the work place and on the chief resources for organisations to be productive. They also bring in accompanying doubts, fears and anxieties. The following paras give some pointers to the transition taking place in these institutions today. They are designed as a starting point for you to explore and discover the various ways in which transition surround you and your work place. A more exhaustive discussion can be found in the further readings recommended at end of the unit.

2.3.1 Changes in Family

In agrarian society, the technology of living involved a complex and large network of roles. This network provided a great deal of stability, permanence and continuity. The industrial society on the other hand demands the setting up of much smaller families living in a community in which blood ties do not determine the strength of relatedness. Thus, the nature of home and family as it is evolving amongst members of the organised sector and urban sectors, is a relatively new and unknown phenomenon such that basic role definitions of husband, wife, mother, father, son and daughter are in question. The bread-winner spends more time outside the home than within the home and often finds that his values and norms are being heavily questioned and often influenced by the organisation he works in. These are often in contradiction with those which the family fostered.

As such increasingly in urban industrial settings the family is being experienced sometimes as a liability than as a source of security and replenishment as in the past. The fall back security that a large family or a community would provide are slowly evaporating (see Box 5). Organisations perhaps therefore would need to increase their sensitivity to these issues of employees (managerial as well as blue collar), to provide the support that a viable living community is needed for.

2.3.2 Changes in Community

In agrarian society, the framework of community provide security, strength, belonging and a significant element of the identity of the individual. Part of this is reflected even today. In India soon after knowing a person's name, he is asked where do you come from in order to assess what community profile does the individual represent. The individual, however, more and more is finding that his relationship with the community of belonging is becoming either barren or non-existent. He is finding that his heritage is of little use and supports in finding directions for himself. The community is experienced as a group of islands vaguely linked by sentimental ties but having no real value when the individual sees the community from the world of his aspirations and hopes.

The impact of this on organisations and work settings is that the individual wishes to find belonging with the organisation but at the same time doubts the possibility of its emergence. In holding this ambivalence individuals inadvertently erode the possibilities of a new kind of secure belonging from emerging. In the context of developmental work this often becomes a major source of tension and anguish in organisation (see Box 7). From the point of view of

Personnel and I R functions, this is a critical issue. It has been seen that organisations which fail to foster a sense of belonging end up being confronted by hostile behaviour from Unions (large nationalised banks is one example). This is so since the union in organisation becomes the community of belonging of the workers. Low sense of belonging to the organisation at managerial levels ends up influencing decision making very significantly.

Box 7

> A large public sector organisation established in the late 50s began production near about 1967. Its engineers were sent abroad to the collaborator's establishment for appropriate training. This included a significant proportion of design engineers who were to subsequently indigenise and design appropriate machinery in India on their own. This public sector organisation had been set up at the initiative of a charismatic figure who through regular contacts with his young, enthusiastic executives fostered their own initiatives. The level of enthusiasm, commitment and belonging to the organisation is very high coupled with the strong drive to contribute to the national economy. After five years of working with foreign designers new challenges began to face the organisation. The design team enthusiastically took up these challenges and informally began preliminary preparations to respond to this. In the meantime the charismatic chief executive and a significant part of the top team left the organisation. Within a year the sense of belonging at the top level began to flag although the executives retained their enthusiasm. In another year's time the organisation was given a collaborator and the top management had decided to stop the internal design efforts. The new collaborators brought in designs which were in no way superior to the designs that were being evolved by the Indians. The Indian design team however was instructed to shelve its own design and work only with the imported designs. After two years of operation in this manner today this organisation when diagnosed showed a very high sense of stress including physical illness, widespread practice of corruption and very poor level of self esteem at the managerial levels. The workforce also reports no respect for the management. The organisation in some ways is currently under the threat of having no work to do in another 10 years time.

The issue of creating and fostering a sense of belonging is at critical importance to Indian organisations. It is a delicate part of the climate of any organisation and can easily get eroded. The field of action research in Institution Building in India reports some progress in developing ways and means of tackling the loss of sense of belonging. Management practice however often tends to overlook this aspect, largely since in a traditional society this rarely was a problem. A factor compounding this neglect is the fact that western management sciences also ignored this dimension.

In the face of the individuals loss of sense of belonging to a community he turns either towards fundamentalist dogmas or he opts for consumerism wherein acquisition and consumption becomes the main aspirations.

2.3.3 Changes in Education

The third social institution which is experiencing the turbulence emerging from transition is the education process. Formal education in India in its present form was established by the colonial rulers in order to train manpower for their own use. Very few changes have been possible in the basic process of education since the early days of its establishment in the country. It is only in the last decade where it is being increasingly recognised that new dimensions need to be added to the process of education.

Uptill now education has focused almost entirely and exclusively on equipping individuals with the tools and techniques which they can carry to the work place. Thus techno-informative knowledge has been the central focus of the process of education. In the main the institution of education has not provided an integration between experience and knowledge, perspectives and skills and the ability to respond with human creativity. The education process thus is usually experienced as being sterile and often de-humanising and almost invariably un-inspiring. The student thus goes through his education feeling sceptical towards the environment, towards formal systems and finds it difficult to place his trust on colleagues. In the face of this organisations increasingly are taking to developing continuity education processes in the shape of management development and worker education.

2.4 SUMMARY

The unit deals with transition from an agrarian to an industrialised society in the Indian scenario. The transition is most clearly visible in these social institutions—the family, the community and education. These changes necessitate new approaches to organisation designs. Organisation also need to expand their scope of managerial processes to include concern for family support and build in mechanisms for facilitating expression of social needs of their members at all levels. That can be done through providing avenues for relevant education while on the job. Organisations also gain substantially in commitment and energy by reinforcing the sense of belonging and by periodically reviewing its own work/managerial processes.

2.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1 What was the difference in explanations for human behaviour and other natural phenomena before and after the industrial revolutions? State the reason for the change of such explanations.

2 What were the effects of the industrial revolution on society as a whole?

3 Elaborate on the transition that is taking place in Indian society from an agrarian to an industrial environment.

4 What is the impact of the industrial organisation on the average Indian workers and manager and his family environment?

5 How does psychological stress generated by a change in the community affect the work environment?

6 Compare your experience of your immediate family with the experience of members two generations older. Draw up a list of different values and similar values. What are the differences? Discuss in a group without any value judgements.

7 Similarly compare values you perceive in work organisations and value you perceive in families.

2.6 FURTHER READINGS

Proceedings of "International Conference on Transition & Traniam" I & II, Indian Society for Individual and Social Development: Ahmedabad 1989.

Emergence of Work Identity in Indian Managers, Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation: I.J. Parikh, Gujarat University, 1979.

Profiles in Identity—Indian Youth at the Crossroads of Culture; Pulin K. Garg and I.J. Parikh, Academic Book Centre, Ahmedabad 1981.

The IIT Influence Environment, Ganesh S.R. and Banerjee Sushanta, Public Systems Groups Monograph No. 48, Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad 1983.

UNIT 3 ORGANISATIONAL AND MANAGERIAL VALUES AND WORK ETHICS

Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to understand :

- The concept of values, the distinction between values, needs and ethics
- The process of values
- Values in the organisation context
- Management of Values

Structure

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The issue of values grips all people in contemporary society especially the managerial world. There are frequent and widespread lamentations that values are evaporating with time. The only aspect of the issue of values, in behaviour and society, that does not cause debate is that the issue is undoubtedly a trigger for all kinds of debates. One of the sources of this anxiety and lament tinged response to the issue of values is that it is one of the least examined and studied dimensions in the social sciences.

Commenting on the nature of science and its impact on society, British philosopher Bertrand Russell (science and society) had said that despite its great strides the physical sciences has not yet been able to free itself from the "ghostly quantity" called force. In a similar vein the entity values has been an integral part of much of the world's advancement in philosophy and the social sciences but it is must often taken for granted. Its study has been largely restricted to its presence, absence and consequences.

The social science has defined value largely in terms of its use in making choices. The encyclopaedia of Social Sciences defines it at great length, thus reflecting the difficulty in achieving precision. In common parlance it is indicative of worth, ethics, honour, and finally, right and wrong actions and choices. It is also associated with norms, world views, culture and tradition. A comprehensive treatment of the subject of values would have to begin with philosophy and cross over into sociology, anthropology and psychology, because in living reality values are closely linked with all these. In the behavioural sciences, however, the issue of values has been dealt with as a measure of adjustment and contributory orientation.

In the developmental aspects of Human Resource Management, values form a central concern. The significance of values in the organisation setting stems from the fact that values give rise to codes of behaviour that in their turn assist in the sustenance of dignity and the invitation to application of effort. The present Indian context of transition as well as the historicallly induced "losing team" syndrome gives a special, almost urgent, significance to the issues of values and their management in organisation.

In this unit we shall take a brief view of the concepts and theories in the field, explore some of the contemporary issue related to values and finally look at some available pointers to values that seem appropriate and useful in today's settings. The unit closes with a discussion of industrial/organisation experience in attempts to enhance the level of values in behaviour.

3.2 CONCEPTS

In ordinary speech the term value is used in two senses that must be kept separate here. In one meaning we refer to the specific evaluation or worth of any object, as in "industrialised countries place a high value on formal education". Here we are told how an object is rated or otherwise appraised, but not what standards are used to make the judgements. The second meaning refers to the criteria or standards in terms of which evaluations are made, as in "education is good because it increases economic efficiency".

Values are internally held and form a cornerstone for value as a social product. By Rokeach's (1970, p. 160) definition "a person is said to have a value if he has an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end states of existence."

3.3 VAI UE PROCESSES

Values are an integral part of behaviour and existence. They guide the nature of choices an individual makes. In making choices each individual expresses a preference and thus a value, usually implicitly sometimes explicitly. The dynamics of operation of the value processes within an individual has been studied by the Behavioural Scientist, Pulin K. Garg, in the following manner.

The individual brings with himself a set of internalisations as part of his identity — from his childhood and environment. In the context of this background he makes promises to himself of what shall be, or what shall not be, for example, "I shall not let myself or my own people feel scarcity of resources" or "I shall influence my environment into peaceful ways." With his identity and such like promises to himself the individual scans the environment for steps that are appropriate in his view. He then makes the final choice of his action. In the last stage he reviews the aftermath of this action. A part of this review may add to the body of internalisation which he has. In such a case, this is an individual open to learning or it may not add to the internalisation but merely confirm or invalidate some elements of the internalisation.

The process in effect is cyclic and an on-going often unconscious chain.

The identification of these stages in the value process gives us direct clues to developmental work and value process in organisation. Depending upon which stage requires intervention appropriate managerial interventions become possible. In the usual managerial processes, evaluation of the choice of action is the element which is the currency of managerial influence and control. Over a period of time, this leads to images and stereotypes of individuals such that there builds up a pressure upon the identity of the individual for change. However the meanings that the individual may hold for himself (part of his identity), the promises which he has made to himself or his scanning of the environment provide him the counter to this pressure for change.

3.4 RELATED CONCEPTS : NEEDS AND ETHICS

Values in the managerial and organisational context have an element of voluntariness. Involuntary choices of actions such as blinking of the eyelid are not value-based but are need-based. It is important to distinguish needs from values. Need-based behaviour seeks job security, benefits, safety, health, due process of law, and is concerned with conditions of employment, and the socio-economic considerations of status. The underlying reality is a significant gap between personal identity and work identity. The demands of industrial culture when responded with by an agrarian ethos gives rise to need based behaviour in organisations.

The core value being sought in need-based behaviour in organisation is a concern for justice and fear of deprivation, denial and discrimination.

This concern for justice and the related fears give rise to anxieties with ethics in the minds of wage earners (i.e. managers and workers) today. Ethics are associated with mutual trust and confidence. Most people prefer to work in ethically unambiguous circumstances where there are no contradictory messages and where one is expected to do what is right and honourable. In the Indian setting, we often find an on-going conflict between needs and ethics as part of the day to day working reality. Ethics are a set of codes of behaviour which would sustain mutual trust and confidence while the needs of social security and affluence often seem to pull in unethical directions.

Codes of ethics in any organisation must be managed leaving it entirely to individuals or putting employees to severe tests are both ethically disastrous. Problems in ethics arise as much from loyalty as from disloyalty. The over-loyal employee usually colludes on issues of ethics just as the disloyal employee will un-hesitatingly break ethical codes so long as he can escape punishment. There is no single ideal approach to the management of ethics. The top management however must be committed to a given set of ethics and these need to be institutionalised in organisations. Institutionalising ethics enables them to be shared by all members of the organisation.

3.5 CLASSICAL VALUE ORIENTATION

The classical value orientation of organisations is of being a resource base in which the "employees" are outsiders "selling" some services. Being outsiders these people are potential exploiters and thus need to be constrained by rules of the organisations. As such rule making in organisations is usually founded on the premise that all employees are potential law breakers. Experience however seems to be increasingly indicating that most people prefer to be otherwise. Rules are designed to protect against the law breaker and are made applicable to all members in the organisation. Thus often curtailing the emergence of positive contribution.

At the individual level the wage earner holds the assumption that jobs are scarce. Increasingly it is however becoming evident that while employment of certain kinds may be scarce, opportunities for work, and remuneration, and work with dignity is not scarce. With scarcity as the backdrop assumption individuals hold the classical assumption that status, wealth and power are synonymous. Individuals often hold the belief that those who have more wealth have the legitimacy to undignify and punish. They often, operating from a need base, separate their values from their living choices, thus seeing themselves as being "acted upon" rather than be actors. More salient values of dignity, effort and commitment have gone into flux and have currently become over shadowed by a need for greater consumption.

These classical value orientations of the organisations and individuals however are creating stresses that are evident in urban and organisational life. Managerial stress has become an area of significant study.

3.6 THE MANAGEMENT OF VALUES

The management of values in organisations is the key component of the Chief Executive's role. By explicit statement or by implication from his behaviour, the Chief Executive is the prime influence upon the values of the organisation. While he has great influence upon the values in the organisation he however is not the sole creator of all the values current in the organisation. These come from the environment through the other members of the organisation.

Most organisations address their action to the management of tasks and usually ignore the management of values. Management of values gets left to occur by chance or as an automatic process. Given the flux in todays society of transition, however, research evidence is increasingly pointing to the need for managing values more directly.

The Chief Executive and his top team establish and sustain ethics in the organisation by their demonstrated behaviour. The ethics they hold are visible in the choices they make particularly in situations of minor conflicts when they have to judge an action that has reward or punishment potential. The management of values in organisations is carried out through two avenues. One is the avenue of management philosophy. The management philosophy becomes visible in the decision making processes of the top management especially in the management of the environment (purchases, payments to suppliers/vendors, tax management, donation of funds, sponsorship of social events, assumption about customers etc.). The second prominent route for management of values is the nature of responsiveness of the top management, what issues do they respond to in the shortest time. The longer the time they take to respond to an issue the less they value it.

A central focus in the management of values is the fact that in a situation of transition Indians are constantly faced with conflicting values to choose from at every juncture. No less is the case in organisations and for managers. One of the main components of the top management's role in any organisation is to balance and effectively choose from conflicting values at every stage of decision making.

It is possible for any organisation to review these aspects of its work processes (see Box 8, conclusion of a research study : see Further Readings).

Box 8

Our study has also shown values to be major determinant of managerial effectiveness. In order to ensure optimum results, it therefore becomes necessary for an organisation to have a set of shared values and beliefs across the organisation. Inculcation of values is a long drawn and cumbersome process. These are not transmitted through formal notes or written procedures, as Peters and Waterman have mentioned, but are diffused by softer means specifically through "stories, myths, legends and metaphors". However, if shared, common values exist in the organisation, then managerial effectiveness will improve.

The rule of apex management in fostering and developing the set of shared beliefs and values is quite crucial. As Philip Selznick has remarked. "The institutional leader is primarily an expert in the promotion and protection of values. Leadership fails when it concentrates on sheer survival. Institutional survival, properly understood, is a matter of maintaining values and distinctive identity."

The apex management must take upon itself the task of involving all other levels of management in the development of shared values and beliefs. Consistency in the shared values of the managers is important and in this regard all of them must speak with one voice. Homogeneity at the top and across the organisation can be reinforced by regular meetings, which top management must hold. It is a tough, back breaking job but is one sure way to improve effectiveness.

("Leadership in Administration — A Sociological Interpretation", Philip Selznick, Harper & Row, 1957.)

The chief key to effective management is the ability of an organisation to review these issues. Institutionalising such review processes usually raises levels of productivity and levels of energy for work. It raises credibility and generates a sense of security.

3.7 INTERVENING FOR VALUE ENHANCEMENT

The issues of enhancing value based behaviour, humanising and strengthening ethical codes and thus developing institutional strength of organisations has been a central concern with managers as well as behavioural scientists. The strength of this concern has been increasing over the years. The trend world wide is to try and define appropriate values and ethics to live by. The advent of technological changes (Ref. Unit 2) and its consequent uprooting from a stable set of values has created a situation of flux where continuity, consistency and stability are difficult to establish and live by. In the early days of large formal organisations and industrial settings it was feasible to consider work as a subset of the various concerns that an individual held. Experience over the last five decades however is clearly now indicating that reaching the goal of better standards of living, better health and social organisations is possible by making a shift to holding the work identity as the central concern and building living processes around that.

3.8 GOALS OF VALUE SHIFTS

Any step taken for the management of values is a significant contributor to the quest for value shifts. A prime requisite for the process of shift is the commitment of the top management, particularly the chief executive. Research is indicating that organisations that have a value orientation of developing strong ethical codes, consistent managerial philosophies, mechanisms for learning from experience and mechanisms for review of the organisation (not only its achievements and failures) tend to have higher output, commitments and resilience against failures and environmental changes. Such reviews lead to the emergence of new values and perspectives both at the individual as well as the organisational levels. These are the goals of shifting values. These goals create a setting for fluent and willing application of effort and rain commitment and belonging in organisations.

3.9 SUMMARY

In this unit you were introduced to the concept of values and its related dimensions ethics and needs. Value as a process was discussed at an individual level. That values are a manageable dimension is stated. The unit then identified some of the key issues in the management of values and ethics. The unit closed with looking at some of the directions that help in shifting values in organisations from their present set to more desirable sets.

3.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1 Define 'values' and elaborate on how values are an integral part of behaviour.

2 Differentiate between needs, values and ethics. Discuss the problem of managing ethics in an organisation.

3 Why is the need for managing values in an organisation becoming increasingly important and necessary? Discuss how management of values are carried out in organisations.

4 Discuss the classical value orientations in organisations. What are the effects this kind of orientation on urban and organisational life?

5 What are the various factors which are demanding a shift in the value orientations of both individuals and organisations? Discuss the nature and goals of these value shifts.

6 Collect instances of value conflicts and management of ethics in folk tales, mythology and legends. Discuss with colleagues to establish relevance of all or some of these in your current work setting.

7 Talk to about 15 managers from at least 2 or 3 organisations. Identify their organisations' managerial philosophy, values and ethics. Try to do this exercise without good/bad judgements. Can you correlate them with effectiveness of their organisations?

3.11 FURTHER READINGS

"Managerial Accountability : Young Managers Views", Sachdev, Anil et al. First prize winning article in Indian Management, J of AIMA, April 1986.

"Authority Patterns and Subordinate Behaviour in Indian Organisation", Kakar, S. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1971, 16.

"Industrial Sociology : A Trend Report", Sheth N.R., in A Survey of Research in Sociology and Social Authropology I, ICSSR Bombay, Popular Prakashan, 1947.

"Beliefs, Attitudes and Values", Rokeach M, Jossey Bass, San Fransisco, 1970.

Notes

BLOCK 2 INTRA PERSONAL PROCESSES

This block takes an in-depth look at the behaviour of individuals in organisations. The units deal with several important processes and out comes of individual behaviour. The block deals with understanding human behaviour, how important it is for a Manager to understand his employees. Then it leads to attitude and values and then to personality which is the integration of learning, perception and attitudes. The last unit deals with stress and coping, stress affects organisations very badly as such coping with stress and reduction of stress is very essential. This has been discussed in the unit.

UNIT 4 UNDERSTANDING HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Objectives

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

- Importance of understanding human behaviour
- Individual differences

Structure

4.1 INTRODUCTION

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

Before we proceed to understand human behaviour, it is better to know what the term **'behaviour'** means. Behaviour can be defined as a response/s which is observed directly/indirectly. Direct observation is possible by studying the responses of people to a work environment. Indirect observations are decision making processes and attitudes, in terms of results or how people describe them verbally.

In this unit, Personality as the vehicle to integrate learning, perception, attitudes and values will be learnt. Attitudes and values will be learnt as the guides to behaviour.

4.2 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

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

Each person has a unique combination of characteristics. Some of these characteristics are present from birth; others develop over time. These can be called as **inherited** and **learned** characteristics. Although there are some inherited characteristics, but these are very few, and not so significant. Learned characteristics are very important. Individual differences can be because of environmental, personal and psychological factors. It is also due to physical and social factors. Learned characteristics are acquired as people grow, develop and interact with their environments. This is depicted by the following figure.

Figure 1: Learned Characteristics and it's Effect on Behaviour

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

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

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

Individual as a Mini-System

The systems concept is one way to view individual behaviour. Such a view may provide a helpful technique to understand individual differences better.

A system has its parts : input, thruput, output and feedback loop. The input is whatever enters the system, whether it is a raw material or information. Thruput is the transformation of the input. The feedback loop is the process of providing the system with an opportunity for changes in the next sequence, or time period of the systems operations.

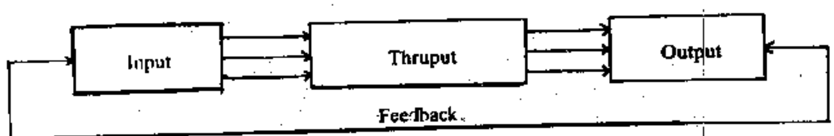

Diagram of a System

An individual can be considered as a mini-system. The inputs come from his environment; his evaluation of these occurrences takes place in the thruput stage; and his overt reaction is the output.

If the reciprocal interaction of individual characteristics, environmental characteristics and behaviour described above complicates the task of understanding behaviour, it also opens up multiple channels for bringing about changes.

Behaviour modification techniques and psychotherapy methods seek to bring about desired behaviour change in the individual. Both approaches recognise that changing even one small factor can bring about relatively large changes in behaviour.

Given the complexity of the causes of human behaviour, it is remarkable that organisations function as smoothly as they do. It is also not surprising that there are problems or that organisational changes to bring about one set of outcomes have unanticipated consequences. All of these complexities are the reality of the study of behaviour.

4.3 APPROACHES TO UNDERSTAND HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

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

Systems and contingency theorists viewed people as adaptable and felt that much of behaviour was learned and not attributable to predispositions to be negative or positive.

Likert, Mc Gregor and Bennis who developed and extended the findings of the human-relations theorists had a positive view of human nature. Employees were seen as striving for personal and social well-being. If left alone, they would work hard for the intrinsic satisfaction of a job well done. The emphasis was on democratic decision making and leadership. Jobs were to be challenging and allowed the individual employee to be creative.

Internal Vs External Determinants of Behaviour
Environment plays a major role in shaping behaviour and genetic endowment and personality development is influenced by our historical heritage.

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

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

There are two models which come out of these approaches :

1) Behaviourist model is represented as

S–R (Stimulus–Response)

2) The cognitive model as

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

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

From these different approaches it can be said that :

i) Behaviour is caused by instincts, genetic background and personality traits that are formed at an early age. Change is very difficult for the individual and that one's capacity is severely limited.

ii) Behaviour is mostly learned through our interactions with the environment. Present events rather than past events are important. Eventhough there are some limitations on one's capacities, one is capable of great amounts of change.

4.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION

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

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

4.5 PERSONALITY

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

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

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

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

4.6 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

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

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

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

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

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

4.7 TYPE AND TRAIT APPROACHES TO PERSONALITY

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

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

Figure 1: Sixteen Source Traits

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

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

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

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

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

Type A people tend to be very productive and work very hard. They are workaholics.The negative side of them is that they are impatient, not good team players, more irritable, have poor judgement. Type B people do better on complex tasks involving judgement, accuracy rather than speed and team work.

4.8 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

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

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

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

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

Figure 2 : Extroverts versus Introverts: Characteristics of Each

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

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

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

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

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

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

1) The sensing-feeling person likes to collect data in an orderly way and make decisions that take into account the needs of people. This person is very concerned with high-quality decisions that people will accept and implement.

2) The intuitive-feeling person is equally concerned with the people side of decisions but the focus is on new ideas which are often broad in scope and lacking in details.

3) Sensing-thinkers emphasise details and the quality of a decision. They are not as concerned with the people aspect of an organisation as with a technically sound decision.

4) Intuitive-thinking types like to tackle new and innovative problems, but make decisions primarily on technical terms. They tend to be good planners, but not so good at implementing.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Judging Types	Perceptive Types
Work best when they can plan their work and follow the plan.	Adapt well to changing situations.
Like to get things settled and finished.	Do not mind leaving things open for alterations.
May decide things too quickly.	May have trouble making decisions.
May dislike to interrupt the project they are on for a more urgent one.	May start too many projects and have difficulty finishing them.
May not notice new things that need to be done.	May postpone unpleasant jobs.
Want only the essentials needed to begin their work.	Want to know all about a new job.
Tend to be satisfied once they reach a judgement on a thing, situation, or person.	Tend to be curious and welcome new information on a thing, situation, or person.

Development of Personality : Erikson's eight life stages

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Stage Seven, adulthood: During their 40's and 50's adults face the crisis of **generativity versus self-absorption.** Self-absorbed persons never develop an ability to look beyond themselves. They may become absorbed in career advancement and maintenance; and they may never learn to have concern for future generations, the welfare of organisations to which they belong or the welfare of society as a whole. Generative people see the world as much bigger than themselves. Productivity in work or child rearing or societal advancement become important to them. Through innovation and creativity, they begin to exert influence that benefits their organisation.

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

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

1) Endomorph—Fleshy and inclined toward fatness
2) Mesomorph—Athletic and inclined to be muscular
3) Ectomorph—Thin and inclined to be fine-boned and fragile.

The personality characteristics reflected are:

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

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

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

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

1) **Pulling up Roots:** This period occurs between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two, when individuals exist from home and incur physical, financial, and emotional separation from their parents. They cover their fears and uncertainty with acts of defiance and mimicked confidence.

2) **The Trying Twenties:** This period is a time of opportunity, but also includes the fear that choices are irrevocable. Two forces push upon us—one is to build a firm, safe structure for the future by making strong commitments and the other is to explore and experiment and keep flexible as to commitments.

3) **The Catch—Thirties:** Approaching the age of thirty is a time in which life commitments are made, broken or renewed. It may mean setting towards a new phase or calming down of idealistic dreams to realistic goals. Commitments are changed or they are deepened. There is change, turmoil, and often an urge to be out of the routine.

4) **The Deadline Decade:** The ten years between the age of thirty-five and forty-five represent a crossroad. This period is characterized by a re-examination of one's purposes and how the resources will be spent from now on.

5) **Renewal or Resignation:** The mid-forties bring a period of stability. The individual who can find a purpose and direction upon which to continue building his or her life, the mid-forties may well be the best years.

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

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

1) From being passive to engaging in increasing activity.
2) From dependence on others to independence.
3) From having few ways to behave to possess many alternatives.

4) From having shallow interests to developing deeper interests.
5) From having a short time perspective to having a longer time perspective.
6) From being in a subordinate position to viewing oneself as equal or superior.
7) From lack of awareness of oneself to awareness of oneself.

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

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

4.9 IMPORTANCE OF PERSONALITY

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

There are certain procedures by which personality can be predicted:

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

These measurements help in effectiveness of the organisation.

4.10 ATTITUDES

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

Attitudes in a person could be observed in three ways: 1) Direct experience with the person or situation. 2) Association with other similar persons or situations. 3) Learning from others about thier association with the person or situation. 'Direct experience' is the concrete experience stage of learning. Association is similar to abstract conceptualisation and generalisation. Learning from others is like reflection and observation. Attitudes evolve out of perception and learning processes. One is not born with attitudes but acquires them through life experiences. But certain basic attitudes are formed during the early years of life. According to Erikson, a basic life attitude of trust or mistrust occurs during infancy.

If a child's basic needs are met in a loving manner, the child will develop a sense of trust otherwise a sense of mistrust develops. The child also develops a sense of autonomy or shame and doubt. All these affect one's behaviour. And this linkage to behaviour is what managers are concerned with; and they also need to understand the ways in which behaviour affects attitudes.

4.11 ATTITUDES AND ORGANISATION

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

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

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

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

Managers need not be interested only in understanding the attitudes of people, but also in changing them. Since attitudes are learned they can be changed. Persuasive communications are used to change attitudes. But attitudes are slow to change. Because they are based on deep-seated beliefs and values.

4.12 VALUES

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

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

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

Rokeach has divided values into two broad categories: 'Terminal values' relate to ends to be achieved e.g. comfortable life, family security, self-respect and sense of accomplishment. 'Instrumental values' relate to means for achieving desired ends, e.g. ambition, courage, honesty and imagination. Terminal values reflect what a person is ultimately striving to achieve, whereas instrumental values reflect how the person gets there.

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

Allport (1951) identified six types of values.

1) Theoretical — Places high importance on the discovery of truth through a critical and rational approach.
2) Economic — Emphasises the useful and practical.
3) Aesthetic — Places the highest value on form and harmony.

4) Social — The highest value is given to the love of people.
5) Political — Places emphasis on acquisition of power and influence.
6) Religious — Concerned with the unity of experience and understanding of the cosmos as a whole.

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

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

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

4.13 SOCIALISATIONS INFLUENCE ON PERSONALITY, VALUES AND ATTITUDES

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

Stages of Socialisation

1) **Prearrival Stage:** Individuals develop preconceived notions about an organisation based on previous education, work experiences and contacts with organisation members.

2) **Encounter with the Organisation:** A person's initial orientation, training and experiences with other employees who exhibit the accepted attitudes in the organisation all influence and change the person.

3) **Change of the Person and Acquisition of the new attitudes and values:** When a person works in a company, he or she gradually learns what is expected and begins to develop a new personality that is consistent with the organisation depending, the person works for sometime in the same organisation.

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

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

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

4.14 SCHEIN SOCIALISATION MODEL

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

1) **Rebellion:** The new employee could attempt to fight the organisation. The result might be dismissal, or change in the organisation, or change in the person (regardless of whether the individual wins or loses).

2) **Creative individualism:** Where an employee accepts the organisation's values and attitudes which are important and rejects the others. The employee uses a combination of personal and organisational values in relation to the organisation.

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

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

4.15 SUMMARY

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

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

4.16 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) What is individual difference? What are the factors which affect individual difference?
2) Why should organisations give importance in understanding human behaviour?
3) Define values. Define attitudes. How are they similar? Different?
4) What is the source of values and attitudes?
5) Values have been described as the foundation of individual behaviour? On what basis do you think such a statement was made?
6) Explain why personality is developmental in nature, what are the primary factors that influence the evolution of personality?
7) Why are the first three stages of Erikson's model of personality so crucial to long-term personality development? How do the crises of these three stages relate to the crises of the remaining stages?
8) Describe locus of control, "Machiavellianism" and type A or B as types of personality.

9) Describe the difference between type and trait approaches.

10) Describe the sub-systems of Jung's Personality Theory. Also explain the four dimensions of the theory.

11) Describe socialisation processes and explain how it influences personality. attitudes and values.

4.17 FURTHER READINGS

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Stephen P. Robbins, 1985; *Organisational Behaviour, Concepts, Controversies and Applications,* Prentice Hall of India Private Limited, New Delhi.

Terrence R. Mitchell, 1983; *People in Organisations, An Introduction to Organisational Behaviour,* McGraw Hill International Book Company.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Consulting psychologists Press, Palo Atto, Cal., 1962) is a very popular instrument for Jungian types. *Please Understand Me* by David Keirsey (Prometheus Nemesis Book, Del, Mar, Cal, USA, 1978) is a good simple introduction to Jungian types based on Keirsey Temperament Sortex (70 item pair comparison questionnaire).

Usha Haley and S.A. Stumpf in "Cognitive trails in Strategic decision making" (*Journal of Management Studies*, 1989, 26, 477-497) have discussed what Heuristics the four Jungian types use to gather data, and to generate and evaluate alternatives. Also the four types use different cognitive trails, and can consequently fall prey to biases that lurk in these trails. The heuristics of biases of the four personality are:

Type	**Heuristics**	**Biases**
STs	Anchorny	Functional fixedness and regularity and structure
NTs	Perseverance	Positivity and representativeness
SFs	Availability	Social-desirability and fundamental attribution
NFs	Vividness	Reasoning-by-analogy and illusory-correlation.

UNIT 5 LEARNING

Objectives

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

- recognize that learning can take place in several ways
- appreciate the role of reinforcement in learning
- recognize the conditions under which changes in behaviour take place.

Structure

5.1 INTRODUCTION

As a person, working with other people, you will often face the problem of generating change. This change may be as simple as training a new member of a team to perform a job correctly. It may have to do with a much more complex situation like absenteeism or poor productivity. There are probably two ways you can approach these situations. Either people can be asked to think things over, explanations can be given to them and gradually their attitudes can be changed. This may work but a lot of research indicates that changing the behaviour directly would also work, perhaps better. This chapter deals with the latter approach typified in phrases like 'the carrot and stick policy', 'spare the rod and spoil the child'.

5.2 WHAT IS LEARNING?

In fact, learning is quite simply defined as any change in behaviour that comes about as a result of experience. This definition implies that – all changes, positive or negative, that arise from experience are examples of learning. According to some psychologists, almost all our capacities, habits, likes and dislikes, even our total personality is primarily learned. Obviously, it is difficult to explain such a wide range of processes by one concept. In the next few sections, an attempt will be made to explain precisely how so much of human behaviour can be accounted for in terms of learning. But it will be worthwhile to remember that:

- only those changes caused by experience are considered to be cases of learning.
- practice is necessary for learning (it is however not sufficient for learning to take place).

Although the definition does not make it explicit, learning is also linked to two other very important concepts motivation and reinforcement. Much of the discussion in this chapter will be concerned with the way these processes interact and influence each other.

5.3 LEARNING PROCESSES

One reason why so many different kinds of events are explainable in terms of learning, is that there are at least two different processes by which learning takes place. These processes are referred to as **Classical Conditioning** and **Operant or Instrumental Learning.** Another important distinction is between **Simple** and **Complex** learning. While both Instrumental and Classical Conditioning are cases of the former, Complex learning includes Cognitive Learning and Modelling. Before discussing how behaviour can be changed in organizations, it is necessary to understand how these processes work and in what ways they differ from each other.

a) Classical Conditioning: Working in Russia, in 1902, Ivan Pavlov, a physiologist discovered that the dog he was experimenting upon, did not salivate only when it was given food, but also when it heard the sound of a bell that used to ring just before the food was offered. It was natural for salivation to occur at the presence of food but why did this happen when the bell was sounded. According to Pavlov, the neutral stimulus (bell) got paired with the unconditioned stimulus (food), resulting in a learned (conditioned) response of salivation to the new conditioned stimulus (bell). The situation before and after conditioning is represented in Fig. I below:

Figure I: Classical Conditioning

Before Conditioning	After Conditioning
UCS → UCR	UCS → UCR
(Food) (Salivation)	(Food) (Salivation)
(Bell) Neutral Stimulus → No Response	(Bell) (Salivation)
	(CS → CR)

The problem with the example discussed above is that the whole process of learning has to be initiated from outside. Since the bell did ring before the food came, pairing took place. The dog had no part to play in it. This model can therefore explain very few aspects of our behaviour.

b) Operant Learning: Quite another process was described by the Harvard psychologist, Skinner. Here, every response is followed by a consequence and the consequence determines whether the response will be repeated or not. In Skinner's typical experiments, a pigeon could be trained to press a lever by giving it a food pellet each time the lever was pressed. Of course, the first time the lever would usually be pressed by accident. Gradually as each response was followed by food, the tendency to press the lever increased.

Figure II: Operant Learning

S ⟶ R ⟶ Consequence
(Voluntary Behaviour) (Food Pellet)

Both Classical Conditioning and Operant Learning involve the learning of simple stimulus-response sequences. An elementary response like a motor response may be learned because it has been followed by a positive consequence. Operant learning also explains how more complex sequences can be learned. One learned response can become a stimulus for a subsequent one, generating a new response (S_1-R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4, etc).

c) Cognitive Learning and Modelling: Some psychologists believe that neither of the processes mentioned above can explain all the learning that takes place.

Operant learning takes a lot of time. First of all the right behaviour has to be produced. Then it needs to be rewarded. Only when the same response has been rewarded several times does the change become effective. Once again, it seems unlikely that all learning could be explained in this manner. In fact, most problem solving situations cannot be explained in this manner. In 1914, **Kohler demonstrated** that if a monkey was given two sticks, both of which were too short to reach a banana lying outside a cage, the monkey would have an experience of 'insight'. Without much prior exposure, the monkey would suddenly join the sticks together and pull the banana inside. This kind of learning takes place inside the mind. It is like fitting two bits of a jigsaw puzzle together. Reinforcement simply plays the part of strengthening the response, it does not actually cause learning. The principle involved here is perceptual reorganization, i.e., putting bits of information you have together in a new way. This kind of learning is probably very important in changing attitudes towards people.

In Modelling, learning takes place through the process of identification. By identifying, a person starts displaying behaviour like that of someone else. In organizations this could show up in small details like adopting a style of communication like that of one's superior. Modelling also helps in taking on new roles. A person who has been promoted to a new position may, at least initially, unconsciously imitate some of the behaviour of his predecessor. However, only those people will be chosen as models who seem to have power, control resources, and are seen to be giving direct or indirect reward for their behaviour. The presence of models who are highly identified with organizational goals is likely to go a long way in shaping the behaviour of other members of the organization. Like all other processes, Modelling too can have negative consequences. Thus, subordinate members of an office can learn to come late or display temper tantrums if someone senior to them behaves in this manner. Emotional responses are picked up particularly fast by this method.

5.4 REINFORCEMENT

One process that has not been directly mentioned so far is reinforcement. However, all the smiles, food, consequences that have been mentioned are reinforcing. Reinforcement or RF is defined as any event that alters the probability of occurrence of a response. If the consequence following a particular event is positive, it will be repeated. If the consequence is negative, it is less likely to be repeated.

To go back to a situation you are likely to face in an organization, you may find that a new member has joined your team and is working very enthusiastically. An encouraging remark is likely to act as a reward and his participation will probably remain enthusiastic. On the other hand, you may impose a penalty for some undesirable behaviour such as coming late. This is obviously punishment. Both of the examples given above are the most direct use of reinforcement. More indirectly, a behaviour can be strengthened, by removing a negative consequence that generally follows it. A person may be avoiding his work place simply because he does not get along well with the colleague he shares his office with. A change in the seating arrangement may help him regain his enthusiasm. Finally, taking away a positive consequence can be a source of negative reinforcement. A reduction in pay, a shortening of lunch hour, both sources of reward, would act as a negative reinforcer. Another interesting effect is seen when 'good' behaviour is continued to avoid punishment. Typically, we come on time to avoid being reprimanded.

Figure III: Types of Reinforcement Strategies

	Objective	Strategy
Reinforcement Through Behaviour Modification	To increase the rate of desirable behaviours	Positive Reinforcement
		Negative Reinforcement
	To decrease the rate of undesirable behaviours	Extinction (Non-Reinforcement)
		Punishment

When a previously reinforced behaviour is not reinforced for a long period of time, the persons generally stops performing it. This phenomenon is known as extinction. The apparent picture is of a person who has stopped behaving in that manner or has perhaps, **forgotten** about that behaviour. However, something interesting happens if you start reinforcing that behaviour again. Immediately, the response picks up strength and within a short period of time, it regains its original intensity. Obviously, lack of RF is inhibiting the R, it has not really been lost completely. The distinction is very important in practice. Skills which have not been used for a long time are often thought to be forgotten. However, in a new situation where the RF is again being provided, they are likely to bounce back.

Secondary Reinforcement: For adults, most reinforcers are in themselves learned. An important example is money. Unlike food which is linked to a physical need, money becomes rewarding because other desirable things can be attained through it. Similarly status, approval, power etc. are all reinforcing in an indirect manner.

Schedules of Reinforcement: Any analysis of routine interactions shows that reinforcement is not usually provided in a consistent manner. It would require an atmosphere of total surveillance to punish a person every time he was late. Skinner's analysis goes into this problem.

Schedules of RF can be classified into two types—continuous, and intermittent. In continuous reinforcement schedule, behaviour is reinforced every time. In an intermittent schedule, on the other hand, each response is not reinforced. In extreme cases of intermittent scheduling, there is little relationship between the occurrence of a response and a reinforcement. Yet, reinforcement is obtained enough to make the behaviour worthwhile. An example of the former is not very easy to find amongst human beings. It is sometimes used in training pets where each time the dog brings the newspaper you give him a biscuit. Payment on flat one is to one piece-rate basis is another example. An extreme case of intermittent RF often cited, is the example of gambling. Since there is no relationship between the occurrence of R and RF, this kind of schedule leads to responses that are very difficult to extinguish.

Interval or Ratio schedules can be of Fixed or Variable type. Ratio schedules depend on the number of responses made by the subject. Interval schedules, on the other, hand, depend on the amount of time since the last reinforcement. The person is reinforced the first time he makes an appropriate response, after time interval has passed.

Skinner's description of these schedules of RF has been of tremendous importance in changing behaviour. Each reinforcement schedule is expected to generate a specific pattern behaviour. A piece-rate incentive plan is a **fixed ratio** schedule. Here, a reward is provided after a constant number of responses have been made. This is typically the model followed in garment export industries. Each time a certain number of complete dresses are handed over, the payment is made. In a **variable ratio** schedule, once again the RF is provided after a specific number of responses but the number of responses varies around an average. For example, over a period of sixteen responses, the average may work out to one reward for four responses. However, the two of these reinforcements may come in the first ten responses and the remaining two may come in between the eleventh and sixteenth responses. This kind of schedule applies to Life Insurance Agents and others working on a commission basis.

If rewards are spaced out at uniform time intervals, the RF schedule is of the fixed interval type. Salaries paid on a weekly or monthly basis are examples of this schedule. On the other hand, a bonus or incentive, instead of being paid at Diwali or New Year could be broken into two or three parts and distributed randomly throughout the year.

RF Schedules and Behaviour: Fig IV given below, gives a summary of the various reinforcement schedules and their effects on behaviour. As you can see, continuous reinforcement is important for learning new responses. It establishes a link between the response and the reinforcer but should not be used for a long period of time because it causes satiation or problem and also because any cessation of the stimulus results in extinction. A Fixed Ratio RF schedule generates a higher rate of response than the interval schedules. Part of the effectiveness of such a schedule lies in the fact that meeting demands is so rewarding. The higher the output, the greater the reward. Both the variable schedules also produce responses that are difficult to extinguish. In the variable ratio schedule, e.g., the salesman knows that reinforcement will come, even if after a considerable number of responses has been made. The frequency of responses is high here and very resistant to extinction. But new responses can not be taught by this method.

Figure IV: Schedules of reinforcement and their effects

Schedule	Description	Effects Responding
Continuous	Reinforce follows	(1) Steady high rate of performance as long as reinforcement continues to follow every response. (2) High frequency of reinforcement may lead to early satiation (3) Behaviour weakens rapidly (undergoes extinction) when reinforces are withheld. (4) Appropriate for newly emitted, unstable, or low-frequency responses.
Intermittent	Reinforcer does not follow every response	(1) Capable of producing high frequencies of responding (2) Low frequency of reinforcement precludes early satiation. (3) Appropriate for stable or high-frequency responses.
Fixed ratio	A fixed number of responses must be emitted before reinforcement occurs.	(1) A fixed ratio of 1:1 (reinforcement occurs after every response) is the same as a continuous schedule. (2) Tends to produce a high rate of response which is vigorous and steady.
Variable ratio (VR)	A varying or random number of responses must be emitted before reinforcement occurs.	(1) Capable of producing a high rate of response which is vigorous, steady, and resistant to extinction.
Fixed interval (FI)	The first response after a specific period of time has elapsed is reinforced	(1) Produces, an uneven response pattern varying from a very slow, unenergetic response immediately following reinforce to a very fast, vigorous response immediately preceding reinforcement.
Variable interval (VI)	The first response after varying or random periods of time have elapsed is reinforced.	(1) Tends to produce a high rate of response which is vigorous, steady and resistant to extinction.

Source: From Organizational Behaviour Modification, p. 51 by Fred Luthans and Rober Kreitner. Copyright © 1975 by Scott Foresman and Company.

Fixed interval schedules are applied regardless of the number of responses made. You get the monthly pay anyway, even if the work has not been done. Such a method is known to reduce motivation for hard work. Variable interval schedules produce much higher rates of response and are more resistant to extinction. However, this method is likely to be more effective with reinforcers such as encouragement, promotions etc. than with salaries.

In actual practice, it can be said that:

a) Continuous RF is probably effective in the early stage of the learning process.

b) Ratio schedules are effective in comparison with interval schedules because the reinforcement is contingent upon the response.

c) Variable schedules generate responses that are more difficult to extinguish.

But:

a) Some continuous RF (monthly salary) is necessary to reduce anxiety.

b) A fixed ratio schedule is administratively easier to handle than a variable schedule.

c) Somewhat different principles may apply for punishment.

To ensure maximum effectiveness, reinforcement schedules must be worked out keeping the specific needs of the organization as well as the employees. A combination of schedules is likely to be most effective. While the basic salary is paid once a month, incentives may be paid on a Variable Ratio schedule.

5.5 THE ROLE OF PUNISHMENT

Although it is widely known that punishment is an effective way of changing behaviour, it is less talked of than reward. There are two important reasons for this. First, the use of punishment has ethical implications. It connotes wanting to harm or hurt someone and has therefore become somewhat unmentionable. Secondly, although it is the inverse of reward, it functions in a much more complicated way. Solomon has pointed out the conditions under which punishment is most effective. To use punishment effectively it must be:

- applied before the undesirable behaviour has become very well learnt
- fairly intense
- followed immediately after the undesirable behaviour
- specific to a particular act. It should never be vague and general, applying to the entire person
- consistent across persons
- applied everytime the act occurs
- accompanied by reward for the desired behaviour.

A look at the list given above, indicates why punishment often does not work. In the first place, most of us have been taught to be patient and punish only when it is absolutely necessary. By this time, according to Solomon's suggestions, the behaviour has been well entrenched. It is also more likely that a mild punishment would be used for a long time before switching to a more intense punishment. Research shows that mild punishment is stimulating. It may even act as a positive reinforcement. If a worker takes leave too often, a mild reprimand may strengthen this behaviour. He is getting attention from the boss and not really losing anything. It is easy to see that other conditions are also not met. Punishment does not follow immediately after the act, it is usually very generally and inconsistently applied.

There are two significant effects of punishment that should be mentioned here. It is the act and not the person who should be punished. Statements like I cannot stand the way you behave are responses to the entire person. They are unspecific and do not point out to the person what behaviour he needs to change. In contrast a specific statement of disapproval to a specific behaviour (smoking in a place where combustible material is present, drinking coffee during working hours) is likely to be effective. In fact, research shows that generally applied, intense punishment can make a person very anxious, decreasing his potential to be a good worker. In addition to this, punishment should be followed by rewards to appropriate behaviour. A person who has been given a wage cut or forced to take casual leave (punishment) for coming late could be given a small increase in pay (reward) for arriving punctually every day for a month. For the same reason a generally warm approach (positive reinforcement) accompanied by punishment for specific acts is likely to be effective.

Another problem that may arise in using punishment is that the person who punishes may feel guilty. To compensate for this, he will often follow the punishment with a non-contingent reward (a reward unrelated to a specific behaviour). Having lost his temper, he may then offer a cup of tea, completely neutralizing the effect of the punishment, confusing the person and often rewarding some accidental response that may have proceeded it.

Obviously, then, punishment is effective, only when all its effects are known. Since its consequences can be deleterious, it is perhaps better to use positive reinforcement to shape behaviour in the correct direction and use punishment only to direct behaviour. Since it can breed mistrust and anxiety, it is likely to be damaging within an organizational context unless applied with great caution.

All the processes discussed above are a part of the process of **shaping**. Behaviour is shaped by systematically reinforcing each successive step that moves the individual closer to the desired goal. The concept specifies that behaviour can be changed gradually by rewarding those responses that come close to it. To shape behaviour effectively:

- the target must be clearly defined. The specific behaviour to be changed should be made explicit. For example, managers may be stressing the need for cooperative behaviour but unwittingly provide rewards for competitive behaviour.
- performance goals must be set
- the link between the response and the contingency (reinforcement) must be established.

5.6 CHANGING BEHAVIOUR EFFECTIVELY

The most obvious question that arises from the discussion so far is about the real effectiveness of the methods of Behaviour Modification. The section on schedules of reinforcement and punishment may have given some answers, but questions certainly remain. Learning theories have been criticised for the passive view they take of human beings, making them devoid of choice and responsibility. Once again the doubt about whether discussion and explanation would not suffice arises. Also, you may wonder whether a person who truly did not want to change could infact be made to do so against his 'will', simply by changing reinforcement patterns.

The answer is that some changes would certainly come about by the use of the techniques of behaviour modification. However, certain complex problems exist. As you may have sensed by now, people carry histories of reinforcement within them. To determine which reinforcement will act on which individual requires an understanding of this history. There is an obvious link between learning and motivation. Status may be positively reinforcing for those with high needs for achievement and power, but to the person who seeks security and does not want to take risks, it can be a source of anxiety and something to be avoided. An insensitive use of behaviour modification techniques, is, therefore likely to be unsuccessful.

Linked to the question of motivation is that of goals. Procedures for generating change are likely to be effective only where the goals of the majority of individuals concerned, and the organization are compatible. This is where the more complex forms of learning are likely to come into play. Has the organization been successful in socializing its members into the prevailing culture? Do they identify with their leaders? Principles of perceptual reorganization may be used to change basic attitudes. The manager is likely to play an important role by displaying appropriate behaviour. If he comes on time, seems involved and uses rewards and punishment procedures in a just manner, he is likely to be emulated.

5.7 SUMMARY

Learning is defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour resulting from experience. Several different processes are involved in learning. These include Classical Conditioning and Operant Learning. It also involves more complex processes such as Modelling, Classical Conditioning involves the pairing of a neutral stimulus with an unconditioned stimulus, resulting in the formation of a conditioned response. In Operant Learning, the probability of occurrence of a response changes in relation to the consequence that follows it. More complex processes like Modelling involve the imitation of entire responses made by a person, usually in a position of authority.

Reinforcement plays a crucial role in learning. Reinforcement includes both reward and punishment. The use of rewards and punishments to gradually modify behaviour is known as shaping. Reinforcements can be applied according to varied schedules. These have a marked effect on the speed with which behaviour is learned as well as its resistance to extinction. In general, variable schedules are more effective than continuous ones. Punishment too is a major tool of Behaviour Modification. To be effective it must be intense and should be combined with reward for desired responses.

Learning procedures are more likely to be effective when applied by a model whose behaviour is desirable. The compatibility between organizational goals and individual goals as well as the differing motivation amongst individuals needs to be remembered while administering reinforcement.

5.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) Describe the basic processes by which learning takes place.
2) How can reinforcement be used to generate changes in behaviour?
3) What factors should be considered when using punishment for Behaviour Modification?
4) Is the use of reinforcement sufficient to change behaviour effectively?
5) The Manager of a branch of a large bank has received numerous complaints that officers often leave their desk, apparently for work, but do not return for as long as 30 minutes. This causes great inconvenience to clients. Recently, the manager has noticed a decline in business and wants to develop a programme in order to change this situation. Develop an appropriate plan of action to alter this situation.

5.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 6 PERCEPTION

Objectives

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

- the meaning of Perception
- factors influencing Perception
- importance of understanding Perceptions in an organisation.

Structure

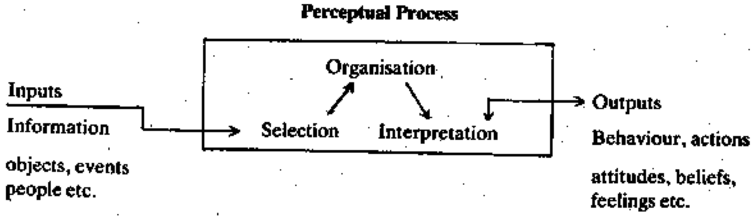
6.1 INTRODUCTION

Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impression in order to give meaning to their environment. One of the important cognitive factors of human behaviour is perception. It is essentially a psychological process. Perception is the process whereby people select, organise and interpret sensory stimulations into meaningful information about their work environment. There can be no behaviour without perception and perception lies at the base of every individual behaviour.

What is Perception?
Perception is the intellectual process by which a person acquires the information from the environment, organise it and obtain the meaning from it. Perception basically refers to the manner in which a person experiences the World. Perception is "the process by which people organise, interpret, experience process and use stimulus materials in the environment so that they satisfy their needs".

Perceptual Process
Perceptual inputs are first received, then processed by the perceiver and the resultant output becomes the base of the behaviour.

Perceptual Process



The model has four variables:

Inputs: Perceived inputs are the objects, events, people etc. that are received by the preceiver.

Process: The received inputs are processes through the selection, organisation and interpretation.

Outputs: Through the processing mechanism, the output is derived. These outputs may be feelings, actions, attitudes etc.

Behaviour: Behaviour is dependent on these perceived outputs. The Perceiver's behaviour, inturn, generates responses from the perceived and these responses give rise to a new set of inputs.

6.2 MECHANISMS OF PERCEPTION

The mechanisms of perception are selection, organisation and interpretation. Perceputal selection takes account of only those stimuli that are relevant and appropriate for an individual. Perceptual organisation is concerned with shaping the perceived inputs and converting them into a meaningful shape or form. The final mechanism—perceptual interpretation, deals with inference from observed meaning from the perceived events or objects. From it emerges the resultant behaviour of individual.

1) **Selection:** Individuals will not be able to assimilate all they observe so they engage in selectivity. Selection is the fundamental step in perceptual process. Individuals collect bits and pieces of information, not randomly, but selectively depending on the interests, background experience, attitudes of the perceiver.

   Dearborn and Simon performed perceptual study in a steel company in which twenty-three business executives were studied about their perceptions of the organisation and their most important problems. They were six sales; five production, four finance and eight miscellaneous managers. All were asked to identify the major problem confronting the company. The result is that virtually all of the managers identified as the most central problem closely related to their own speciality.

   Thus people selectively perceive what is most important for them in a particular situation.

   Selective perception involves two psychological principles:

   a) **Figure Ground Principle:** In the field of perception certain factors are considered significant and give a meaning to the person, and certain others which are whether unimportant for a person or cannot be studied are left: as insignificant. The meaningful and significant portion is called the "figure" and the insignificant or meaningless portion is labelled as "ground".

   b) **Relevancy:** Relevancy is one important criterion for selective perception. People selectively perceive things that are relevant to their needs and desires.

2) **Organisation:** The perceived inputs (incoming stimuli) are organised into meaningful pictures to the perceiver. Organising the information that is incoming into a meaningful whole is called "organisation". This process is also labelled as "gestalt process". Gestalt is a German word meaning "to organise". There are different ways by which people organise the perceived inputs, objects, events for e.g. grouping, closure and simplification.

   a) **Grouping:** Grouping is possible depending on the similarity or proximity. The tendency to group people or things that appear to be similar in certain ways, but not in all, is a common means of organising the perceptions.

   b) **Closure:** People when faced with incomplete information have a tendency to fill the gaps themselves to make it more meaningful. The tendency to form a complete message is known as "Closure".

   c) **Simplification:** Whenever people are overloaded with information they try to simplify it to make it more meaningful and understandable. Simplification occurs when the perceiver subtracts less salient information and concentrates an important one.

3) **Interpretation :** The third and most important mechanism of perception is interpretation. Without the interpretation it does not make any sense. Interpretation is subjective and judgmental process. In organisation, interpretation

is influenced by many factors such as the halo effect, stereotyping, attribution, impression and inference.

a) **Halo effect:** It is the process of using a single trait of individual and drawing a general impression about him. It has an important implication for evaluating employees in an organisation. Those employees with certain features are rated highly on other characteristics also. But halo effect leads to negative effects also. They are more often right than wrong.

b) **Stereotyping:** Judging people on the basis of the characteristics of the group to which they belong is called "stereotyping". The word stereotype was first applied by Walter Lippmann to perception. It was basically applied for ethnic prejudice. Secord and Backman observe that "stereotyping" is not simply the assignment of favourable or unfavourable traits to a class of persons as a function of whether the observer has a positive or negative attitude toward the person's category. Most stereotypes have both Favourable and Unfavourable traits and more prejudiced individuals assign both in greater degree. Stereotyping greatly influences perception in organisations.

   The basic problem with stereotyping is that it does not give indepth truth and gives rise to distortion because sometimes perception may be inaccurate and based on a false impression about a particular group. It is also a major source of social and racial bias.

c) **Attribution:** When people give cause and effect explanation to their behaviour it is known as attribution. Perception is distorted sometimes by the efforts of the perceiver to attribute a causal explanation to an outcome. There is a tendency for the individuals to attribute their own behaviour to situational requirements but explain the behaviour of others by their personal dispositions.

d) **Impression:** People often form impression of others on the first sight. Even before knowing any of their personality traits they start having impressions and assess. This sometimes leads to perceptual distortion.

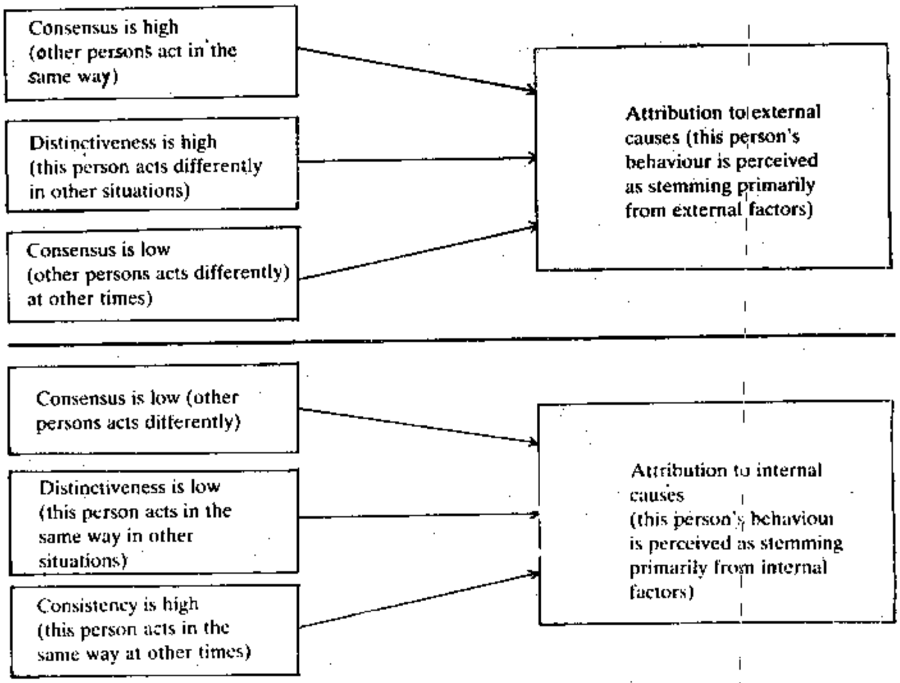
e) **Inference:** There is a growing tendency on the part of people to judge others on limited information. For example an employee might be sitting at his desk throughout the working hours without doing anything but it is inferred that he is hardworking.

6.3 ATTRIBUTION THEORY

Attribution relates to the way people try to understand the behaviour of others. The main issue revolves around whether one attributes the cause of a behaviour to internal or external causes. Research by Kelley has suggested that people focus on three major factors in making their attributions: (1) Consensus (2) Consistency (3) Distinctiveness "Consensus" relates to the extent to which others—When faced with the same situation—Would behave in a manner similar to the perceived person. "Consistency" is the extent to which the perceived person behaves in the same manner on other occasions when faced with the same situation. "Distinctiveness" is the extent to which the perceived person acts in the same manner in different situations.

When there is high consensus, high consistency and high distinctiveness, people tend to attribute behaviour to external causes and if there are low, it is because of internal causes. The process of perception is quite complex and it is very dynamic and developmental.
Past events in a person's life will influence their perceptions and present and future events will have an impact.

Figure IV: The Attribution Process



Adapted from R.A. Baron, *Behaviour in Organisations*, 2nd Ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon 1986, p. 115

6.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION

The factors that influence perceptual mechanism are of two kinds—internal and external.

1) **Internal factors:** The internal factors are the needs, desires of individuals, individual personality and the experience of people.

   a) **Needs and desires:** Depending on the needs and desires of an individual, the perception varies.

   b) **Personality:** Individual personality is another internal factor that has a profound influence on perceived behaviour for example:

      1) secure individuals tend to perceive others as warm, not cold,

      2) throughout individuals do not expose by expressing extreme judgments of others,

      3) persons who accept themselves and have faith in their individuality perceive things favourably,

      4) self-accepting individuals perceive themselves as liked, wanted and accepted by others.

   c) **Experience:** Experience and knowledge has basis on perception. Successful experiences enhance and boost the perceptive ability and lead to accuracy in perception of a person whereas failure erodes self-confidence.

2) **External (exogenous) factors:** The external factors which influence the perception are size, intensity, frequency, status etc.

   a) **Size:** The bigger the size of the perceived stimulus, the higher is the probability that it is perceived. Size attracts the attention of an individual. It establishes dominance and enhances perceptual selection.

   b) **Intensity:** Intensity attracts to increase the selective perception.

   c) **Frequency:** Repeated external stimulus is more attention – attracting than a single time.

   d) **Status:** Perception is also influenced by the status of the perceiver. High status people can exert influence on perception of an employee than low status people

e) **Contrast:** Stimuli that contrasts with the surrounding environment are more likely to be attention catching than the stimuli that blends in.

6.5 INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION

Interpersonal perception begins with the perception of another person, an awareness and appraisal of his attitudes, attributes, intentions and their likely reactions to one's actions. Research was conducted by Zalking and Costello for better understanding of interpersonal perception. The specific characteristics of the perceiver, according to them are :

1) Knowing oneself makes it easier to see others accurately.
2) One's own characteristics affect the characteristics he is likely to see in others.
3) The person who accepts himself is more likely to be able to see favourable aspects of other people.
4) Accuracy in perceiving others is not a single skill.

Similarly the characteristics of the person who is being perceived are:

1) The status of the person perceived will greatly influence other's perception of him.
2) The person being perceived is usually placed into categories to simplify the viewer's perceptual activities. Two common categories are status and role.
3) The visible traits of the person will greatly; influence the perception of him.

In order to develop perceptual skills one has to avoid perceptual distortion, make accurate self-perception, put oneself in another person's place and create good impression about oneself.

6.6 PERCEPTION AND ITS APPLICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

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

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

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

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

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

Implications of Perception on Performance and Satisfaction

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

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

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

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

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

In order to decrease the errors involved in perception, one has to keep in mind the way the perceptual process works. By understanding the process one can do a better job at minimizing their negative effect. Secondly, one can compare one's perception with other people, if they are representing different backgrounds, cultures or training. This may lead to agreement or otherwise, communications can help to sort out the differences. Thirdly, one should understand other person's point of view, it may help to know when one is wrong. The point is that one should listen and understand the other person rather than try to convince him or her that one is right. Fourthly, one should be willing to change, when one comes across new information. This will overcome stereotypes, halo effects and perceptual defences. Finally, one should view the world in dynamic terms, because one's behaviour can alter the phenomenon that is the basis for one's perceptions, so, one must notice the impact of one's own behaviour.

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

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

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

6.7 SUMMARY

The unit deals with the importance of perceptual process. The perceptual process impacts on many key decisions that affect employees e.g.: interviews, performance appraisals, assessment of effort and loyalty and attributing causes to specific behaviours. Perceptual errors can lead to lower employees performance, low morale and an overall reduction in the organisations effectiveness.

6.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) Perception is more a cognitive rather than a sensory process. Comment on this statement.
2) Discuss, citing examples, why perception is a key factor in managerial effectiveness.
3) Citing an example, discuss how can attributions lead you to make inaccurate judgments about others? Are there remedies for these problems?
4) What are the most common perceptual errors that you make? How do you think you can rectify them?
5) Describe an organisational situation in which a positive halo effect can result in bad decision making?
6) How might perceptual factors be involved when an employee receives a poor performance appraisal?
7) What is stereotyping? Give an example of how stereotyping can create perceptual distortion.

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UNIT 7 STRESS AND COPING

Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- understand the dynamics of executive stress, both functional and dysfunctional aspects of stress
- understand the nature of and different types of role stress
- plan to cope with stress.

Structure

7.1 WHAT IS STRESS?

The origin of the concept of stress predates antiquity. Selye has defined stress as: "the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it". The concept of stress has been borrowed from the natural sciences. During the 18th and 19th century, stress was equated with "force, pressure or strain" exerted up on a material object or person which resists these forces and attempts to maintain its original state. The use of the concept in this fashion encouraged physicists and engineers into adopting it to suit their ends. Thus, stress in engineering is known as "the ratio of the internal force brought into play when a substance is distorted to the area over which the force act".

The term stress has been used variously to refer to (1) stimulus (external force acting on the organism), (2) response (changes in physiological functions), (3) interaction (interaction between an external force and the resistance opposed to it, as in biology), and (4) more comprehensive combination of the above factors.

Stress as External Force

The external force approach to the phenomenon of stress focuses on the circumstances which people experience as stressful. Stress is treated as an independent variable, more or less beyond the control of the individual. According to Weitz the stressful stimuli are:

- Speed-up information processing
- Noxious environmental stimuli
- Perceived threat
- Disrupted psychological function
- Isolation and confinement
- Blocking
- Group pressures, and
- Frustrations

Psychological Function

Stress is considered as a response to a situation which demands that the individual adapt to a change physically or psychologically.

Proposed the theory of 'General Adaptation Syndrome", which states that when an organism is confronted with a threat the general physiological response occurs in three stages:

Alarm Reaction: The first stage includes an initial "shock phase" in which resistance is lowered, and a "countershock phase" in which defensive mechanisms become active.

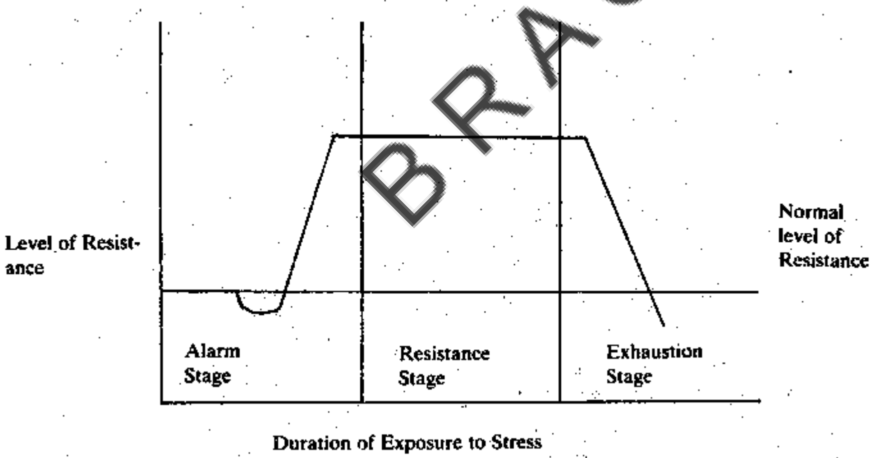
Alarm Reaction is characterised by autonomous excitability; adrenalin discharge; increased heart rate; muscle tone, and blood content; and gastro-intestinal ulceration. Depending on the nature and intensity of threat and the conditions of the organism the periods of resistance vary and the severity of symptoms may differ from a mild invigoration to disease of adaptation.

Stage of Resistance: Maximum adaptation occurs during this stage. The bodily signs characteristic of the alarm reaction disappear. Resistance increase to levels above normal. If the stressor persists, or the defensive reaction proves ineffective, the organism deteriorates to the next stage.

Stage of Exhaustion: Adaptation energy is exhausted, signs of alarm reaction reappear, and resistance level begins to decline irreversibly. The organism collapses.

A diagrammatic view of these stages is shown in Figure I.

Figure I: General Adaptation Syndrome



One of the major shortcomings of this theory is that the related research was carried out on infra-human subjects, where the stressors are usually physical or environmental—and this is not always the case in relation to human organisms.

Interactive Approach: According to this approach stress is looked upon as an interactional outcome of the external demand and internal resources. McGrath explains, "there is a potential for stress when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person's capacities and resources for meeting it, under condition where he has expected a substantial differential in the rewards and costs from meeting the demand versus not meeting.

Comprehensive Approach: This approach views stress not only in interactive terms but also as an individual phenomenon peculiar to the individual and his environment. It is seen as the situational outcome.

7.2 TYPES OF STRESS

There are three types of stress : (1) Psychological stressors, (2) Organisational Stressors, and (3) Societal Stressors.

Psychological Stressors
Since stress is a dynamic state within an organism in response to a demand for adaptation and since life itself entails constant adaptation, living creatures are always in a state of more or less stress.

The linkages as psychosocial variables evoke stress response that may ultimately be more damaging to the organism than aversive event itself. Psychological stressors may precede the physical event, last longer, and continue to evoke stress after physical event is past.

Internal demands that challenge or supress one's ability to adapt to them are likely to result in an interpretation of the demands as being stressful.

Lazarus and Cohen have suggested three general categories of stressors—cataclysmic phenomena, individual crises and daily hassels. Cataclysmic phenomena refers to a group of stressors resulting from sudden, unique and powerful single events or clusters of related events affecting large number of people, e.g., natural disasters etc. The second group includes those events that challenge adoptive abilities in the same way as cataclysmic phenomena but affect fewer people e.g., the death of a dear one.

The third group namely daily hassels refers to those stable and repetitive problems encountered in daily life that typically do not present great adoptive difficulty, e.g., job dissatisfaction, neighbourhood problems commuting, loss of job or the interpretation of the nature of one's daily work.

Activity 1

People have different feelings about their roles. Statement describing some such feelings are given below. Read each statement and indicate in the space on the left how often you have the feeling expressed in the statement in relation to your role in your organisation. Use the numbers given below to indicate your own feelings.

If you find that the category to be used in answering does not adequately indicate your own feelings, use the one which is closest to the way you feel.

1) My role tends to interfere with my family life.
2) I am afraid I am not learning enough in my present role for taking up higher responsibility.
3) I am not able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people over me.
4) My role has recently been reduced in importance.
5) My workload is too heavy.
6) Other role occupants do not give enough attention and time to my role.
7) I do not have adequate knowledge to handle the responsibilities in my role.
8) I have to do things in my role that are against my better judgement.
9) I am not clear on the scope and responsibilities of my role (job).
10) I do not get information needed to carry out responsibilities assigned to me.

Organisational Stressors
Organisational membership is a dominant source of stress. The concept of organisational stress first evolved in the classic work of Kahn et al. They were the earliest to draw attention to organisational stress in general and role stress in particular.

Pareek pioneered work on role stress by identifying as many as ten different types of organisational role stress. They are described briefly here.

1) **Inter-role Distance Stress (IRD)** is experienced when there is a conflict between

organisational and non-organisational roles. For example, the role of an executive versus the role of a husband.

2) Role Stagnation (RS): This kind of stress is the result of gap between demand to outgrow his previous role and to occupy new role effectively. It is the feeling of being stuck in the same role. Such a type of stress results into perception that there is no opportunity for one's career progression.

3) Role Expectation Conflict (REC): This type of stress is generated by different expectations by different significant persons about the same role; and the role occupant is ambivalent as to whom to please.

4) Role Erosion (RE): This type of role stress is the function of the role occupants feeling that some functions which should properly be belonging to his role are transferred to/or performed by some other role. This can also happen when the functions are performed by the role occupant but the credit for them goes to some one else.

5) Role Overload (RO): When the role occupant feels that there are too many expectations from the significant roles in this role set, he experiences role overload. There are two aspects of this stress, quantitative and qualitative. The former refers to having too much to do, while latter refers to too difficult.

6) Role Isolation (RI): This type of role stress refers to psychological distance between the occupants role and other roles in the same role set. It is also defined as role distance which is different from inter-role distance, in the sense that IRD refers to the distance among various roles occupied by the same individual, role isolation is characterised by the feelings that others do not reach out easily, indicative of the absence of strong linkages of one's role with other roles.

7) Personal Inadequacy (PI): This type of stress arises when the role occupant feels that he does not have the necessary skills and training for effectively performing the functions expected from his role. This is found to happen when the organisations do not impart periodic training to enable the employees to cope with the fast changes both within and outside the organisation.

8) Self-Role Distance (SRD): When the role person occupies goes against his self-concept, then he feels self-role distance type of stress. This is essentially a conflict arising out of mismatch between the person and his job.

9) Role Ambiguity (RA): It refers to the lack of clarity about the expectations of role which may arise out of lack of information or understanding. It may exist in relation to activities, responsibilities, personal styles, and norms and may operate at three stages.

a) When the role sender holds his expectations about the role.
b) When he sends it, and
c) When the occupant receives those expectations.

10) Resource Inadequacy (RIn): This type of stress is evident when the role occupant feels that he is not provided with adequate resources for performing the functions expected from his role.

Activity 1 (continued)
The ten statements in Activity 1 are taken from Pareek's instrument containing 50 items. These represent the ten role stresses, in order (IRD, RS, REC, RE, RO, RI, SRD, RA, RIn). Look at your answers. The higher the score, the more role stress you have of that type (0 is absence of stress, and 4 very high stress). Reflect on scores which are high in your case.

Sometime the society in which the individual lives, also creates stress. Every culture teaches people what to define as stressful, what to interpret as a minor adjustment. Even such a profound experience as the death of an infant can have different meanings. For an Indian couple, if their infant dies, it will be one of the most shattering, stressful events they will ever experience. But for an Australian aborigine, the death of an infant merely postpones the day it will enter the human family. This tribe of people believe that the soul of an infant merely returns to the common world of spirits, to avail a better time to be born.

Similarly, what happens in our families brings great joy as well as the most intense forms of stress. Conflict between husband and wife, arguments with teenage children, failing health of a parent, adjusting to new schools, feeling isolated in a new neighbourhood, and death of a family member can all bring unrelieved stress. Family pressures inevitably affect one's life at work and vice versa.

Beyond the family and one's life at work, all of us are connected to the wider social and physical environment. The government raises taxes and we feel the pinch. Gas shortage occurs and we have to wait in long lines. All of us encounter such short-term stresses that come from the wider environment: impersonal, beyond our control, yet they can invade our lives and create unrelieved stress.

7.3 BURNOUT AND RUSTOUT

All gainful activities classified as work or job are fraught with some risk of stress. Paine has observed: "Burnout Stress Syndrome" (BOSS), the consequence of a high level of job stress, personal frustration and inadequate coping skills have major personal, organisational and social costs—and these costs are probably increasing"

BOSS is a debilitating psychological condition brought about by unrelieved work stress. Four types of consequences can arise from it:

- depletion of energy reserves
- lowered resistance to illness
- increased dissatisfaction and pessimism
- increased absenteeism and inefficiency at work
- honeymoon
- fuel shortage chronic symptoms
- crisis, and
- hitting the wall

Honeymoon Stage: In the honeymoon stage there is a euphoric feeling of encounter with the new job. There is excitement, enthusiasm, pride and challenges. Dysfunctional features emerge in two ways. Firstly, the energy resources are gradually depleted in coping with the demands of a challenging environment. Secondly habits and strategies for coping with stress are formed in this stage which are often not useful in coping with later challenges.

Fuel Shortage Stage: In an attempt to deal with job-related crisis, some individuals overdraw on reserves of adaptation energy reserves and realise too late that the energy reserves are limited. In this stage, there is a vague feelings of loss, fatigue and confusion. The symptoms are job dissatisfaction, inefficiency, fatigue and sleep disturbance, leading to escape activities such as increased eating, drinking and smoking. Future difficulties are signalled at this stage.

C[illegible]nic Symptom Stage: The physiological symptoms become more pronounced and d[illegible] attention and help at this stage. Common symptoms are chronic exhaustion, phy[illegible]l illness, anger and depression.

Crisis Stage: When these feelings and physiological symptoms persist over a period of time, the individual enters the stage of crisis. He feels oppressed there is a heightened pessimism and self-doubting tendency is ascendant. One develops an "escape mentality". Peptic ulcers, tension headaches, chronic backache, high blood pressure and difficulty in sleeping are some of the better known symptoms of the crisis period. They may become acute.

Hitting the Wall Stage: The phrase "hitting the wall" is taken from athletics. It is said that a marathon actually begins at the "twenty mile mark with six miles to go". It is at this point that a marathon runner feels that he has hit the wall. It is an experience so devastating that it can completely knock a person out. The body temperature shoots up to 106°F-107°F with an accompanying loss of blood volume. This leads to muscle paralysis, dizziness, fainting and even complete collapse. Similar experiences have been observed in executive world at times. With all the adaptation energy depleted, one may lose control over one's life, it may be the end of a professional career.

Stress is like electric power. It can make a bulb light up and provide brilliant illumination. However, if the voltage is higher than what the bulb takes, it can burn out the bulb. The phenomenon of burnout is the harmful effect of stress resulting in loss of effectiveness. Burnout can be defined as the end result of stress experienced; but not properly coped, resulting in symptoms of exhaustion, irritation, ineffectiveness, inaction, discounting self and others, and problems of health (hypertension, ulcers, and heart problems/ailments). Pareek has suggested the opposite phenomenon of glow-up which occurs when stress is properly channelled, resulting in the feeling of challenge, high job satisfaction, creativity, effectiveness, better adjustment to work and life.

Generally roles requiring continuous work with people (teachers, trainers, salesmen, personnel roles) experience burnout more than roles requiring less contact with people. Highly routine and mechanical roles produce burnout. The amount of stress experienced (dis-stress, experienced as a source of irritation) also contributing to burnout.

Some personality factors have been found to contribute to burnout. A personality orientation called Type A has been found to be associated with burnout. More recent research has shown that specific elements in Type A personality contribute to burnout: cynicism (low interpersonal trust) and a sense of loneliness. Other personality factors contributing to burnout are externality (a feeling that the person does not have control over what happens, and external forces or chances or fate determine things), low self esteem, rigidity, alienation, and machiavellism (manipulative orientation). One research has shown that stress tolerance is higher in individuals with great impulse control (voluntary delay of satisfaction of physical and physiological needs), or self control.

Several factors contribute to burnout phenomenon (stress being very low or very high, unliked stress called distress; stress-prone personality, alienating role of job, hostile relationships, stress-absorbing life-style, avoidance oriented role style, use of dysfunctional coping modes or styles, and hostile organisational climates). The opposite of these contribute to the phenomenon of glow-up.

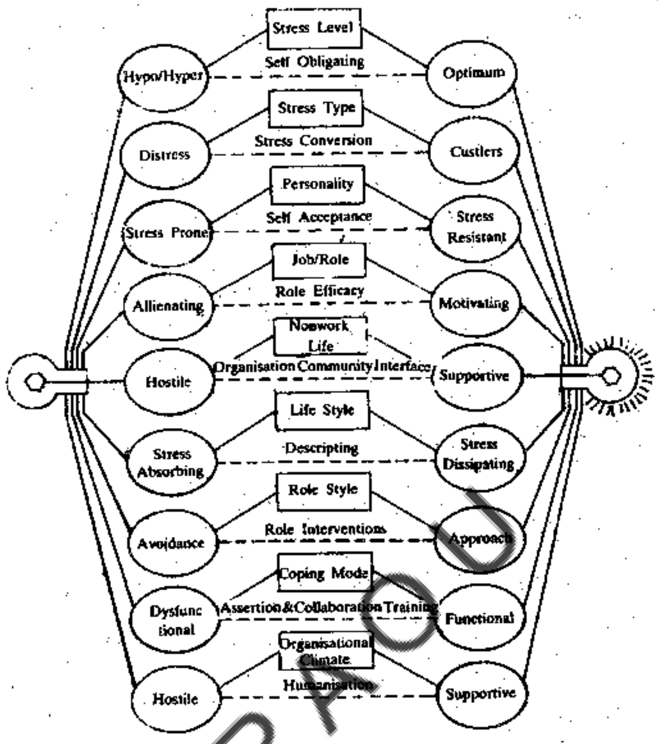
How do we prevent burnout? How do we convert the energy leading to burnout into one which may glow us up? Factors contributing to burnout and glow-up and the conversion strategies are shown in Figure 2. It shows that development of inner-directedness (self-obligating orientation) achieves the optimum level of stress-one factor contributing to glow-up. Similarly for each contributing factor one conversion strategy has been suggested. Most of these are self-explanatory. For changing life style the use of Transactional Analysis has been suggested:

understanding the life script, and then terminating it (descripting) through new decisions. Some special interventions may be needed for effective use of conversion strategies.

Rustout Stress Syndrome (ROSS)

Researchers have observed a phenomenon which is the opposite of BOSS. The Rustout Stress Syndrome or ROSS is indicative of stress underload. It occurs when there is a gap between what the executive is capable of doing and what he is required to do. The concept of role erosion is close to the concept of ROSS. Stress underload can arise due to both qualitative and quantitative aspects of work. Clearly a situational appraisal is a prerequisite for countering stress.

Figure 2
Executive Glowup and Burnout: Contributing Factors and Conversion Strategies



Dotted line indicates Conversion Strategies

7.4 COPING WITH STRESS

Individuals and the organisations cannot remain in a continuous state of tension. Even if a deliberate and conscious strategy is not utilised to deal with the stress; some strategy is adopted; for example, the strategy may be to leave the conflicts and stress to take care of themselves. This is also a strategy, although the individual or the organisations may not be aware of this. This we call avoidance coping strategy.

The word coping has mainly two meanings predominant in the literature. The term coping has been used to denote the way of dealing with stress, or the effort to master conditions of harm, threat, or challenges when a routine or automatic response is not readily available.

Two different approaches to the study of coping have been persued by various investigators. On the one hand, some have emphasised general coping traits, styles or dispositions, while others have preferred to study active ongoing strategies in particular stress situation.

Coping traits refer to a disposition to respond in a specific way in situations that are stressful. Coping traits are thus stable characteristics of the persons that transcend classes of situation. Coping style, tends to imply a broader, more encompassing disposition. Trait and style are fundamentally similar ideas. Trait and style refer to a characteristic way of handling situations, they are stable tendencies from which a prediction is made about how the person will cope in some or all types of stressful encounters. A person's coping style or disposition is typically assessed by personality tests, not by actual observation of what the person says or does in a particular stress situation.

The emphasis on process distinguishes the approach from most others, which are trait oriented. Psychologists have identified two major ways in which people cope with stress. One way is that the erosion may decide to suffer or deny the experienced stress, this is passive approach, or a person may decide to face the realities of experienced stress and clarity the problem through negotiations with other members. This is active approach.

Coping can have effects on three kinds of outcoming: psychological, social and physiological. From a psychological perspective coping could effect psychological morate (that is, the way one feels about oneself and one's life), emotional reaction e.g., level of depression or anxiety, or the balance between positive trend and negative toned feelings (Bradburn, 1969), the incidence of psychiatric disorders and even performance. From a social perspective, one can measure its impact on functioning effectiveness, such as employability; community involvement, and sociability (Renne; 1974), the effectiveness of the interpersonal relationship, or the degree to which useful social roles are filled (and acting out, anti-social behaviour. etc. are avoided). From a physiological perspective, outcome include short-term consequences, such as the development and progression of particular disease.

Managing Stress

Each individual needs a moderate amount of stress to be alert and capable of functioning. Given that presence of more or less stress is inevitable, many researchers sought to find to what could be done to counteract stress so as to prevent its negative consequences. Normally coping is defined as an adaptive response to stress: a response intended to eliminate, ameliorate or change the stress producing factors, or intended to modify the individual's reaction to stressful situation in a beneficial way.

There are basically two ways of managing stress:

1) What an organisation can do

2) What an individual can do

What an organisation can do:

What can an organisation do to alleviate stress? Some proactive interventions are listed below:

- undertake a stress audit
- use scientific inputs
- check with the company doctor
- spread the message

Stress Audit: Organisations have for almost a century now paid due attention to maintenance, creation and updating of technology. We are only gradually emerging from the stage where machines are better cared for than men. A stage has now been reached when the significance of human resource has been recognised for productive and healthy functioning of the organisation.

When an organisation decides to have a scientific peep into mental-cum-physical health status of its backbone group (executives) we call it a stress audit, stress audit refers to the attempt organisations make to study, explore and control the various types of stresses which the individual executives experience by virtue of their organisational membership.

In setting up a stress audit in an organisation, a distinction can be made among three categories of variables: casual stress variables (the stressors), mediating variables (the effect of personality, culture, and contemporary non-work environment) and end result variables (the stress reactions). The data needed for the stress audit can be collected with the aid of questionnaires, clinical diagnostic interviews and if possible, physical examination (Figure 3 gives an overview of stressors, mediating variables, and stress reaction patterns).

Use Scientific Inputs: Disperse information on how to face stressors in the organisation and outside. People derive immense benefits from knowing something about the fundamentals of the stress responses, dietetics exercises and meditation.

Check with the Company Doctor. What can he do to help the employees cope with the identified stress? Several progressive public as well as private organisations depute their chief medical officers or consultants to attend stress management programmes. They have acted a valuable resource to fellow participants and to their organisations.

Stressors

Organisational Design Variables
Physical work environment, (Noise, heat or cold, long working hours, hazardous job conditions, shift work, repetitive work),
Incentive System,
Technology,
Role Pressures (role conflict, role ambiguity).
Work overload (qualitative, quantitative).
Boundary activities.

Interpersonal Variables
Leadership style,
Absence of group cohesion
Lack of participation
Responsibility for people

Career Variables
Occupational level, Entry, Mid Career, Retirement, Demotion, Stagnation, Sequence, Obsolescence.

Stress Reactions

Individual

Cardiovascular Reactions (i.e. high blood pressure, hyperten-sion, elevated serum cholesterol rapid heart beat, coronaries).
(i.e. ulcer, colitis).
Allergy-Respiratory Reactions (i.e. asthma, skin disorders).
Oral Reaction (i.e. alcoholism, obesity, pill popping, excessive, coffee drinking).
Emotional Distress Reactions (i.e. depression, suicide, agitation, insomina, job tension)
Low Self-Esteem.
Low Trust.

Organisational
Low Job Satisfaction, Job Tension, Turnover, Absenteeism, Strikes, Accident Proneness, Output Problems (Quality and Quantity)

Personality Effect
Socio-Cultural Effect
Non-Work Environmental Effect

Source: Kets de Varies

Spread the Message: The importance of regular habits of work, leisure, proper diet, exercise and mental peace should be emphasised.

What an Individual can Do:
When individuals experience stress, they adopt ways of dealing with it. An individual cannot remain in a continual state of tension, so even if a deliberate and conscious strategy is not utilised to deal with stress, some strategy is adopted. We shall call this coping. The word coping has been used mainly in two meanings, in a general meaning of ways of dealing with stress, or the effort to "master" conditions of harm, threat or challenge. We shall use the term coping in the first meaning (ways of dealing with stress), distinguishing with effective and ineffective coping. Pareek has suggested "approach" and "avoidance" strategies.

Generally effective coping strategies are "approach" strategies, to confront the problem of stress as a challenge, and to increase capability of dealing with it. Ineffective strategies are "escape" or avoidance strategies, to reduce the feeling of stress, for example, by denying the reality of stress, or through use of alcohol, drugs or other escapist behaviour.

Research has shown that social and emotional support available to the person helps him or her to effectively cope with stress. Persons maintaining close interpersonal relationship with friends and the family are able to use more appropriate strategies.

Social support includes both material support (providing resources), and emotional support (listening to the person and encouraging him/her). Studies have also shown that when one does not want support, if given, it may have negative consequences.

Approach or effective strategies of coping include efforts to increase physical and mental preparedness for coping (through physical exercises, yoga and meditation, diet management), creative diversions for emotional enrichment (music, art, theatre etc.), strategies of dealing with the basic problems causing stress, and collaborative work to solve such problems.

The various coping strategies or styles used in role stress have been studied, and the findings show that approach styles have strong relationship with internality, optimism, role efficacy, job satisfaction, and effective role behaviour in organisations. Two contrasting approaches (avoidance or dysfunctional and approach or functional) for some role stresses are illustrated below.

Let us take self-role distance. Many individuals who find a conflict between their self-concept and the role they occupy in an organisation, may either play that role in a routine way to earn their living. They take no interest in their role, and this is indicative of self-role distance. They have rejected the role. On the other hand, some other individuals may seriously occupy their roles and in due course of time, completely forget their self-concept and play that role effectively, but reject their self. Both these approaches are avoidance approaches. Dysfunctional: If an individual rejects the role he is likely to be ineffective in the organisation. However, if he rejects the self, he is likely to lose his effectiveness as an individual and it is likely to be bad for his mental health.

An approach or functional strategy of dealing with this stress is to attempt role integration. The individual may analyse the various aspects of the roles which are causing self-role distance and may begin to acquire skills if this may help him to bridge this gap, or carry his own self into the role by defining some aspects of the role according to his own strengths. In other words, an attempt both to grow into the role and make the role grow to use the special capabilities of the person would result in role integration where the individual gets the satisfaction of occupying a role which is nearer to his self-concept. Such an integration is not easy to achieve, but with systematic effort; it is also not very difficult to attain.

Similar is the case with role expectation conflict. When the various expectations from the role one occupies conflict with one another, role stress may develop. One way to deal with this stress is to eliminate those expectations from the role which are likely to conflict with other expectations. This is the process of role shrinkage is the act of pruning the role in such a way that some expectations can be given up. Role shrinkage may help to avoid the problem, but it is a dysfunctional approach since the advantage of a larger role is lost. Instead of role shrinkage, if role linkages are established with other roles, and the problem is solved by devising some new ways of achieving the conflicting expectations, the individual can experience both the process of growth as well as satisfaction. If for example, a professor who is experiencing conflict between three expectations from his role, that of teaching students, doing research, and consulting with organisations, may find that the stress is essentially that of personal inadequacy. He may not have enough skills for doing research. Usually because of lack of relative skills, he may take recourse to role shrinkage. However, one way to deal with this problem is to develop role linkage with other colleagues who are good in research, and work out an arrangement whereby research is not neglected. A better way of resolving the problems may be to find ways of doing things in a more non-traditional and productive way.

Role stagnation is a common stress in organisation, when individuals get into new roles as a result of their advancement in the organisation, or as a result of taking over more challenging roles. There may be a feeling of apprehension because the role is new and may require skills which the role occupant may not have. In such a situation, a usual way is to continue to play the previous role about which the individual is sure, and which he has been doing successfully. In many cases this is the tragedy of the organisations that even after advancement people at the top continue to play the role of the lower level manager. A foreman, for example, in due course may become General Manager, and still he may continue to play the role of the foreman with consequent frustrations to the new foreman and to others who expect him to devote his time to more productive aspects. In one organisation, after several self-search sessions; it became clear to many persons at the senior management level that their tendency to have close supervision was really a tendency to continue to play their old roles. This is especially so if the individual role requires more new skills which have to be developed. For example, planning roles and the role of scanning the environment require altogether new skills. In the absence of such skills, the usual tendency is to fall back on the old tried out roles. This is role fixation, and is an avoidance strategy.

As it is necessary for an individual to grow out of his role as a boy into that of an adolescent, and out of adolescence into adulthood, similarly, it is important for people to grow out of that old roles into new ones and face up the challenges. An approach and a more functional way to resolve this conflict is that of role transition. Role transition is the process by which a previous role, howsoever successful and satisfying it may have been, is given up to take a new and more developed role. Role transition is helped by various processes, including anticipatory socialisation, role clarity, substitute gratification, and transition procedure. In order to make role transition mor effective, it is necessary to have anticipatory socialisation, that is preparation for the taking of the new role. This would also include delegation of responsibility and functions to people below one's own role, so that the person can be free to experiment and he can take help in such experimentation from others. Such is a process of role transitions. The usual approach to deal with this problem is either to assign the roles clearly, so that a person is a husband or father when he is at home, and an executive when he is in his office, or there may be role elimination that is, accepting one role at the cost of the other role. In such a case, the individual takes recourse to rationalisation. For example, an executive who neglects his family at home and who in this process eliminates his role of father and husband, rationalises the process by thinking that he makes a unique contribution to the company and, therefore, can afford to neglect his family, or he earns enough for his family who should pay the price of losing him as a husband and as a father. Such rationalisations are part of the process of role elimination. These are avoidance strategies.

A more functional approach to the problem is role negotiation. The process of role negotiation is the process of establishing mutuality of roles and getting necessary help to play the roles more effectively, and giving help in turn to the other role. For example, an executive who is not able to find time for his family, may sit down and negotiate with his wife and children on how best he can spend time meaningfully within the given constraints. One executive in the largest nationalised bank in India solved the problem by discussing with his family and working out an arrangement whereby he would give entire sundays to his family and would not normally accept invitations to dine out unless both the wife and husband were invited. This negotiation was highly satisfying because neither of roles had to be sacrificed and eliminated.

For role ambiguity the usual approach is to make the roles clear by putting various things on paper. This is role prescription. The various expectations are defined more clearly. Or, the individual may remove ambiguity by fitting into the role as described in some expectations. This is the process of role taking. Both are avoidance strategies. An approach strategy may be to seek clarification from various sources and to define the role in the light of such clarifications. In contrast with role taking, a more creative way is to define the role according to one's own strength and to take some steps in making the role more challenging. This is the process of role making.

To deal with the stress of role overload, that is, a feeling of too many expectations from several sources, the role occupant usually prepares a list of all functions in terms of priorities. He gives top priority to those functions which are important. This kind of prioritisation may help put things in order of importance. However, the problem may be that the functions with which a person is less familiar and comfortable may tend to be pushed low down the priority list, and may be neglected. Those functions which a person is able to perform without any effort get top priority. Those which are in the lower level of priority always remain neglected, and in this sense, this approach may be dysfunctional. This is an avoidance strategy. A more functional approach may be to redefine the role and see which aspects of the role may be delegated to other persons who may be helped to develop take on these functions. This may help the other individuals also to grow. This may be called role slimming. The role does not lose its vitality in the process of delegating some functions; in fact the vitality increases with decrease in obesity.

In role isolation (when there is tension and distance between two roles in an organisation) the usual tendency is for each role occupant to play the role most efficiently, and avoid interactions. The role occupant confines himself to his own role. This may be called role boundness. He voluntarily agrees to be bound by the role. This strategy avoids the possible conflict. We find individual executives and managers who are responsible for the organisation. This is likely to be dysfunctional as it does not help the individual play his role in the larger interest of the organisation. A better method and an approach strategy is role negotiation.

In role erosion an individual feels that some important functions which he would prefer to perform are being performed by some other roles. The usual reactions in such a situation is to fight for rights of the role, and to insist on clarification of roles. The solution is sought in making structural clarifications. However, this is not likely to be functional and helpful, since the basic conflict is avoided and it continues. An approach strategy may be that of role enrichment. Like job enrichment, the concept role enrichment suggests vertical loading of the role. Role enrichment can be done by analysing the role systematically, and helping the individuals to see the various strengths in the role and the various challenges which the role contains but which might not have been apparent to the individual when he performs it. Significant role set members can help make the role more challenging and satisfying to the role occupant.

Figure IV summarizes the functional and dysfunctional strategies for the 10 role stresses.

Figure IV: Coping Strategies for Role Stresses

Role Stresses	Dysfunctional Strategies	Functional Strategies
1 Self-role distance	Role rejection, self rejection	Role integration
2 Interrole distance	Role partition, role elimination	Role negotiation
3 Role stagnation	Role fixation	Role transition
4 Role isolation	Role boundness	Role linkage
5 Role ambiguity	Role prescription	Role clarification
6 Role expectation conflict	Role taking	Role making
7 Role overload	Role reduction	Role slimming
8 Role erosion	Role visibility	Role development/enrichment
9 Resource inadequacy	Role atrophy	Resource generation
10 Personal inadequacy	Role shrinkage	Role linkage

In summary, effective management of stress involves directing stress for productive purpose, preparing role occupants to understand the nature of stress, helping role occupants to understand their strengths and usual styles, and equip them to develop approach strategies of coping with stress. The next chapter deals with one systematic approach to make roles more effective and develop approach competence to deal with some dimensions of role stress.

Gmelch (1982) suggests the following five strategies to overcome stress affliction

- **Take a hard look at yourself:** Determine where stresses originate in your life. Critically examine your own contribution to stresses experienced by others around you, be they in the organisation or outside it.
- **Stay alert:** Do things, other than your job, which give you a sense of meaning and satisfaction.
- **Take risks:** Growth and productivity result from taking moderate risks in various types of activities.
- **Avoid isolation:** Withdrawing from others can lead to isolation and depression. Keep the channels of communication open with colleagues, friends and the family.
- **Stretch for success:** Stretching for success keeps you on your toes. Make an effort with the hope to achieve your goals. Efforts and desire to overcome the obstacle are essential to tide over ROSS.
- **Overcome obsolescence:** Update your knowledge and skill to face the challenge brought about by the changing technological environment

Besides the above mentioned strategies to overcome stress, all individual process stress safety valves. The stress safety valves serve at least two important functions. First, they enable one to escape the direct pressure of work stress. One's instinctive stress response mobilises him for a single escape strategy: vigorous physical flight. If an individual can develop effective stress safety valves, it is as if one is taking conscious control of this flight response. The second function of stress safety valves is to counter act the biochemical and psychological changes that occur when mobilise to deal with stress, one may or may not be aware of this build up, but it occurs nevertheless. It manifests itself in muscle tension. It shows up changes in body chemistry we can sometimes feel as with a burning stomach, itchy eyes and skin, or dry mouth.

A few safety valves are suggested below:

Changing Gears: Changing gears involves shifting 'from' work 'to' something else. In order to change gears, one has to try activities that capture his/her interest. Psychologists call such pursuits 'intrinsic motivators'. They give one a feeling of well-being. Changing gears not only removes one's attention from pressures of work, it helps drain off the pent-up tensions. The pursuit of almost any non-work project or hobby can reduce stress.

Cutback on Excessive Hours: For many people, burnout and overtime go hand in hand. It is generally seen that the more hours you work the more likely you are to burnout.

Job burnout cycle keeps some people glued to their jobs through inefficiency. Some kind of work stress starts the cycle of energy consumption and consequent fatigue. Then they lose their efficiency at work and have to stay late more and more frequently to finish up. But this overtime only speeds up the process, for it adds an additional work stress. Often, as the burnout victims falls further behind he or she can loose self-confidence and work even harder and longer to make up for the sense of inadequacy.

Exercise: Because burnout almost always comes from excessive mental and emotional stress, physical exercise offers one of the best safety valves. Exercise works as a stress inoculation according to Dr. George Williams (Director of the Institute of Health Research, San Fransisco), not only relieving the pressure at the end of a hectic day, but making it possible for you to deal more effectively with stress the next day.

Exercise does not have to be strenuous or competitive. Walking offers many benefits and can put one into excellent cardiovascular condition, as well as reduce stress.

Pamper yourself: Most of us know how to pamper other people when they experience a life crisis. We send flowers to a friend in the hospital, shovel snow from the walk of a neighbour who recently lost his wife etc. such special attention helps people cope with stress. Pampering yourself can have the same effect.

There are many ways to pamper oneself. The harassed assembly line worker might plan a series of mini-vacations instead of taking all two weeks in a single block of time. The housewife might arrange a trip to visit an old friend or plan an evening out—without the kids. The key object in pampering oneself is to break the routine.

Get involved: A boring job can lead to burnout as easily as a challenging one with too much pressure. If an individual work does not use his skills, if it leaves him thinking that even a chimp could do this, then one may need to get involved.

Warm up slowly: One can often get control of a tense, pressured work day if one changes the way it begins, the basketball player warms up before the buzzer sounds to start the game. If an individual's day begins with a sudden rush of activity or a mad scramble on some crowded subway it will add to his stress. The most important two-hour period in one day is prior to starting work. During that period one should set the tone for the day. That's when he enters his own compression chamber. The little things one does in the morning prepares him for the tensions he encounters during the day.

Release Pressures on the Job
The people who burnout are often the best workers. They take their jobs seriously, work faster and harder than others and never shirk responsibility. This very commitment makes them more susceptible to work stress. The pressures build up and they do not find it as easy to open the safety valves, good off, or escape for a few minutes.

One of the best ways of releasing the pressure on the job is to rearrange one's schedule. One way to deal with stress is to confront difficult tasks when one is fresh. When one is tired, the pressure can hit harder.

Practice Relaxation Techniques: The stress response goes through four processes: mobilisation, increase in energy consumption, muscular action involved in fight or flights and then a return to equilibrium. One can aid that process by learning to switch off the stress response and switch on the relaxation response. Thus it can be seen that certain amount of stress is essential for doing any task well but each individual should know his stress tolerance limit and not stretch too far.

7.5 FURTHER READINGS

Hans Selye was the earliest stress researcher. The various ideas propounded by him, contained in *The Stress of Life* (McGraw Hill, 1956) still guides most of stress work. R.S. Lazarus was also an early contributor to thinking on stress. "Environmental Stress" by R.S. Lazarus & J.B. Cohen in J.F. Wohlwill (Ed.) *Human Behaviour and Environment* Vol 1 (Plenum, 1977) contains good material on societal stress. More recent systematic presentation can be found in J.E. McGrath "Stress and behaviour in organisation", in M. Dunnettee (Ed.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organisational Psychology* (Rand McNally, 1976).

R.L. Khan *et. al.* brought attention to role stress in their new classical volume *Organisational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity* (John Wiley, 1964). They proposed three role stresses (role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload). Based on research in Indian organisations, Udai Pareek proposed ten organisations role stresses, with an instrument to measure them. *Role Stress Scales with Instrument, Answer sheet and Manual* (Navin, 1983). Four General Role Stress (GRS) were also proposed with their instruments. A large number of researches have been done on ORS and ERS, including a few outside India.

P.M. Pestonjee has done the most extensive work on stress in Indian organisations. His forthcomings reviewing stress research and practices in India, and proposing some concepts and action plans is a good source book. His article "Executive Stress: Should it be Avoided" (Vikalpa, 1987, 12 (1), 20-30) summarises the latest on organisational stress. Another excellent review of Indian Works on Stress is by Sagar Sharma "Stress and Anxiety" in J. Pandey (Ed.) (1988) *Psychology in India: The State the Art.* Vol. 1 Ch. 4. New Delhi: Sage.

W.S. Paine edited a book *Job Stress and Burnout:* Research, Theory and Interventions (Sage, 1982), with good material on coping. Udai Pareek presented a concept and instrument on styles of coping with stress (suggesting for functional and four dysfunctional styles (*Role Pics with Instrument, Answer Sheet, Scoring Sheet and Manual*) (Navin, 1983).

Notes

BLOCK 3 INTER PERSONAL PROCESSES

In the earlier block you have learnt about the processes within oneself. In this block you will be learning about the processes involved between each other. Unit 9 explains the helping processes. The importance of communication and feedback is explained in unit 10. Unit 11 deals with Interpersonal styles, which are used between each other.

UNIT 8 HELPING PROCESSES

Objectives

After going through the Unit you should be able to:

- understand the dynamics of helping relationship
- understand the dynamics of helping, the role of the helper and the receiver
- appreciate the need of creative helping climate

Structure

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In many systems, such as the family, group, and formal organisation. We come across a few people who are able to facilitate the personal or professional growth of the other individuals. Consider some case histories:

1) Mr. Puri was the personal secretary to the General Manager (GM). He had been a good performer, but the GM noticed that the number of mistakes in Mr. Puri's typing had increased over a period of time. The GM called him for a personal discussed the issue in a supportive climate. By the end of the discussion. He put him at ease and discussion, both the GM and Mr. Puri understood why the mistakes had increased and they were able to agree on a plan of action to address the problem. In addition, Mr. Puri was able to gain some insight into his own behaviour and felt more motivated to excel in his job.

2) Ashok Rajguru was doing his doctoral programme in theoretical physics in an American University. He was having a personal discussion with Donald French, a graduate student in clinical psychology from the same university. At the start of their conversation, Ashok had a general sense of dissatisfaction and shared it with Donald, who listened to him attentively and paraphrased Ashok's viewpoints at appropriate points and raised helpful questions. By serving as a mirror ..... helped Ashok .... his dissatisfaction. By the end of the discussion, Ashok felt much better, as he understood his problems more clearly and was able to make up his mind with regard to what he would do next.

We have all been involved in such interpersonal processes and given or received help. Carl Rogers defines a helping relationship as one "in which at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, improved coping with life of the other." This definition would include parent and child, teacher and students, manager and subordinates, consultant and client, and many other less formally defined relationships.

Helping can be reactive or proactive. When help is given to someone who asks for help or is seen as needing help, this is reactive behaviour (responding to the need of the other person). On the other hand, if help is given because of the helper's need to give (rather than because the receiver needs to receive), helping is proactive. This distinction has been very well made in the Indian ethos on the basis of the need of the receiver or of the giver. When the receiver's need is dominant it is called **Bhiksha** (whether asking or giving help), but if the need of the giver is more important then it is called **Daan** (both while giving and receiving help). This distinction is not found in other cultures. This distinction is useful to indicate that giving help as a motive is aroused not only by other person or group's needed help, but also the giver's need. Moreover, the given has a higher status in Bhiksha, whereas in Daan the recipient has a higher status, and obliges the giver by accepting help.

Factor analysis of helping behaviour has thrown up some interesting factors. Two factors are particularly significant. One is planned versus spontaneous help. Planned help is based on detailed analysis and preparation of help to be given, to meet the needs of the recipient. Spontaneous help is a response to request received or the signals given by individuals or groups in urgent need of help. Crisis is a good example of spontaneous help, there is no time for detailed planning of help.

The second factor is giving versus doing. Helping can be either in terms of giving material help, by parting away with some material possession. One passes on material money to other group or person. Doing requires much more initiative and effort involving collaborative relationship.

8.2 THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

Helping relationship involves two parties, the helper and the receiver. Four processes are involved in this relationship: help giving, help receiving (what is given by the helper), help seeking (actively asking for help), and help reciprocation (mutual helping relationship). Helping relationship operates in a context (situation), so, the situational variables are also relevant.

Studies on altruism and prosocial behaviour are intimately related to helping. Explanation of the motive to help has been made in terms of altruism (the urge to do good to others) or extension motive (the urge to be relevant and relate to a larger entity). Extension motive has been discussed in Unit 6 of MS 22.

In the literature the terms helper, donor and agent have been used for one who gives help; recipient, receiver, helper, and client have been used for one to whom help is given. In the Western literature helping process has been considered only from the point of view of the need of the recipient.

Helping process involves some values underlying relationship between the helper and the receiver.

The central issue in a helping process relates to the values of the helper. The helping behaviour and strategies flow out of the basic stand he takes in relation to the receiver. Figure 1 gives in summary the dynamics of the helping process in value terms. The helper should ask himself/herself what values he/she holds and with what consequences.

Okun has suggested that the following set of images of people is essential for effective helping process.

1) People are responsible and capable of making their own choices and decisions.

2) People are controlled to a certain extent by their environment, but they are able to direct their lives more than they realise. They always have choices and freedom, along with responsibility, even if they have restricted options due to environmental variables or inherent biological or personality predispositions.

3) Behaviours are purposive and goal directed. People are continuously striving towards meeting their own needs, ranging from basic physiological needs to abstract self-actualisation (fulfilling physiological, psychological and aesthetic needs).

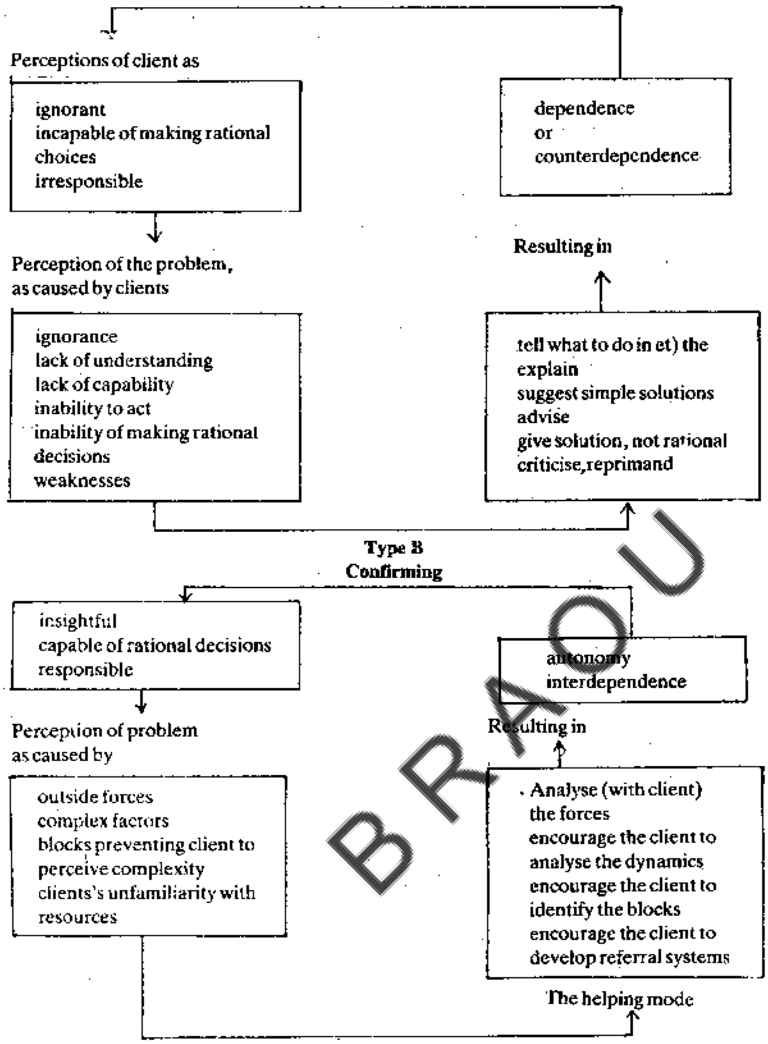
4) People want to feel good about themselves and continuously need positive confirmation of their own self-worth from significant others. They want to feel and behave congruently, to reduce dissonance between internal and external realities.

5) People are capable of learning new behaviours and unlearning existing behaviours and they are subject to environmental and internal consequences of their behaviours, which in turn serve as reinforcements. They strive for reinforcements that are meaningful and congruent with their personal values and belief system.

6) People's personal problems may arise from unfinished business (un-resolved conflicts) stemming from the past (concerning events and relationships) and, although some exploration of causation may be beneficial in some cases, most problems can be worked through by focusing on the here and now, on what choices the person has now. Problems are also caused by incongruencies between internal (how you see things inside) and external (how you see things outside) perceptions in the present.

7) Many problems experienced by people today are societal or systemic rather than personal or interpersonal. People are capable of learning to effect choices and changes within the system as well as from without.

Figure 1
Circular Helping Process: Two Types
Type A
Confirming



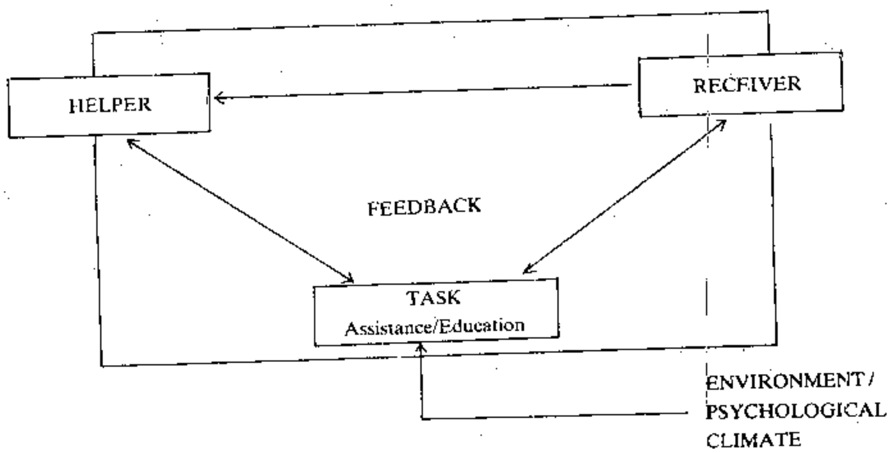
In effective helping relationships, individual receiving help is able to:

- see new possibilities
- notice things about oneself that one was not aware of
- able to unfreeze' oneself
- face up to the reality of the situation or face up to oneself
- open the doors for new experiences
- develop security and courage to deal with challenges
- understand people events and situations better
- work out the consequences of one's actions
- piece together different things about oneself and understand why one acts or why one sees things the way one does.

When such positive outcome occur in the interpersonal relations, we conclude that interacting have promoted growth. However, helping relationship is fraught with many psychological difficulties that can either sidetrack or destroy the relationship. Often, an individual requiring help may come away from the interpersonal process doubting himself/herself and feeling off-balance. He/she may feel trapped, constrained, confused and hurt. He/she may even have become negative and cynical. He/she may feel that nothing new was offered and the other persons were simply imposing their viewpoints. In such cases, the interactions have been unable to facilitate learning and growth.

Kolb and Boyatizis have proposed a model (Figure 2), which emphasises five key elements in the helping relationship.

Figure 2
Helping Relationship



The model has the following elements:

1) the task or problem around which the helping relationship develops
2) the helper with his/her motives and self-image,
3) the receiver of help with his/her motives and self-image,
4) the information feedback which occurs during the helping processes, and
5) the environment and psychological climate in which the helping activities occur.

We will examine each of the above elements below.

The Task

The tasks around which helping relationships develop are widely varied. As shown in Figure 3 we can classify the task on a single dimension, namely, the extent to which it is required that the receiver of help be capable of accomplishing the task independently when the helper is no longer present. At one end of this dimension are tasks defined as assistance, situations where there is no emphasis on the client's independent task performance; and at the other end of the continuum is education, where the emphasis is strongly on developing the client's ability to solve problems.

Figure 3
The Helping Tasks

Assistance	Education
Purpose: Solution of an immediate problem.	**Purpose:** Developing the client's ability to solve problems.
Helper: An expert who uses special knowledge, skills and other resources.	**Helper:** A facilitator, who works with the client in the client's frame of reference.
Likely problem with the approach: Induces dependence on the helper and makes termination of helping relationship difficult.	**Likely problem with the approach:** Causes frustration in the short term to the client with strong needs for symptom relief.

The 'assistance' approach is also sometimes referred to as the medical model of helping, where the helper, treats the other person like patient, listens to the symptoms, makes a diagnosis and prescribes alternatives. The next time the person faces a similar problem, he/she has to again go to the helper. But the educational approach emphasises the client's long terms benefit, by focusing on the clients problem solving ability rather than the client's problem.

The Helper

The personal characteristics of the helper are major factors influencing the process and outcome of the helping relationship. The study done by Kolb and Boyatizis suggests that individuals can be categorised on the basis of their characteristics as shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4
Personal Characteristics of Helpers

Personal characteristics	Individual likely to be
Timid and Self-conscious (Inability/ Unwillingness to influence)	Non-helper (does not attempt to help)
Brash and Overconfident (Highly controlling)	Ineffective helper (Gets into helping relationship but creates passivity/rebellion in the client)
Willing to influence but not dominant; open to other's ideas/views	Effective helper

In other words, the effective helpers are less concerned with controlling the other person and more concerned with the task accomplishment. Ineffective helpers tend to be preoccupied with their own needs to feel superior and to have control over the other person, and so they do not act in the client's best interests. The non-helpers miss opportunities to contribute to the growth of other individuals because of their own timidity and self-consciousness. In some other studies effective helpers have been found to be high on internal focus of control, social responsibility, cooperativeness, empathy, extraversion and warm-heartedness. However, the helper's personality has been found to be a weak predictor of helping behaviour.

Carl Rogers has discussed what it takes for helpers to facilitate the personal growth of clients. Such a helping relationship is perhaps the purest example of an educational process. In these cases, the helpers act as facilitators rather than as experts, and should meet the following requirements to be effective.

1) The helpers should be perceived by clients as trustworthy, dependable and consistent. Trustworthiness does not merely refer to fulfilling outer conditions such as keeping appointments, respecting confidentiality and so on. The helpers should be congruent in the sense that they are dependably real, aware of their own feelings and attitudes, and act in a consistent manner.

2) The helpers should be able to communicate unambiguously, and this requires that they are aware of their feelings. For example, if a helper is annoyed but is not fully aware, he/she gives contradictory messages, with words giving one message and the annoyance being conveyed through non-verbal communication. This confuses the client and makes him/her distrustful.

3) The helpers should experience positive attitudes towards the other persons. Unless there is some caring, warmth, liking, interest, and respect, one cannot be helpful. Helping relationships are not impersonal in character.

4) The helpers should have the strength to remain separate from the other persons and learn to respect their own feelings as well as the clients' feelings. The helpers should not be downcast by the clients' depression, frightened by their fear, engulfed by their dependence, destroyed by their anger or enslaved by their love.

5) Helpers should not interfere with the freedom of the clients in order to develop a personality independent of their own. They should permit the clients to be the way they are, rather than expect them to follow their advice and remain dependent on them.

6) Effective helpers should have an empathic understanding. They should be able to work within the frame of reference of the clients. In other words, they should be able to enter into the world of the clients and observe things and experience meanings as clients do.

7) They should receive the clients as they are and accept them unconditionally. They cannot disapprove of some aspects of the clients personality, while approving of some other facets.

8) Helpers should act with sufficient sensitivity, so as to ensure that their behaviour does not become threatening to the clients. The clients should be free to focus on their internal feelings and conflicts.

9) A specific aspect of the preceding point is that the clients are freed from the threat of external evaluation, so that they realise that the locus of evaluation of the centre of responsibility lies within themselves.

10) The helpers should not be bound by their own past or the clients past. They should be able to accept the whole potentiality of the other person rather than see him/her

as something fixed, already diagnosed and classified, and already shaped by the past.

The Receiver
By asking for help, the receiver places himself/herself in a weaker position. If the helper places himself in the stronger position of a "given" the relationship may degenerate into rebellion or passivity by the client or rejection of the receiver by the helper. Secondly, if the receiver and the helper are excessively concerned with intimacy, it can produce pressure toward conformity and mutual sympathy which may cause the helper to lose his/her perspective on the client's problem and the client to lose his/her respect for the helper's expertise. Thirdly, we have already noted that if helper's concern for influencing is too high, the client will not be motivated to receive help. Finally, the self image and attitude of the receiver is also important. The client must see himself/herself as capable of improvement. If this is not so, then a major portion of the helping activity must centre on building self-confidence and optimism before learning can take place.

Thus the receiver's personal characteristics are an important part of the helping relationship. One helping mode, examined in Unit 12, is feedback. The individuals tend to become defensive when they feel threatened by the feedback they receive, for example when they are criticized or blamed. Some amount of defensive behaviour in the face of perceived threat is not uncommon, but if the receivers operate primarily from a defensive position, exploration gets blocked, and the objectives of learning and growth get frustrated. This aspect has been examined in details in Unit 10 which elaborates defensive and confronting behaviour.

The Situation
Helping behaviour is in a situational context, and both the tendency to help and the effectiveness of help are partly determined by the contextual factors. Research has shown that the factors making help both possible and effective are: awareness of the receiver's need for help physiological arousal following such an awareness, labelling the situation as one requiring help, prior reinforcement for helping, modelling, liking for the receiver, close relationship between the giver and the receiver, and a pleasant mood. On the other hand, ambiguity, regarding the need for help, diffusion of responsibility and a restriction of the helpers freedom of choice of action have been found to lower the likelihood of helping. There are implications of these findings for strategy planning for help.

Activity 1
Identify two situations, one in which an individual needs help in your department and another in which a group in the organisation may need help of the other group in your organisation. Based on the factors enumerated in the above paragraph, prepare a strategy of making help more effective.

8.3 DYNAMICS OF HELPING IN ORGANISATIONS

Helper or donor can be an individual or a collectivity. For example, when help in given by an institution or a community or a department the helper is a collectivity. Similarly, the receiver can also be an individual or a collectivity. Help can be given to an individual or to a group, or a community, or a society etc. Various helping interventions can be classified in a matrix formed by the two axes. The matrix is reproduced in Figure 5, with various helping activities in four cells of the matrix. Before discussing the four cells (and the helping activities), it may be mentioned that some common and frequent helping activities or interventions in organisations are training, feedback, and asking/receiving help. These have been mentioned in all the four cells. However, their nature will differ from one cell to the other.

Figure 5
Matrix of Helping Behaviour in Organisations

Receiver

Helper

	Individual	
INDIVIDUAL	* Feedback * Counselling * Mentoring * Support in Crisis * Requesting help * Responding	* Training * Feedback * Social Work * Awareness raising * Requesting * Responding
COLLECTIVITY	* Feedback * Training * Requesting * Responding * Support in Crisis	* Feedback * Training * Collaboration * Support in Crisis * Social responsibility * Awareness raising * Requesting * Responding

From Individuals to Individual:
There are several dyadic situations in organisations. Supervisor-employee and colleague-colleague interactions and help are frequent. Feedback, counselling and mentoring are the most frequent helping activities in a supervisor client dyadic groups. Asking for help and responding to help can be both in supervisor-employee, and colleague dyads. Help in crises can also be seen in some dyadic groups.

Feedback: Kolb and Doyatizis raise the important question as to whether helpful feedback should be positive (pleasant for the client to hear) or negative (unpleasant). While there are those who feel that negative feedback is sometimes helpful in that it serves to unfreeze the client's self-satisfied concept of himself/herself and increases the motivation to change, most learning theorists believe that in the long run reward is more effective than punishment. Carl Roger too, places heavy emphasis on the importance of positive feedback to the client in his concept of unconditional positive regard. We have already noted earlier that in a helping relationship, Rogers values "a relationship of warmth and safety, particularly the safety of being liked and prized as a person." Rogers also cites psychotherapy research which showed that therapists who demonstrated high degree of unconditional positive regard for their clients were more successful than those who did not. Feedback has been discussed in detail in Unit 10, including guidelines for effective feedback.

Counselling: Counselling is a very effective helping intervention in a dyadic group, usually supervisor and the employee. Unit 8 of MS-22 is devoted to detailed discussion of performance counselling.

Mentoring: While counselling is usually a helping activity initiated by a supervisor in relation to his employees, mentoring is done by expert and emotionally mature persons to develop young bright colleagues. They need not and usually do not have supervisory relationship with the protege. Mentoring has also been discussed in Unit 8 of MS-22.

Requesting help: This mode of helping relationship is less frequently used because asking help is seen as inferior or less desirable behaviour as if the person requesting help admits his weakness. Unless people ask for help they cannot give effective help at an equal level. Helping relationship must develop a concern for mutuality facilitating requests for help when it is needed. The organisational climate should promote the culture of asking for help and responding to it.

Responding to request: Responding to request for help is an important mode of developing effective helping relationship. The attitude, values and behaviour of the helper while responding to requests for help or in taking initiative in helping others, have already been discussed in section 2.

Individual to collectivity: The individual can do several things to groups or larger entities to provide help. The following activities are suggested in this regard.

Feedback: Both giving and receiving feedback to and from some groups may be helpful. This is much more functional in training roles. An individual trainer can give data-based feedback to the groups with which she or he works and ask for feedback of his or her effectiveness in a structured or informal way. Some managers also arrange structured feedback from their employees, in some cases in an anonymous way so that the employees may not feel threatened while giving feedback.

Social work: An individual often provides help to groups by taking responsibility in areas in which help is needed by a particular group. For example, in housing colonies in various industries many individual volunteer for adult education programmes or youth camps, or study circles in the colony. Such activities improve the standard of life of people in that community.

Training: Although training is an organisational activity, an individual can volunteer to run some training programmes in his or her field of expertise.

Awareness raising: These programmes are different from social work. The purpose of such programmes is to increase insight and understanding of people in the community about the major issues the community is facing. For example, rights of consumers, rights of citizens, exploitation by money-lenders etc. may be important issues in some housing colonies in industries. Individuals can organise forums on such issues. Increasing awareness may help the members of a community to have wider choices.

Requesting and responding to requests of help: The relationship of mutuality between a community (or a group) and an individual is equally important, and is both fostered by and should result in asking for help from the group, and responding to the groups need for help.

Collectivity to Individual:
The various helping activities in this categories are as follows:

Feedback: Feedback from a group to an individual is rare. However, it can be a very useful helping mode. A group of participants may organise feedback to its trainer. Or a committee may provide feedback to some individual.

Training: A department or section of an organisation can provide help for individual members by offering training programmes in the field of their expertise. For example, the finance departments or EDP section can offer programmes in finances or computers for individuals who want to have general orientation or develop skills in these areas. This will be true of all the departments.

Support in crisis: A collectivity can provide support to an individual in a crisis situation. In one unit in HMT, the employees (managers and workers) collected money to help a worker in the treatment of cancer. In CCC the company took on unprecedented decision to save life of a temporary employee by financing kidney transplantation.

Requesting help: The department can request individuals to make special contribution for some projects or programmes. For example, if an employee has good background of project evaluation, and even if he does not work in this area, to help the department on a special assignment.

Responding: This mode is more frequently used. The departments respond to various requests of help made by the employees. As far as possible responding to help should lead to self-reliance rather than dependency. Indiscriminate help can be dysfunctional in making the receiver dependent and may lower the receiver's self-respect and ability to cope with problems.

Collectivity to Collectivity:
Help can be given by groups or larger entities to other groups or entities. This mode of help is increasing in the world. Intraregional, cooperative activities in Asia and Africa, voluntary services by members of one society to other societies, various aid programmes from developed countries to developing countries etc. are increasing. Through the efforts of the United Nations more and more programmes of mutual supportive activities are increasing. Collectivity to collectivity help is also important in organisations. Some activities are suggested below.

Feedback: A group can decide given feedback to another groups. If the former feels that feedback will be helpful to the latter. For example, if a department has been able to increase its productivity as a result of help from another department, the former should provide feedback to the latter. This will be a helping activity in increasing the latters capability further. Similarly, if a department runs into problems because of some recommendations by a group of consultants, it will be equally helpful to the consultant group to invite them for feedback. In both cases feedback will help the group increase its effectiveness in future.

Training: This is a frequently used mode, by one group an organisation to the other group or by one country to other countries. While undertaking this activity caution should be taken to see that training does not become a one way affair. Training should be developed with the help of the receiver group, who should own training and contribute to its design, execution, evaluation and follow up. Asking and responding to help. This activity is also increasing internationally. India's response to Maldives in the recent past is a good example. In an organisation various groups should be encouraged to ask for help and respond to the request made by other groups.

Collaboration: Collaboration between two groups to work on tasks in which both groups have common interest is extremely important for an organiation. Collaboration requires superordinate goals, perceptions of the strengths of the other groups involved, open communication, trust, and risk taking. Dynamics of collaboration have been discussed in Unit 14 of this course.

Support in crisis: The frequency of this helping made is increasing, India's recent help to the Maldives is a good example of this mode. In an organisation a department or a unit may need help in a crisis. After a major disaster in a unit, other units can volunteer to deal with the issue and help the suffering unit to cope with the crisis.

Social responsibility: Increasingly organisations are becoming aware of their social responsibility and are undertaking various activities for communities around them. Such activities relate to ecological development, preserving and promoting cultural heritage, introduction of new economic activities, motivating communities to undertake socially relevant programmes like social forestry, promoting education etc. Large organisations have special responsibilities in developing institutions in the areas of their work. For example conglomerate of industries of steel and petroleum can sponsor institutions of higher learning in steel technology and petroleum technology research.

Awareness raising: Comments have already been made on this mode of helping. Groups can also undertake programmes of increasing awareness of members of a community. Such programmes are needed in most of the housing colonies in the organised sector.

Requesting and responding: Organisational climate should promote both asking for help and responding to requests for help amongst various groups.

8.4 THE HELPING CLIMATE

One important element of the mode of Kolb and Doyatizis is the environment and psychological climate in which the helping process occurs. Behaviour is a function of both the person and the environment. While one could imagine many environmental variables which could influence the process of helping such as comfort of surroundings, freedom from distraction etc. We will limited ourselves for the present time to a consideration of those environmental factors which will facilitate effective performance counselling in organisations.

The literature on performance counselling provides the following guidelines with respect to creation of a facilitative psychological climate.

1) Climate of openness and mutuality; the work environment should be tension-free and people should trust each other.
2) Helpful and empathic attitude of management.
3) Sense of uninhibited participation by the subordinates in the performance review process: Subordinates should feel free to participate in the process of review and feedback.
4) Goal setting and performance review through a process of dialogue: Performance counselling should focus on the employees's achievement against goals set by the concerned employee and manager through a participative process.
5) Focus on work-related behaviour: The focus should be on the work related goals rather than diffusing attention by straying into unrelated areas. The discussion should also include contextual problems in achieving or not achieving goals.

Performance counselling develops helping relationships in organisations. Many Indian organisations are attempting to foster helping relationships through performance appraisal and performance counselling system. Counselling in organisations has the following objectives:

a) Helps employees realise their potential
b) Helps them understand their strengths and weaknesses
c) Provides them opportunity to acquire insight into their behaviour
d) Helps them have a better understanding of the environment
e) Increases the personal and interpersonal effectiveness of employees
f) Encourages them to set goals for further improvement
g) Encourages them to generate alternative for dealing with various problems
h) Provides organisational members an empathic atmosphere for sharing and discussing tensions, conflicts, concerns and problems
i) Helps them formulate action plans for further improvement
j) Helps employees review in a non-threatening way their progress in achieving various objectives.

In performance counselling, the supervisors at a higher status level have the responsibility of helping their employees by creating an atmosphere of acceptance. The supervisors as counsellors have an additional task of motivating the employees to participate effectively in the counselling process. They also have to generate an atmosphere of acceptance, mutual trust and openness during counselling. The sequential process of counselling has been discussed in Unit 8 of MS-22.

8.5 SUMMARY

The processes of helping was explained. The role of helper, receiver and helping was discussed the dynamics of helping in organisations was discussed.

8.6 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) "When the receivers need is dominant it is called Bhiksha (whether asking or giving help) but if the need of the giver is more important then it is called Daan (both while giving and receiving help)". Discuss this type of helping processes with reference to your organisation.
2) Explain the dynamics of helping in organisations.
3) How do you create helping climate in your organisation? Explain.

8.7 FURTHER READINGS

1) Helping behaviour has been studied under altruism, prosocial behaviour, and extension motivation. *Altruism and Helping Behaviour* by J.A. MacCaulay & L. Berkowitz (Academic Press, 1970) and *Altruism. Sympathy and Helping* by L.G. Wispe (Academic Press, 1978) discuss various aspects of altruism and helping. A comprehensive treatment of altruism can be found in J.P. Ruston's *Atruism. Socialisation and Society* (Prentice Hall, 1980). D. Dar Tal's book *Prosocial Behaviour: Theory and Research* (John Wiley, 1976) is a good source on the subject. The concept of extension motivation, prepared by Udai Pareek as the bias of helping and development is discussed in Unit-6 of MS-22.

2) A good review of Indian studies by Janak Pandey can be found in *Psychology in India: The State-of-the-Art* edited by J. Pandey (Sage, 1988) Volume 2, Chapter 2 (pp. 56-71). Leelavati Krishan of IIT, Kanpur has done work on various aspects of helping.

3) In the organisational context Carl Roger's *On Becoming a Person* (Riverside Press, 1961) is a classic and deserves reading. D.A. Kolh and R.E. Boyatizis have discussed helping processes in the organisational context in *"On the dynamics of the helping relationship"* in *Organisational Psychology: A Book of Readings* edited by D.A. Kolb *et al.* (Prentice Hall, 1979). Feedback as helping behaviour is discussed in Unit 9 of this Block, and performance counselling and mentoring in Unit 8 of MS-22. Udai Pareek and T.V. Rao (unpublished, undated) have discussed the helping and counselling approach and process for entrepreneurs.B.S. Okun has suggested a helping framework for counselling in *Effective Helping: Interviewing and Counselling Techniques* (Duxbury Press, 1976).

UNIT 9 COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK

Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- understand the process of interpersonal communication
- appreciate the role of feedback in interpersonal effectiveness
- plan to improve feedback behaviour (both receiving and giving feedback)

Structure

9.1 THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Interpersonal communication is the basis of most interactions in organisations. Persons in organisations interact with others within their own groups, across groups, and across levels. The effectiveness of these communications may contribute a great deal to the smooth functioning of organisations.

Interpersonal communication can be defined as the process of sharing of goal-oriented messages between two or more sources through a medium or media. Communication is a process. It consists of several units. The basic unit of communication can be called a communication act. This can be defined as follows: **A communication act** is the transmission, through a medium or media, of a goal-oriented message from a source to, and its reception by, a target.

The various elements in this definition are: (a) the source; (b) the target; (c) the message (transmitted); (d) the message (received); (e) the goal of the message; (f) the medium.

The Source

The source of communication contributes to its effectiveness. A lot of research has been done on source credibility. One source may be more credible than others, and communication from such a source may produce more effective results. For some messages a senior manager may be a more credible source, whereas for other types of messages a union leader may have higher credibility. It may be useful to determine the credibility levels of the various sources for different categories of messages.

Some studies have been done on key communicators — the effective sources of communication. Key communicators in villages, influencing adoption of improved agricultural practices, were found to have higher social preference, greater contracts with change agents, higher communication skills, and higher adoption behaviour compared with low communications.

The Target

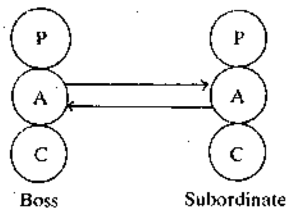
If the target of communication is receptive, the communication is likely to be effective. It may, therefore, be useful to assess a target's readiness and receptivity, and take necessary action to ensure a minimum level before sending the message. Communication should meet the target's needs. Receptivity may be determined by the perception of the source, his own needs, and the instrumentality of communication (that the act of communication will satisfy his felt need).

The Message and Its Goal

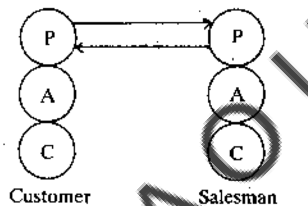
The message may be one of three types: information, a feeling, or a request for action. Communication of ideas and knowledge are communication of information. Communication of concerns, reactions, pleasant or unpleasant feelings, attitudes, likes and dislikes relate to the second category of message (feeling). In addition to these two types of messages, a message may relate to orders or requests to do certain things.

Good work has been done in Transactional Analysis on messages. One part of the message exchanged between two persons is called a transaction. When A sends a message, B receives it; B responds and this is received by that is one transaction. A person can send a prescriptive or admonishing message (from what is called the Parent ego state); or an information message (from the Adult ego state); or a feeling message (from the Child ego state). Any of these messages may be sent to (and received by) one of the three ego states of the other person (Parent, Adult, or Child). If the response is by the same ego state as through which the message was received, it is called a complimentary or parallel transaction. Such transactions are very satisfying. These are shown in Figure 1. The response however, may not originate from the ego state which has received the message. Then it is a crossed transaction. Figure 2 give examples of crossed transactions.

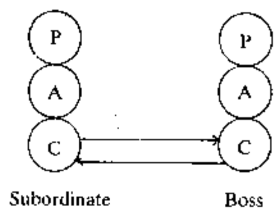
Figure: 1
Complimentary Transactions



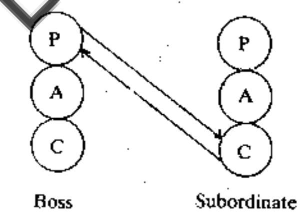
B. Our values are getting eroded.
S. I agree with you; we are deteriorating every day.



C. What is the price of the watch?
S. Rs. 400.

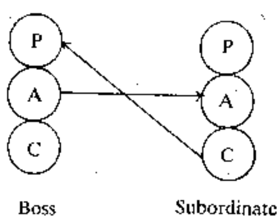


S. Would you like to go to the magic show? I have two tickets.
B. Surely, let's go.

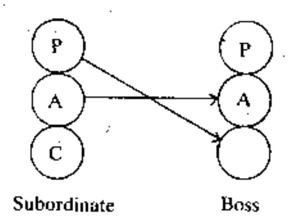


B. You are again late.
S. I am sorry, Sir

Figure: 2
Crossed Transactions



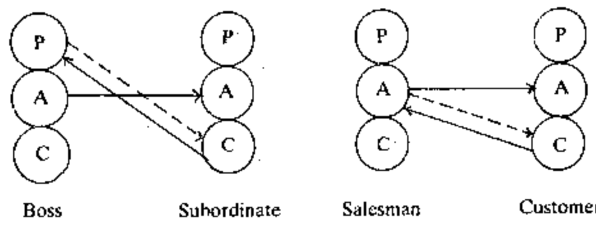
B. Is the report ready?
S. Do you think I have no other work to do?



S. I want to discuss the resources I shall need to complete the assignment.
B. You are always complaining.

A message sent may not be a simple one. To use Transactional Analysis (TA) terminology a message sent may have two targets (of ego states). There may be an overt message (open and expressed). But it may also contain a covert message (a hidden one). Transactions with such messages are called ulterior transactions. Figure 3 shows these transactions.

Figure: 3
Ulterior Transactions



In the definition of communication a distraction is made between the transmitted message and the received message. The received message (the interpretation) may not be the same as the transmitted message. For example, a message of feelings may be transmitted by an employee when he narrates an experience to his boss, but the latter may receive only the information message, and not the feeling message. Or, a boss may transmit a message of negative feelings (he may receive a message of sarcasm when the boss may actually be expressing appreciation). There is no guarantee that the transmitted and received messages will be the same. In many cases these turn out to be different, and this distortion causes problems.

The Media
The media used in communication can be classified in several ways. Media may be verbal or nonverbal. Nonverbal communication is as important as, and in some cases even more important than verbal communication. Nonverbal communication includes, such a variety of behaviour that these cannot be enumerated. Even silence may be eloquent and may communicate a message. In attitudes and values, nonverbal communication is much more influential. Researches have shown that one of the most effective ways of developing social skills and attitudes is modelling, living the values and attitudes you want others to practice. People learn more from what they experience than what they hear. In an organisation the message of a General Manager orally delivered about the importance of technical people may have no effect if he himself does not have respect for them, and may often overrule the decisions recommended by them on the basis of analysis of technical data.

A verbal medium can either be in written or oral form, and either in a face-to-face or distance situation. Letters and telephones are the distance media.

9.2 COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

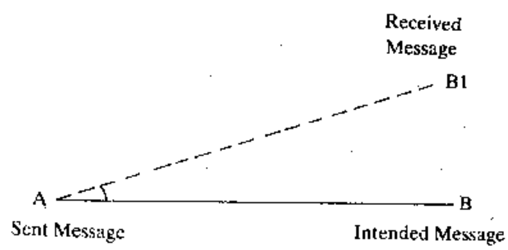
Effectiveness of communication can be examined in relation to some criteria. Communication can be said to be effective if: (a) the message received is very close to the message sent; (b) the act of communication involves the minimum encoding of a message; (c) the nonverbal messages are congruent with the verbal messages; (d) the message elicits the desired response; and (e) the communication results in building trusting relationship between the source and the target. These criteria are briefly discussed below.

Fidelity of Communication
The distortion-free quality of a message is called fidelity. An effective person gets the message across to others with the minimum possibility of misunderstanding. If the gap between what a person wants to communicate and what the other person understands is large, the effectiveness of the person who is sending the communication is low. For

example, if a supervisor intends to communicate his confidence in an employee by not oversupervising, but the employee receives the message that the supervisor is not interested in his problems, then the supervisor has low effectiveness.

The definition of communication emphasises the sent message and the received message as two elements. They may be the same, or they may differ. The extent to which they differ will indicate the distortion in communication. Some have suggested the concept of distortion angle. This concept is shown in Figure 4. The line AB indicates the sent message (A being the message sent and B being the "intended" received message. However, B' is the message actally received.) The angle BAB' is the angle of distortion.

Figure: 4
Distortion Angle of Communication



Many factors contribute to the distortion of communication. The source of communication (one who sends the message) has his own background — his values, motivation, style, etc. The message is filtered through these before it is transmitted. For example, its decoding may be influenced by his background factors. The words he chooses to use in encoding the message may produce a particular effect. The words he hand, the target (one who receives the message) also has his psychological filters through which the message passes before its final interpretation. Distortion can occur either during the encoding, or during the decoding process. The problems of communication can be solved by taking some remedial steps.

Distortion can be reduced by helping the people involved (the source or the sender of a message, and the target or the receiver of the message) to understand each others' filters (background factors) and to become aware of their own. One good technique to reduce distortion is to ask the target to encode the received message (put it in his words) and check back with the source whether the message received (as encoded by the target) is the one he sent. Such an exercise may help to understand the factors causing distortion and taking steps to eliminate or minimise them.

Economy

In an effective communication a minimum of energy, time, symbols and cues are used to encode a message, without losing its fidelity and impact. In an organisation attention needs to be paid to this factor, as people are engaged in several tasks, and have very little time to spend on elaborate messages received. When messages are couched in a large number of symbols (words, pages, or other coded forms), the persons receiving the message may have lower motivation to decode the message. In organisations, emphasis is given on making communication short, clear and focused.

In many cases the message may not be clear, well-defined, or well-encoded. The message may either be inadequately encoded (not fully explained), or the communication may have double messages. Again checking back with the target may help in reducing ambiguity. Enough time should be spent on encoding a message properly.

Congruence

An effective communication integrates both verbal and nonverbal cues. If a verbal message conflicts with the speaker's nonverbal cues, the speaker's effectiveness will be low. For example, if a supervisor tells an employee that he is pleased with him, but frowns while doing so, he is giving a conflicting message and is not likely to be effective.

Feedback is a useful mechanism to develop congruence in communication. It is discussed later, what the source and targets can do to use feedback to benefit from communications.

Influence

The most important criterion of effectiveness is the influence that the communicator is able to exercise over the receiver of the communication. Influence does not mean control; it means that the communicator achieves the result he intended. If he wanted an empathetic response and he achieved that as a result of his interaction, he has successfully influenced the other person. If a supervisor sends a message of trust and confidence to his employee and helps the latter develop autonomy and the ability to take the initiative, the supervisor has succeeded in influencing the employee.

Relationship Building

One of the goals of interpersonal communication is to build a trusting relationship between the source and the target. Such a relationship facilitates future communication between the two. An effective communication contributes to the building of trust and better interpersonal relationship between the source(s) and the target(s).

One factor that contributes to influence and trust building is the credibility of the source. If the source from which the message emanates has low credibility, the communication may not have the needed effectiveness. For example, if an important communication is sent by a middle manager, it may not be taken seriously. The same message will be received with some respect if it comes from a higher level. It may be useful to examine at what level the credibility will be acceptable for a particular message to produce the desired effect. In most cases this is carefully examined in the organisations.

Using Feedback

Feedback is a very effective mechanism for improving communication. Several approaches to giving feedback and receiving feedback are discussed in the following sections.

9.3 FUNCTIONS OF FEEDBACK

In most organisational situations individuals interact with other individuals; two people working together on a job; the boss talking with the subordinate about how well the latter has been doing or where he has not fared well; the subordinate discussing with the boss on how things can be improved; and other similar situations. Individuals also communicate to each other their impressions of various things. Such interactions can be the basis of effectiveness. If better solutions are evolved as a result of such interaction, and if decisions are implemented with earnestness, it may contribute both to the effectiveness of the organisation and to the effectiveness of managers and others working on the goals and tasks.

When persons work together and they interact, they need to communicate to one another their feelings, impressions, and views on various matters. When such feelings and perceptions are communicated to a person, especially regarding his behaviour, style of working, etc, it is called feedback. In simple terms, feedback is the communication of feelings and perceptions by one individual to another individual about the latter's behaviour and style of working. Such interpersonal feedback is involved in everyday life in various situations. The boss sits with his subordinate and gives him necessary counselling on the latter's achievements, strengths as well as the areas in which there is scope for improvement. Opinions about styles and ways of behaviour are expressed so that such information may be used. A subordinate may also do the same. If his boss pulled him up in the presence of others, he may go and tell him how bad he felt about such a happening. This may help the boss to improve his ways of communication on such matters to his subordinates.

Interpersonal feedback involves at least two persons, one who gives feedback and the other who receives it. Feedback thus has two dimensions. The functions of feedback can be considered from the point of view of these two dimensions. Although the main purpose of feedback is to help a person in increasing his personal and interpersonal effectiveness, the functions can be considered separately in relation to giving and receiving feedback.

The main function of giving feedback is to provide data about a persons's style of behaviour and its effect on others. Such data can be verified by the individual by either collecting more data from other sources or by checking some aspects with others. The feedback also provides several alternatives to the individual out of which he can choose one or two to experiment upon. Interpersonal feedback contributes towards the improvement of communication between two persons involved in feedback through the establishment of the culture of openness and promoting interpersonal trust. Continuous feedback will help in establishing norms of being open. Eventually the effective communication of feedback will help in increasing the autonomy of the individual who receives feedback, since such feedback does not give any prescriptions, but helps the individual through information to have wider choices for increasing his effectiveness.

Similarly, receiving feedback fulfils several purposes. It primarily helps the individual (recipient) to process the behavioural data he has received from others (the perceptions and feelings people have communicated to him about the effect of his behaviour on them). It helps him to have a better awareness of his own self and behaviour. Getting information about how his behaviour is perceived, and what impact it makes on others, increases his sensitivity, i.e. his ability to pick up cues from the environment to indicate what perceptions and feelings people have about his behaviour. Such sensitivity is very useful. It encourages him to experiment with new behaviour to find out ways of increasing his personal and interpersonal effectiveness. Effective use of feedback helps in building and integrating the self. One who receives feedback is encouraged to give feedback to others in turn, and thus, it encourages both openness and mutuality.

These functions of feedback, for both the dimensions of giving and receiving are summarised in Figure 5. It is assumed that feedback is given and received with enough openness and sensitivity. A balance of these two is necessary for effectiveness.

Figure 5

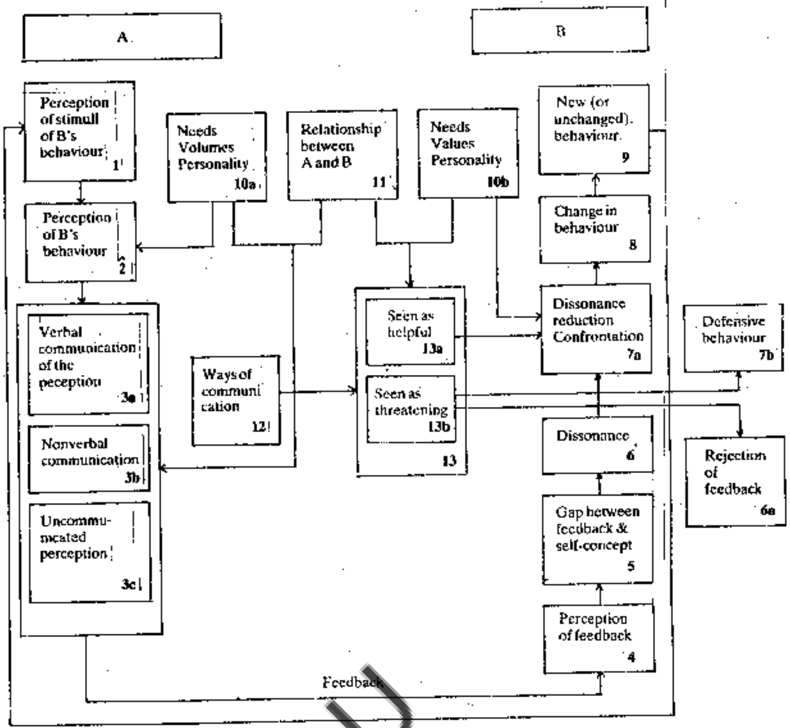
Functions of Feedback

Giving Feedback	Receiving Feedback
Provides verifiable data about behaviour	Helps in processing behavioural data
Encourages collecting data from several sources	Increases self-awareness
Suggests alternatives to be considered	Increases sensitivity in picking up cues
Improves interpersonal communication	Encourages experimenting with new behaviour
Establishes culture of openness	Helps in building an integrated self
Promotes interpersonal trust	Encourages openness
Facilitates autonomy	Develops mutuality

9.4 THE FEEDBACK PROCESS

The process of interpersonal feedback is a transactional process: the transaction being between two individuals as a unit, although in a group such transactions are taking place in several pairs of individuals. The transactions are fairly complex. The feedback in this sense is not merely the communication of impression by A to B, but it is establishing an understanding and a trusting relationship between two individuals. In order to understand the details, the process of a feedback episode is examined in detail. A feedback episode is an act of communicating information by an individual A to another individual B about how the former has seen the latter. The process of a feedback episode is diagrammatically shown in Figure 6.

Figure: 5
The Process of a Feedback Episode



The various parts of the process are discussed below.

1) **Psychological Make-up of the Persons Involved in Feedback (Boxes 10a, 10b and 11)**

   The logical and chronological beginning of a feedback episode is with A's perception of B's behaviour. But the psychological backgrounds of both A and B function as intervening variables of which one should be aware in the beginning. Both individuals have their own needs, value systems, and several aspects of their personality. An individual may have a high need of dependency. Both the individuals (one who is giving and the other who is receiving feedback) will behave in entirely different ways. In addition to their needs and other psychological background, they may have a pattern of relationship (Box 11). They may either like each other, or may hate each other. They may have either accepting or non-accepting relationships. These factors are important in influencing several aspects of the feedback episode.

2) **A's Perception of B's Behaviour (Boxes 1 and 2)**

   In an incident where A and B are involved, and where B has shown some behaviour, A perceives the behaviour with a certain meaning. He receives the stimuli of B's behaviour. For example, he listens to what B has said, and observes how he has said it. In receiving both the verbal and nonverbal stimuli (Box 1), A gives meaning to them (Box 2). The way he perceives or interprets the stimuli he has received from B depends to a great extent on his psychological make-up as well as the relationship he has with B.

3) **Communication of the Perception by A (Box 3)**

   Individual A communicates has perception to B, and this is what is usually called feedback. Communication may either be verbal (Box 3a) or nonverbal (Box 3b). Usually verbal communication will be more open. If A is clear about what he wants to communicate and has no hesitation in communicating it, he will usually communicate verbally. However, more messages may be communicated through nonverbal cues. If A does not feel free to communicate with B, he may still succeed in communicating his resentment by a smileless interaction; by a frown knitting his forehead (of which he may not be aware) by an indifferent attitude; and so on. These nonverbal cues are, in many cases, much more significant than the verbally delivered messages. In many cases, the nonverbal cues may be just the opposite of what is verbally communicated. For example, A may tell B that he is enjoying the conversation and the points being raised, but may look at his watch from time to time, thus giving a nonverbal signal of being fed up without being aware of it. Such contradictory verbal and nonverbal messages may distort communication and the effectiveness of feedback. In many cases, the nonverbal cues are much stronger and the message is loud and clear. In many other cases, the nonverbal cues may be fairly weak and may not be picked up by B. There are many perceptions, however, which remain uncommunicated (Box 3). An individual may feel highly agitated and yet he may not communicate his resentment or anger either in the verbal form or through nonverbal cues. Such uncommunicated perceptions may distort the communications further and may come in the way of the effectiveness of feedback. The message is either communicated verbally or nonverbally, or some perceptions remain uncommunicated. This process is greatly influenced by an individual's personal background and his relationship with the other individual.

4) **A's Style of Communication (Box 12)**
One important variable in the feedback episode is the way A communicates his perceptions to B. Again A's personal background and his relationship with B influence this. Many ways of communication contribute to the effectiveness of feedback. Whether A communicates his judgement and, therefore, his criticism and disapproval of B, or whether he only communicates how he has been affected by B's behaviour would make a tremendous difference to the feedback being either effective or ineffective.

5) **B's Perception of the Feedback (Box 4)**
After A has given feedback, usually verbally, B receives it and he perceives the feedback in a particular way. He may see it as A had intended, or his perception may be quite different from what A wanted to communicate. These perceptions do not get clarified unless they are checked, and one important part of feedback is the checking of such perceptions of messages.

6) **B's Perception of A's Style of Communication (Box 13)**
Along with the perception of the message, B also reacts to the way the message is sent by A. If the communication is more descriptive and personal, providing personal data by A about how he feels in relation to B's behaviour, or is helpful in encouraging B to try new behaviour, the latter may see the communication as helpful (Box 13a). On the other hand, if A's communication is more accusing or judgemental, B may see the communication as threatening (Box 13b). Such a perception is a crucial factor in determining what B will do with the feedback he receives.

7) **Gap between the Received Feedback and B's Self-concept (Box 5)**
When B receives feedback from A, the feedback may be quite close to what B thinks of himself. For example, if A communicates to B that the former sees the latter as emotional, B's reaction to this feedback will depend to some extent on whether he perceives himself as emotional or not. The feedback may either confirm or contradict B's self-concept.

8) **Dissonance Caused (Box 6)**
If the feedback received from A confirms what B thinks of himself, it may reinforce his behaviour. If, however, the feedback received from A contradicts what B thinks of himself, it may cause dissonance. Dissonance has been found to be an important factor in either producing change or in the rejection of feedback. If the feedback is seen as threatening, and if it produces dissonance, it is more likely to be rejected (Box 6a).

9) **Dissonance Reduction (Box 7)**
The feedback is not rejected outright. Dissonance has to be reduced because an individual cannot live in a state of dissonance for long. Dissonance may either be reduced by confrontation or throug defensive behaviour. If B sees the feedback as helpful, he may explore further with A, and, as a result of such exploration, he may do something about this feedback. This is confrontation (7a). However, if he sees it as threatening, he may use all the defence mechanisms possible to deal with the feedback (7b).

10) **Change in B's Behaviour (Box 8)**
Depending on the personality background of the individual and whether the feedback received is seen as helpful, B may take the decision to try out new behaviour and, therefore, change a part of his behaviour. Such experiments in change may satisfy him. Change in behaviour as a result of feedback, will, therefore, depend on how feedback is given by A and whether it is seen as helpful by B.

11) **B's Behaviour after Feedback (Box 9)**
As indicated in the foregoing analyses, B may either continue to show his old behaviour if feedback has been rejected, or he may even use some defence mechanisms to deal with it or, if he finds the feedback useful, and A has taken care to make it usable by B, he may change his behaviour and may show it this changed behaviour starts a new cycle of communication. A perceives the post feedback behaviour. Then a new episode starts beginning with the perception of B's behaviour by A. This cyclic process is indicated in the Figure by an arrow going from Box 9 to Box 1.

The feedback episode starts with A's perception of B; his background of needs values, etc., his communication of his perception to B; B's perception of feedback as helpful or threatening, B's ways of dealing with the feedback (either by confronting it or by rejecting it or using defence mechanisms), and B's undergoing some change. As already stated, the transaction is much more complex than depicted here. But this paradigm does show the basic elements in such a transaction.

9.5 GIVING FEEDBACK

Feedback is an interpersonal transaction in which two persons are involved. The effectiveness of this transaction will, therefore, depend on the behaviour and response of both the persons, the feedback provider and the feedback receiver. One who is giving feedback can do several things to ensure the effectiveness of feedback. Some characteristics of effective feedback are discussed as follows.

1) **Descriptive and Not Evaluative**
The person who gives feedback should describe what he sees happening rather than passing judgement over it. The description can be either of the effect of the behaviour of the other person (B) on himself (A) — "your remark made me angry"; or the factual statement — "in the last 10 minutes, you repeated the same statement four times"; or stating the fact of B's behaviour on others as he observed it. Such descriptive feedback may provide enough data for B to think and take some decisions. On the other hand, feedback could be evaluative in several ways. Either A may pass a judgement — "your behaviour was not proper"; or he may criticise or categorise B's behaviour — "you suffer from inferiority complex," or may give advice — "you should be bolder". Such evaluative feedback does not help a person. Descriptive feedback is helpful in making a person more autonomous in taking decisions about what he would like to do.

2) **Focused on the Behaviour not on the Person**
The feedback is to help a person think about his behaviour and take a decision to change it. The feedback given on the person as a whole — you are sharp or you are dumb, is not helpful because it takes the form of being an evaluative feedback and the person does not know what he can do about it. When feedback is given about the behaviour of a person "what you said and the way you said it has upset me", the receiver is in a position to decide what can be done about his behaviour.

3) **Data-based and Specific and Not Impressionistic**
Effective feedback gives specific information about his behaviour to an individual and provides him data the form of observations, feelings which his behaviour has evoked, and various other facts observed. These help the person. However, if feedback is general and merely based on impressions, it tends to be more judgemental. Even if it is non-judgemental, it may not help a person to prepare a strategy for changing his behaviour: for example, telling a person you must not interrupt. On the other hand if a person is told — "you interrupted A, B and C without allowing them to complete what they were saying", the recipient has concrete data to use for thinking about his general sensitivity, and can take steps to carefully observe and avoid such interruptions in future.

4) **Reinforcing Positive New Behaviour**
Effective feedback helps a person to decide which style of behaviour he should continue to use. When a person is experimenting with new behaviour, positive feedback is likely to reinforce his effective behaviour and he is able to stabilise it as a part of his personality. In this sense, positive feedback is very helpful. Criticism

or negative feedback does not help. It only increases the chances of a person becoming defensive. Positive feedback has, however, to be genuine and specific. If for example, a person gets the feedback that he usually does not participate much in meetings, as a result of such feedback, he may make special efforts to speak positive feedback like — "I liked your idea", "I liked your taking initiative", etc. may help him take more steps in that direction.

5) **Suggestive and Not Prescriptive**
In many cases, the persons giving feedback may suggest alternative ways of improving. For example, when the feedback indicates that B is not able to confront people in the group, members may like to make suggestions for him to improve — "speak out your feelings as soon as you feel bad about something"; "you can work out an arrangement with one or two members in the group to act as your alter ego, so that they may speak out what they think your feelings are at that time, and later you take these up for further exploration". Such suggestions, however, should be in the form of alternative ways open to B for increasing his confronting ability. Feedback given in the prescriptive from, i.e. what exactly the person should do, does not help the person and it only makes him either dependent on such advice or is ineffective since the person himself is not involved in the decision taken.

6) **Continuous**
Usually effective feedback does not stop with one act of feedback. It establishes a relationship of openness. The relationship is a continuing one, usually resulting in continuous feedback. Moreover, feedback when repeated is likely to produce better results. The repeated feedback may reinforce what was initially communicated and may give an opportunity to the subject to discuss the feedback.

7) **Mostly Personal**
Effective feedback indicates the involvement of the person who is giving the feedback in the process. If the person provides evidence from his own experience, and gives data about how he perceived or was affected by the other persons's behaviour, this is more genuine and helpful. If the person provides other information and data in addition to making his own feelings and perceptions known to the other person, the outcome will be much more effective. If, however, only objective feedback is given without the person sharing his own perceptions and feelings, the transaction of mutuality is not established and the feedback is not effective enough.

8) **Need-based and Solicited**
Feedback which is solicited by a person is much more effective than if it is given without such a need. In the former situation, the motivation to listen carefully to and use such feedback is high. The main responsibility for the use of feedback is of course of the person receiving feedback. If he is on the defensive (does not accept feedback genuinely and honestly and only justifies his action), feedback may not serve much purpose. The person giving feedback should assess the need of the person for whom feedback is meant. If, for example, a person needs more understanding and empathy, it may be better to give him more positive feedback and then he may be helped to see some aspects on which he can improve. Feedback without sensitivity on the part of the person imparting it may become ineffective.

9) **Intended to Help**
The basic motivation of the person who is giving feedback is important. If his motivation is to be critical, negative, or merely to convince the other person about the accuracy of the giver's perception, then the feedback will not be effective. If however, the feedback is genuinely intended to help the other person, then this aspect itself will influence the way feedback is given and it is likely to be very helpful.

10) **Focused on Modifiable Behaviour**
The purpose of feedback is to help the other person to do something about his behaviour and to increase its effectiveness. This is possible when the feedback focuses on such an aspect of behaviour about which a person can do something. For example, feedback given to a person on his stammering may not be useful because it would only reinforce his negative self-image and he cannot do anything about his stammering in the normal course.

11) **Satisfying Needs of Both**
Feedback is a mutual transaction. For a transaction to be effective it should satisfy the needs of both persons. The need of the individual who is giving the feedback

may be to help, to influence and to establish a better relationship. These needs should be satisfied and the person should be conscious of this aspect, and use it for building mutuality. If the person giving feedback has a high need of recognition, and, therefore, the feedback given by him is motivated by this need, he may at some stage share this, once he becomes aware of such a need. Feedback based on the needs of both persons helps in building mutuality. And when the persons involved in feedback are able to share their awareness on such needs, the relationship of mutuality will be more effective.

12) **Checked and Verified**

While giving feedback, the person communicates one set of perceptions. Unless these are checked with the perceptions of the various other persons involved, feedback may not serve its purpose. Feedback can be effective if an attempt is made both by the giver and the receiver to check it with various other persons in the group.

13) **Well-timed**

Feedback should be well-timed. Timing means several things. Firstly, it should be given immediately after the relevant event has occurred. The advantage of immediate feedback is that the person has a higher motivation to reflect on the event, and can examine several dimensions of the event without much distraction. Secondly, accurate timing also means that the person should be in a position to receive feedback and use it. For example, in a group situation, negative feedback can be effective only after a minimum level of trust has been established among the group members. In timing a feedback the main criterion used should be whether it is likely to evoke defensiveness. In circumstances where feedback is likely to be perceived as an attack or criticism, it may not be helpful.

14) **Contributing to Mutuality and Team Building**

Feedback should be instrumental in building relationship of openness, trust and spontaneity. If it does not contribute to such mutuality, it cannot be said to be effective. Effective feedback not only contributes to mutuality, but helps in building the group through the development of interpersonal effectiveness of most of the group. In this sense feedback goes beyond the mutuality of two persons and contributes to the growth and development of the entire group. The function of feedback to do this should be examined from time to time so that people involved in the feedback process may be able to take decisions and monitor the feedback mechanism for the achievement of this goal.

Activity 1

Before reading further, complete this self-test, purpose of this self-test is to identify your typical patterns of reaction to feedback. Since you are to use the result for your improvement of communication, be quite frank in your responses.

When someone gives you feedback which is unpleasant, not to your liking, or which is different from your own understanding of yourself and disturbing to you, you may react in several ways. Listed below are some possible ways of reacting to such feedback. Against each type of behaviour check how often you tend to do so by writing 5 if you almost always do so; 4 if you often behave that way; 3 if you sometimes do so; 2 if you occasionally behave that way; and 1 if you do so seldom or never.

1) Deny that is true of you
2) Argue with him
3) Get angry with him
4) Give reasons for your not accepting the feedback or for your behaviour described by him (justification)
5) Accept the feedback quickly
6) Hear him but don't express your feelings
7) Use humour
8) Generalise and give examples from others
9) See the other person as prejudiced
10) Do not express there, but take out the resentment on someone else.

9.6 RECEIVING FEEDBACK

The effectivenes of feedback depends as much on how it is received and used as it does not how it is given. As discussed in the process of a feedback episode, if the feedback disconfirms the self-image or expectation, dissonance is caused. According to the dissonance theory, when an expectation is disconfirmed, psychological tension is caused. Experimental evidence is available to subjects receiving discrepant outcomes as being more tense and more uncertain about the performance of the outcome. Dissonance may result either in change of behaviour or in conflict and threat which may lead to defensive behaviour. Broadly speaking, the person receiving feedback may use either defensive behaviour or confronting behaviour to reduce dissonance. Figure 7 gives the summary of two sets of behaviour, defensive and confronting.

When the individual feels threatened by the feedback he receives (for example, if he is criticized or blamed, or given what he may consider as negative feedback which he does not agree with), he may build some defence around himself so that he can protect himself from the threat. The concept of defence mechanisms was introduced by Freud. He studied several defence mechanisms people used in psychoneurosis. The use of defensive behaviour to deal with threatening feedback is like using pain-killing drugs to deal with the pain experienced by a person. These reduce the awareness of the pain; but they do not deal with the main cause of the pain. The same is true of defensive behaviour. Defensive behaviour may create an illusion of having deal with the situation, but it does not change the situation or behaviour. For example, if a subordinate receives negative feedback from his superior officer saying that his motivation in the past year has been low, he may feel threatened by this feedback. He may reduce the threat by projecting his anger to the superior officer and say that the feedback is based on prejudice. This may satisfy him and he may not feel threatened any more. This, however, neither changes the situation (the superior officer will continue to feel, that his subordinate has low motivation), nor the behaviour of the subordinate (the subordinate will continue to feel that his superior officer is prejudiced, and therefore, he need not change his behaviour). Defensive behaviour, therefore, does not serve the purpose, although it may merely reduce anxiety. The conflict in the self is not resolved. Excessive use of defensive behaviour is likely to result in a conflicted self. On the other hand, if confronting behaviour is used, the conflict is reduced and continued use of such behaviour will result in an integrated self, and processes of effectiveness.

Figure 7

Defensive and Confronting Behaviour in Dealing with Feedback

Defensive Behaviour	Confronting Behaviour
Denial	Owning
Rationalization	Self-analysis
Projection	Empathy
Displacement	Exploration
Quick acceptance	Data collection
Withdrawal	Expressing feelings

10) Cynicism Versus Positive Critical Attitude
Negative feedback can be brushed aside by a cynical attitude that most people say things which do not deserve consideration and that, in general, things are pretty bad. On the other hand, a positive critical attitude helps a person examine what feedback is given and sort out those parts which seem to make sense and reject others which do not come upto the criteria he sets to examine. Such an attitude is helpful.

11) Intellectualization Versus Sharing Concern
In a T-Group or L-Group situation, or in some other group situations, negative feedback is ignored by a process of intellectualisation, spinning theories in explaining matters when the real need may be to share the concern the person has with others and take their help in dealing with the problems he may be facing.

12) Generalisation Versus Experimentation
One form of defensive behaviour to deal with negative feedback is to generalise what has been said. If a person, for example, receives the feedback in a group that he used words indicating that he was scolding the other person, and that his tone was also authoritarian, the individual receiving such feedback may say that this is true in general about people who have been brought up in the Indian culture and in the Indian family. Such generalisations may not help.

Instead, if the individual experiments with a different kind of behaviour to see whether he can change his behaviour, in spite of it being culturally-determined or influenced, he may be benefited.

13) Pairing Versus Relating to Group
In a T-Group or L-Group, some other group, a person receiving feedback has the tendency to pair with another person (or other persons) in the groups who also seem to have received such negative feedback, and are feeling threatened. This may give a comforting feeling to people being together under such "attacks."

The confronting and helpful behaviour in such a situation may be to relate to the group by exploring with several members of the group and taking their help instead of pairing with one or a few of them. This may help in further explorations and experimentation.

Thus use of confronting behaviour may help a person build relationships for getting further helpful feedback. The way a person receives and uses feedback will, to some extent, also influence the way erosions give helpful feedback. The person may plan to test the ideas and experiment on a limited basis and may further seek feedback to know whether his ways of improving himself are seen as effective. This may set a cycle of self-improvement and increase his interpersonal effectiveness. If feedback is given in the spirit of helping the other person in building a relationship of trust and openness; and if it is received in the spirit of learning from the situation to increase interpersonal effectiveness and to contribute to such relationship of trust and openness, feedback can be an effective instrument in building linkages of mutuality between persons and amongst various members in a group. If however, feedback is not promptly or properly received, it may contribute to the disruption of relationships and may undermine the development of the group. Feedback, therefore, is a powerful instrument and can be used effectively. It depends on the person who is giving it and the person who is receiving it that this instrument can be used for forging bonds of mutuality.

Activity 2

Look at your scores in various items in the self-test you complete just before 9.6 section. Reflect on the defensive behaviour you frequently use in your everyday life, and think how you would plan to reduce such defensive behaviour, and improve the ways of using feedback for increasing your effectiveness.

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9.7 SUMMARY

From this unit, one can understand the importance of communication. How feedback is necessary for an effective performance and the necessity to improve feedback behaviour (both receiving and giving feedback) is discussed.

9.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) Define communication. Explain the processes of communication and its importance in an organisation.
2) Explain the process of Feedback. How do you improve the feedback behaviour in your organisation?
3) Explain Receiving Feedback and Giving Feedback.

9.8 FURTHER READINGS

1) The Unit has freely borrowed from Chapters 14 and 15 of Udai Pareek's Organisational Behaviour Processes (Rawat, 1989) in which a comprehensive model of feedback has been discussed. The most comprehensive review of interpersonal communication in villages, especially in agriculture related activities, can be found in Y.P. Singh's writing's, who has made significant contribution to communication research and practice, *"Studies in agricultural communication"* in K.N. Singh, C.S.S. Rao & B.N. Sahay (Eds.) Research in Expansion for Accelerating Development Process (ISES; 1970), and *"Farm message to millions: The Indian Studies"* (unpublished Donald Snowden Memorial Lecture, 1986).
2) J.R. Gibb in Defensive Communication (Journal of Communication, 1961, 11, 141-148) has concluded from research about two communication climates: defensive (characterized by evaluation, control strategy, neutrality, superiority, certainty) and supportive (characterized by description, problem orientation, spontaneity, empathy, equality provisionalism).
3) J. Anderson's chapter *"Giving and Receiving Feedback"* in G.W. Daton P.R. Lawrence; & L.E. Greiner (Eds.) Organisational Change and Development (Irwain-Dorsey, 1970) summarises factors making feedback effective.

UNIT 10 INTERPERSONAL STYLES

Objectives

After studying the unit you should be able to:

- Appreciate the importance of knowing interpersonal styles for managerial effectivenes
- examine critically your own interpersonal styles
- take some steps to increase operational effectiveness of your styles, and of persons working for you

Structure

10.1 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Before you learn about Interpersonal styles; let us quickly recall Interpersonal Relations which you have learnt in MS 1 - Block 5 - Unit 17.

Most of the time in a day is spent in some sort of interpersonal situation rather than all by oneself without being a member of a group. Most of the daily experience was based on interaction with other human beings. Some experiences in these relationships are joyful and others may be upsetting or remained stagnant or have even been abandoned. Understanding these relationships will help you develop and improve relationships. This leads to Interpersonal competence 'Interpersonal Competence' refers to the degree to which one is accurately aware of impact on others and of the impact of others on you.

A person in an organisation is surrounded by three other types of persons: Superiors, colleagues and subordinates. Besides these three types of role one has to interact with a lot of other people from different positions. Consumers, suppliers, people from regulatory agencies, general public, etc.

The determinants of interpersonal behaviour are:

Self-concept: Self-concept is a reflection of all the past experiences one has with others and includes characteristics which differentiates from others. Once self-concept is established and certain specific patterns of behaviour are adopted, it tends to resist change. In order to maintain interpersonal environment and to maximise congruence of harmony, certain mechanisms are used.

1 Misperception: Misperceiving how others look at you.
2 Selective Interaction: Interact with those persons who can establish a congruent state
3. Selective Evaluation of the other person
4 Selective Evaluation of self
5. Response Evocation: Behave in a way that results in others behaving towards you in an amicable manner.

People need people for three main interpersonal needs:

1 Inclusion — the need for interaction and association
2 Control — the need for control and power
3 Affection — the need of love and affection.

When a group begins to interact and acquire information of others views and attitudes, bonds of atrraction form most strongly between those who hold similar views toward things that are important and relevant to both. A person likes others who have the sarre feeling toward him or her as that person has toward himself or herself. This reinforces one's self-concept and facilitates interpersonal relations. People interact more frequently with those who are perceived as confirming their self- concept to the greatest extent.

There are four stages of Developing interpersonal relationship:

1) Forming first impressions

2) Developing mutual expectations

3) Honouring Psychological contracts

4) Developing trust and influence.

First impressions, though often not right are lasting impressions. First impressions are lasting because they influence the way in which people see subsequent data about the perceived object or person. When people are mutually impressed, they are more likely to enter into a long-term relationship. When this happens, they develop certain expectations about each other. An effective inter or work relationship cannot develop and be maintained unless the participants are willing to honour their psychological contracts. The result of the meeting the psychological contact is an increased level of trust and influence. When the parties to the contract are able to meet their mutual expectations, the relationship produces mutual trust and favourable sentiment.

In 'developing interpersonal skills'; interpersonal competence can be greatly enhanced by enlarging 'Arena' with the help of feedback and self-disclosure. Arena represents the 'Public Self' that is known to the self and others. Development of cooperative relationships is facilitated when there are shared goals, mutually perceived power and the minimum level of distrust. Thus, it shows that interpersonal relations cannot flourish unless the parties are prepared to take certain interpersonal risks.

10.2 WHAT IS INTERPERSONAL STYLE?

Alfred Adler was amongst the earliest psychologists to propose the concept of life sytle as the 'consistent movement of an individual towards the goal'. He suggested three main characteristics of Life Styles: uniqueness, self-consistency, and constancy (i.e. enduring pattern of behaviour).

Since Adler many ways have been suggested to study life or working styles. Different frameworks have been used to suggest such styles. A style can be seen in relation to a person dealing with non-person objects and issues. For example, when the person enjoys working on challenging and difficult tasks, we may term his style as achievement style, using achievement motivation and its elaborate behavioural patterns.

Using the motivational framework, we may also describe the styles shown by persons in dealing with people. For example, if a person enjoys developing personal relationships with others, we may call it affiliative style; if he enjoys helping others and undergoing personal sacrifice for others, we may call it extension style. If a person enjoys influencing others, we may call it power style.

Interpersonal style can be defined as a unique, self- consistent and enduring pattern of behaviour in interacting with other persons. The enduring behaviour has its roots in the personality orientation of the person, as reflected in his attitudes, values, and beliefs about human beings. Personality theories can be used to identify interpersonal styles. One popular and useful framework has been selected here to understand interpersonal styles of managers and others who usually have relationship with other persons in the role of making impact on them (e.g. trainees consultants, counsellors, salesmen).

Activity 1
Complete the following instrument before proceeding further.

SPIRO - M

Completing this instrument will help you to learn about how you interact with others, an important part of your role in the organization. There are no right or wrong answers. You will learn more about yourself if you respond to each item as candidly as possible. Write 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1 on the left hand of each statement to indicate the frequency wi which you behave in this manner. If you are not in a managerial role, then respond hc you would behave if you were a manager. Use the following key to respond to the item. Do not spend too much time deciding on any answer, use your first reaction

1 means Rarely of never behave this way
2 means Occasionally behave this way
3 means Sometimes behave this way
4 means Often behave this way
5 means Almost always behave this way

1) I assure my subordinates of my availability to them.
2) I delay doing things that I do not like.
3) I encourage my subordinates to question me about what should or not be done.
4) I communicate strong feelings and resentment to my bosses without caring whether this will affect my relationships with them.
5) I collect all the information that is needed to solve various problems.
6) I discuss new ideas with my subordinates without working out the details of these ideas.
7) I respect and follow organizational traditions that seem to give the organization its identity.
8) I provide my subordinates with the solutions to their problems.
9) I take up my subordinates cause and fight for them.
10) I admonish my subordinates for not acting according to my instructions.
11) I think of new and creative solutions.
12) I collect information and data even when these are not immediately needed or used.
13) I help my subordinates to become aware of some of their own strengths.
14) I avoid meeting my bosses and subordinates if I have not been able to fulfil their expectations.
15) I help my subordinates to see the ethical dimensions of some of their actions.
16) I champion my subordinates causes, even at the cost of organizational effectiveness.
17) I think out many alternative solutions to problems before adopting one for action.
18) I overwhelm my subordinates with new ideas.
19) I accept only those 'bosses and subordinates' suggestions that appeal to me.
20) I instruct my subordinates in detail about work problems and their solutions.
21) I zealously argue my point of view in organizational meetings.
22) I give clear instructions to my subordinates about what should or should not be done.
23) I try out new things.
24) I spend my time on specific work to be performed.
25) I reassure my subordinates of my continued help.
26) I do not express my negative feelings during unpleasant meetings but continue to be bothered by them.
27) I help my subordinates to examine the appropriateness of proposed actions.
28) I express resentment to the authorities concerned about things that have not been done as promised.
29) I continuously search for various resources from which needed information can be obtained in order to work out solutions to problems.
30) I try out new ideas or methods without waiting consolidate the previous ones.
31) I accept help from others and appreciate it.
32) I encourage my subordinates to come to me frequently to seek my advice and help.
33) I express my feelings and reactions frankly in meeting with my own bosses.
34) I clearly prescribe standards of behaviour to be followed in my work unit.
35) I enjoy trying out new ways and see a problem as a challenge.
36) I work primarily on organizational tasks, sometimes at the cost of sensitivity and attention to the feelings of people.

10.3 THE FRAMEWORK OF TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

One useful conceptual framework to understand an individual's style is that of Transactional Analysis. TA concepts are quite popular. Two basic concepts to understand interpersonal styles are taken here: the ego states and the existential positions.

Each person involved in transaction with others has three ego states:

a) The parent, performing two functions, regulating behaviour through prescriptions and sanctions; and through providing support.

b) The adult, performing the function of collection and processing of information like a computer.

c) The child, with several functions, mainly: adaptation or sulking; creativity, curiosity and fun; and rebellion.

Each ego state has its own importance. However, the functional of dysfunctional roles of these ego states depend on the general life position a person takes. Harris has conceptualised four existential or life positions which are quite popular; I'm OK, you're OK; I'm not OK, you're OK; I'm OK, you're not OK; and I'm not OK; you're not OK. James has suggested that in general, OK-ness and non-OK-ness can be used as two contrasting ways to understand how bosses behave. Some others have used the terms "approach' and "avoidance" or "functional" and "dysfunctional.

One can take the framework of the four life positions, and work out details of the interpersonal styles. The basic idea of James has been used in proposing the various styles here. First one must understand the general styles in the four positions. Figure 1 gives the life positions and the general styles.

Figure 1 General Interpersonal Styles in Four Live Positions

I (Manger or Trainer or Consultant)		Not OK	OK
	Not OK	A Avoidant Averse	D Different
	OK	B Bossing	C Competent Confident Confronting Creating

(Employee or Participant or Client)

10.4 INTERPERSONAL STYLES IN ELABORATION

The four general interpersonal styles can be elaborated by combining them with the ego states. All the three ego states, and all their dimensions are important and perform distinct functions. Their effectiveness, however, depends to a large extent on the basic life position an individual takes. Figure 2 shows 24 different styles, combining the four life positions and six ego state dimensions.

A - Avoidant (or I'm Not OK You're Not OK)

In this life position the person has respect neither for himself nor for others. It seems meaningless to the person to do anything worthwhile. The following styles are likely to be shown with the dominance of various ego states:

Figure 2 Elaborate Influencing Styles

		Life Positions A I'm not OK You're Not OK	B I'm OK You're Not OK	C I'm OK You're OK	D I'm not OK You're OK
Parent	Regulating	Traditional	Prescriptive	Normative	Indifferent
	Nurturing	Overindulgent	Patronising	Supportive	Ingratiating
Adult		Cynical	Task-Obsession	Problem loving	Overwhelming
	Adaptive	Sulking	Complaining	Resilient	Dependent
Child	Reactive	Withdrawn	Aggressive	Confonting	Intropunitive
	Creative	Humorous	Bohemian	Innovative	Satirical

1) Traditional (Regulating Parent): The role of the regulating parent is to establish norms and regulations of behaviour, disapprove any deviation from the norms, and ensure that such norms are followed. In the traditional style, the manager will have faith neither in himself nor in his subordinates to follow proper behaviour. The easies way, therefore, would be simply to follow the rules and regulations and the laid down procedures; The trainer shows this style by doing what he has learnt as a participant. A consultant may be interested in norms and standards of behaviour only to the extent to which these are relevant directly to his tasks, and in this he may follow well established practices.

2) Over indulgent (Nurturing Parent): The nurturing parent is interested in protecting and providing support to others. Not being sure how to provide such support, the general style becomes over indulgent. A manager, a consultant, or a trainer with this style may show more than necessary consideration towards others.

3) Cynical (Adult): The adult ego state is concerned with the tasks. The attitude of the avoidant style in the adult ego state is or lack of faith and concern in work. This produces a cynical attitude. A manager or a consultant, or a trainer is likely to indicate this attitude by remarks showing that nothing significant can be done.

4) Sulking (Adaptive Child): The adaptive child accepts the norms of others and enjoys approval and conformity. However, if the person has not-OK feeling both for himself and others, he does not share his feelings with others, and continues to sulk. A manager or a consultant, or a trainer may adapt himself to the situation by keeping the feeling of dissatisfaction to himself. This is dysfunctional adaptation, growing out of need for safety.

5) Withdrawn (Reactive Child): In a not OK-not OK position, a person feeling angry tends to show his anger (or aggressiveness) by his withdrawal behaviour. The manager may become disinterested and uninvolved; a consultant may break his consulting relationship with the client; a trainer may lose interest in his professional work.

6) Humorous (Creative Child): The creativity of a person in an influencing role in the Not OK-not OK position is likely to result in ill-timed humour. Humour may help to avoid immediate problems. This is different from genuine humour which may be used occasionally to enliven various difficult situations. A manager, or a consultant or a trainer in this style may all the times show his imaginativeness by using humour which may reduce the seriousness of a situation to a more ludicrous one.

B - Bossing (or I'm OK You're Not OK)

Generally; a person in this life position takes a "holier than thou" attitude. This is reflected in an attitude of superiority. The various styles in this position are as follows:

7) Prescriptive (Regulating Parent): A manager has an opportunity to ensure that he establishes proper norms for his subordinate and equally ensures that these are followed; a consultant indicates to his clients what he thinks they should do, and is unhappy that they do not act according to his instructions; and a trainer regards his main role as one of laying down detailed rules and regulations for the participant and ensure that these are properly followed. Such people are also overcritical of others.

8) Patronising (Nurturing Parent): In this style nurturance and support are provided by almost imposing oneself on others. A manager provides support, and makes it obvious that he is doing a favour, and that his subordinate is not capable of taking care of himself. A consultant with this style treats the client like a child, and shows him favour by giving advice and support. This style is quite obvious in a trainer who may show favour to remind participants about how he is taking care of others who are more or less helpless.

9) Task Obsessive (Adult): The manager, consultant or trainer in this style is primarily concerned with the tasks and is so obsessed with the work to be done that he overlooks various other things. In task-obsessiveness the individual takes responsibility for completing the tasks and involves others in secondary roles.

10) Complaining (Adaptive Child): A person tries to adapt himself, and seeks safety, but feels that he does not have the situation he deserves. This is reflected in his complaining behaviour. A manager finds fault with organisation, and other managers and employees; a trainer is unhappy but only expresses general complaints; a consultant points out many things responsible for slow progress.

11) Aggressive (Reactive Child): A person with this style is likely to show his aggressiveness by infighting, making heavy demands, fighting, or going back to the issues, and never allowing these to be settled. The result of all such behaviour is that he gets alienated; people do not take such a person seriously any more.

12) Bohemian (Creative Child): Such a person does not stay with one idea and is obsessed with new ideas all the time. He overwhelms his subordinates, or clients, or participants, with the new ideas he gets.

D - Diffident (or I'am Not OK You're OK)
The general attitude in this style is to depreciate oneself. As the person does not have much trust in his own ability he may not assert himself. This may be shown in various ways. The following five styles may be found in this position.

13) Indifferent (Regulating Parent): The person in this style leaves the norms to the discretion of others, and does not care to see how much these norms are understood. Most of the time he manages to overlook if the norms are being followed. He does not have enough trust in his ability to help people develop proper norms and follow such norms. A trainer may take no notice of some serious deviations in the Institute. A manager may ignore the question of propriety of behaviour of his subordinates.

14) Ingratiating (Nurturing Parent): In this style the effort is to try to please or placate others. A manager may do certain things to keep his subordinates in good humour, thinking that this will help him to get work done by them. A trainer may get overpersonal, invite participants for social parties at home and visit them at their places. A consultant may go out of his way to do more than necessary what the client may want him to do.

15) Overwhelmed (Adult): Such a person is always concerned with the task but remains confused and feels that he has too much work to do. He never gets out of task-orientation, but constantly feels overworked and overburdened.

16) Dependent (Adaptive Child): The need for safety may be reflected in overdependence on others. A dependent manager may go blindly by what his subordinates tell him to do; or he may seek approval for all his actions from the boss. A trainer with this style follows strictly the norms, and in case of needed change, asks the head of the institution or group for approval. A dependent consultant is guided primarily by the clients wishes and understanding.

17) Intropunitive (Reactive Child): A person with this style takes out the aggression on himself. He is angry at himself for not doing certain things, blames himself, his lack of ability or skills or courage for his ineffectiveness. He has self-pity.

18) Satirical (Creative Child): This style takes a more pungent form. The person shows his critical attitude, but escapes confrontation by using satire.

C - I'm OK You're OK
Persons in this life position are creative, confident of themselves, and competent, They have respect for themselves as well as for others. The following five styles may be shown in this position:

19) Normative (Regulating Parent): The manager, consultant, or trainer is concerned with setting appropriate norms, but he involves his subordinates, clients or participants both in evolving these norms and in deciding how such norms will be followed.

20) Supportive (Nurturing Parent): The person in this style provides the necessary support needed by others with whom he interacts, support is provided only if such support is either solicited or needed.

21) Problem Solving (Adult): The concern of the person with this style is to solve the problem by working himself and involving others in it. This is different from obsession with the task. It is ironical that sometimes overconcern with tasks may come in the way of the solution of problem.

22) Resilient (Adaptive Child): This style is characterized be functional adaptation. The person assesses the situation and adapts himself to suit it. This is the effective contingency behaviour. A manager is quite to assess the situation, and quicker to change his approach, if needed. A trainer or the consultant gives up the well prepared plans of teaching and intervention, if the situation demands a different approach.

Confronting (Reactive Child): Aggressiveness is the characteristic of this style. However, aggressiveness becomes functional when the person does not give up, but perseveres, and is content only when the problem is solved. This is confrontation with the problem. A distinction needs to be made between pseudo- confrontation (expression of aggression to people) and real confrontation reflected in the concern with the problem. Even when something is to be explored with the persons, the focus is always on a particular issue or on a problem, and the persons is not the target.

24) Innovative (Creative Child): A person in this style is not satisfied with available solutions but continuously searches for new ways of solving a problem or new methods to be used. He is also interested, however, in stabilizing such an innovation before going to the new ones.

10.5 TWELVE INTERPERSONAL STYLES

Activity 2

Transfer your scores from the questionnaire in Activity 1 for each item in the following scoring sheet

Scoring sheet

OK Ego State

	Item Score		*Item Score*		*Item Score*		Raw Total	Type
Parent	(1) ———	+	(13) ———	+	(25) ———	=	——	Supportive
	(3) ———	+	(15) ———	+	(27) ———	=	——	Normative
Adult	(5) ———	+	(17) ———	+	(29) ———	=	——	Problem Solving
Child	(11) ———	+	(23) ———	+	(35) ———	=	——	Innovative
	(9) ———	+	(21) ———	+	(33) ———	=	——	Confronting
	(7) ———	+	(19) ———	+	(31) ———	=	——	Resilient

Not-OK Ego State

	Item Score		*Item Score*		*Item Score*		Raw Total	Type
Parent	(8) ———	+	(20) ———	+	(32) ———	=	——	Rescuing
	(10) ———	+	(22) ———	+	(31) ———	=	——	Prescriptive
Adult	(12) ———	+	(24) ———	+	(36) ———	=	——	Task Obsessive
Child	(6) ———	+	(18) ———	+	(30) ———	=	——	Bohemian
	(4) ———	+	(16) ———	+	(28) ———	=	——	Aggressive
	(2) ———	+	(14) ———	+	(26) ———	=	——	Scoring

From the above scoring sheet enter your scores in the appropriate boxes below into the summary sheet.

EGO STATES

	PARENT		**ADULT**		**CHILD**	
	Nurturing	*Regulating*		*Creative*	*Reactive*	*Adaptive*
OK Styles	Supportive	Normative	Problem Solving	Innovative	Confronting	Resilient
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Not-OK Styles	Rescuing	Prescriptive	Task Obsessive	Bohemian	Aggressive	Sulking
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Under developed OK Ego States	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Operation Effectiveness Quotient	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Dominant Style						
Backup Style						

The 24 styles shown in Figure 2 may be too many.

Following James, it may be useful to combine two general life positions (OK and Not OK) with the six ego state dimensions, giving 12 styles. These are given in figure 3.

Figure 3
Twelve Influencing Styles

Styles in Two Life Positions

Ego State	Avoidance Not OK Dysfunctional	Approach OK Functional
Nurturing Parent	Rescuing	Supportive
Regulating Parent	Prescriptive	Normative
Adult	Task-Obsessive	Problem Solving
Adaptive Child	Sulking	Resilient
Creative Child	Bohemian	Innovative
Reactive Child	Aggressive	Confronting

1) Rescuing Style: Such a style develops a dependency relationship in which the managers, the trainer or the consultant perceives his main role as that of rescuing his subordinate, or participant or client. The latter is seen as incapable of taking care of himself. Another characteristic of this style is that support is provided conditionally, contingent upon defence of the client to the consultant, or subordinate to the manager, or participant to the trainer. In this style the general attitude remains of superiority of the manager or the consultant or the trainer and these people show their support to solve problems. However, such support constantly reminds others of their dependence on their managers, etc. Such a style does not help people to become independent and act by themselves.

2) Supportive Styl .. In this style support is provided when needed. James uses the term "supportive coaches" for managers with this style. They encourage their subordinates, cheer them on, and provide the necessary conditions for their continuous improvement. Consultants in this style show patience in learning about the problems of their client, have empathy with them. The same is true of trainers. Managers with this style motivate their employees. They listen to them with sympathy and empathy. They take care of their subordinates.

3) Prescriptive Style: People with this style are critical of others' behaviour, develop rules and regulations, and impose them on others. The managers with this style make quick judgements, and insist that certain norms for which they have respect should also be followed by their subordinates. A manager who does not smoke may dislike his subordinate because the latter smokes. A consultant gives more advice and prescribes solutions to his client rather than helping the client to work out alternative solutions for the problem.

4) Normative Style: In this style managers are interested in developing proper norms of behaviour of their subordinates and helping their subordinates to understand how some norms are more important than others. A consultant with this style not only helps his client to develop ways of approaching a problem, and raises questions about relevant values. Such a consultant emphasizes the development of a general approach to the problem. A trainer with this style influences the participants through the modelling of behaviour, that is, by behaving the way he would like participants to behave. He also raises questions about the appropriateness of some aspects of behaviour and work.

5) Task-obsessive Style: Managers or consultants or trainers in this style are more concerned with the task. Matters not directly related to the task are ignored. They are not concerned with feelings, and in fact, fail to recognize them, since they see them as not related to the task. They function like computers. The consultant focuses his attention on the task ignoring any 'non-task' information. A trainer is insensitive to the emotional needs, personal problems, and apprehension of the participants.

6) Problem-solving Style: In this style a manager is concerned to solve problems but he does not see the problems being merely confined to the tasks. For him the problems have various dimensions. He does not function as the old-styled computer, but acts like a more sophisticated computer which takes into account several matters for which the previous models of computers did not have the capability to handle. The focus of the manager, consultant, or trainer is on dealing with the finding out solutions to problems. In this process he takes the help of and involves his subordinates, clients, and participants.

7) Sulking Style: A manager or a consultant or a trainer in this style keeps the negative feelings to himself; finds it difficult to share them and avoids meeting people if he has not been able to fulfil his part of the contract. Instead of confronting the problems, a person in this style avoids them; feels bad about situations, but does not express himself.

8) Resilient Style: In this style a person shows creative adaptability, learning from others, accepting others' ideas which appeal to him, and changing his approach when such a change is needed.

9) Bohemian Style: In this style the creative child is active. A manager, consultant, or trainer has lots of ideas and he is impatient with the current practices. He is less concerned about the working of the new ideas, and is mainly concerned with the ideas themselves. Such people are non- conformists and enjoy experimenting with new approaches mainly for fun. They hardly allow an idea or a practice to stabilize. They go from one to the other. James calls such managers "scatter-brains".

10) Innovative Style: People with this style are enthusiastic about new approaches, and take others along with them. However, they pay enough attention to nurturing an idea so that it results in concrete action and gets internalized in a system. Such people are innovators.

11) Aggressive Style: People with this style are fighters. James calls them "punks", managers, consultants, or trainers with this style show their aggression towards others. They may fight for their subordinates, or clients, or participants, or their ideas and suggestions. They hope that this will help them achieve their results. Their aggressiveness, however, makes people ignore them, and not to take them seriously.

12) Confronting Style: In this style; as already discussed above, the persons in concerned with the exploration of a problem. Perseverance is the main characteristic. James has used the term "Partners" for such managers. They confront the organisation to get things done for their subordinates. The same is true of trainers who confront the institution for participants. People with this style are more concerned about confronting problems rather than confronting persons for the sake of confrontation. A consultant with this style confronts various sources on behalf of the client and also confronts the client which helps the latter to openly explore various dimensions including those pertaining to their relationship. Such people are frank and open, but are equally perceptive and sensitive. They respect others' feelings.

A person in an influence role (a manager, a consultant, a counsellor, a trainer) may show behaviours relating to several of the styles described above. However, he would use only style more (or more frequently) than other. This style is called dominant style. The styles which has next highest score is called backup tyle, backup style is used in emergency situation or when a person works under pressure.

10.6 IMPROVING OPERATING EFFECTIVENESS OF THE STYLES

Underdeveloped OK ego states are those that are two or more standard deviation units below the mean of the standardization sample. According to the available norms anyt score lower than those that follow for the various styles would qualify as underdeveloped OK ego states. Underdeveloped OK ego states are then checked in the appropriate boxes on the scoring sheet. These indicate that the respondent should consider working on increasing these behaviours.

Style	Cutoff points for underdeveloped ego state
Supportive	9
Normative	8
Problem Solving	8
Innovative	5
Confronting	6
Resilient	9

The operating effectiveness index shows how effectively the OK dimension of a particular ego state is being used by the respondent. The Operating Effectiveness Quotient (OEQ) can be determined by referring to Table 1.

Table 1
Operating Effectiveness Quotient

Not OK Scores	OK Scores												
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
3	0	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
4	0	50	67	75	80	83	85	87	89	90	91	92	92
5	0	33	50	60	67	71	75	78	80	82	83	85	86
6	0	25	40	50	57	62	67	70	73	75	77	78	80
7	0	20	33	43	50	55	60	64	67	69	71	73	75
8	0	17	28	37	44	50	54	58	61	64	67	69	70
9	0	14	25	33	40	45	50	54	57	60	62	65	67
10	0	12	22	30	36	42	46	50	53	56	59	61	63
11	0	11	20	27	33	38	43	47	50	53	55	58	60
12	0	10	18	25	31	36	40	44	47	50	53	55	57
13	0	9	17	23	28	33	37	41	44	47	50	52	54
14	0	8	15	21	27	31	35	39	42	45	48	50	52
15	0	8	14	20	25	29	33	37	40	43	45	48	50

Activity 3

Look at the operating effectiveness (OE) scores Examine those which are low (below 50). There are two ways of increasing OE; you can either increase your score on OK style, or you can reduce your score on Not-OK style. As you will see from Table 1, reducing Not-OK score is a better strategy to increase OE. Examine the three items of the Not-OK aspect of the ego state of which you want to increase OE, and write below or in your note book your plan to reduce frequency of your behaviour of that kind. After a month or so you may yourself observe how such a plan made you more effective.

10.7 SUMMARY

From this unit it was understood that interpersonal style is a unique, self-consistent and ending pattern of behaviour in interacting with other persons. The basis of transactional analysis for interpersonal style was discussed. Types of interpersonal styles and the importance of interpersonal styles of managerial effectiveness was discussed.

10.8 SELF-ASESSMENT TEST

(1) What is interpersonal style? Explain the importance of it.

(2) Explain Transactional Analysis and its relationship to understand Interpersonal style?

(3) Explain different types of Interpersonal styles.

10.9 FURTHER READINGS

(1) Transactional Analysis, the main conceptual framework of the chapter, has been very popular. T.A. Harris *I ok OK, you are OK* (Harper, 2969) gives good account of four life positions. Muriel James suggested its implications for management in *The OK Boss* (Addison-Wesley, 1975).

(2) Four instruments (for managers, trainers, consultants, and counsellors) along with the manual for the use and interpretation of results have been published with a manual, as *Interpersonal Style: The Manual for SPIRO Instruments* by Udai Pareek (ISABS, 1986).

BLOCK 4 GROUP AND INTER-GROUP PROCESSES

People in Organisations spend a large percentage of time in inter-personal interaction. Many of these exchanges take place in groups. This Block describes the processes and formation of groups (Unit 11). Unit 12 explains the processes of Organisation Communication. Unit 13 deals with development of a team and its effectiveness and the final unit deals with conflict (competition) and collaboration. The understanding and utilisation of this knowledge can help both individuals and organisations to function more effectively.

UNIT 11 GROUP FORMATION AND GROUP PROCESSES

Objectives

- Explain the meaning and nature of groups
- Distinguish between formal and informal groups
- Explain the main reasons for the formation of groups
- Appreciate the importance of groups for effective organisational performance
- Explain patterns of communication network in groups
- Recognise the importance of understanding the functioning and operation of work groups.

Structure

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Groups are a major feature of organisational life. The Organisation and its sub-units are made up of groups of people. Most activities of the Organisation require at least some degree of co-ordination through the operation of group working. An understanding of the nature of groups is vital if the manager is to influence the behaviour of people in the work situation. The Manager must be aware of the impact of groups and their effects on Organisational Performance.

If the manager is to make the most effective use of groups, then it is important to have an understanding of group processes and behaviour. It is necessary to understand the nature of group functions and roles, and factors which influence group performance and effectiveness. Attention must be given to the analysis of behaviour of individuals in group situations. The manager must be aware of the functioning and operation of work groups.

11.2 THE MEANING AND IMPORTANCE OF GROUPS

Individuals seldom work in isolation from others. Groups are a characteristic of all social situations and almost everyone in an organisation will be a member of one or more groups. The working of groups and the influence they exert over their membership is an essential feature of human behaviour and of Organisational Performance. The manager must use groups in order to achieve a high standard of work and improve organisational effectiveness.

There are many possible ways of defining what is meant by a group. The essential feature of a group is that its members regard themselves as belonging to the group. A group consists of a number of people who have:

- a common objective or task
- an awareness of group identity and 'boundary'
- a minimum set of agreed values and norms which regulates their relatively exclusive mutual interaction.

Another useful definition defines the group in psychological terms as : any number of people who
1) interact with one another
2) are psychologically aware of one another
3) perceive themselves to be a group.

Essential feature of work Organisation

Groups are an essential feature of the work pattern of any Organisation. Members of a group must co-operate in order for work to be carried out, and managers themselves will work within these groups. People in groups influence each other in many ways and groups may develop their own hierarchies and leaders. Group pressures can have a major influence over the behaviour of individual members and their work performance. The activities of the group are associated with the process of leadership. The style of leadership adopted by the manager has an important influence on the behaviour of members of the group.

The classical approach to organisation and management tended to ignore the importance of groups and the social factors at work. The ideas of people such as F. W. Taylor popularised the concept of the rabble hypothesis and the assumption that people carried out their work, and could be motivated, as solitary individuals unaffected by others.

The human relations approach, however, gave recognition to the work organisation as a social organisation and to the importance of the group, and group value and norms, in influencing behaviour at work. The power of group membership over individual behaviour and work performance was illustrated clearly in the famous Hawthorne experiments at the 'Western Electric Company in America'.

Group values and norms

One experiment involved the observation of a group of 14 men working in the bank wiring room. It may be remembered that the men formed their own sub-groups or cliques, with natural leaders emerging with the consent of the members. Despite a financial incentive scheme where workers could receive more money for the more work they did, the group decided on 6000 units a day as a fair level of output. This was well below the level they were capable of producing. Group pressures on individual workers were stronger than financial incentives offered by management.

The group developed its own pattern of informal social relations and codes and practices ('norms') of what constituted proper group behaviour.

- **Not to be a 'rate buster'**—not to produce at too high a rate of output compared with other members or to exceed the production restriction of the group.
- **Not to be a 'chiseller'**— not to shirk production or to produce at too low a rate of output compared with other members of the group.
- **Not to be a 'squealer'**—not to say anything to the supervisor or management which might be harmful to other members of the group.
- **Not to be 'officious'**— people with authority over members of the group, for example inspectors, should not take advantage of their seniority or maintain a social distance from the group.

The group had their own system of sanctions including sarcasm, damaging completed work, hiding tools, playing tricks on the inspectors, and ostracising those members who did not conform with the group norms. Threats of physical violence were also made, and the group developed a system of punishing offenders by 'binging' which involved striking someone a fairly hard blow on the upper part of the arm. This process of binging also became a recognised method of controlling conflict within the group.

Another finding of the bank wiring room experiment was that the group did not follow company policy on the reporting of production figures. It was company policy that each man's output should be reported daily by the supervisor. However, the workers preferred to do their own reporting, and in order to remain in favour with the group the supervisor acquiesced to this procedure. On some days the men would actually produce more than they reported to 'build up' extra units for those days when they produced less than reported. Although actual production varied the group reported a relatively standard amount of output for each day. The men would also exchange jobs with each other even though this was contrary to management instructions.

Socio-technical system

The system approach to organisation and management also gave recognition to the importance of groups in influencing behaviour at work. The concept of the organisation as socio-technical system is concerned with the interactions between the psychological and social factors, as well as structural and technical requirements. Again, it may be remembered that technological change in the coal-mining industry had brought about changes in the social groupings of the miners.

New methods of working disrupted the integration of small self-selecting groups of miners who worked together as independent teams. The change had undesirable social effects and as a result the new method did not prove as economically beneficial as it should have done with the new technology. The result was a 'composite' method of working with more responsibility taken by the team as a whole. The composite method proved to be not only more rewarding socially to the miners but also more efficient economically than the previous new method of working.

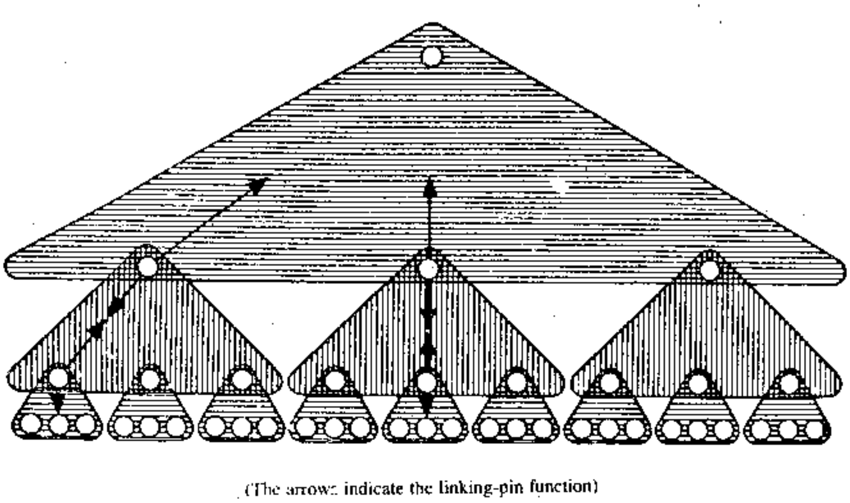
11.3 WORK PATTERN OF ORGANISATIONS

Groups, therefore, help shape the work pattern of organisations, and the attitudes and behaviour of members of their jobs. The formation and operation of work groups, and the behaviour of their members, has an important significance for the manager. Likert, for example, has developed a theory of organisation based on work groups. In his discussion of group processes and organisational performance he concludes that: 'Group forces are important not only in influencing the behaviour of individual work groups with regard to productivity, waste, absence and the like, they also affect the behaviour of entire organizations.'

Overlapping group membership

Likert suggests that organisations function best when members act not as individuals but as members of highly effective work groups. He proposes a structure based on overlapping group membership with a **'linking-pin' process** by which the superior of one group is a subordinate member of the next group. The superior is, therefore, the linking-pin between a group of subordinates and the next authority level group.

A structure of vertical overlapping groups helps to develop a committed team approach and would improve the flow of communication, co-ordination and decision-making.



(The arrows indicate the linking-pin function)

Fig. 1 : Overlapping group structure and the linking-pin
(Source : Likert R., New patterns of Management, McGraw-Hill (1961) p. 113)

Horizontal linking-pin

Likert also recognises the position of subordinates serving as horizontal linking-pins (Fig. 2) between different groups, such as functional or line work groups, and product-based work groups.

Likert recognises that sooner or later the subordinate is likely to be caught in a conflict between membership of both groups and the provision of information for decision-making. He suggests that both groups would need to be involved in group decision-making to resolve differences and that this is more likely to occur with System 4 management.

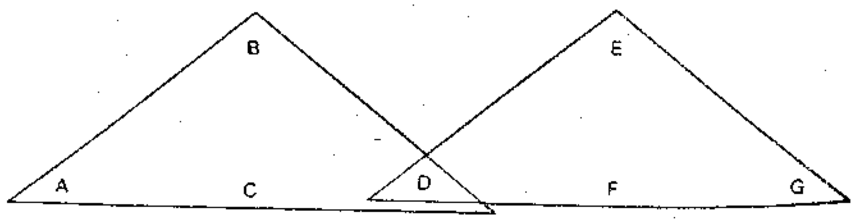


Fig. 2 : D is a member of both groups and acts as a linking-pin for horizontal communication

Organisation structure

Groups are formed as a consequence of the pattern of organisation structure and arrangements for the division of work, for example the grouping together of common activities into sections. Groups may result from the nature of technology employed and the way in which work is carried out, for example the bringing together of a number of people to carry out a sequence of operations on an assembly line. Groups may also develop when a number of people of the same level or status within the organisation see themselves as a group, for example departmental heads of an industrial organisation, or chief officers of a local authority.

Groups are deliberately planned and created by management as part of the formal organisation structure. But groups will also arise from social processes and the informal organisation. The informal organisation arises from the interaction of people working within the organisation and the development of groups with their own relationships and norms of behaviour, irrespective of those defined within the formal structure. This leads to a major distinction between groups—formal and informal.

Formal Groups

Formal groups are created to achieve specific organisational objectives and are concerned with the **co-ordination of work activities.**

People are brought together on the basis of defined roles within the structure of the organisation. The nature of the tasks to be undertaken is a predominant feature of the formal group. Goals are identified by management, and certain rules, relationships and norms of behaviour established.

Formal groups tend to be relatively permanent although there may be changes in actual membership. However, temporary formal groups may also be created by management, for example the use of project teams in a matrix organisation.

Formal work groups can be differentiated into team groups, task groups and technological groups.

- **Team groups**—these are fairly autonomous groups with broad terms of reference and limited supervision. The team designate the positions to be filled and the allocation of members, and instigate changes as necessary. Examples are problem-solving groups, research teams, maintenance crews.
- **Task groups**—jobs are defined clearly and individuals assigned to specific positions. The group has some flexibility over methods of work and the pace of work, but otherwise limited discretion. Examples could include many administrative or clerical workers.
- **Technological groups**—members have very limited autonomy to determine or change the operational activities. The pace of work is also likely to be controlled. Content and

method of work are specified and individuals assigned to specific jobs. There is little scope for individual discretion, and often limited opportunities for interaction among members. A typical example is people working on assembly-line operations.

Another possible categorisation is **decision-making and problem-solving groups,** such as committees and working parties.

Informal Groups

Within the formal structure of the organisation there will always be an informal structure. The formal structure of the organisation, and system of role relationships, rules, and procedures, will be augmented by interpretation and development at the informal level. Informal groups are based more on personal relationships and agreement of group members than on defined role relationships. They serve to satisfy psychological and social needs not related necessarily to the tasks to be undertaken. Groups may devise ways of attempting to satisfy members' affiliation and other social motivations which are lacking in the work situation, especially in industrial organisations.

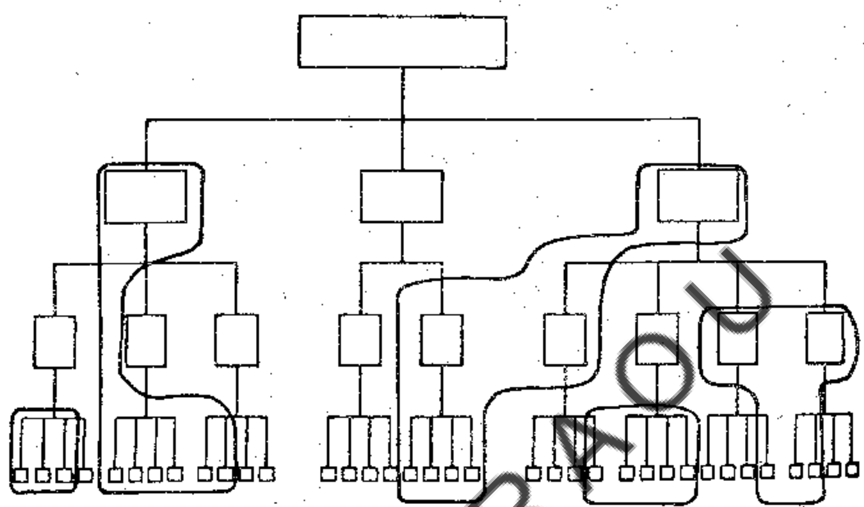


Fig. 3 : Examples of informal groups within the formal structure of an organisation

The membership of informal groups can cut across the formal structure. They may comprise individuals from different parts of the organisation and/or from different levels of the organisation, both vertically and diagonally, as well as from the same horizontal level. An informal group could also be the same as the formal group, or it might comprise a part only of the formal group. (See Fig. 3.)

The members of informal group may appoint their own leader who exercises authority by the consent of the members themselves. The informal leader may be chosen as the person who reflects the attitudes and values of the members, helps to resolve conflict, leads the group in satisfying its goals, or liaises with management or other people outside the group. The informal leader may often change according to the particular situation facing the group. Although not usually the case, it is possible for the informal leader to be the same person as the formal leader appointed officially by management.

11.4 REASONS FOR FORMATION OF GROUPS

Individuals will form into groups, both formal and informal, for a number of different reasons relating to both work performance and social processes.

- **Certain tasks can be performed only through the combined efforts of a number of individuals working together.** The variety of experience and expertise among members of the group provides a synergetic effect which can be applied to the increasingly complex problems of modern organisations.
- **Groups may encourage collusion between members** in order to modify formal working arrangements more to their liking, for example by sharing or rotating unpopular tasks. Group membership, therefore, provides the individual with opportunities for initiative and creativity.

- **Groups provide companionship and a source of mutual understanding and support from colleagues.** This can help in solving work problems, and also to mitigate against stressful or demanding working conditions.
- **Membership of the group provides the individual with a sense of belonging.** The group provides a feeling of identity, and the chance to acquire role recognition and status within the group.
- **The group provides guidelines on generally acceptable behaviour.** It helps to clarify ambiguous situations such as, for example, the extent to which official rules and regulations are expected to be adhered to in practice, the rules of the game, and what is seen as the correct actual behaviour. The informal organisation may put pressure on group members to resist demands from management on such matters as, for example, higher output or changes in working methods. Group allegiance can serve as a means of control over individual behaviour. The group may discipline individuals who contravene the norms of the group; for example, the process of 'binging' in the bank wiring room, mentioned above.
- **The group may provide protection for its membership.** Group members collaborate to protect their interests from outside pressures or threats.

Expectations of group membership

Individuals have varying expectations of the benefits from group membership. Groups are a potential source of motivation and of job satisfaction, and also a major determinant of effective organisational performance. It is important, therefore, that the manager understands the reasons for the formation of groups and is able to recognise likely advantageous or adverse consequences for the organisation.

11.5 GROUP COHESIVENESS

The manager's main concern is that members of a work group co-operate in order to achieve the results expected of them. Co-operation among members is likely to be greater in a united, cohesive group. Membership of a cohesive group can be a rewarding experience for the individual and can contribute to the promotion of morale. Members of a high morale group are more likely to think of themselves as a group and work together effectively. **Strong and cohesive work groups can, therefore, have beneficial effects for the organisation.**

Cohesive groups do not necessarily produce a higher level of output. Performance varies with the extent to which the group accept or reject the goals of the organisation. The level of production is likely to conform to a standard acceptable as a norm by the group. However, cohesive groups may result in greater interaction between members, mutual help and social satisfaction, lower turnover and absenteeism, and often higher production.

Factors affecting cohesiveness

In order to develop the effectiveness of work groups the manager will be concerned with those factors that contribute to group cohesiveness, or that may cause frustration or disruption to the operation of the group.

The manager needs to consider, therefore, both the needs of individual members of staff, and the promotion of a high level of group identity and cohesion.

There are many factors which affect group cohesiveness and performance, which can be summarised under four broad headings:

i) Membership
   - Size
   - compatibility
   - permanence

ii) Work environment
   - nature of task
   - physical setting
   - communications
   - technology

iii) Organisational
   - management and leadership

- success
- external threat

iv) Group development and maturity, for example:
- forming
- storming
- norming
- performing

Membership

- **Size of the group :** As a group increases in size, problems arise with communications and co-ordination. Large groups are more difficult to handle and require a higher level of supervision. Absenteeism also tends to be higher in larger groups. When a group becomes too large it may split into smaller units and friction may develop between the sub-groups.

  It is difficult to put a precise figure on the ideal size of work group. Much will depend upon other variables, but it seems to be generally accepted that cohesiveness becomes more difficult to achieve when a group exceeds 10-12 members. Beyond this size the group tends to split into sub-groups.

- **Compatability of the members :** The more homogeneous the group in terms of such things as shared backgrounds, interests, attitudes and values of its members, the easier it is to promote cohesiveness. Variations in other individual differences, such as the personality or skills of members, may serve to complement each other and help make for a cohesive group. On the other hand, such differences may be the cause of disruption and conflict. Conflict can also arise in a homogeneous group where members are in competition with each other. Individual incentive payment schemes, for example, may be a source of conflict.

- **Permanence of group members :** Group spirit and relationships take time to develop. Cohesiveness is more likely when members of a group are together for a reasonable length of time, and changes occur only slowly. A frequent turnover of members is likely to have an adverse effect on morale, and on the cohesiveness of the group.

Work environment

- **The nature of the task** and the way in which work is carried out. Where workers are involved in similar work, share a common task, or face the same problems, this may assist cohesiveness. The nature of the task may serve to bring people together when it is necessary for them to communicate and interact regularly with each other in the performance of their duties, for example members of a research and development team.

  Even if members of a group normally work at different locations they may still experience a feeling of cohesiveness if the nature of the task requires frequent communication and interaction; for example, security guards patrolling separate areas who need to check with each other on a regular basis. However, where the task demands a series of relatively separate operations or discrete activities, for example on a machine paced assembly line, it is more difficult to develop cohesiveness. Individuals may have interactions with colleagues on either side of them but little opportunity to develop a common group feeling.

- **Physical setting :** Where members of a group work in the same location or in close physical proximity to each other this will generally help cohesiveness. However, this is not always the case. For example, in large open-plan offices staff often tend to segregate themselves from colleagues and create barriers by the strategic siting of such items as filing cabinets, book cases or indoor plants. The size of the office and the number of staff in it are, of course, important considerations in this case. Isolation from other groups of workers will also tend to build cohesiveness. This often applies, for example, to smaller number of workers on a night shift.

- **Communications :** The more easily members can communicate freely with each other the more likelihood of group cohesiveness. Communications are affected by the work environment, by the nature of the task, and by technology. For example, difficulties in communication can arise with production systems where workers are stationed continuously at a particular point with limited freedom of movement. Even when opportunities exist for interaction with colleagues, physical conditions may limit effective communication.

In their study of the effects of the assembly line on workers behaviour in a new car factory, Walker and Guest found that in some jobs the technological layout and high level of noise severely limited the amount of contact between workers. This restricted the possibilities for social interaction and hampered internal group unity. It also influenced the form of contact workers had with supervisors. Where opportunities existed for interpersonal relationships workers took advantage of them, and when such opportunities were absent the workers felt deprived.

- **Technology :** The nature of technology has an important effect on cohesiveness. Technology also has wider implications for the operation and behaviour of groups and therefore is considered in a separate section below.

Organisational

- **Management and leadership :** The activities of groups cannot be separated from management and the process of leadership. The form of management and style of leadership adopted will influence the relationship between the group and the organisation, and is a major determinant of group cohesiveness. In general terms, cohesiveness will be affected by such things as the manner in which the manager gives guidance and encouragement to the group; offers help and support; provides opportunities for participation; attempts to resolve conflicts and gives attention to both employee relations and task problems.

- **Success :** The more successful the group, the more cohesive it is likely to be, and cohesive groups are more likely to be successful. Success is usually a strong motivational influence on the level of work performance. Success, or reward, can be perceived by group members in a number of ways, for example, the satisfactory completion of a task through co-operative action; praise from management; a feeling of high status, achievement in competition with other groups; benefits gained, such as high wage payments from a group bonus incentive scheme.

- **External threat :** Cohesiveness may be enhanced by members co-operating with one another when faced with a common external threat, such as changes in their method of work, or the appointment of a new manager. Even if the threat is subsequently removed, the group may still continue to have a greater degree of cohesiveness than before the threat arose. Conflict between groups will also tend to increase the cohesiveness of each group and the boundaries of the group become drawn more clearly.

11.6 GROUP DEVELOPMENT AND MATURITY

The degree of cohesiveness is affected also by the manner in which groups progress through the various stages of development and maturity. Bass and Ryterband identify four distinct stages in group development: mutual acceptance and membership; communication and decision-making; motivation and productivity; and control and organisation.

- **First stage—developing mutual acceptance and membership :** Members have an initial mistrust of each other and a fear of inadequacies. They remain defensive and limit their behaviour through conformity and ritual. The priority is with questions of likes and dislikes, and power or dependency of group members.

- **Second stage—communication and decision-making :** Once members have learnt to accept each other they begin to express their feelings and conflicts. Norms of procedure are established and there is acceptance of legitimate influence over the group. Member develop a liking, or at least a sense of caring for each other. There are more open communications and reactions. More constructive problem-solving and decision-making behaviour strategies develop.

- **Third stage—motivation and productivity :** Problems of members' motivation have been resolved. Members are involved with the work of the group. They co-operate with each other instead of competing. Members are motivated by intrinsic rewards to achieve a high level of productivity.

- **Fourth stage—control and organisation :** The final stage of group development. Work is allocated by agreement and according to the members' abilities. Members work independently and the organisation of the group is flexible and adaptable to new challenges.

Group development and relationships

An alternative, and more popular, model by Tuckman also identifies four main successive stages of group development and relationships: forming, storming, norming and performing.

- **Stage 1— Forming :** The initial formation of the group and the bringing together of a number of individuals who identify, tentatively, the purpose of the group, its composition and terms of reference.

  At this stage consideration is given to hierarchical structure of the group, pattern of leadership, individual roles and responsibilities, and codes of conduct.

  There is likely to be considerable anxiety as members attempt to create an impression, to test each other, and to establish their personal identity within the group.

- **Stage 2— Storming :** As members of the group get to know each other better they will put forward their views more openly and forcefully.

  Disagreements will be expressed and challenges offered on the nature of the task and arrangements made in the earlier stage of development. This may lead to conflict and hostility.

  The storming stage is important because, if successful, there will be discussions on reforming arrangements for the working and operation of the group, and agreement on more meaningful structures and procedures.

- **Stage 3 — Norming :** As conflict and hostility start to be controlled members of the group will establish guidelines and standards, and develop their own norms of acceptable behaviour.

  The norming stage is important in establishing the need for members to co-operate in order to plan, agree standards of performance and fulfil the purpose of the group.

  This co-operation and adherence to group norms can work against effective organisational performance. It may be remembered, for example, that, in the bank wiring room experiment of the Hawthorne studies, group norms imposed a restriction on the level of output of the workers.

- **Stage 4 — Performing :** When the group has progressed successfully through the three earlier stages of development it will have created structure and cohesiveness to work effectively as a team.

  At this stage the group can concentrate on the attainment of its purpose and performance of their common task is likely to be at its most effective.

General formulation of group cohesiveness

Based on an analysis of research studies, Cartwright suggests a general formulation of the nature of group cohesiveness, its determinants and its consequences. (See Fig. 4)

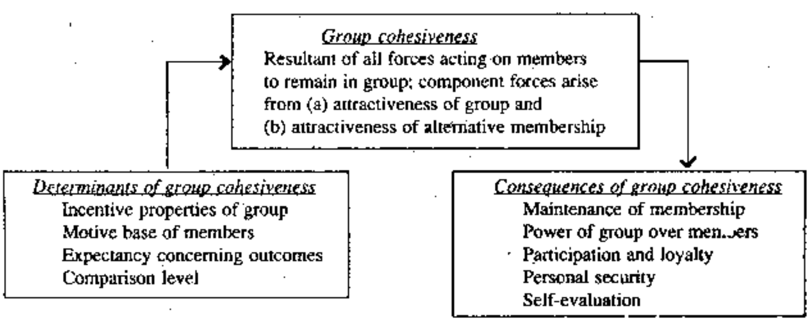


Fig. 4 : A scheme for analysing group cohesiveness

(From Cartwright D. 'The Nature of Group Cohesiveness', in Cartwright, D. and Zander. D.A. (eds) Group Dynamics: Research and Theory Harper & Row (1968 p. 92.)

Potential disadvantages of strong, cohesive groups

If the manager is to develop effective work groups then attention should be given to those factors which influence the creation of group identity and cohesiveness. But, strong and cohesive groups also present potential disadvantages for management. The goals of the group may be at variance with the goals of the organisation. Again, for example, in the bank wiring room experiment, group norms and pressures on individual members led to restrictions on production and a low level of output.

Once a group has become fully developed and created cohesiveness, it is more difficult for the manager to change successfully the attitudes and behaviour of the group. It is important that the manager should attempt to influence the group during the norming stage when members are establishing guidelines and standards, and their own norms of acceptable behaviour.

Strong, cohesive groups may develop a critical or even hostile attitude towards people outside the group or members of other groups. This can be the case, for example, when group cohesiveness is based on common status, qualifications, technical expertise or professional standing. Group cohesiveness may result in lack of co-operation with, or opposition to, non-members. As a result, resentment and inter-group conflict may arise to the detriment of the organisation as a whole.

In order to help prevent or overcome, unconstructive inter-group conflict, the manager should attempt to stimulate a high level of communication and interaction between the groups, and to maintain harmony. Rotation of members among different groups should be encouraged.

On the other hand, inter-group rivalry may be deliberately encouraged as a means of building stronger within group cohesiveness. A competitive element may help to promote unity within a group. However, inter-group rivalry and competition need to be carefully handled by the manager. Groups should not normally be put in a situation where they have to compete for resources, status or approval.

The manager should attempt to avoid the development of 'win-lose' situations. Emphasis should be placed on overall objectives of the organisation and on superordinate goals. These are goals over and above the issues at conflict and which, if they are to be achieved, require the co-operation of the competing groups.

11.7 THE EFFECTS OF TECHNOLOGY ON WORK GROUPS

The nature of technology and the work flow system of the organisation is a major determinant of the operation of groups, and the attitude and behaviour of their members. Low morale and a negative attitude towards management and the job are often associated with a large number of workers undertaking similar work.

A number of different studies have drawn attention to the relationship between technology and work groups. For example, Walker and Guest referred to effects of technology on work groups. The character or type of group is determined largely by the technological requirements of the organisation. They found that the technological layout and pacing of work by the assembly-line operation was a source of dissatisfaction to the workers.

Scott undertook a study of a large steel plant which appeared to have an unusual history of assimilating large-scale technical change with the minimum of resistance or overt conflict despite problems with demarcations, wage differentials and redundancies. One of the main reasons for this was the nature of the work groups. Operators worked in close co-operation with group members. The groups were 'self-regulating', they allocated functions to their members and established a hierarchy of skill and authority based on seniority. New members of the group started at the lower level of the hierarchy and worked their way up. They felt it to be in their long-term interests to stay with the organisation and to remain in the same group.

Production system and group behaviour

The type of production system determines the nature of work groups and the manner in which they conduct themselves. On the basis of a study of 300 work groups in a number of different industrial organisations, Sayles identified four main types of group, each with distinctive technological features and characteristic patterns of behaviour—apathetic, erratic, strategic and conservative.

- **Apathetic groups :** Tended to be relatively low skilled, and poorly paid. Members performed a range of different functions with little task interdependence. There was a lack of enthusiasm, little sense of internal unity, lack of a clearly defined leader, individual rather than group problems, low morale. Tended to accept management decisions with few pressure devices. Members felt suppressed and discontented.

- **Erratic groups :** Also tended to be low skilled and with low status. Members performed identical or very similar tasks requiring frequent interaction with each other. Work was often physically demanding. Tended to be unpredictable. Developed occasional cohesion. Mixed relationship with management, but easily inflamed in handling grievances. Tended to have authoritarian leadership.

- **Strategic groups :** Relatively skilled, well paid and self-assured. Usually a good production record. Generally individual jobs but with a high degree of interaction and internal group unity. Jobs were often important to management. Tended to be active and influential with continual union participation and pressure on management. Shrewd in use of grievance procedures and in improving their own position.

- **Conservative groups :** Skilled workers with high status. Mainly individual operation. Wide dispersion throughout the organisation and low level of interaction, but strong sense of identity and a reasonable degree of internal unity. Tended to be conservative in negotiations but exert strong pressure for specific objectives, for example maintenance of traditional differentials and wage levels. Often associated with professional bodies and tended to be ambivalent regarding trade unions.

There was a marked similarity of behaviour among the different types of groups with similar technological features across a wide range of industrial settings. The work organisation and production technology determines the type of work group that emerges, and restricts the form of action taken by the group. Sayles suggests that the relationship between work groups, management and the form of grievance behaviour, and the collective activity of the group, is influenced by five major variables:

- relative position of the group on the internal promotion ladder;
- relative size and importance of the group;
- similarity of jobs within the group;
- extent to which the work is indispensable to the functioning of the department or organisation; and
- precision with which management can measure the workload and work pace for the group.

These variables are determined largely by the nature of technology. Technology also influences the differentiation of the task and division of work, and the internal social structure of the group. The greater the task differentiation and the more complex the internal structure of the group, the less likely the effects of grievance behaviour.

Differences in behaviour of social groupings

Lupton undertook a study of the organisation of two contrasting workshops at different companies termed Wye and Jay. Wye Garment Company made waterproof garments and also embraced other manufacturing activities. The workers were mainly female. Jay's Electrical Components was founded originally for the manufacture of equipment for the generation and transmission of electricity. The workers were mainly male.

In both companies there were clear social groupings, but marked differences in their behaviour. At Wye the social groupings had no influence on the work situation, they appeared to accept management norms and there was no solidarity or control aimed at determining the level of output or earnings.

At Jay's the social groupings coincided with the work groups and actually shaped their pattern. They established norms of output, sanctions to control individual behaviour, and an informal division of labour which affected output and earnings. In attempting to explain the differences in the pattern of behaviour between the two workshops. Lupton examined a number of factors such as the sex of the workers, the wage payment system, external conditions, and technology and the work organisation.

At Wye there was a detailed breakdown of operations, the work flow was based on the individual, and jobs had a short time-span. At Jay's there was no detailed breakdown of operations, the production unit was based on the section, and each job had a reasonably long time-span with opportunities for manipulation. There was more scope for the workers and more opportunities for worker control. Lupton suggests that the layout of the job, the work flow pattern, the method of job allocation and the time-span of the operational cycle, are important to a comparative analysis of the degree of control which can be exercised by the workers.

Technology and alienation

The nature of technology and the work organisation can result in a feeling of alienation, especially among manual workers. Factors which have been shown to affect alienation include the extent to which the work of the individual or the group amounts to a meaningful part of the total production process, and the satisfaction which workers gain from relationships with fellow workers and group membership.

In a study of assembly-line and other factory work, Goldthorpe found that the technology was unfavourable for the creation of work groups. However, he also found a group of workers who, although alienated, were still satisfied. Membership of a meaningful work group was not necessarily an important source of job satisfaction. The workers, all married men, aged between 21 and 46, were not interested in maintaining close relationships with fellow workers or supervisors. Their earnings were well in excess of the average manual wage at the time — the 'affluent' workers.

Orientations to work

Goldthorpe's study is an example of the social action approach to organisational behaviour. His findings were based on a study of more than 200 manual workers from three different firms in Luton. Information was collected about the work situation, organisational participation and involvement with work colleagues, and life outside of the work organisation. Goldthorpe suggested that responses to work resulted largely from the individual's orientation to work. He suggested the existence of three main types of orientation to work: instrumental, bureaucratic and solidaristic.

- Individuals with an **instrumental orientation** defined work not as a central life issue but in terms of a means to an end. There is a calculative or economic involvement with work and a clear distinction between work-related and non-work-related activities.
- Individuals with a **bureaucratic orientation** defined work as a central life issue. There is a sense of obligation to the work of the organisation and a positive involvement in terms of a career structure. There is a close link between work-related and non-work-related activities.
- Individuals with a **solidaristic orientation** defined the work situation in terms of group activities. There is an ego involvement with work groups rather than with the organisation itself. Work is more than just a means to an end. Non-work activities are linked to work relationships.

Goldthorpe claimed that the workers had an instrumental orientation to work. Their primary concern was with economic interests pay and security rather than the nature of the work, or the satisfaction of social needs at work. Goldthorpe suggests that the different orientation to work in certain industries may help to explain the importance of work groups. He recognises that in other situations where there is the opportunity for team-work, the workers will have greater social expectations and the membership of work groups will be very important to them.

Technology and group behaviour

Technology is clearly a major influence on the pattern of group operation and behaviour. The work organisation may limit the opportunities for social interaction and the extent to which individuals are able to identify themselves as members of a cohesive work group. This in turn can have possible adverse effects on attitudes to work and the level of job satisfaction. In many assembly-line production systems, for example, relationships between individual workers are determined by the nature of the task, the extent to which individual jobs are specified, and the time cycle of operations.

In recent years there have been attempts to remove some of the alienating aspects of mass production and assembly-line work by increasing the range of tasks and responsibility allocated to small groups. These attempts include greater use of team working and of group technology.

Group technology involves changes to the work flow system of production. With the traditional 'functional layout' of production, lines of similar machines or operations are arranged together so that components are passed back and forth until all activities are completed. However, with 'group technology' production, the work flow system is based on a grouping of workers and a range of machines. This enables work groups to perform series of successive operations using a group of machines on a family of similar components.

Impact of information technology

The impact of information technology is likely to lead to new patterns of work organisation, and affect the formation and structure of groups. Movement away from large-scale centralised organisation to smaller working units can help create an environment in which workers may relate more easily to each other. Improvements in telecommunications mean, for example, that support staff need no longer be located within the main production unit. On the other hand, modern methods of communication mean that individuals may work more on their own or even from their own homes or work more with machines than with other people.

11.8 ROLE RELATIONSHIPS

In order that the organisation can achieve its goals and objectives the work of individual members must be linked into coherent patterns of activities and relationships. This is achieved through the 'role structure' of the organisation.

A 'role' is the expected pattern of behaviours associated with members occupying a particular position within the structure of the organisation. It also describes how a person perceives their own situation. The formal organisational relationship (line, functional, staff or lateral) can be seen as forms of role relationships. These individual authority relationships determine the pattern of interaction with other roles.

The concept of 'role' is important to the functioning of groups and for an understanding of group processes and behaviour. It is through role differentiation that the structure of the work group and relationships among its members are established. The development of the group entails the identification of distinct roles for each of its members. Some form of structure is necessary for team-work and co-operation. The concept of roles helps to clarify the structure and to define the pattern of complex relationships within the group.

The role or roles, that the individual plays within the group is influenced by a combination of:

- **situational factors,** such as the requirements of the task, the style of leadership, position in the communication network; and
- **personal factors,** such as values, attitudes, motivation, ability and personality.

The role that a person plays in one work group may be quite different from the role that person plays in other work groups. However, everyone within a group is expected to behave in a particular manner and to fulfil certain role expectations.

In addition to the role relationships with members of their own grouppeers—superiors, subordinates—the individual will have number of role-related relationships with outsiders, for example members of other work groups, trade union officials, suppliers, consumers. **This is a person's 'role-set'.** The role-set comprises the range of associations or contacts with whom the individual has meaningful interactions in connection with the performance of their role (see Fig. 5.)

Role congruence

An important feature of role relationship is the concept of 'role congruence'. This means that a member of staff should not be perceived as having a high and responsible position in one respect but a low standing in another respect. Difficulties with role congruence can arise from the nature of groupings and formal relationships within the structure of the organisation.

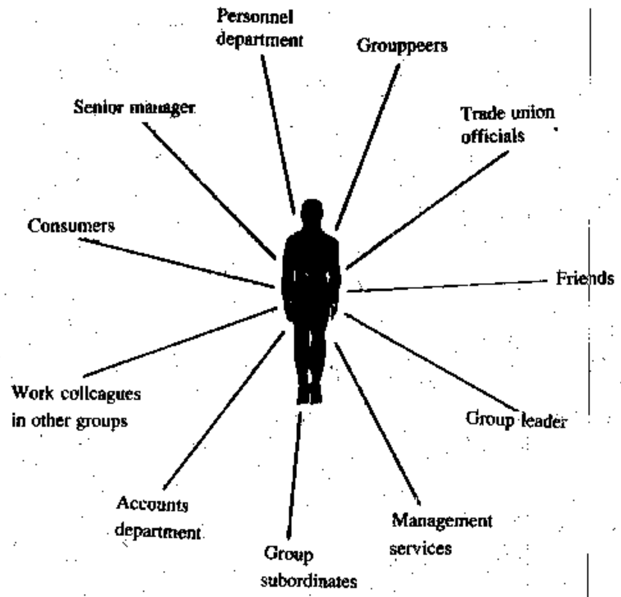


Fig. 5 : Representation of a possible role-set in the work situation

An example of this is with staff relationships. For instance a young and comparatively junior personal assistant passes on the superior's instructions to one of the superior's more senior subordinates. Although the subordinate will understand that the personal assistant is speaking on behalf of the superior, the senior subordinate may still feel that instructions are coming from a more junior member of staff.

Another example could be with the line staff relationship. For instance a relatively junior member of the personnel department informing a senior departmental manager that a certain proposed action is contrary to the policies of the organisation.

Problems over role congruence can also lead to the possibility of role stress; see below.

Role expectations

Many role expectations are **prescribed formally** and indicate what the person is expected to do and their duties and obligations. Formal role prescriptions provide guidelines for expected behaviours. Examples are a written contract of employment, rule and regulations, standards, policy decisions, job description, or directives from superiors. Formal role expectations may also be derived clearly from the nature of the task. They may, in part at least be defined legally, for example the obligations of a company secretary under the Companies Acts, or the responsibilities of a district auditor under the Local Government Acts.

But not all role expectations are prescribed formally. There will be certain patterns of behaviour which although not specified formally will nonetheless be expected of members. These informal role expectations may be imposed by the group itself or at least communicated to a person by other members of the group. Examples include general conduct, mutual support to co-members, attitudes towards superiors, means of communicating, dress and appearance.

Members may not always be consciously aware of these informal expectations yet they still serve as important determinants of behaviour. Under this heading could be included the concept of a psychological contract. The psychological contract implies a variety of expectations between the individual and the organisation. These expectations cover a range of rights and privileges, duties and obligations which do not form part of a formal agreement but still have an important influence on behaviour.

Some members may have the opportunity to determine their own role expectations, where, for example, formal expectations are specified loosely or only in very general terms. Opportunities for **self-established roles** are more likely in senior positions, but also occur within certain professional, technical or scientific groups, or where there is a demand for creativity or artist flair. Such opportunities will also be influenced by the style of leadership adopted, for example where a laissez faire approach is adopted.

11.9 PATTERNS OF COMMUNICATION

Group performance and the satisfaction derived by individuals are influenced by the interactions among members of the group. The level of interaction is determined by the structuring of channels of communication. Laboratory research by Bavelas and subsequent studies by other researchers such as Leavitt have resulted in the design of a series of communication networks.

These networks were based on groups of five members engaged in a number of problem-solving tasks. Members were permitted to communicate with each other by written notes only, and not everyone was always free to communicate with everyone else.

Main communication networks

There are five main types of communication networks— Wheel, Circle, All channel, Y and Chains (See Fig. 6).

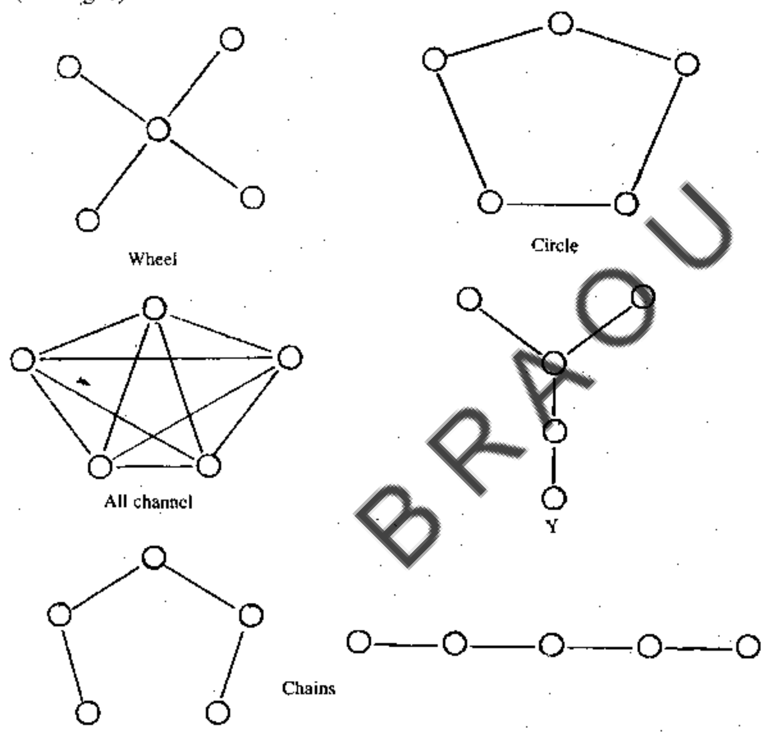


Fig. 6 : Communication networks

The wheel, also sometimes known as the star, is the most centralised network. This network is most efficient for simple tasks. Problems are solved more quickly with fewer mistakes and with fewer information flows. But as the problems of the group become more complex and demands on the link person increase, effectiveness suffers. The link person is at the centre of the network and acts as the focus of activities and information flows, and the co-ordinator of group tasks. The central person is perceived as leader of the group and experiences a high level of satisfaction. However, for members on the periphery, the wheel is the least satisfying network.

The circle is a more decentralised network. Overall it is less efficient. The group is unorganised, with low leadership predictability. Performance tends to be slow and erratic. However, the circle is quicker than the wheel in solving complex problems, and also copes with change or new tasks more efficiently. The circle network is most satisfying for all the members. Decision-making is likely to involve some degree of participation.

The all-channel network involves full discussion and participation. This network appears to work best where a high level of interaction is required among all members of the group in order to solve complex problems. Leadership predictability is very low. There is a fairly high level of satisfaction for members. The all channel network may not stand up well under pressure, in which case it will either disintegrate or reform into a wheel network.

A 'Y' or chain network might be appropriate for more simple problem-solving tasks, requiring little interaction among members of the group. These networks are more centralised, with information flows along a predetermined channel. Leadership predictability is high to moderate. There is a low to moderate level of satisfaction for members.

Satisfaction of group members
Findings from these studies indicate that the greater the amount of inter-connectedness of the network, the higher the general level of satisfaction of members in the group. Groups allowed to establish their own communication networks, and who did so with the minimum of links, took less time to solve their tasks. Those groups who did not minimise the number of links in their network took more time to solve the tasks.

From a review of studies in communication networks, Shaw confirmed that simple tasks were consistently undertaken most efficiently in more centralised networks such as the wheel. More complex tasks were performed more efficiently by decentralised networks such as the circle or the all-channel. The characteristics of the different communication networks are determined by the extent of 'independence' and 'saturation'.

- **Independence** refers to the opportunities for group members to take action and to solve the problem without relying on the assistance of others.
- **Saturation** occurs when the task places an excessive information load or other demands upon a member of the network. This leads to inefficiency. The central person is a centralised network handling complex problems is more likely to experience saturation.

The individual's satisfaction with his or her position in the network relates to the degree of independence and the satisfaction of recognition and achievement needs. A high level of dependence on other members may prevent the satisfaction of these needs, and if members of the network become frustrated they may not be so willing to share information with others.

In the wheel network the central person has greater independence than the other members, but in the circle network all members have a moderate degree of dependence upon each other. Leadership is also important because this can influence the opportunity for independent action by the group members, and can also control the possibility of saturation.

Implications for the manager
Despite the artificiality of these communication network studies, they do have certain implications for the manager. A knowledge of the findings may be applied to influence the patterns of communication in meetings and committees. They also provide a reasonable representation of the situations that might apply in large organisations. Members of the group may be located in different parts of the organisation or have only limited opportunities for face-to-face contact with each other. The majority of communications may only be indirect or by means of written notes or telephone.

It will be interesting for the manager to observe the patterns of communications adopted by different groups in different situations. The manager can also note how communication network change over time and how they relate to the performance of the group.

No one network is likely to be effective for a range of given problems. It is the manager's job to ensure the most appropriate communication network for the performance of a given task. Problems which require a high level of interaction among members of the group may not be handled efficiently if there are inadequate channels of communication or sharing of information. The choice of a particular communication network may involve trade-offs between the performance of the work group and the satisfaction of its members.

11.10 ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR IN GROUPS

In order to understand and to influence the functioning and operation of a group it is necessary to study patterns of interaction, and the parts played by individual members. Two of the main methods of analysing the behaviour of individuals in group situation are sociometry and interaction process analysis.

Sociometry

Originally developed by Moreno, sociometry is a method if indicating the feelings of acceptance or rejection among members of a group. A sociogram (see Fig.7) is a diagrammatical illustration of the pattern of interpersonal relationships derived from sociometry. The sociogram depicts the choices, preferences, likes or dislikes, and interactions between individual members of a group. It can also be used to display the structure of the group and to record the observed frequency and/or duration of contacts among members.

The basis of sociometry, however, is usually 'buddy rating' or 'peer rating'. Each member in the group is asked to nominate or to rate, privately, other members in terms of some given context or characteristic, for example with whom they communicate, how influential or how likeable. Questions may relate to either work or social activities. For example: who would you most prefer or least prefer as a work-mate? or who would make a good leader of the group? or with whom would you choose and not choose to go on holiday?

Positive and negative choices may be recorded for each person, although sometimes positive choices only are required. The choices may be limited to a given number or they may be unlimited. Sometimes individuals may be asked to rank their choices.

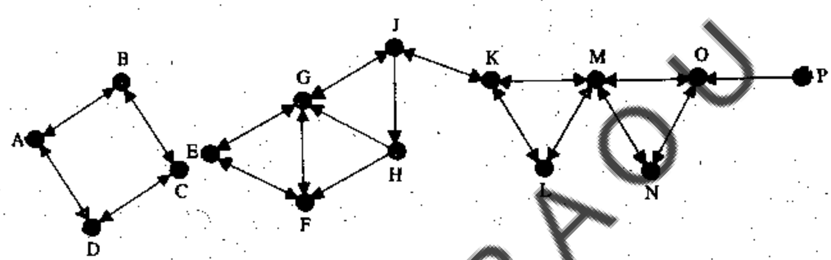


Fig. 7 : A simple sociogram illustrating interaction among 15 members of a group. Positive choices only

i) G and M are popular (the stars) and most often chosen by members.
ii) M is the link between two overlapping cliques, KML and MNO.
iii) H and P are unpopular (isolated) and chosen least by members.
iv) JKMO is a chain.
v) ABCD is a sub-group and separated from the rest of the members.

Constructing a sociogram

In constructing the sociogram the distance between the points may be arranged to indicate the degree of positive attraction. If two people choose each other the points representing these individuals will be closer together than if neither person chooses the other. If both positive and negative choices are recorded some distinguishing feature, such as different colours or the use of solid and broken lines, can be used to differentiate clearly between selection and rejection.

Members' choices could be tabulated, but the advantage of the sociogram is that it provides a visual description of the sociometric structure of a group. It indicates cliques and sub-groups, compatability, and members who are popular, isolated or who act as links. However, sociograms can become complicated and unwieldy especially for larger groups or where there is an unlimited number of nominations, if rankings are given, or where both positive and negative choices are recorded. Individuals express desired choices and may indicate what they feel should happen. This does not always correspond with actual patterns of behaviour.

Buddy rating is used sometimes as part of a staff selection procedure, usually as a basis for judgment of candidates 'sociability' rating. This method can only be used, of course, if a group of candidates have been together long enough to become well acquainted with each other.

11.11 INTERACTION ANALYSIS

The basic assumption behind interaction analysis is that behaviour in groups may be analysed from the viewpoint of its function. This approach has developed largely from the work of **Bales** on methods for the study of small groups. This aim is to provide ways of describing group process and indications of factors influencing the process.

In Bales' 'Interaction Process Analysis' every act of behaviour is categorised, as it occurs, under twelve headings. These differentiate between 'task' functions and 'socio-emotional' functions. The categories apply to both verbal interaction and non-verbal interaction.

A Socio-emotional: Positive Reactions

1) **Shows solidarity,** raises others' status, gives help, reward.
2) **Shows tension release,** jokes, laughs, shows satisfaction.
3) **Agrees,** shows passive acceptance, understands, concurs, complies.

B Task: Attempted Answers

4) **Gives suggestion,** direction, implying autonomy for others.
5) **Gives opinion,** evaluation, analysis, expresses feeling, wish.
6) **Gives orientation,** information, repeats, clarifies, confirms.

C Task: Questions

7) **Asks for orientation,** information, repetition, confirmation.
8) **Asks for opinion,** evaluation, analysis, expression of feeling.
9) **Asks for suggestion,** direction, possible ways of action.

D Socio-emotional: Negative Reactions

10) **Disagrees,** shows passive rejection, formality, withholds help.
11) **Shows tension,** asks for help, withdraws out of field.
12) **Shows antagonism,** deflates others' status, defends or asserts self.

In an extension of interaction process analysis, Bales gives 27 typical group roles which are based on various combinations of these original main behavioural categories.

Task and maintenance functions

If the group is to be effective, then, whatever its structure or the pattern of inter-relationships among members, there are two main sets of functions or processes that must be undertaken—task functions and maintenance functions.

- **Task functions** are directed towards problem-solving, the accomplishment of the tasks of the group and the achievement of its goals. Most of the task-oriented behaviour will be concerned with 'production' activities, or the exchange and evaluation of ideas and information.
- **Maintenance functions** are concerned with the emotional life of the group and directed towards building and maintaining the group as an effective working unit. Most of the maintenance-oriented behaviour will be concerned with relationships among group members, giving encouragement and support, maintaining cohesiveness and the resolution of conflict.

Task and maintenance functions may be performed either by the group leader or by members. Ultimately it is the leader's responsibility to ensure that both sets of functions are carried out and the right balance is achieved between them. The appropriate combination of task-oriented behaviour and maintenance-oriented behaviour is essential to the success and continuity of the group.

In addition to these two types of behaviour members of a group may say or do something in attempting to satisfy some personal need or goal. The display of behaviour in this way is termed **self-oriented behaviour.** This gives a classification of three main types of functional behaviour which can be exhibited by individual members of a group: task-oriented, maintenance-oriented and self-oriented.

Classification of member roles

A popular system for the classification of member roles in the study of group behaviour is that devised originally by Benne and Sheats. The description of member roles performed in well-functioning groups is classified into three broad headings: group task roles, group maintenance roles and individual roles.

Group task roles : These assume that the task of the group is to select, define and solve common problems. Any of the roles may be performed by the various members or the group leader.

i) The initiator-contributor
ii) The information seeker
iii) The opinion seeker
iv) The information giver
v) The opinion giver
vi) The elaborator
vii) The co-ordinator
viii) The orienter
ix) The evaluator-critic
x) The energiser
xi) The procedural technician
xii) The recorder

Group building and maintenance roles : The analysis of member-functions is oriented towards activities which build group-centred attitudes, or maintain group-centred behaviour. Contributions may involve a number of roles, and members or the leader may perform each of these roles.

i) The encourager
ii) The harmoniser
iii) The compromiser
iv) The gate-keeper and expediter
v) The standard setter or ego ideal
vi) The group-observer and commentor
vii) The follower

Individual roles : These are directed towards the satisfaction of personal needs. Their purpose is not related to either group task or to the group functioning.

i) The aggressor
ii) The blocker
iii) The recognition-seeker
iv) The self-confessor
v) The playboy
vi) The dominator
vii) The help-seeker
viii) The special interest pleader

Frameworks of behavioural analysis

Several frameworks have been designed for observers to categorise patterns of verbal and non-verbal behaviour of group members. Observers chart members' behaviour on specially designed forms. These forms may be used to focus on single individuals, or used to record the total group interaction with no indication of individual behaviour.

The system of categorisation may distinguish between different behaviours in terms of the functions they are performing. The completed observation forms can be used as a basis for discussion of individual or group performance in terms of the strengths/weaknesses of different functional behaviour.

In the following framework there are two observation sheets, one covering six types of leader-member **task-function behaviour** and the other covering six types of leader-member **group building and maintenance function behaviour.**

Task functions

1 **Initiating:** Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem, suggesting a procedure or ideas for solving a problem.
2 **Information or opinion seeking:** Requesting facts, seeking relevant information about a group concern, asking for suggestions and ideas.
3 **Information or opinion giving:** Offering facts, providing relevant information about group concern; stating a belief; giving suggestions or ideas.
4 **Clarifying or elaborating:** Interpreting or reflecting ideas and suggestions; clearing up confusions; indicating alternatives and issues before the group, giving examples.
5 **Summarising:** Pulling together related ideas, restating suggestions after group has discussed them; offering a decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject.
6 **Consensus testing:** Sending up 'trial balloons' to see if group is nearing a conclusion; checking with group to see how much agreement has been reached.

Group building and maintenance functions

1 **Encouraging:** Being friendly, warm and responsive to other, accepting others and their contributions, regarding others by giving them an opportunity for recognition.
2 **Expressing group feelings:** Sensing feeling, mood, relationships within the group, sharing one's own feelings with other members.
3 **Harmonising:** Attempting to reconcile disagreements, reducing tension through 'pouring oil on troubled waters', getting people to explore their differences.
4 **Compromising:** When own idea or status is involved in a conflict offering to

compromise own position, admitting error, disciplining oneself to maintain group cohesion.

5 **Gate-keeping:** Attempting to keep communication channels open, facilitating the participation of others; suggesting procedure for sharing opportunity to discuss group problems.

6 **Setting standards:** Expressing standards for group to achieve, applying standards in evaluating group functioning and production.

Source: *National Training Laboratory, Washington DC (1952).*

Frameworks of behaviour analysis concerned with 'collecting behavioural data' as a basis for interactive skills training are given by Rackham, Honey and Colbert. They emphasise the importance of identifying behaviours that are susceptible to development and change. For example, Fig. 8 relates to an activity which members agree serves a useful purpose, and categorises behaviours of importance to the group situation.

In a second framework, Fig. 9, the categories are paired to provide a framework of behavioural feedback and a link to supervisory style.

Use of different frameworks

Different frameworks use a different number of categories for studying behaviour in groups. The interaction analysis method can become complex, especially if non-verbal behaviour is included. Many of the categories in different frameworks may at first sight appear to be very similar.

It is important, therefore, to keep the framework simple, and easy to understand and complete. The observer's own personality, values and attitudes can influence the categorisation of behaviour. For these reasons it is preferable to use trained observers, and wherever possible and appropriate to use more than one observer for each group. The observers can then compare the level of consistency between their categorisations.

Observation sheets can be designed to suit the particular requirements of the group situation and the nature of the activity involved. An example of a reasonably simple, ten-point observation sheet used by the author is given in Fig. 10.

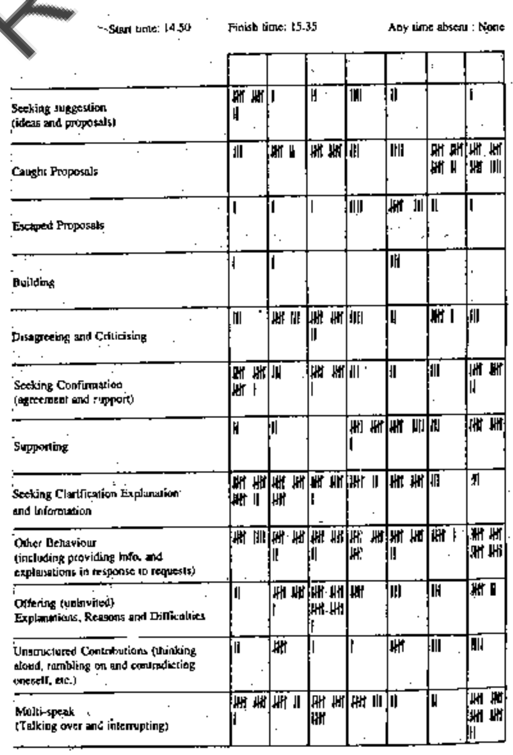


Fig. 8 : Behaviour analysis in a group situation

(Extracted from Rackham. N., Honey, P. and Colbert, M.J. Developing Interactive Skills, Wellen's Publishing (1971), p. 99.)

Where appropriate it may be helpful to note the initial seating or standing arrangements of the group. This will help in the identification of group members. Depending on the nature of the activity involved, it might also be possible to indicate main channels of interaction among individuals for example to whom eye contact, hand movements, or ideas and questions are most frequently directed. A note could also be made of changes in arrangements during, and at the end of, the activity.

Supporting
Disagreeing
Building
Criticising
Bringing in
Shutting out
Innovating
Solidifying
Admitting Difficulty
Defending/Attacking
Giving Information
Seeking Information
Other

Fig. 9 A framework of behavioural feedback

(Extracted from Rackham. N., Honey, P. and Colbert, M.J. **Developing Interactive Skills**, Wellen's Publishing (1971), p. 99.)

Headings of the observation sheet are not necessarily exclusive. For example, leadership could be included under Taking Initiative, or under Performing Group Roles. Similarly, the role of humorist could be included under Performing Group Roles, but might also appropriately be included under the heading of Harmonising.

Observers will tend to use their own methods for completing the sheet. For example, a simple stroke or tick for each contribution and perhaps a thick stroke for a particularly significant contribution. Some observers might use some other distinguishing mark to indicate non-verbal behaviour such as body movements, smiles or eye contact. The most important point, however, is that the charting should not become too complex. The observer should feel happy with the framework and be capable of explaining the entries in a meaningful way. Where more than one observer is present there should be some degree of consistency between them.

Nature of group

Nature of activity

Date Name of observer(s)

Initial arrangement of group

		C	D		
	B				E
A				F	

Names of group members (or reference letters)

	A	B	C	D	E	F
Taking Initiative—e.g. attempting leadership, seeking suggestion offering directions						
Brainstorming—e.g. offering ideas or suggestions however valid						
Offering positive ideas—e.g. making helpful suggestions, attempting to problem solve						
Drawing in others—e.g. encouraging contributions, seeking ideas and opinions						
Being responsive to others—e.g. giving encouragement and support building on ideas						
Harmonising—e.g. acting as peacemaker, claiming things down, compromising						
Challenging—e.g. seeking justification, showing disagreement in constructive way						
Being Obstructive—e.g. criticising, putting others down, blocking contributions						
Clarifying/summarising—e.g. linking ideas, checking progress clarifying objectives/proposals						
Performing group roles—e.g. spokesperson, recorder, time keeper, humorist						

Other comments

Fig. 10 Observation sheet for behaviour in groups

11.12 GROUP PERFORMANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS

Groups are an essential feature in the life of the organisation. It is, however, difficult to draw any firm conclusions from a comparison between individual and group performance. An example of this can be seen from a consideration of decision-making. Certain groups, such as committees, may be concerned more specifically with decision-making, but all groups must make some decisions. Group decision-making can be costly and time consuming, but would appear to offer a number of advantages.

- Groups can bring together a range of complementary knowledge and expertise.
- Interaction among members can have a 'snowball' effect and provoke further thoughts in the minds of others.
- Group discussion leads to the evaluation and correction of possible decisions.
- Provided full participation has been facilitated, decisions will have the acceptance of most members and they are more likely to be committed to decisions made and their implementation.

Risky- Shift phenomenon

One might expect, therefore, a higher standard of decision-making to result from group discussion. However, on one hand there is the danger of compromise and decisions being made in line with the 'highest common view'; and on the other hand is the phenomenon of the so-called **risky-shift.** This suggests that instead of the group taking fewer risks and making safer or more conservative decisions, the reverse is often the case. There is a tendency for groups to make more risky decisions than would individual members of the group on their own. Studies suggest that people working in groups generally advocate more risky alternatives than if they were making an individual decision on the same problem.

Presumably, this is because members do not feel the same sense of responsibility for group decisions or their outcomes. 'A decision which is everyone's is the responsibility of no one'. Other explanations offered for the risky-shift phenomenon include:

i) people inclined to take risks are more influential in group discussions than more conservative people; and
ii) risk taking is regarded as a desirable cultural characteristic which is more likely to be expressed in a social situation such as group working.

However, groups do appear to work well in the evaluation of ideas and to be more effective than individuals for problem-solving tasks requiring a range of knowledge and expertise. From a review of the research Shaw suggests that the evidence supports the view that groups produce more solutions and better solutions to problems than to individuals.

11.13 BRAINSTORMING

A brainstorming approach involves the group adopting a 'freewheeling' attitude and generating as many ideas as possible, the more wild or apparently far-fetched the better. There are a number of basic procedures for brainstorming.

- The initial emphasis is on the quantity of ideas generated, not the quality of ideas.
- No individual ideas are criticised or rejected at this stage, however, wild or fanciful they may appear.
- Members are encouraged to elaborate or build on ideas expressed by others, and to bounce suggestions off one another.
- There is no comment or evaluation of any particular idea until all ideas have been generated.

Brainstorming is based on the assumptions that creative thinking is achieved best by encouraging the natural inclinations of group members and the free association of ideas; and that quantity of ideas will lead to quality of ideas.

Effectiveness of brainstorming groups

One might reasonably expect that members of a brainstorming group would produce more creative problem-solving ideas than if the same members worked alone as individuals. Availability of time is an important factor. Over a longer period of time the group may produce more ideas through brainstorming than individuals. Perhaps surprisingly, however, there appears to be doubt about the effectiveness of brainstorming groups over an individual working under the same conditions. Research findings suggest that brainstorming groups can inhibit creative thinking.

Taylor compared 12 groups of four people who were participating together, with 12 'groups' of four people working separately. Performance was measured in terms of the number of alternative solutions to a series of given problems, generated through 'brainstorming' over a given period of time. In each case the group with people working on their own produced more solutions and generally of a higher quality.

In another study, by Maginn and Harris, 152 students were divided into groups of four and asked to brainstorm two problems. Some of the groups were informed that their ideas would be evaluated for originality and quality, and that they would be observed by judges, either from behind a one-way mirror or by tape recording. Other groups were told that although they would be listened to, their ideas would not be subjected to evaluation.

Although it was predicted that the groups facing evaluation would perform less well, the findings indicated that the performances of both sets of groups were similar. Maginn and

Harris concluded that individual members put less effort into a task when responsibility for the outcome is shared with other members of the group. Unless this feeling of diminished responsibility can be overcome, individual brainstorming, although lonelier, is better.

11.14 VARIETY OF INTERRELATED FACTORS

Whatever the results of a comparison between individual and group performance, groups will always form part of the pattern of work organisation. It is a matter of judgment for the manager as to when, and how best, to use groups in the execution of work.

Any framework for viewing the performance and effectiveness of groups must take into account a variety of interrelated factors. These include:

- the composition, cohesiveness and maturity of the group;
- its structure, the clarification of role differentiation and channels of communication;
- patterns of interaction and group process, and attention to both task and maintenance functions;
- the task to be undertaken and nature of technology;
- management system and style of leadership;
- organisational processes and procedures;
- the social system of the group and the informal organisation; and
- the environment in which the group is operating.

These are the factors that the manager must attempt to influence in order to improve the effectiveness of the group. Ultimately, however, the performance of the group will be determined very largely by the characteristics and behaviour of its members.

11.15 GROUP DYNAMICS

Interest in the study of group process and behaviour has led to the development of group dynamics and a range of group training methods aimed at increasing group effectiveness through improving social interaction skills.

Group dynamics is the study of interactions and forces within small face-to-face groups.

One such method is **sensitivity training,** in which members of a group direct attention to the understanding of their own behaviour and to perceiving themselves as others see them. The objectives are usually stated as:

- to increase sensitivity (the ability to perceive accurately how others react to oneself);
- diagnostic ability (the skill of assessing behavioural relationships between others and reasons for such behaviour); and
- behavioural flexibility, or action skill (the ability to relate one's behaviour to the requirements of the situation).

T-Groups

A usual method of sensitivity training is the **T-group** (training group), sometimes called laboratory training.

A T-group has been defined as: 'an approach to human relations training which, broadly speaking, provides participants with an opportunity to learn more about themselves and their impact on others, and in particular to learn how to function more effectively in face to-face situations.

The original form of a T-group is a small, leaderless, unstructured, face-to-face grouping. The group normally numbers between 8 to 12 members who are strangers to each other. A deliberate attempt is made to minimise any status differentials among members. There is no agenda or planned activities. Trainers are present to help guide the group, but not to take an active role or to act as formal leader. The agenda becomes the group's own behaviour in attempting to cope with the lack of structure or planned activities. Training is intended to concentrate on process rather than content, that is on the feeling level of communication rather than the informational value of communication.

Faced with confusion and lack of direction, individuals will act in characteristic ways. With the guidance of the trainers these patterns of behaviour become the focus of attention for the group. Feedback received by individuals from other members of the group is the main mechanism for learning.

This feedback creates a feeling of anxiety and tension, and the individual own self-examination leads to consideration of new values, attitudes and behaviour. Typically, the group meets for a $1\frac{1}{2}$ hour-2 hour session each day for up to a fortnight. The sessions are supported by related lectures, study groups, case studies and other exercises.

Self-insight in T-group process

A simple framework for looking at self-insight, which is used frequent to help individuals in the T-group process, is the 'Johari window' (Fig. 11). This classifies behaviour in matrix form between what is known-unknown to self; and what is known-unknown to others.

A central feature of the T-group is reduction of the individual's 'hidden' behaviour through self-disclosure and reduction of the 'blind' behaviour through feedback from others.

Hidden behaviour is that which the individual wishes to conceal from, or not to communicate to, other group members. An important role of the group is to establish whether members conceal too much, or too little, about themselves from other members.

The blind area includes mannerisms, gestures, tone of voice and represents behaviour of which the individual is unaware of the impact on others. The group must establish an atmosphere of openness and trust in order that hidden and blind behaviours are reduced and the public behaviour enhanced.

	Behaviour known to self	Behaviour unknown to self
Behaviour known to others	PUBLIC	BLIND
Behaviour unknown to others	HIDDEN	UNKNOWN

Fig. 11 The Johari Window

Value and effectiveness of T-groups

Reactions to the value and effectiveness of T-group training are very mixed. Specific benefits and changes in behaviour from T-group training are listed by Mangham and Cooper as:

Receiving Communications: more effort to understand, attentive listening. Relational Facility: co-operative, easier to deal with.

Awareness of Human Behaviour: more analytic of others' actions, clear perception of people.

Sensitivity to Group Behaviour: more conscious of group process. Sensitivity to Others' Feelings: sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others.

Acceptance of Other People: more tolerant, considerate, patient. Tolerant of New Information: willing to accept suggestions, less dogmatic.

However, the experience can be very disturbing and unpleasant, at least for some members. For example, participants have described it as: 'a bloodbath and a psychological nudist colony in which people are stripped bare to their attitudes'.

T-group training is difficult to evaluate objectively and there is still a main problem of the extent to which training is transferred 'back home' to practical work situations. However, a number of studies do suggest that participation as a member of a T-group does increase inter-personal skills, induces change, and leads to open communications and more flexible behaviour.

T-groups now take a number of different forms. Some place emphasis on the understanding of group processes, others place more emphasis on the development of the individual's self-awareness and feelings towards the behaviour of other people. They are now used frequently as a means of attempting to improve managerial development and organisational performance.

The Blake and Mouton managerial grid seminars, can be seen as an applied, and refined, form of T-group. A number of different training packages have been designed, often under the broad heading of inter-personal skills, which are less disturbing for participants. The training often involves an analysis of group members' relationships with one another and the resolution of conflict.

11.16 SUMMARY

Groups are a major feature of human behaviour and of Organisational Performance. Members of a group must co-operate with one another for work to be carried out. Groups help to shape the work pattern of organisations, and the attitudes and behaviour of members regarding their jobs. Groups develop their own values and norms of behaviour. Organisations function best when members act not as individuals, but as members of highly effective work groups.

Groups are formed as a consequence of the pattern of Organisation Structure and arrangements for the division of work. The nature of technology and the work flow system of the organisation is a major influence on the operation of groups, and the manner in which they conduct themselves. The concept of 'role' is important to the functioning of groups, and for an understanding of group processes and behaviour.

Group performance and the satisfaction derived by individuals are influenced by the interactions among members of the group. The level of interaction is determined by the channels of communication (Communication networks).

In order to understand and to influence the functioning and operation of a group, it is necessary to study the behaviour of individual members. Thus, groups are an essential feature in the life of the organisation.

11.17 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) What is a group? Explain the importance of group values and norms, and give practical examples from within your own organisation.
2) Distinguish between formal and informal groups, what functions do groups serve in an organisation?
3) What are the characteristics of an effective work group. As a manager how would you attempt to develop effective group relationships and performance?
4) Contrast different types of communication network in groups. Give examples of a situation in which each type of network is likely to be most appropriate.
5) In what ways might a manager expect to benefit from an understanding of the behaviour of people in work groups? Give practical examples relating to your own experience.

11.18 FURTHER READINGS

Mullins, Laurie J., 1989. *Management and Organisational Behaviour*, Pitman: Great Britain.

UNIT 12 ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Objectives

After going through the unit you should be able to :

- appreciate the main objectives of organisational communication
- understand the dynamics of communication network
- develop plans of making multi-directional communication in organisations more effective.

Structure

12.1 WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION?

In the recent years, communication has attracted increasing attention. Many organisations have paid attention to communication. Some innovative successful practices have been evolved. For example, in BHEL (Bhopal Unit), Management-Employee Communication Meetings (MECOMs) have been effectively used. A MECOM is an open forum, in which more than 700 persons participate, has contributed to mutual sharing of information and concerns and better understanding between management and employees. MECOM has helped in effective implementation of decisions. Establishment of this system has not been easy; a lot of OD work was done prior to and during the evolution of MECOM.

In TISCO, the Chairman keeps communication with his employees by answering every letter that is addressed to him (some 80,000 a year) and has an open house at his residence between 7 and 9 every morning where any one can walk in and discuss personal or work-related problems. He also holds "dialogues" with large groups, sometimes of 2500 persons.

The most systematic attention to communication has been paid in VST Industries, including regular business-related communication with the Union, with great benefits.

Organisational communication can be defined as the process of the flow (transmission and reception) of goal-oriented messages between sources, in a pattern and through a medium or media.

An additional element in organisational communication (not present in interpersonal communication) is the flow pattern of messages. Thus there are seven elements in organisational communication—the transmitting source; the receiving source (the target); the transmitted message; the received message; the goal of the message; the medium or media; and the flow pattern (which is called network). The transmitting and receiving sources are the people sending and receiving the message.

12.2 GOALS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Organisational Communication has several goals.

Information Sharing: The main purpose of communication is to transmit information from a source to target individuals or groups. Various types of information are transmitted in the organisation policies, rule, and changes and development in the organisation, etc. There may be need for the fast diffusion of some information in the organisation, e.g. social rewards and awards given, settlement with the union, major change in the organisation, etc. This may take a long time if the organisation is large.

Feedback: There is a need to give feedback to the employees on their achievements to the departments on their performance; and to the higher management on the fulfilment of goals and difficulties encountered. Communication of feedback helps in taking corrective measures and making necessary adjustments and it motivates people in developing challenging and realistic plans.

Control: The management information system is well known as a control mechanism. Information is transmitted to ensure that the plans are being carried out according to the original design. Communication helps in ensuring such control, a monitoring mechanism. Critical information reaches the appropriate level of people in the organisation. This helps in directing the various aspects properly.

Influence: Information is power. One purpose of communication is to influence people. This is very clear in the case of communication from a trainer in a training group. The main purpose there is to influence the participants. Similarly, the higher the management level, the more is the influencing role of the manager. The manager communicates to create a good climate, right attitudes, and congenial working relationships. All these are examples of influencing.

Problem solving: In many cases communications aim at solving problems. Communication between the management and the union on some issues (negotiation) is aimed at finding a solution. Many group meetings are held to brainstorm alternative solutions for a problem and to evolve a solution. Such communication can be in small groups (dyads or triads) or in large groups.

Decision-making: For arriving at a decision, several kinds of communication are needed, e.g. exchange of information, views, available alternatives, favourable or unfavourable points of each alternative, etc. Communication helps a great deal in decision-making. A more important role is played by the communication of alternative solutions and the exchange of views on various matters.

Change: The effectiveness of a change introduced in an organisation depends to a large extent on the clarity and spontaneity of the communication. Communication between the consultants and the managers, between the managers and the employees, and amongst the employees help in knowing the difficulties in the planned change, and in taking corrective action.

Group Building: Communication helps in building relationships. Even under conditions of severe conflicts, good relations can be restored only if the communication process is continued. If communication breaks down, the group may disintegrate. Communication provides the necessary lubrication for the proper functioning of a group. The communication of feelings, concerns, and support is particularly important in this context.

Gate Keeping: Communication helps to build linkages of the organisation with the outside world. The organisation can use its environment to increase its effectiveness. It can also influence the environment itself the Government, its client system, the resource systems, etc. Communication plays a critical role in this respect.

What has been discussed in Unit 9 about the source, the target, and the message applies to organisational communication also.

Media, as in interpersonal communication, can be either verbal or non-verbal, oral or written. Verbal media can be classified by using the following dimensions whether it is in the oral or written form, and whether it takes place in a small group or it is meant for a large group in either the same place or spread over a distance. Using these dimensions, verbal media can be classified as shown in Figure 1.

Written communication is more effective in the transmission (and reception and comprehension) of cognitive messages. On the other hand, oral and specially face-to-face communication is more effective in bringing about changes of opinions and attitudes.

12.3 COMMUNICATION NETWORK

Organisational communication has a flow pattern or a network. In an organisation, with several sources (people at various levels) the messages transmitted and received may adopt a consistent pattern. Such patterns are very useful, and may be good indicators.

Extensive research has been done on the communication flow patterns, and has come to be known as communication network research. Most of such research has been done on small groups under controlled conditions. A network is a system of several points of communication for the purpose of decision-making. In most network research, a small group (usually of five persons) is given a task, and the group functions under controlled conditions of communication. The direction of communication is controlled according to different networks. The effect of each network on performance and satisfaction is studied.

The general conclusions arrived at in the researches done for over two decades seem to be that the wheel and all-channel networks are most effective, and the circle, the least effective for simple tasks. However, the circle gives the highest satisfaction to the members, and the peripheral members of the wheel are the least satisfied. Findings of some other studies of the effects of the various networks on three variables (performance, satisfaction, and effective organisation) for the task showed that the wheel groups organised the earliest, all channel groups took longer to organise, although eventually they performed as well, and the wide groups had the most difficulty in organising.

Dubin applied the findings of communication network research to organisations, and suggested linkage systems. These are given in Figure 2. He used the three main linkage patterns (serial, radial, and circular) to develop a number of linkage systems through their vertical or horizontal positions and combinations as shown in the figure. The serial is the simplest system. In a vertical position, it is a chain of commercials, and in the horizontal position, service and staff functions.

Communication network research has indicated that efficiency and satisfaction are positively related with the number of links in the network and inversely with the number of links through the centre. These findings have significant implications for the organisation of groups and units. The more opportunities are provided to the various members of a unit to communicate with each other for specific tasks (with a minimum coordination) the higher the efficiency and satisfaction are likely to be.

However, this relationship will depend on several other factors, including the nature of a task. For very simple routine tasks, the wheel pattern seems to be more efficient.

All these findings are from network research done under laboratory conditions. Communication network researches have been done on large natural groups also. Extensive research in India has been done on agricultural communication, including types of communication nets at different stages of adoption. It was, for example, found that the wheel type is effective at the trial stage, a chain type at the deliberation stage and an unfinished star type at the evaluation stage. Y.P. Singh with his associates has pioneered studies with implications for action in organisations.

Singh has suggested a model of agricultural communications network, as shown in Figure 3 He identified two phases (upto 1970 and post-1970) in such researches. The focus of the first phase was on communication between change agents and farmers, and amongst farmers. The second phase widened these researches to new areas.

The conclusions from the first phase of researches are as follows:

1) Greater the number of information sought greater the adoption.
2) Higher the contact of a farmer with communication source greater is his adoption.
3) Farm knowledge has flown to Indian farmers through 27 sources. Not all sources have been functional at all the times and at all the places, but these have functioned in one part or the other or at one stage of time or the other.
4) In terms of magnitude of coverage VLW and word of mouth accounted for nearly 80% of the awareness. The contribution of the two are nearly equal.
5) Combing the studies on sources of communication at different stages of adoption following facts emerge:
   a) Village level change agent is important at need stage. When people had felt need they spoke to change agent.

b) Village level change agent and other farmers combined are most important sources of awareness.

c) The contribution of the two are nearly equal at awareness and interest stages. At deliberation stage informal personal sources including family members are most important.

d) No communication is needed at trial stage for simple substitutive practices or the commercially conducted operation. For complex or entirely new enterprises intra-community expert figures or formal local sources act as communication source.

e) At evaluation stage, fellow farmers are the main communication sources.

f) There is no appreciable variation in the utilization of sources of farm information from practice to practice but it has been found that for a completely new practice the communication source at awareness and interest stage are innovators whereas for change in repetitive practice influentials are the communicators.

6) Source utilisation has been found to vary according to the socio-economic characteristics of the subject. Young age, educational level and farm size/economic status have been found to be positively associated with the use of institutional sources and overall extension contact as measured by an index of extension contact.

7) Higher caste have been reported to be making use of institutionalised sources.

8) Farmers with progressive outlook use more of impersonal and official sources, others rely on personal localite sources.

9) VLWs, demonstration and opinion leaders are supposed to be more credible, than radio, newspapers and bulletins but in progressive villages having access to scientist, scientists are considered more credible followed by radio, progressive farmers, and block agency.

10) When an innovation reaches rural community farmers talk to one another and such interaction has consequences for the response for individuals and groups towards innovation.

11) Intra-personal communication with regard to adoption of innovations at different stages of adoption has great similarities with socio-metric data.

12) The influence and information, flow from individuals placed at higher socio-economic position to individuals placed at lower position.

13) The key-elements in the process of person to person communication are certain individuals generally called key communicators or opinion leaders, who play very important role in accelerating or retarding the spread of change.

14) Such persons have also been found to have distinctive characteristics. They differ in their farm size, socio-economic status, extension contact, change agent linkage, trade town contact, organisational affiliations, social participation, adoption behaviour, informal leadership, ideal role incumbency, popularity status and communication skill.

In the second phase studies were done on communication pattern of researchers, communication pattern of change agents (extension personnel), source credibility, communication fidelity and distortion, and media use and effectiveness. Interesting generalised results, summarised by Singh, on communication patterns and source credibility are given in Tables 1 to 4.

Table 1: Communication pattern of researchers

A. Information Input Pattern

Frequency	Sources/Channels
Most	Professional meetings, farmers, immediate supervisors, following up of citation, use of abstract journal index.
Moderate	Self-observation, research journals, extension personnel, farm radio broadcast, discussion with colleagues.
Least	Research seminars, workshop, visit to research stations.

B. Information Processing Pattern

	Information exposure	Information evaluation	Information storage	Information transfer
Most	Fellow scientists	Fellow scientists	Special notebooks	Research reports research articles, Reports
Moderate	State Specialists	Technical feasibility	Reference cards Reprints	Lecture notes

Least	External Specialists	Unreserved acceptance	Memory	Charts, Graphs, etc.

C. Information Output Pattern

Frequency	Methods used
Most	Farm visits advisory letters, office calls telephone calls
Moderate	Professional meetings
Least	Publications, radio and farm fairs.

Table 2: Communication pattern of extension personnel

A. Information Input Pattern

Frequency	Sources-Channels
Most	Extension Publications, superior officers, meeting-seminars, agricultural university science, research stations, outside organisation.
Moderate	Expert consultation, from radio broadcast, agricultural colleges, meetings, booklets/ package of practices.
Least	Trainings, newspapers, kisan melas, research journals.

B. Information Processing Pattern

Frequency	Information Evaluation	Information Storage	Information transfer
Most	Colleagues higher ups trial	Subject-wise file	Leaflets and folers radio talks posters and slogans
Moderate	Experiments specialists	Memory	Success stories photographs
Least	Unreserved acceptance		Charts and graphs

C. Information Output Pattern

Frequency	Methods
Most	Farm and home visits, leaflets and folers office calls, meetings, film show, radio broadcast demonstration.
Moderate	Circular letters, farmers training meetings, advisory letters.
Least	Telephone calls

Table 3: Source credibility of extension personnel

Sl. No.	Sources	Credibility Score
1	Scientist	83
2	Supervisor officers	72
3	Extension literature	35
4	Radio	33

Table 4: Source credibility

Progressive Villages	Non-progressive Villages
1 Agril. Extension officers	1 Neighbours and friends
2 Scientists	2 Demonstrations
3 Village level workers	3 Village level workers
4 Demonstrations	4 Agricultural extension officers
5 Radio & progressive farmers	5 Scientists & progressive farmers
6 Friends and neighbours	6 Radio
7 Relatives	7 Newspapers
8 Village leaders	8 Printed material
9 Newspapers	

12.4 DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION

Organisational communication may be vertical, horizontal, or circular. Vertical communication may be either from the senior levels to the junior levels (downward), or vice versa (upward). Circular communication in organisations is very rare. Sometimes communication may be bidirectional, messages being exchanged between two sources. Here normally three types of intra-organisation communication, based on the direction, are discussed: downward, upward and horizontal. A fourth type is between the organisation and the external environment. Each of these types of communication has its purposes and relevant mechanisms are use, or can be used to make communication effective for those purposes. The purposes of these types of communication and the relevant mechanisms are summarised in Figure 4.

Downward Communication: The following types of communication are suggested, along with some mechanisms:

a) **Diffusion of routine information:** This can better be done through circulars, bulletin boards, etc.

b) **Diffusion of procedural information:** This can be done by circulars, specially prepared notebooks and manuals.

c) **Socialisation:** Socialisation of individuals in the value system of the company is done through induction booklet, special programmes, and meetings, sharing of information from higher levels with the employees may also help employees to feel a part of the organisation.

d) **Job-related information:** This needs to be done by interpersonal communication between the job holder and his reporting officer.

e) **Feedback on individual performance:** The most effective way of this communication is the appraisal review and coaching meetings held on the basis of performance appraisal results.

f) **Employee development:** Employee development is being done through dyadic communication, based on trust, between a manager and his employee, training programmes and group meetings. More effective communication for development is very modelling behaviour of the senior managers.

The most neglected aspect is the communication of the values, ethos and ideology of the organisation. The main purpose of such communication would be to socialise the employees in the organisational ethos and values. This can be done by a special induction policy for new employees, helping them to meet other employees in groups, giving them written material which they may read. The purpose should not be to brainstorm them, but to help them to be clear in their minds about the values and ethos of the organisation. This may help in developing an integrated organisation, of which the employees may be proud, and they may communicate similar messages representing the organisation when they meet outsiders.

One problem in downward communication is that of message distortion. One study of 100 business firms reported a very high degree of loss of information in downward communication. Between the Board of Directors and the following levels, the loss in terms of the original information (in percentage) was as follows:

Vice-Presidents	37
General Supervisors	44
Plant Managers	60
General Foremen	70
Workers	80

Upward Communication: Upward communication is as much necessary as downward communication. There are several purposes of such communications. These are suggested below, along with possible mechanism of developing them:

a) **Management control:** Use of management information ensuring regular flow of information helps in achieving effective management control.

b) **Feedback:** Feedback from lower levels to higher levels is very useful. Such feedback can be provided by use of special questionnaires and interviews. When people are leaving the organisation, exit interviews are being used for feedback on important aspects which the higher level people must know.

c) **Problem-solving and involvement:** The effective mechanism for solving problems of lower level management by the higher levels are grievance procedure and periodical meetings called by the higher level management. Another good method which may help the people at lower levels in the organisation to participate in problem-solving is suggestion scheme, which needs to be well designed, properly executed, and periodically reviewed to save it from becoming ritualistic. A small Task Force may be constituted to prepare a scheme, and monitor it for sometime periodical meetings allowing all employees to express their feelings and give feedback to management, to help them to take follow up action on problems has been found to be useful in some organisations. VST Industries have introduced the scheme in a planned way.

Horizontal Communication: Communication across the Business Groups, Regions and Units is very important to develop collaboration, and reduce bureaucratisation. The following tasks can be achieved with different mechanisms as suggested below:

a) **Experience sharing:** Functional group meetings (like those of Finance, Human Resource, Data Processing people etc.) from different Business Groups, along with counterparts/relevant people from the Corporate Departments may be helpful.

b) **Problem-solving:** Participation of people from different business groups in solving common problems can be achieved by setting up special Task Forces (groups to work out details and in many cases implement action plans). Problem Clinics (groups to diagnose problems and suggest alternative solutions using special techniques of diagnosis) have been used.

c) **Coordination:** Standing Committees are meant to make coordination more effective.

External Communication: Communication with the external agencies, like current and potential customers, government agencies, competitors and potential collaborators, resource providers (financial institutions etc.) is very important and often gets less attention. The following purposes can be served by the suggested mechanisms.

a) **Image building:** Annual reports, balance sheets, brouchures advertisement, etc. are important mechanisms, deserving detailed planning (both form and content). Participation of Company Executives in professional bodies like Management Associations, Chambers of Commerce Sub-Committees also help significantly.

b) **Credibility building:** Balance sheets and correspondence (prompt, clear, and errorless) contribute to the credibility of the company.

c) **Influencing:** An organisation should not shy away from its role of influencing policies and decisions in the concerned industries and other forums. Well prepared dialogue by the top management, and well prepared participation in conferences and forums must receive attention they deserve. One general weakness of Indian companies is lack of expertise and seriousness in influencing external agencies. The main role of the Corporate Management is to develop an aggressive (in the positive sense) posture and competence to deal with critical issues. This ability has been amply demonstrated by many organisations. The corporate managements must develop and institutionalise it.

Activity 1

In the light of the above understanding of the directions of communication, prepare a diagnostic note on communication in your organisation, which are strong and which are weak, needing improvement.

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12.5 PROBLEMS IN COMMUNICATION

Communication may not always be effective. The main criterion to find out whether a communication is effective or not is the fulfilment of its purpose. In Figure I the various purposes of communication in the four directions have been stated. If the purpose is not fulfilled properly the case or problem should be looked into. There may be several sources of problems in communication.

Distortion in Communication: Rumour

Rumours play a critical role in communication during periods of stress and unrest. A rumour is usually a belief which is passed as an item of information from one person to the other person, without the verification of the relevant evidence. Allport and Postman did a thorough study of rumours, and suggested two conditions of rumour importance of the topic to people, and ambiguity of correct information about it. They proposed that intensity (both incidence, and diffusion, i.e., rapidity and expansiveness) was a multiplicative function of the two conditions. Chorus added a third factor critical sense. This is the tendency to take several factors into account, decision-making after reflection and on the basis of some data or verified information. He proposed that rumour could be expressed by the following formula:

$$R \sim i \times a \times 1/C$$

The formula means that rumour (R) depends on importance (i) and ambiguity (a), and inversely on the critical sense (C). Rumours become weak if the critical sense in the people is high.

This formula has interesting implication for organisation to minimise rumour and to cope with them.

Activity 2

Take any two common rumours in your organisation and prepare an action plan to cope with the rumours, and preventive steps to minimise them in future.

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12.6 SUMMARY

The objectives of Organisational Communication is described. Information sharing, feedback, control, influence, problem-solving, decision-making, change, group building gate keeping processes help in achieving the goals of an organisation. Vertical, horizontal or circular communication (of downward and upward communication) and their importance are explained. Problems of Communication and how to minimise them are described.

12.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) Describe the importance of Organisational Communication and how it will be made more effective?
2) Describe the Process of Communication and how it helps in achieving the goals of an Organisation?
3) Explain Communication network.
4) Explain the problems involved in communication. How can it be minimised?

12.8 FURTHER READINGS

Material in Chapter 21 of Organisational Behaviour Processes by Udai Pareek (Rawat, 1988) has been freely used in this Unit.

Human Resource Development: The Indian Experience by D.M. Silvera (News India, 1988) and Towards Organisational Effectiveness Through HRD by the National HRD Network (XLRI, 1989) contain excellent material on interesting work on

communication in many Indian Organisations. Chapters 5, 7 and 19 in Silvera and 12 in NHRDN are especially recommended for reading.

The classic work of H Guetzknow and H.A. Simon "The impact of certain communication nets upon organisation and performance in task-oriented groups" (Management Clence, 1955, 1, 233-250) comments on the different-communication nets on task performance. The most extensive work on communication in India has been done by Y.P. Singh of IARI.

Y.P. Singh, with his associates at IARI, has done most comprehensive work in agricultural communication. His two excellent review articles summarise a large number of significant studies in this area, the first upto 1970, and the second post-1970. "Studies in agricultural communication in India" in K.N. Singh, C.S.S. Rao & B.N. Sahay (Eds.) Research in Extension for Accelerating Development Process (ISEE, 1970) and "Farm message to millions: The Indian Studies" (unpublished Donald Snowden Memorial Lecture, 1986.

Figure 1 : Different Verbal Media in Organisational Communication

	Oral	Written
Small Group	Conversation Telephone	Letters/Memos Telex
Large Group	Lectures Meetings Radio Short Circuit	Circulars Newsletters Handbooks/Manuals Posters/Bulletin Board

Figure 2: Linkage System in Organisations (from Dubin, 1959)

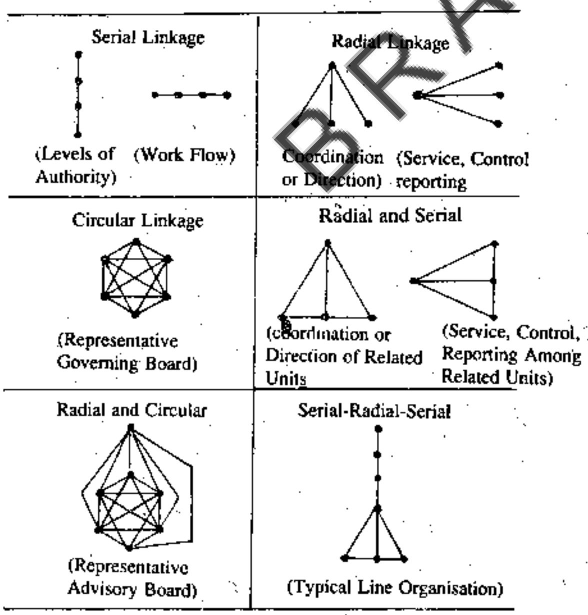


Fig.3 Inter and Intra-system Interaction Pattern in Agricultural Communication Network

Legend
As- Agriculture Scientists
BS- Basic Scientists
E- Extension Personnel
M-Media
F-Farmer
L- Linker
RESEARCH SYSTEM
DISSEMINATION SYSTEM
USER SYSTEM

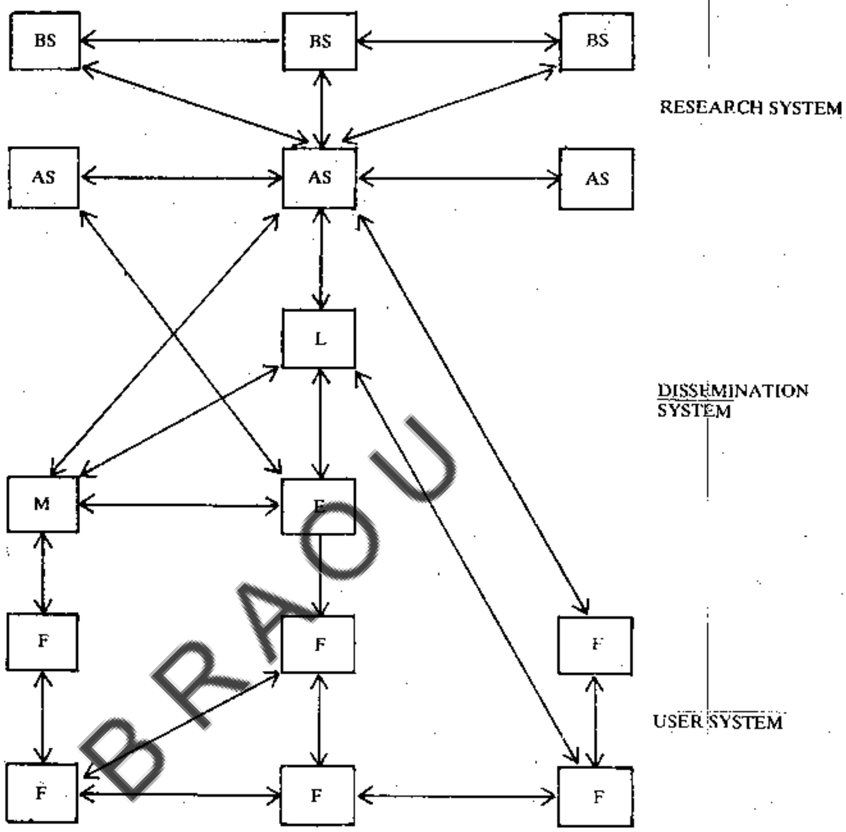


Figure 4: Purposes and Mechanisms of Different Directions of Communications

Purposes	Mechanisms
Downward Communication	
1. Diffusion of routine information	Circulars, bulletin boards, wall magazines
2. Diffusion of procedural information	Circulars, handbooks, manuals
3. Socialisation	Special publications,lectures, meetings
4. Providing job-related information	Conversations
5. Feedback	Conversations, memos
6. Employee development	Conversations, group meetings
Upward Communication	
1. Control	Periodical information, special reports
2. Feedback	Questionnaires, exist interviews
3. Problem solving	Periodical meetings, grievance Procedures
4. Ideas for improvement	Suggestion box, exist interviews
5. Catharsis and group building	Review meetings (Mecom)
Horizontal Communication	
1. Experience sharing	Joining forum
2. Problem solving	Task force, Problem clinics
3. Coordination	Periodical meetings
External Communication	
1. Image building	Annual reports, balance sheets, brouchres, advertisements
2. Credibility building	Balance sheets, correspondences
3. Influencing	Conferences, dialogues

UNIT 13 TEAM DEVELOPMENT AND TEAM FUNCTIONING

Objectives

In this unit, we attempt to familiarise you with:

- what a team is
- the process of team building
- the importance of leadership in team building
- team effectiveness
- team maintenance.

Structure

13.1 INTRODUCTION

In the mid-1960s, Team Building emerged as a popular tool for workplace management. This concept emerged because of an awareness of the following ideas:

- Involvement is a precondition to commitment; people become involved through seeing their ideas become part of their work and work environment;
- Management should act like team leaders and coaches. Management has a facilitating or developing role rather than a directing role;
- Work groups have the necessary capacity to cope with their own problems provided they are aware of their capacity and problems;
- Employees are innately cooperative and self-actualising, preferring the chance to exercise a degree of control over their work environment;
- Typical hierarchical organisations and their inherent trend towards more formal rules and dysfunctional bureaucratic behaviour can become more effective and functional by eliminating status distinctions and emphasising inpterpersonal trust, openness, and self-disclosure (Norman Hill, 1984).

13.2 TEAM BUILDING

Institutions are created generally with certain objectives, such as producing and marketing goods, collecting and investing money, disseminating knowledge and skill, caring for the sick, etc. Most of the institutions also have goals like profit and growth, though the yard-sticks for measuring are different depending upon the objectives and type of organisation. This results in evolution of teams, for e.g. when one starts a small retail shop as a single person enterprise, he desires to expand it for making profits. He needs the people to engage with the tasks more efficiently, that is, tasks that lead to the realisation of objectives. The moment a second person is added to the enterprise, a team has been started.

A team is, therefore, created out of necessity, the necessity to perform the tasks of the institution. If the entire team performs in an excellent manner, the goals are easily achieved. The idea of opposition between individual and team excellence comes because quite often one fails to share the activities that are necessary to complete a task or a task cycle. A team is developed wherever people have to work together to produce results. A team is capable of accomplishing much more than the sum total of what the members are capable of accomplishing individually. Team work is stimulating, it encourages members to put in greater effort and helps them to give their best.

Generally people often misunderstand the terminology of Team or Group. Team is often used as a synonym for group. But team is different from a group. Team can be defined as "a group in which the individuals have a common aim and in which the jobs and skills of each member fit in with those of others. Let us take a very mechanical and static analogy, the jigsaw puzzle. Pieces fit together without distortion and together produce some overall pattern. Thus Team/s in an organisation is/are based on the following characteristics:

- Non-facilitative character of industrial organisation as far as team-work is concerned.
- Groups do not necessarily become teams.
- Objective commonality and similarity are not sufficient conditions for teams to emerge.
- There is a universal ethos and spirit underlying the identities and uniqueness of the members of a group which alone make a team.
- This universal spirit and ethos has to be evoked from within rather than from without as it is something inherent with the members.

Why do team arise in the first place? What are the kinds of tasks that require team work?

The source of a team lies in one person doing a job that he discovers is too large for him to do in the time (perspective) available.

Nature of Task	Implications
Can be carried out by a single person, but time required is not available	Several people doing the 'same work' may complete the task in the given time, e.g. 500 envelopes that need to be addressed, filled, stamped by and despatched by the afternoon post. Each knows what to do and does it independently.
Effort or force required cannot be exerted by one person, for example, to lift a lorry off someone who has been knocked down	A group of people must work together. A degree of coordination will be needed between the operatives.
Several distinct operations are required at the same time or in conjunction with others, for example in an orchestra.	Here someone beyond the operators may be needed to organise and coordinate, for example a conductor.

Fig.1 Working Together

Thus, it can be said that 'teams are groups of people who cooperate to carry out a joint task'. They may be assigned to different work roles, or be allowed to sort them out between themselves and change jobs, when they feel like it, e.g. crews of ships and aircraft, research teams, maintenance gangs and groups of miners.

A high achieving team has all the properties of an ordinary team but in greater unison. Each member has both the expertise and the skill in performing functions needed for the task.

13.3 TEAM DEVELOPMENT

Team often grow form one person i.e., their **leader** who needs to shift the centre from himself to the cooperative efforts of the team. The test of a good team is whether or not its members can work as a team while they are apart, while at the same time contributing to a sequence of activities.

In the context of team building, a leader knows his own strengths and weaknesses but also ensures that he compensates for what he lacks. Individuals in the team should have such strengths, knowledge and experience which the leader does not possess. In a team it should be made sure that each individual knows and feels that his part of the task is making a significant contribution to the group's overall task.

It can be said that team work is no accident, it is the byproduct of **good leadership.**

Organisations are complex in their structure, systems, and people. 'Organisational excellence lies in the fit they achieve with an equally complex environment for achievement of goals and more' (C.S. Kalyanasundaram, 1988). The goals are consistently achieved through the presence of a leadership which is persistent, active and goal-oriented. The rewards for such leadership range from enlarged markets, high assets, growth, satisfied customers, motivated staff, productive work climate, and enhanced quality of life. Leadership achieves excellence not (just) through organisation but through people as individuals and as teams. The credit for having a happy and prosperous family is culturally attributed to the head of the family. Similarly, in a team the credit for its excellence goes to its leader. Team Building is an externally influenced exercise (taking the help of consultants) with temporary results, while Team Development is basically an internal process where results are more lasting and the leader helps in achieving this.

There are three problems when the entire team is dependent on its leader:

1) When they feel the leader is omnipotent, many followers fail to develop or utilise their full potential for contribution.

2) When such leaders leave, the team falls apart.

3) If such charismatic leader happens to make one or two glaring mistakes, then a sense of failed dependency pervades and the depressed followers or team members are very likely to turn against the leader and destroy the work he has so long symbolised.

The importance of choosing the right people as team members from the collection of possible members can hardly be over-emphasised. It is the first principle of team success.

There are certain conditions which must be met before effective team work can get into operation.

- Goal setting as a result-oriented consultation
- Shared information and trust
- Clear understanding of each other's roles
- Willingness to extend help whether asked for or not
- Availability of adequate resources to each member
- Members competence
- Predominance of group interest over individual interest.

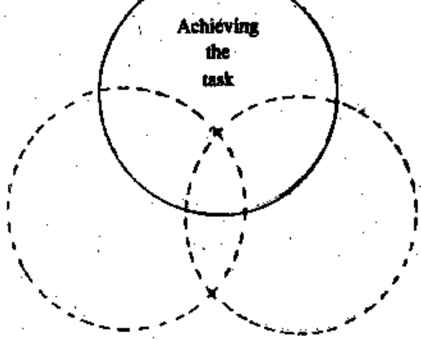
Activity 1

CHECKLIST:
HAVE YOU SELECTED THE RIGHT TEAM MEMBER?

	YES	NO
Task		
Has s/he an alert intelligence?	☐	☐
Where applicable, has s/he a high level of vocational skills?	☐	☐
Do his or her knowledge/skills complement those of other team members rather than duplicate them?	☐	☐
Is s/he motivated to seek excellence in results and methods of working together?	☐	☐
Does his or her track record really bear out the scores given above?	☐	☐
Team		
Will s/he work closely with others in decision-making and problem-solving without 'rubbing people up the wrong way'?	☐	☐
Does s/he listen?	☐	☐
Is s/he flexible enough to adopt different roles within the group?	☐	☐
Can s/he influence others — assertive rather than aggressive?	☐	☐
Will s/he contribute to group morale rather than draw cheques upon it?	☐	☐
Individual		
Has s/he a sense of humour and a degree of tolerance for others?	☐	☐
Has s/he a certain amount of will to achieve ambition, tinged with understanding that s/he cannot do it all alone?	☐	☐
Will s/he develop a feeling of responsibility for the success of the team as a whole, not simply his or her own part in it?	☐	☐
Has s/he integrity?	☐	☐
Does s/he have a realistic perception of his/her strengths and weaknesses?	☐	☐

From 'Effective Team Building,' John Adair, Gower, 1986 p. 133.

Activity 2

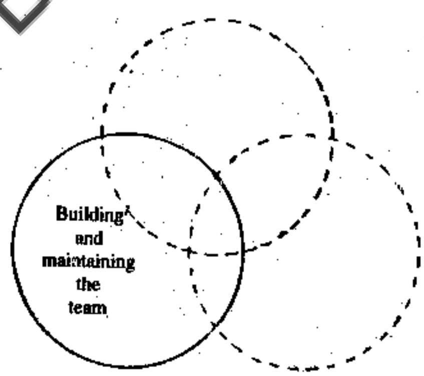


TASK:

Purpose:	Am I clear what the task is?
Responsibilities:	Am I clear what mine are?
Objectives:	Have I agreed these with my superior, the person accountable for the group?
Programme:	Have I worked one out to reach objectives?
Working conditions:	Are these right for the job?
Resources:	Are these adequate (authority, money, materials)?
Targets:	Has each member clearly defined and agreed them?
Authority:	Is the line of authority clear? (Accountability chart)?
Training:	Are there any gaps in the specialist skills or abilities of individuals in the group required for the task?
Priorities:	Have I planned the time?
Progress:	Do I check this regularly and evaluate?
Supervision:	In case of my absence who covers for me?
Example:	Do I set standards by my behaviour?

From 'Effective Team Building', John Adair, Gower, 1986, p. 196.

Activity 3



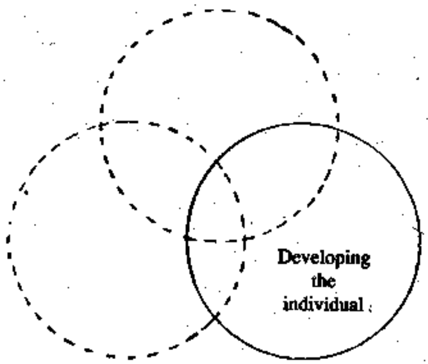
TEAM MEMBERS:

Objectives:	Does the team clearly understand and accept them?
Standards:	Do they know what standards of performance are expected?
Safety standards:	Do they know consequences of infringement?
Size of team:	Is the size correct?
Team members:	Are the right people working together? Is there a need for subgroups to be constituted?
Team Spirit:	Do I look for opportunities for building teamwork into jobs? Do methods of pay and bonus help to develop team spirit?

Discipline:	Are the rules seen to be reasonable? Am I fair and impartial in enforcing them?
Grievances:	Are grievances dealt with promptly? Do I take action on matters likely to disrupt the group?
Consultation:	Is this genuine? Do I encourage and welcome ideas and suggestions?
Briefing:	Is this regular? Does it cover current plans, progress and future developments?
Represent:	Am I prepared to represent the feelings of the group when required?
Support:	Do I visit people at their work when the team is apart? Do I then represent to the individual the whole team in my manner and encouragement?

From 'Effective Team Building' John Adair, Gower, 1986, p. 197.

Activity 4



INDIVIDUAL:

Targets:	Have they been agreed and quantified?
Induction:	Does s/he really know the other team members and the organisation?
Achievement:	Does s/he know how his work contributes to the overall result?
Responsibilities :	Has s/he got a clear and accurate job description? Can I delegate more to him/her?
Authority:	Does s/he have sufficient authority for his/her task?
Training:	Has adequate provision been made for training or retraining both technical and as team member?
Recognition:	Do I emphasise people's successes? In failure is criticism constructive?
Growth:	Does s/he see the chance of development? Does s/he see some pattern of career?
Performance:	Is this regularly reviewed?
Reward:	Are work, capacity and pay in balance?
The task:	Is s/he in the right job? Has s/he the necessary resources?
The person:	Do I know this person well? What makes him/her different from others?
Time/attention:	Do I spend enough with individuals listening, developing, counselling?
Grievances:	Are these dealt with promptly?
Security	Does s/he know about pensions redundancy and so on?
Appraisal	Is the overall performance of each individual regularly reviewed in face-to-face discussion?

From 'Effective Team Building', John Adair, Gower, 1986, P.No. 198-199

13.4 TEAM EFFECTIVENESS

An effective team may be defined as one that achieves its specific aim in the most efficient way with the optimal utilisation of resources and in the shortest time. It is always in a position to take up more challenging tasks.

The true test of team effectiveness depends on the following characteristics:

- **The team's output is not an aggregation of individual inputs, but the result of collective projection.**
- **Effective team adopt aggressive or defensive postures depending on the requirements of the situation.**

- Effective team make the best use of individual strengths and shield members from individual exposure.

According to A.D. Sinha (1988) the organisations that have worked effectively as a team have given special attention to the following factors:

- Shared orientation
- Organisational clarity
- Team Composition
- Communication and Commitment
- Control information (feedback)
- Reinforcement

The above factors are explained briefly in the following paragraphs.

Shared orientation
In most organisations, corporate plans tend to be shrouded in secrecy. So, it is not surprising that in such organisations, goals, values and priorities are not shared by the rank and file. It is assumed that it is the top people who can 'deliver results' and can 'make things happen'.

In organisations where team-work is valued, the planning process becomes as important as the plan document. What is important is discussion and dialogue with regard to assumptions, trends, competitive abilities, customers' expectations, the alternative paths before the organisation, etc. Further, in an organisation the employees should be aware of the consequences (both positive and negative) of departmental actions and their impact on other departments and thus the corporation as a whole.

Box 1

In a large tyre and rubber company, 'improvements in product quality' featured in the corporate plans successively for a number of years. Top management was serious about the same. Lower down at the operative levels, the workers believed that the tyres they produced were the best. The corporate advertisements also said so. However, there was some shock news in store for them. That the facts were otherwise became known when a group of opinion leaders from the amongst workmen from the factory visited the dealers and truck operators to examine the competitors product vis-a-vis their own. They elicited the reasons for their failure from the actual users. When they came back, they reported their findings to larger groups of workmen. Then quality awareness increased and quality improvement programmes actually got implemented.

Adapted from 'Tuning Organisational Practices for Team Effectiveness' A.D. Sinha — **Indian Management, January, 1988.**

Thus, team effectiveness comes about when the orientation of the organisation is shared by the employees at all levels in the organisation. In times of adversity, organisations can expect cooperation from people relatively easily.

Organisational clarity
When an individual is not clear about his role in the organisation, it results in poor performance. For them development, both seeking and giving help, is considered as normal as 'breathing' and thus this becomes an essential characteristic of team effectiveness.

Team composition
When a team is formed there is bound to be a thinker, initiator, analyser, synthesiser, the action man, etc. Therefore there is no need to emphasise the 'role' of individual members.

Communication and commitment
Communication is essential for effectiveness of the team. Frequent communication is necessary between the members which in turn results in commitment of the members.

Control information
For any group to be effective, control information should be quick and direct. Information or

feedback regarding their performance is necessary which in turn results in self-control and direction.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement is necessary for good performance. Not only monetary benefits but incentives in terms of praise and recognition result in better performance.

Box 2

One of the tea estates based in Assam had received the highest price for its tea. The Marketing Manager flew down from Calcutta to congratulate the Management Group. He, however, did not stop there. He went to the factory floor and talked to all the supervisors praising their marvellous job. He also congratulated the sirdars on the plucking side of the tea garden and built a sensation around the estate. Within two months this garden broke its own previous record.

A junior factory assistant commented: "Earlier we always used to get a boot from the head office whenever the prices were depressed or when the lot was not upto desired quality. Better performances went unrecognised. With the new Marketing Manager things are different. For the first time, somebody from the head office came specifically to congratulate us all."

Adapted from 'Tuning Organisational Practices for Team Effectiveness' A.D. Sinha — **Indian Management**, January, 1988.

Team work is required for any task; even when it is not strictly needed, working as a team can transform performance and enhance job satisfaction. Good teams are not the products of chance. One of the responsibilities of a leader is to build an effective team.

In assembling a new team, concentrate on selecting individual members who have complementary skills, techniques and knowledge in order to create team environments and spirit. Look for those with extra qualities of personality and character mentioned above. The power of a team to accomplish its mission is directly related to how well the leader selects and develops its members.

It is the process of team building that makes people communicate effectively. If they communicate effectively they will plan effectively and in doing this, they will do the job right the first time. This will lead to more enthusiasm and increased productivity.

In the context of project management, the following points can be observed:

- Commitment to the organisation is achieved by making employees aware of the task and helping them in decisions, but firstly you have to get your 'hygiene' factors right. Commitment to projects is achieved by the organisational structure created for that project, or in other words, the team. It is the success and achievement on projects that enhances the commitment to the organisation.
- Tendering is the best stage at which to start team building and is done most successfully by using the team to prepare the proposal and make the presentation to the client.
- The establishment of common goals on site is perhaps the most difficult area to address, and needs to be tackled at various levels. The manual workforce performs better if the work goes together well without a lot of re-work when they have good direction. The foreman and supervisors can perform more effectively if top management has taken the trouble to identify goals by involving them in some of the decision-making processes.
- The team and management will perform more effectively if they have actually taken the trouble to get to know each other.
- The Management's wish for control and the Team's need for autonomy are dependent upon the type of contract which gives the team scope for absolute control over the task or enough room for modification.

"Nobody is Perfect but a Team can be"

How to design and construct a team that simultaneously meets the requirements of both functional and team roles constitutes one of the most interesting aspects of team building. This is also one of the most critical factors determining the fortunes of management teams in industry. It is here that the Marks and Spencer experience of team work offers the most valuable insight

In a significant sense the effectiveness of the M & S management teams lingers on the company's success in enabling most of its staff to have a relatively high degree of versatility in terms of functional as well as team roles. The M & S staff are to a considerable extent 'generalist' in both dimensions. This makes it possible to combine and re-combine teams. This is perhaps another aspect of what Robert Keller has referred to as the 'inimitable magic of M & S. But if our analysis has been substantially correct, then may be it is not as mystic as the word 'magic' implies— though nonetheless 'inimitable'.

The M & S investment in training and in creating the conditions for effective team work has been gigantic and amazingly long-term, but the payoff, as we have seen, is equally spectacular. In practical business terms it enables the company to acquire a unique competitive edge which goes a long way in explaining the enviable record of the company's success.

From K.K. Tse, Marks & Spencer: Anatomy of Britain's Most Efficiently Managed Company, Pergamon, 1985.

Team Builders work as catalysts to help management groups function better as open teams for a variety of reasons.

The first objective in team building is to choose the right people in the light of the team's purpose.

13.5 TEAM FUNCTIONING

How does one keep a good team in its existing state of efficiency and effectiveness? In other words, how does one continue to make it function? It is difficult to maintain the core purpose and tempo of the team over a long time. As a manager you are supposed to ask yourself and the team the following questions:

- Why do we exist? What are we here for?
- What and who would be affected if we went out of existence?
- Are there more cost-effective ways of achieving our purpose and aim than having the current team?
- Has there been a significant change in our mission as a team? Have we perceived, or been given, new responsibilities?
- Are we still the right people to be tackling this work? Does it still need a team effort?

So, a manager's task is to maintain the standards of the team and raise them, and enhance the level of cooperation which in turn results in increased effectiveness.

The rationale for using team building techniques is becoming increasingly acceptable in organisations. Team building helps in sharing power, motivating employees, improving the quality of decisions and effectively managing the diversity. The technique was seen as having the potential for resolving a lot of problems and concerns. The more the team building focuses on 'behaviours' of group members and on organisational structure problems, the more successful such efforts will tend to be.

Team building activity is an important managerial tool because it provides a means for employees for participating in the decisions related to work objectives, and develop social support. Most people enjoy the interaction they have at work. Most of the studies show that team type jobs are better jobs because they encourage the sharing of information. In an ever changing and diverse society, it is important for every organisation to assess periodically their objectives, goals and methods. Team building activities provide a good support for making such assessments.

Activity 5

CHECKLIST: DOES YOUR TEAM NEED MAINTENANCE

Does your team need maintenance? The following questions will help you to decide:

- Are there any symptoms of low morale, such as a decline in the team's self-confidence, a weakening of resolve and a loss of a sense of purpose?
- Has the group or organisation lost its sense of direction?
- Is each individual member still clear about the team's core mission and its principal aims? Are personal goals or objectives related to that purpose?
- Is the atmosphere of the group negative and lukewarm?
- Are individual members lacklustre in their enthusiams?
- Has communication between members been dwindling?
- Are there signs of mistrust developing?
- All groups have potential 'metal fatigue' cracks. Are these cracks widening into divisions between individuals, cliques, or sub-groups?
- Have professional and personal standards declined in the last six months?
- Can you identify one or more individuals who are clearly underachieving when measured against today's group standards?
- Are there complaints about your leadership?

From 'Effective Team Building' Johm Adair, Gower, 1986, p. 180.

13.6 SUMMARY

A team is one with a common aim in which the technical skills and personal abilities of the members are complementary. A high achieving team has all the properties of a more ordinary team but in an enhanced degree. Each member is both an expert and skilful team member in performing functions needed by the task and also in team development. Teams often grow from one person, that is, their leader. Leader develops the cooperative efforts of the team while maintaining its effectiveness.

13.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) What is a team? Explain the process of building a team.
2) With reference to your organisation explain the process of team development.
3) Explain the characteristics which help in team effectiveness.
4) What are the steps necessary for maintaining the team?

13.8 FURTHER READINGS

Adair, John, 1986. *Effective Team Building*, Gower Publishing Company Limited: London.

Hill, Norman C., 1984. *How to Increase Employee Competence*, McGraw-Hill Book Company: New York.

Indian Management, January, 1988, AIMA.

UNIT 14 CONFLICT AND COLLABORATION

Objectives

After completing the unit you should be able to :

- appreciate the value of conflict (and competition) and collaboration
- understand ways of preventing dysfunctional conflicts
- understand processes of effective conflict management
- become aware of the dynamics of collaboration
- plan ways of developing collaboration in your organisation.

Structure

14.1 CONFLICT- COLLABORATION: FUNCTIONAL AND DYSFUNCTIONAL

When people work together (in small teams, the smallest being a dyad-2- member group or in larger groups) they may either work primarily to achieve their own individual goals not necessarily seen as conflicting with other's goals (e.g. learning a specific topic, an individual situation), or to achieve their individual goals which others also strive to achieve e.g. getting the first position in the class (a competitive or conflict situation), or to achieve a goal which is seen as significant by all persons in the team (e.g. winning a match, a collaborative situation). All these three modes of working for a goal (individual, competitive, collaborative) play functional roles for the individuals and the organisations.

Conflict or competition can be defined as working for the exclusive attainment of a goal which is seen as unsharable with others in a situation where two or more persons are involved in the attainment of that goal.

Collaboration can be defined in terms of a person working with another person or more persons for the attainment of a goal which is seen as sharable. In these definitions the basic criterion of collaborative or competitive behaviour is the perception of the goal. If the goal is seen as sharable, working with other persons for the attainment of the goal is collaborative behaviour. When the goal is seen as unsharable, i.e., in a situation where two persons are involved but only one of them can attain the goal, working for the exclusive attainment of the goal (by implication, against the other person concerned) is competitive behaviour. The letter is a conflict situation.

Cooperation (or collaboration) and competition (or conflict) may be used effectively or ineffective. Both collaboration and competition can be functional or dysfunctional, (positive or negative). The terms Comp(+) and Comp(–), and Coop(+) and Coop (–) are used to indicate the positive and negative, or functional and dysfunctional competition conflict and cooperation (collaboration) respectively. Comp(–) is defined as the tendency of a person to deprive the other person(s) of the achievement of goal, or to directly and indirectly obstruct in his (their) realization of the goal. When the person is more interested in the competitor and the competitor can be prevented from attaining a goal, it is called negative competition or conflicts. As suggested by Likert the main criterion of functionality may be what contributes to the self-worth of a person. Using that criterion Comp(–) is dysfunctional. Likert has given examples of some sales people who were motivated by this kind of competition. They withheld information (from their colleagues), which they thought was strategic for achieving the sales target; they did not share various information they had about better methods of the sales, new markets, new sales strategy, etc.; and their general tendency was not to help their colleagues. On the other hand, if competition is used to achieve excellence, and to search for and create further challenges for oneself, then it is called functional or positive competition or Comp(+). Such competition contributes to the development of the sense of self-worth.

Similarly, cooperation can be either functional or dysfunctional. Coop(–) is the tendency to conform to others' demands in order to ingratiate them, or to avoid task stress and task demands. When a person collaborates with another person because the latter is more powerful, or he wants to please the latter, we call it Coop(–). Similarly, if a person enters into a collaborative relationship because he sees the task demands and pressures too heavy, and he thinks that by entering into collaborative arrangement his own load will be lighter, and he will be able to avoid or escape the task stress and task demands, this is dysfunctional collaboration. Functional collaboration or Coop(+) can be defined as the tendency to contribute to the joint effort for faster and more effective goal attainment, resulting in mutual trust, respect and concern. Such collaboration increase self-worth, and contributes to the development of various other desirable characteristics.

Figure 1: Functions of Competition and Collaboration

Competition Develops	Collaboration Develops
Sense of identity	Mutuality
Sense of responsibility	Alternative ideas and solutions
Internal standards	Mutual support and reinforcement
Excellence	Synergy
Individual creativity	Collective action
Individual autonomy	Supplementary expertise

Both competition and collaboration are important. These, however, perform different functions. In fact, collaboration and competition should be conceived as complementary qualities. Figure 1 shows the various functions of competition and collaboration. Let us briefly review them.

The Role of Competition

The main role of competition in an organisation is to help develop an individual and his general psychological world so that he develops and attains his own identity. The following could be regarded as the main functions of competition in this regard.

Developing a Sense of Identity

A person functions as an individual, and to be effective he has to develop his own identity. The development of the identity is possible through the various steps he undertakes to realize his uniqueness, strengths, capabilities, weaknesses, etc. He realizes these through testing them in the environment including other people. Competition helps a person to test these various aspects of his personality. Even in collaboration, competition may be involved, when a person may like to test how he is more collaborative than the other person.

Developing a Sense of Responsibility

Eventually the person needs to develop a sense of taking personal responsibility for success and failure. He should realistically know how much he contributes to the success, or to what extent he is responsible for the failure of any venture. Unless a sense of responsibility is developed, a person's general competence and his involvement in the work will be low. Competition helps in the development of such a sense of responsibility, because it isolates a person to face the consequences of his action. If in a competing situation he succeeds, he is very happy, and he attributes this success to his efforts and ability. Similarly, if he fails he analyses and takes the responsibility for his failure.

Developing Internal Standards of Behaviour

While the person takes the responsibility for the consequences of his action, he also develops his own standards of evaluating what is excellent and what should be done. A person who merely responds to the outside environment may not have the necessary internal strength which sustains him. If collaboration is motivated merely by conformity, the value of collaboration will be low. For collaboration to be effective, it should be a part of the decision made by the individual based on his own values and standards of behaviour. Competition helps in developing such internal standards. Successful competitive experiences help a person to have an internal mechanism if assessing what is excellent and what he wants to do, why etc., and increase his autonomy for setting the goals and taking necessary steps in their attainment.

Developing Excellence

The most important contribution of competition to the development of an individual is to develop in him a concern for excellence or what has been called achievement motivation. The success he achieves in relation to other persons produces in him a desire to get greater success. This may be not only in relation to the standards set by others, but also in relation to his own standards or past performance. There is a continuous process of self-competition also. One who has done very well in the past and wants to excel even that standard is competing with himself. Of course, when we use the word competition in the context of collaboration we use it only in relation to others. But that sense of competition which he acquires from outside may also be internalised, and it promotes achievement motivation in which competition is used not only in relation to others but also in relation to his own past behaviour. This produces a concern for excellence. All competitions do not produce such a concern. When competition is properly used, it may develop a concern of excellence instead of producing the desire of unhealthy competition, that of merely pulling the other person down.

Developing Individual Creativity

Individual identity and concern for excellence create a desire in the individual to find his own new and unconventional ways of solving problems, of looking at various things, and acting on decisions. Such activity is the result of the sense of responsibility and concern for excellence. Competition is very useful in developing individual creativity.

Developing Autonomy

The role of development of autonomy comes very close to the first role we have described, i.e. the development of identity of a person. Competition helps an individual to develop his own ways of looking at problems and going about its solution. It helps him to be original, think on his own, look at different things from his own point of view, and develop his own framework and his own ways of doing things. Autonomy does not necessarily conflict with relating to others, or working for a larger cause of which he may be a part. Autonomy helps in maintaining the identity of an individual, and if properly used, it may help various persons involved to respect each others identity. Individual autonomy is maintained in a larger context in which individuals have to surrender their autonomy for a larger goal. Even then individual autonomy continues. This raises important questions like how competition merges in collaboration, and what is the role of collaboration.

The Role of Collaboration

Competition by itself does not have much significance. It is a very important instrument in the development of the individual. But it should both supplement and be complemented by collaboration. Collaboration has a distinct role to play. It supplements what competition does. The following are the main roles of collaboration:

Building Mutuality

Collaboration helps in building up a relationship of mutuality and recognizing the strength of each other (the contributions which people can make), accepting these contributions, and maximizing the contributions of individuals. Such a relationship helps the organization and the individuals to develop respect for each other, and accept each other in a work situation. It also helps them to recognize strengths of various persons, use them, and contribute to their further development.

Generating Ideas and Alternatives

In a collaborative relationship, people stimulate each other in generating ideas, thinking on the problem, and alternative approaches and solutions. In a collaborative situation several people who are involved generate various ideas and alternative solutions. Decision-making is facilitated when several alternatives are available.

Building Mutual Support and Reinforcement

The collaborative relationship plays a significant emotional role. It reinforces members' efforts for mutal support. In a collaborative situation individuals contributing to a particular problem get immediate feedback from their collaborating partners, and this helps them not only to use this feedback, but to give feedback as well, to their partners. In this continuous process of feedback and support, the successes are reinforced, and this helps in building strong teams.

Developing Synergy

Collaborative relationship produces synergy. It is the multiplication of talents and resources available in the group. Through continuous stimulation to each other, the ideas which are produced in the collaborative situation may be much more than the total number of ideas persons individually may be able to contribute. It goes beyond the total of all individual resources. In fact it generates much more potent resource in the group, and in that sense it has an effect of multiplying resources in an organisation.

Developing Collective Action

When people work together in a group or in a team, their commitment to the goal is likely to be high, and their courage to stand by that goal and take necessary action is much higher. The difference in the behaviour of an individual in isolation, and his behaviour as a member of a team is evident in the case of trade unions, representative committees, delegations, etc. People sense more power of several people being behind them when they present their point of view. This generates greater force, and a great courage. This helps in collective action. The secret of success of a trade union in an organisation lies in the strength of collective action which it is able to generate. The higher the level of collaboration, the greater the strength the group will have for collective action.

Supplementing Expertise

The greatest advantage of collaboration is that individuals go beyond their own limitations, and their lack of expertise in some fields does not come in the way of achieving certain tasks. Different individuals have different strengths and expertise and while working together they pool their expertise for use in the situation, and thereby supplement the various available expertise. As a result the collaborative group is able to generate multi-dimensional solutions, and not be limited only to one dimension, which is likely to happen if a single individual works by himself on the problem.

The brief discussion so far has shown that collaboration and competition play their respective role in the organisation. It would be wrong to compose the two.

14.2 SOURCE OF CONFLICT

Let us consider competition of conflicts first. As already discussed, conflicts are not necessarily dysfunctional. Functional conflicts result in a desire for excellence and creativity and may take the form of healthy interpersonal or intergroup competition or Comp and Functional conflicts also help a person to develop a sense of identity, a sense of responsibility, internal standards of performance, an urge to excel, individual creativity, and feelings of autonomy.

Conflicts are dysfunctional (Comp –) when they drain the energy of people or groups and reduce their effectiveness. Unhealthy and dysfunctional competition often can be prevented by early diagnosis. The concept of "preventive medicine" applies to the management of conflict, as well as to the management of disease.

Seven main sources of interpersonal and intergroup conflict are listed in the first column of Figure 2. Column 2 and 1 show how group members perceive the various sources under each of two modes: conflict escalation or conflict prevention and resolution.

Figure 2: Some Potential Sources of Conflict in a Group and the Perceptions of Group Members in Two Different Modes

Sources of Potential Conflict	Perception Under Conflict Escalation Mode	Resultant Orientation	Perception Under Conflict Prevention and Resolution Mode	Resultant Orientation
Concern with Self	Narrow (Own)	Short-term Perspective	Broader	Long-term Perspective
Different Goals	Conflicting	Individualistic	Complementary	Superordination
Resources Issues	Limited	Fighting	Expandable	Sharing
Power Issues	Limited	Lack of Trust	Shareable	Trust
Different Ideologies	Conflicting	Stereotyping	Varied	Understanding
Varied Norms	Must be Uniform	Intolerance	Diverse and Evolved	Tolerance
Relationship	Dependent	Dominance/ Submission	Interdependent	Empathy and Cooperation.

Reading across the figure, conflict is likely if group members' main concern is with themselves. Their perspectives will be narrow, and their orientation will be short-term. It is ironic that the interests of individuals are not served properly by their being narrowly concerned with themselves. The group is likely to remain in conflict unless members can broaden their perception — what Sherif and Sherif called "superordinate goals". Superordinate goals are those which are critical for all individuals in a group, but cannot be achieved by any one person alone. Only by all members working together can the needs of individuals be met?

Conflict is also likely if members in a group perceive their goals as conflicting. Instead of taking an individualistic orientation, members should try to meet several goals at once. This may not be difficult, as goals are often complementary. For example, one person may want to learn everything he can, and another may want to share her knowledge with the group. These are complementary goals that can both be met. Some people also must be willing to subordinate their goals for the group's good.

Often intra or inter-group conflicts arise from difficulties on how to share available resources. Group members perceive the resources as limited and tend to fight over who will receive what. However, if people are able to perceive resources as expandable, the energy of the members may be spent on efforts to share them. Even if resources are not expandable, they can at least be perceived as sharable.

Power also is often perceived as limited. For example, in a group the "chair" position may be very important, and the person who holds it may exercise most of the power. This leads to lack of trust among members, and conflict results. If the chair position can be seen as shareable, this can lead to trust among members and actual increase of power for everyone.

If ideologies are conflicting in a group, stereotyping may result, and people will act out their "parts" rather than co-operating for the good of the whole. If members of the group can accept that ideologies are varied and that people can work together in spite of differences, understanding may result.

Many groups work toward uniform norms or standards of behaviour, but expectations uniformity may lead to intolerance of differences. If group members realize that diverse norms always exist early in the life of a group and that in time some commonly shared norms will evolve, they can learn tolerance of the various norms and keep differences from causing conflict when they have no effect on achieving the main goals of the group.

One other basic problem, especially in inter-cultural groups, is what relationships people have to each other in a hierarchical structure. Some people are comfortable taking a dependent role, but others fight to attain positions of authority. The expectation that others should be dependent often results in conflicts and dominance or submission needing to be determined for every member before the group can begin to work. If relationships are perceived as interdependent (that A depends on B for some things, and B depends on A for some other things), people are more likely to have empathy for others and to cooperate on problem solutions.

To summarise if people in a group perceive their own concerns to be high priority; want their own goals met at all cost; fight over available resources; distrust those in power; stereotype those with conflicting ideologies; refuse to tolerate varied norms; and attempt to dominate the group, conflicts will surely escalate. If, however, group members attempt to see differences as opportunities to prevent or resolve conflicts, they will consider the broader group concerns, realize that goals can be complementary and subordinate their own share resources, trust those in power and share the burdens of leadership; attempt to understand separate ideologies; tolerate varied group norms; and cooperate with and have empathy for others. Conflicts cannot be resolved unless people are willing to take these risks.

14.3 STYLES OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Activity 1

Before proceeding further complete the following exercise.

What approach do you follow in managing conflicts? Below are given 8 approaches. Rank order them in terms of your own style of managing conflicts. Give rank 1 to the statement which best describes your approach or style; 2 to the statement which is the next best description of your style or approach, and so on; thus, the statement which is least true of your style will get a rank of 8.

a) Dialogue with the conflicting party on the underlying problem and jointly search a mutually acceptable solution.

b) Work out your best solution for the conflict, and fight your way out to implement it.

c) Do nothing about the conflict, because no attempts usually help.

d) Use help of a third party for arbitration.

e) Allow some time to pass, hoping that things will cool down helping in solving the conflict.

f) Provide small concessions to the opposite party.

g) Avoid most situations that are likely to lead to conflicts.

h) In the spirit of give and take, accept some demands made by the other party in exchange for some of your own demands.

People usually attempt to manage conflict, once it exists, in one of three ways: (1) by avoiding the issue; (2) by approaching the problem and attempting to reach a solution; or (3) by defusing the situation and sharing in problem-solving. These attitudes can be put on a continuum from avoidance to approach.

Members of a group also tend to take an "us" versus "them" view of conflict. Sometimes, an "other" group is perceived as opposed to the interests of the "inner" group. If the outer group is seen as belligerent, conflict will seem inevitable; but if the outer group is simply seen as disinterested or distracted, conflict will seem less likely. Once conflict exists, the out group can still be perceived in two separate ways as unreasonable (in which case, there is little hope for a solution) or as open to reason (in which case, a solution seems possible). A combination of these two types of perception of the outer group with the avoidance approach continuum results in the eight modes of conflict management presented in Figure 3. Determining just where a group can be placed on the avoidance approach dimension is significant in determining the effectiveness of its behaviour. Avoidance is based on fear of conflict and a dysfunctional approach is based on optimism and is the more functional. Avoidance is characterized by a tendency to deny rationalization; avoid the problem; displaced anger or aggression; and emotional appeals. Approaches are characterized by efforts to find a solution with the help of others.

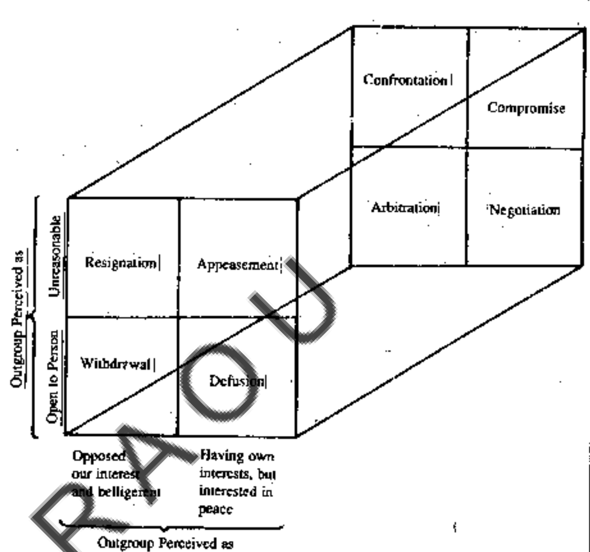
Four Avoidance Styles for Handling Conflict

Extreme avoidance of conflict—when the outer group is seen as belligerent and unreasonable—results in a fatalistic resignation to fate and a sense of helplessness. However, if the outer group is perceived as interested in power, avoidance takes the form of isolation from the other group to minimize the opportunities of interaction (and possible conflict). When the outer group is seen as open to reason, avoidance takes a more positive form: withdrawal from the conflict. If both groups are interested in keeping the peace, they may cover up the conflict and present hurt feeling or disruption. No solution is attempted—or found—for any conflict by using the avoidance mode.

Four Approach Style for Handling Conflict

Approaching a conflict can take aggressive forms or more positive forms. If the 'inner' group perceives the "outer" group both as opposed to its interests and as unreasonable group, members may opt to fight for a solution in their own favour. Blake Shepard and Mouton called this the "win-lose trap". If the outer group is seen as interested in peace, but still unreasonable, an attempt may be made to seek a compromise. Both groups then share some gain but there is no solution to the conflict. On the other hand, if the outer group is perceived as belligerent, but unreasonable, arbitration by a third party may be sought to assess the situation objectively. The conflict remains unresolved but is postponed for sometime. The most satisfactory solution may emerge only when both groups confront the problem through negotiation.

Figure 3: Approach avoidance Styles of Conflict Management



Activity 1 (contd.)

You can identify your own style of conflict management by scoring the statements you ranked in Exercise 1. The styles of the alternatives are as follows:

a) Negotiation
b) Confrontation
c) Resignation
d) Arbitration
e) Defusion
f) Appeasement
g) Withdrawal
h) Compromise

You may reflect on your styles as ranked by you and think of their implications.

Negotiation: Toward Conflict Resolution

The negotiation mode of conflict resolution is the most mature of the approach style modes. Negotiation is possible only when the outer group is perceived both as interested in peace and as reasonable. Negotiation involves continuous interaction and dialogue between groups in order to find a solution with maximum advantages to both. Through negotiation, mutual interests are met and the most satisfactory solution is determined. The negotiation style for managing conflict can be described in a number of steps. These steps are presented below in a sequence but this need not be followed strictly.

Unfreezing. Two groups in conflict may be "frozen" into a stereotyped relationship. Unless the expectations and patterns of the relationship are unfrozen, any movement toward negotiation may be impossible. To thaw out the atmosphere, group members can generate images they have of each other and of members of the other group. The ensuing discussion may provide an opportunity for members of both groups to say many things that they otherwise would not. Or members of both groups can be mixed in order to discuss some issues. In this way, people may increase their understanding of each other's perspectives.

Being Open. Group members may be "closed" with each other and may need to develop norms of voicing different points of view or alternatives without fear of repercussions. Openness is usually most difficult when the conflict involves critical issues and the atmosphere is emotionally charged, but openness is even more vital at such times.

Learning Empathy. Group members may see only their own points of view, but can gain empathy for others by sharing their main concerns, apprehensions, or goals. Such sharing may help people to gain new insight about themselves and others.

Searching for Common Themes. Groups involved in conflict may be helped to search for common goals or other areas of overlap by listing their expectations, apprehensions, perceptions, goals, and so on.

Generating Alternatives. Once the groups are aware of other's perspectives, they can generate alternatives for solving some of the issues. If both groups participate in generating alternatives, they are likely to feel mutually responsible for finding a solution.

Responding to Alternatives. After alternatives have been generated, members of both groups should study and respond to them. Every effort should be made to see issues in a positive, problem-solving way. Outright rejection of alternatives should be avoided, but all should be discussed by the whole group for clarification and for sharing concerns.

Searching for a Solution. A number of alternatives may be explored indepth by small groups made up from members of both large groups. The small groups can reach consensus on a solution and then report to the large group. Because many points of view are represented in the subgroupings, these groups are likely to come up with some innovative possibilities.

Breaking the Deadlock. Sometimes the conflicting groups may be so emotionally involved that they cannot move toward a solution by themselves. In such cases, a third party who is both objective and experienced with this type of problem may be brought in.

Committing to the Solution within the Group. After solutions are generated by subgroups, the groups can debate and consider these solutions and make their commitments to some of these. Openness among group members will help for genuine commitment. All doubts must be resolved or must be put aside at this point.

Committing the Whole Group. The last phase of conflict resolution is for both groups jointly to accept a solution and to make public commitment to implement it. Group members may share the mechanisms they plan to use for following up on the commitments made. Arrangements can also be made at this point for a joint review of any remaining issues at a later time.

Resolving conflict through negotiation involves a continuous effort on everyone's part to build a climate of openness and non-defensiveness. The success of negotiation depends on the efforts made by members of both groups to develop their own group skill. The process of negotiation itself contributes to the development of the group. The process is difficult, but extremely worthwhile.

Participation and Collaboration: Toward Conflict Prevention

Preventing conflict is also an approach mode. Prevention means anticipating the potential causes of conflict and taking quick action to turn them into positive forces for better understanding and cooperation. Two main strategies for prevention of conflicts are described in the following paragraphs.

Everyone concerned in a common task must be involved in order to reduce the breeding ground for conflict. Whenever problems arise, everyone must be involved in finding alternative solutions. Such participation and the resultant sense of shared responsibility for a solution help to prevent many conflicts. The solution reached through participative decision-making may be much more acceptable and pragmatic than one imposed from above. Representative groups from various levels of an organization can be formed for dealing with grievances, work norms and deviations from them, procedures for employee assessment, performance criteria, etc., before the issues arise in order to prevent unhealthy conflict.

An emphasis on collaborations and team building also helps to change the potential causes of conflicts into positive cooperation. The main emphasis of collaboration is on identifying common goals recognizing each other's strengths, and planning strategies for achieving goals by working.

Contingency Approach to Conflict Management

Derr has argued in favour of a contingency approach. He has suggested three main strategies of conflict resolution: power-play, bargaining and collaboration. According to him, collaboration may be best employed when work relationships, which must be inter-dependent, are substantially damaged by a given unresolved conflict, when the parties in conflict openly face their differences and state their preferences without fear of reprisal (there exists power parity in the relationship); when there is evident mutual interest in solving the dispute; and when the organisation supports the open surfacing and working of disagreements.

Bargaining seems to work best to establish power parity (usually between competing people or groups); as a means of distributing scarce resources; and as a somewhat efficient option for achieving a formal agreement to a common dispute. Bargaining may also be the most effective way to manage a dispute between two parties who each use one of the two other modes (collaboration, power-play) and are, therefore, unable to reach a common solution due to the disparity between them. Bargaining is often a midway or a "bridge" strategy.

Power-play, on the other hand, is an important way to cope with conflicts for the autonomous; it is advantageous for those who are most adapt at this mode; it is a means for achieving a dynamic balance of competing forces; and is often the only feasible way to resolve ideological disputes.

Since the negotiation mode of conflict management is a mature mode, its success would require maturation of the various processes. It is not a universally appropriate mode. It is however, a more functional mode, and therefore a more desirable direction. Groups involved in conflicts may attempt to move in the direction of the negotiation mode. Two dimensions seem to influence the choice of the mode of conflict management: integration of the ingroup and the criticality of the issue of conflict to the group. If the group is not well integrated, it may not be able to use the negotiation mode. In other words, if the group is internally divided, its internal problems may further aggravate under threats of conflict with the outgroup, if a negotiation mode is adopted. Negotiation involves a lot of activity, and the expenditure of a sizeable amount of energy. A group would tend to invest so much energy and effort only if the issue of the conflict is quite central and important to the group. Peripheral issues may not require so much effort. This is shown in Fig. 2.

These two dimensions (ingroup integration and centrality of the conflict issue) may vary from low to high. The approach modes become more relevant and appropriate with an increase of these two dimensions. One main implication of Fig. 3 is that a group may adopt an appropriate mode of conflict management, but may then move towards negotiation mode by strengthening itself for perceiving the significance of the issue of conflict. Usually the negotiation mode can be approached either through compromise or arbitration by a third party. Movement towards the negotiation mode can be facilitated by a better understanding of the negotiation process. Discussion of the various elements in negotiation, and the sequential steps in developing negotiation may be relevant in this connection.

Figure 4: Contingency Model of Approach—Avoidance Modes of Conflict Management

High

Criticality of the Conflict Issues			
	Flight	Arbitration	Negotiation
	Appeasement	Compromise	Compromise
	Resignation	Withdrawal	Defusion

Low — Ingroup Integration — High

14.4 BASES OF COLLABORATION

Although comparing competition and collaboration is not proper, many researchers and those who have worked in the field of management have reported that on the whole collaboration contributes to better development, and has better side effects than competition. Likert, while analysing various studies done with sales people, as mentioned earlier, reported that the most successful sales managers were discovering and demonstrating that when a sense of personal worth and importance were used to create competitive motivational forces, the level of productivity and sales performance was not as high as was expected. These were very high, on the other hand, when motivational forces to cooperate rather than to compete with one's peers and colleagues were used. The results showed better performance, lower cost, and the highest levels of earnings, and certainly much higher employee satisfaction. Likert concluded on this basis that collaboration releases some motivational forces which build people and also contribute to the achievement of targets more effectively.

Since people have to understand one another, and since organizations are increasingly facing multi-dimensional problems, collaboration becomes very relevant. It is important to find out how collaboration can be further developed in an organization. The first question, therefore, is: Why and how do people collaborate? After understanding this, it needs to be considered as to how collaboration should be managed. If the different bases of collaboration can be understood, it may be possible to use these bases and manage better cooperation or collaboration in an organization. Some of the factors which contribute to collaboration, or the reasons why people collaborate, are discussed as follows.

Collaborative Motivation

There is a basic need in human beings to care for, help, and be useful to others. Relationships with others can be of various kinds. In the need which is called extension motivation, in which the basic urge is to extend oneself to others and be of service to others, the individual is concerned with the other person and shows this concern by helping him. This need is reflected not only in the concern for the other individuals but in the concern for larger groups to which he belongs, including the organization and the society. This basic urge or extension motivation is the basis of collaboration. Some individuals may have higher extension motivation, and they may have a tendency to collaborate more than other individuals.

Extension motivation or any other motivation is not innate or inborn. It is a product of many forces. Many other factors which are discussed here contribute to either raising or reducing the level of extension motivation. Most of these factors interact with, reinforce and have implications for one another. Extension motivation is reflected in the general concern a person has for others and his desire to forego or postpone gratification of his own wants for the benefit of other individuals or groups. If such a motivation operates; and if there is reciprocal motivation available in the individuals or groups, this motivation is further reinforced. On the other hand, if other members do not have a high extension motivation, it may also get reduced in the individual.

Group Norms

The norms prevailing in a group have strong influences on the behaviour of the members and are likely to either raise or lower the motivation. A member with low extension motivation may join a group and may have a tendency to compete. However, if the collaborative norms in that group are high, the same individual's extension motivation will also increase in due course of time. Norms are the standards which are accepted by the group for its behaviour. These are implicitly agreed to, and become binding on the group members. These are not written down rules of behaviour, but are informally evolved, members implicitly agree with them, and agree to conform to these standards of behaviour and expect others to conform to them. Group norms have the force of the group behind them, and therefore are binding on most of the members of the group. These influence the individual's behaviour a great deal.

Higher Payoff for Collaboration

Generally, an individual behaves according to the perceived reward for the behaviour. If one type of behaviour is rewarded more (or has higher pay off) the individual will repeat that behaviour. As a result his motivation will go up and he is likely to continue to behave that way. This may become a habit or a natural part of his activity. A question in this context may be how much collaborative behaviour is rewarded in an organization. Rewards may be of various kinds. Most researchers have shown that when the payoff is higher, people tend to collaborate more. This is particularly so in the case of people who are interested in others. The baffling finding is that competition is not highly correlated with achievement motivation. Conceptually, achievement motivation (concern for individual excellence and competition) is supposed to have a high correlation with competitive behaviour. But the findings were not so. The reason for such a low correlation seems to lie in the perceived payoff of competition. A person with a high achievement motivation is interested in results. If he perceives that by collaborating he can get better results, he is likely to collaborate, and if he perceives that results are better (payoff is higher by competition), he is likely to compete. Not only those who have a tendency to collaborate, but even those who have a tendency to compete are likely to collaborate in due course of time if collaborative behaviour has a higher payoff. Payoffs can be in various forms. Various motivators suggested by Herzberg are some forms of payoff. If collaborative behaviour, for example, leads to better recognition, more chances of development of one's own ability, increase of creativity of the person, increase of his influence in the system more challenge before him for achieving results, etc., and when he perceives his role as useful or contributing to a cause which is higher than personal interests, the individual is likely to collaborate more. The psychological payoff in terms of such motivators, or in terms of role efficacy, supplementing payoff in monetary or material terms, is likely to reinforce collaborative behaviour.

Superordinate Goals

Muzafer Sheriff carried out some interesting experiments which demonstrated the value of what he called superordinate goals, i.e., goals which are important to all the parties concerned, and which cannot be achieved by any party working alone Sheriff's concept of a superordinate goal has contributed significantly to the understanding of cooperation. Experimental conflict and competition were first created in two groups of adolescents who were taken out for camping for several days. Later situations were created in which the problems faced by both the groups could not be solved independently by either group (superordinate goal). It was found that the perception of the superordinate goals by both the groups which were hitherto involved in conflict and competition with each other changed their behaviour and they had the maximum possible collaboration.

Several factors contribute to the development of a superordinate goal. Firstly, the goal should be attractive and desirable to the various members. Secondly, the goal should be seen as a sharable goal, that all persons (or groups) concerned can share it. Such a situation is called non-zero-sum game. If the perception is that one party can achieve a goal at the cost of the other party, and that the nature of the goal is such that it cannot be achieved jointly by both concerned, then it is called the zero-sum game, because the sum of the payoff to both the parties is zero. All traditional sports are zero-sum games. In a football or a hockey match the goals secured by one team are its positive payoff; the team losing the game has the negative payoff. When the payoffs of both the parties are added, the result is zero. However, within the same team, members play a non-zero game. The gains by different players within the same team contribute to the higher gain by every one concerned. This is called non-zero-sum game, because the sum-total of payoff to different members in the team is not zero, it is non-zero; it can be on the plus or the minus side. Thirdly, if the situation is seen as something in which the goal cannot be achieved by a single individual or a single group without working with other(s) involved, then it becomes a superordinate goal. In the traditional sports a team competing with other team has a superordinate goal of getting a score higher than the other team. Within the team itself members play a collaborative game, because they perceive the superordinate goal. To all members the goal of achieving victory is attractive, they see this as sharable and as a non-zero-sum, and each one realizes that this cannot be achieved single handedly, that each has to work with the others to be able to achieve this goal. When persons involved in a situation see a goal as having all the three elements then it becomes a superordinate goal.

Perceived Power

Another condition which contributes to the development of collaboration in a group is the perception of power. Power can be of both kinds: power to reward and power to punish. Reward and punishment are used in a wider sense. Punishment may be in the form of depriving the other person of the rewards which he is likely to get. Everyone in the system has at least the negative power of depriving the other person of something which is desirable to him. This may be done by holding back information, or misleading the other person, and so on. Even the person at the lowest level in the organization can use his negative power by creating annoying situations, delaying matters, holding back information, giving information which creates misunderstandings, etc. Every person in the system seems to have some kind of power. If people in the system perceive clearly that they have a power which is positive in nature, that they may be able to contribute to and use their influence for the attainment of certain goals, then this is a perception of positive power. Similarly, it is important that they realise and perceive that others who are involved in the situation also have power, both positive and negative.

The power should be perceived very clearly and it should also be demonstrated. If in a situation people do not perceive the other person's power they are likely to use the power in a competitive framework. On the other hand, if a person involved is not demonstrating power this can also lead to continued exploitative activity (use of competition by the other party). Unconditional cooperation does not lead to the development of collaboration. Unconditional cooperation by one party may communicate a lack of power. If this happens, the other party will find it more and more difficult to get into a collaborative relationship. For collaborative behaviour the perception of power of both is essential. This was dramatically demonstrated in one experiment in which the author was involved with four groups composed of educationalists from six Asian Countries. These groups played a game called "Win As Much As You Can". The game consisted of ten moves. One of the four groups consistently made cooperative moves, and, as was revealed, in the later interview and discussion; this group was fully convinced that, looking at the rules, only cooperative behaviour could help all the groups to maximize their gains. However, the unconditional cooperation by this group blocked the emergence of cooperation among other groups, and this group was exploited by the other three groups. The final result of the game was that the cooperating group snaped communication with the other three groups, and the other groups also refused to come forward for negotiation, as they saw themselves in a more powerful and advantageous position which could be threatened by negotiation. Many other researches have shown that cooperation emerges after some competitive moves by the group concerned; in this process the various parties or individuals involved in the situation demonstrate to one another the power they have and their ability to use this power.

The implications of these findings seem to be that in case there are highly competitive or non-cooperative parties or individuals, demonstration of their power to each other helps in easing the situation, and the stalemate may be seen as the possibility of collaborating for mutual benefit. This seems to be the strategy adopted by the Big Powers, demonstrating their power to destroy each other which has itself become a deterrent and is leading to collaborative moves to find a solution to save the world from the armament race and the building up of military power.

Mutual Trust

Along with the perception of power, it is important that the parties concerned perceive that the power which the other party has will not be used against it. This is a part of trust. Some amount of mutual trust is likely to lead to cooperation. Trust indicates a high probability that the power of the concerned party or individual will not be used in a malevolent way.

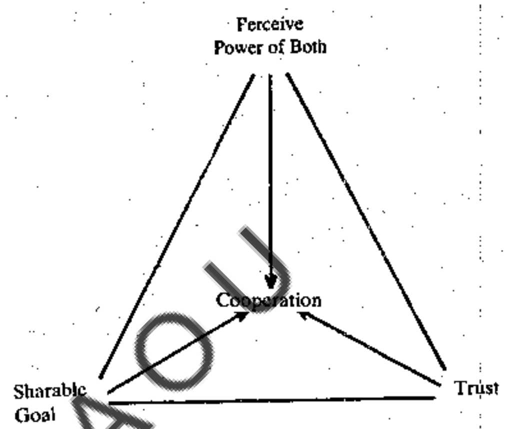
A combination of perceived power and a minimum level of trust leads to cooperation. This is shown in Fig. 5. As shown in the exhibit, collaboration results from a combination of the perceived power of both and the minimum trust in each other. In a no-trust condition there may be coercion and exploitation if the other person is seen as weak; or submission or compliance if he is seen as having power. If the perception is that neither has power, there may be indifference towards each other. The perception that both have power may lead to either competition or individualistic behaviour. Under conditions of high trust, perception of the partner having low power may lead to nurturance (paternalistic attitude); perception that he has power may result in dependency; perception that neither has power may generate mutual sympathy. It is only when both perceive, as well as it is clearly demonstrated, that both have power, and there is enough trust in each other, that collaboration emerges.

Figure 5 : Cooperation as a Function of Perceived Power and Trust

		Perceived Power (Who has Power?)			
		Only I	Only He	Neither	Both
Trust	Low	Coercion Exploitation	Submission Compliance	Indifference	Competition or Individualistic Task
	High	Nurturance	Dependence	Mutual Sympathy	Cooperation

Figure 6 shows that collaboration results from three main factors—the perception that the goal is shareable by both concerned; the perception that both (or all) involved have power; and a minimum level of trust prevailing amongst those involved in the task. Absence of these may result in low (or absence of) cooperation. It is thus seen that trust interacts both with power and superordinate goal.

Figure 6 : Cooperation as a Function of Shareable Goal, Perceived Power and Trust



Communication

Another factor contributing to the development of collaboration is communication between or amongst the various parties involved in the situation. Several experiments have demonstrated that when representatives of the groups or the total groups have an opportunity to communicate with each other or amongst themselves, the chances of collaboration increase. Communication opens up the possibility of discussing the consequences of the behaviour of the persons or groups involved. Communication also helps the groups to discuss with each other their perception of each other's power, and see that the power they have which they are using against each other, can be turned into a positive force for the benefit of all concerned. In the absence of communication such sharing of concerns is not possible. Communication helps in the perception of power and more in the development of trust. The experiments showed that communication also tends to produce repentant behaviour in those who have been exploiting and using power against the other party. When individuals communicate as representatives, it is important that the groups which send these representatives have enough trust in them, and that the representatives are sure that the commitment they make to the other groups will be honoured by their own groups. Again, the results of experiments have shown that when a group has trust and confidence in its representative, and honours the commitment made by him, collaboration becomes easier.

Fait Accompli

If groups or individuals live together and share certain norms, they begin to see good points in each other, and collaboration begins to emerge. Various experiments in reduction of conflict have used this technique. People may be prejudiced against each other, or even have wrong notions about each other, as long as they do not work or live together. One factor which contributes to collaboration is also the realization that they have to live or work together, and through such sharing of experiences they evolve common norms. When the individuals or parties concerned work together, it should be in a larger context, so that they become members of a larger group. In such a larger group to which they contribute and of which they are a part, new norms develop which may contribute to the development of better relationships. When competing groups or individuals become part of a new group, they slowly lose their identity as individuals or groups in a narrow sense, and develop a new identity by belonging to a larger group. This may help in the emergence of collaboration.

Risk Taking

In the final analysis cooperation results from the initiative taken by one person or one group to cooperate. This is a kind of risk taking on the part of the individual or the groups. This is also making oneself vulnerable. In a non-zero-sum game the individual or the group making the cooperative move runs the risk of losing a great deal, and has lower payoff. This risk, the initiative, demonstrating the courage to lose initially for the benefit of all the parties concerned, taken by an individual or a group is the key to the development of cooperation. However, this has to be taken after the other parties concerned perceive the power this group or the individual has. Risk taking is important in combination with trust and demonstration of each other's power. It is only after this has been achieved that both mutual trust and mutual power lead to a risk-taking tendency, but not the other way round. Only the risk move leads to cooperation. The person who takes the initiative in making himself vulnerable is able to start the process of change towards collaboration. This inner strength of a person to be able to make such a move helps to build collaborative relationships in a situation. This is shown in Figure 7.

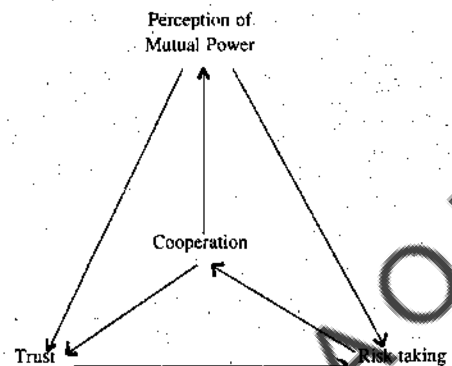


Fig 7 : Cooperation as a function of individual risk taking

14.5 COLLABORATION BUILDING INTERVENTIONS

If collaboration has such a positive role to play, how can collaboration be increased in an organisation? Several interventions can be used to help in raising the level of collaboration in organisations. The various interventions discussed below can be classified into two broad categories: process interventions and structural interventions. Process interventions pay attention to the basic processes which contribute to collaboration. Process interventions help to demonstrate and dramatise the effect of collaboration to enable people to realise the effects of collaboration. Simulation interventions assume that when people experience such dramatic effects of collaboration in a laboratory situation, they may be motivated to collaborate more effectively. Secondly, process interventions help to increase the awareness of people about the various processes involved in collaboration. Collaboration is a complex phenomenon and many conditions promote collaboration. Process interventions help people become aware of and recognise such conditions, so that they may be able to take action. Thirdly, process interventions help people look at themselves and help in what can be called self-confrontation. When an individual is able to analyse his own motivation and realises that he has either allow tendency for collaboration, or uses dysfunctional type of collaboration, he may be greatly disturbed, and such disturbance may lead to change and development of real collaborative motivation. And lastly, process interventions help by providing the participants opportunities to experiment with behaviour, explore what methods they can adopt for collaboration, and how collaboration helps in a particular situation. Such experiencing and experimenting is the basic approach to change of behaviour. Process interventions help in providing such opportunities.

Like process interventions structural interventions are equally important. While the main role of process interventions is to create motivation and release the processes of collaboration, the main role of structural interventions is to consolidate such change, make it a part of the organisational life and ensure that collaborative motivation, stimulated and developed, is continuously reinforced and is sustained in the regular life of the organisation. Structural interventions serve several functions. In the first place, structural interventions provide opportunities to people to collaborate in real life situations. This is likely to sustain the motivation. Secondly, these interventions legitimise collaboration, not leaving it to informal arrangements. By formalising systems in a way in which people collaborate, the value of collaboration is consciously recognised and communicated by the organisation; such legitimisation helps in making collaboration a regular part of the organisational life. In the third place, structural interventions help to establish norms of collaboration, making it clear that the organisation expects people to collaborate. As we have already seen, the norms are important determinants of behaviour. Such norms are likely to influence the behaviour to a great deal. This is an important role of structural interventions. Lastly, structural interventions reinforce collaboration in the system. If collaboration is encouraged and rewarded, there will be a greater tendency for people to collaborate. Structural interventions build higher payoff for collaboration in various forms, continuously reinforcing collaborative efforts.

Figure 8 summarises the various functions of the two types of interventions.

We shall discuss some possible interventions to increase collaboration by referring to the various bases of collaboration we have already discussed. The interventions have been grouped under the same nine headings of the bases of collaboration. Fig. 9 summarises the various interventions discussed here. It needs to be mentioned here that although an intervention may be mentioned under a particular base, it can be used for strengthening other bases also. In the discussions below, we shall mention an intervention only against one base. But in discussing bases, we shall refer to the already mentioned interventions, and not list them again. Thus, in all we shall briefly discuss twenty five interventions.

Figure 8 : Functions of Process and Structural Interventions

Process Interventions	Structural Interventions
1. Demonstrate the value of collaboration	1. Arrange collaboration in real life situation
2. Increase awareness of processes underlying collaboration	2. Legitimise and formalise collaboration
3. Help in self-confrontation	3. Establish collaborative norms
4. Facilitate experimenting with behaviour	4. Reinforce collaboration

Figure 9 : Bases of Collaboration and Related Interventions

Bases of Collaboration	Related Interventions
1. Motivation	1. Motivation Development Lab
	2. Simulation Exercises
2. Norms	3. Norm Setting Exercises
	4. Developing Norms of Sharing
	5. Temporary Systems
3. Reinforcement	6. The Appraisal System
	7. Rewarding Collaboration
4. Superordinate Goals	8. Joint Goal Setting
	9. Work Redesigning
	10. Organisation Building
5. Power	11. Power Lab
	12. Role Negotiation
	13. Role Substantiation
	14. Role Efficacy Lab
6. Trust	15. Process Group
	16. Non-verbal Exercises
	17. Simulation Exercises
7. Empathy	18. Enfeedback Exercise
	19. Role Contribution
8. Communication	20. Feedback System
9. Fait Accompli	21. Team Building Labs
	22. Data Feedback
	23. Process Review
	24. Image Sharing
	25. Role Linkage

Motivation Development Interventions

In order to develop collaborative motivation it may be useful to pay attention to the basic motive which helps in building collaborative relationship. This is called extension motive. Extension motive is characterised by concern for other persons, an urge to help others, and a general feeling that one has to be of some use to others. Two interventions can be illustrated for developing extension motivation.

1) Motivation Development Lab

To develop extension motive, a lab of about a week's duration can be organised. In designing such a lab the propositions McClelland has suggested for building motivation can be utilised. McClelland has suggested a design for a power motivation lab. On similar lines extension motivation lab can also be organised. The following dimensions will be included in the lab.

a) Helping people to analyse their levels of extension motive, and reflect whether they are satisfied with that level.

b) Helping them to analyse various aspects of their jobs and to what extent the jobs provide opportunities to use that motivation.

c) Helping them to diagnose the organisational culture and examine what elements in the culture contribute to extension motivation or which elements are against collaboration.

d) Helping in the analysis of norms prevailing in the organisation (to see which norms promote collaboration and which seem to be against collaboration).

e) Helping them to share their apprehensions of the consequences of cooperation so that they may prepare plans to present the dysfunctional consequences of collaboration.

Collaboration should not be perceived as resulting in loss of power. Collaboration eventually should be perceived as, and should in effect contribute to, the development of influence or power of individuals. Of course, this influence or power has to be of a different nature.

2) Simulation Exercises

Some simulation exercises are also used to develop motivation for collaboration. One example is the game Win As Much As You Can (described in Pfeiffer and Jones, 1970). A similar game is Maximising Your Resources (Pareek and Rao, 1982, Chapter 10). In these games 4 groups are involved in working together, the groups either use competitive strategy or collaborative strategy. At the end of the game they come to realise that collaborative strategy maximises the gain for all the groups, and the competitive strategy reduces the gains of every group. Eventually the groups have to choose between a lose-lose strategy or a win-win strategy; the choice of win lose strategy or a win-win strategy; the choice of win-lose strategy (winning at the cost of other members or group) is a temporary strategy and cannot last long. The exercise helps in building motivation for collaboration. The game with detailed instructions and guidelines for trainers is described elsewhere.

Another exercise Broken Squares can be used to emphasise intragroup collaboration while Broken Squares can be used for intragroup collaboration. Maximising Your Game can be used for intergroup collaboration.

Norm Building Interventions

Interventions can be used for building norms for collaboration in the organisation. Such interventions help in developing standards of behaviour and they sustain collaboration in the long run. The following three strategies are suggested in this regard.

3) Norm Setting Exercises

de la Porte (1974) has suggested development of group norms for team building. The interventions which de la Porte has suggested include building of new norms by examining the old norms. The interventions include the following:

a) Creating understanding and appreciation of the significance of norms.

b) Establishing positive norm codes through cooperative action.

c) Developing systematic change strategy by examining and modifying ten specific crucial areas which relate to norm setting.

d) Determining the excellent points of norms for the company.

e) Establishing normative change priorities.

f) Implementing the change strategy.

g) Providing follow through and maintenance.

h) Providing for continuous evaluation of change strategy. Such elaborate programme for norm setting for collaboration and team building may help an organisation take necessary steps in this direction.

4) Developing Norms of Sharing
If people in an organisation continuously, openly, and jointly share various problems which are being faced, discuss various ideas about their solutions, and develop strategies for action, norms for collaboration will develop. Such activities may be conducted both within the departments and across the departments. Norms cannot develop in an organisation unless these are established. And the only way to establish norms is to use some behaviour which seems to be desirable. Steps may be taken to promote collaboration by establishing such norms and using these practices.

5) Temporary Systems
In solving various problems of an organisation, and for working on specific tasks which the organisation has before it, it may be useful to use temporary systems like task groups, special problem-solving groups, groups to collect data for discussion, etc. Such groups are created for a specific purpose, and as soon as that purpose is solved these groups are dissolved. Usually such groups are constituted by people from different departments, sections, plants, or functions. The advantage of interdisciplinary groups is that they help in sharing concerns, and establish the norms of collaboration with each other on common tasks. The more such groups are used, the more the norms of collaboration will develop in the organisation.

Reinforcing Interventions

Interventions may be used to reinforce collaborative behaviour in the organisations. When collaborative behaviour is rewarded, it tends to be repeated. Interventions to recognise and reward collaborative behaviour may help to reinforce it. Two main interventions are suggested in this regard.

6) The Appraisal System
Both performance and potential appraisal systems can be used to strengthen collaboration in an organisation. One of the items in the performance appraisal form should be concerned with the contribution of the individual to team building and collaboration in the organisation. When these are included in the appraisal and the individual sees the value of such behaviour, these get legitimised in the system. This results in greater effort on the part of the individual employees to consciously collaborate and contribute to team work. In due course of time this helps to develop skills of collaboration, and eventually motivation for collaboration. Similarly, while appraising the potential of an individual for higher jobs, the employee's ability to develop collaborative spirit and his ability to contribute to the development of his subordinates may also be assessed.

7) Rewarding Collaboration
Some method of rewarding collaboration in an organisation can be very helpful. Rewards may be in terms of special mention and recognition. Groups or teams may also be rewarded. For example, if a team consisting of people from several departments or sections has achieved something remarkable. This can be mentioned in the board meetings, in the newsletters, or in special bulletins. Amongst the workmen collaboration can be rewarded by giving special prizes or remarkable work done by a team of workers in relation to a specific task, when collaboration is involved in such efforts. Various methods can be devised for rewarding collaboration.

Creating Superordinated Goals

As we have seen, superordinate goals help in building collaboration. Superordinate goal is characterised by three elements the goal should be attractive, it should be seen as shareable, and it should be seen as achievable only through collaborative effort and not by the effort of a single person or a single group collaboration may be developed in an organisation through special efforts. The following interventions may be used in this regard.

8) Joint Goal Setting
If more attention is paid to the goal setting process in which persons from various departments and teams are involved, the goals are likely to be superordinate goals. In the

joint goal setting process it is important that goals are defined jointly by the members involved and these are seen as worthwhile, attractive, and challenging by all the persons concerned. Resources necessary to attain the goals may also be discussed during such meetings. This, in fact, happens in the process of goal setting at the top level. However, at the lower levels also joint goal setting process may be used much more frequently.

9) Work Redesigning

Work restructuring or work redesigning emphasises the use of responsible autonomy, adaptability, variety, and participation. The concept of autonomy is that the content, structure, and organisation of job is such that individuals or groups performing those jobs can plan, regulate, and control their own work worlds. Autonomy implies a number of things, among which are the need for multiple skills within the individual or within a group organised so it can share an array of tasks; and self-regulation; only the critical interventions, desired outcomes, and organisational maintenance requirements, need to be specified by those managing, leaving the remainder to those doing. Specifically, situations are provided in which individuals or groups accept responsibility for the cycle of activities required to complete the product or service. They establish the rate quantity, and quality of output. They organise the content and the structure of their jobs, evaluate their own performance, participate in setting goals, and adjust conditions in response to work-system variability. The following seven criteria of autonomy have been suggested:

1) The group can influence the formulation of its goals, including (a) qualitative aspects (in other words, what the group shall produce), and (b) quantitative aspects.
2) Provided that established goals governing relationships to the superordinate system are satisfied, the group can govern its own performance in the following ways:
   a) The group can decide where to work.
   b) The group can decide when to work.
   c) The group can decide which other activities it wishes to engage in.
3) The group makes the necessary decisions in connection with the choice of the production method.
4) The group makes its own internal distribution of tasks.
5) The group decides on its own membership.
6) The group makes its own decisions with respect to two crucial matters of leaderships:
   a) The group decides whether it wants to have a leader with respect to internal questions, and, if it does, who this leader shall be.
   b) The group decides whether it wants a leader for the purpose of regulating boundary conditions and if it does who this leader shall be.
7) The group members decide how the work operations shall be performed.

Socio-technical systems approach has been effectively used in redesigning work groups and other related parts of the organisation. The organisation and its subsystem is regarded as open socio-technical systems (open to input-throughout-output changes with the environment). The following are the relevant characteristics of this approach for work redesigning.

1) The primary task of a manager is to control the boundary conditions of his unit.
2) The goals of an open system can be understood only as special forms of interdependence between the system and its environment.
3) The goal state has the characteristics of a steady state, which requires (a) a constancy of direction, and (b) a tolerable rate of progress.
4) Steady state can be achieved only through leadership and commitment.
5) The basis regulation of open system is self-regulation.
6) As individuals have open system properties, the enterprise must allow its members a sufficient measure of autonomy.

As work redesigning certainly leads to new problems and dimensions but more creative ways of managing problems also emerge. For example, as a result of such collaboration the role of the supervisor has to be redesigned. There are several repercussions of such work design. This is one effective intervention for creating superordinate goals, which become highly motivating for work.

10) Organisation Building

Several models of organisation building are available. Although these can be called Organisation Development (OD) efforts, they are more elaborate, and therefore, the term organisation building is being used. Two major interventions of this nature are those by

Blake and Mouton and Likert. These two major theories of organisation design have been very widely used, and the results have been reported from various organisations and various countries. Blake and Mouton used the now famous Managerial Grid in which several attempts are made to build an organisation on the basis of collaborative effort. The major interventions in Managerial Grid relate to team building. Teams are built in the organisational structure vertically, horizontally, as well as diagonally. For example, teams from various levels from the same department come together to collaborate and work on problems. This is vertical slice of the organisation. In the horizontal slice, people at the same level from different departments come together to work on problems: and in the diagonal slice people from different departments and from different levels get together and build a team. These team building efforts eventually lead to goal setting processes and reshaping of the organisation, resulting in a collaborative effort throughout the organisation.

Based on extensive research, Likert proposed a theory of four types of organisations which he called type 1, type 2, type 3 and type 4. These organisations, broadly speaking, can respectively be called authoritarian-exploitative, authoritarian-benevolent, consulative, and participative. Likert elaborately described these organisations. The main characteristic of the type 4 organisation (an ideal organisation) relate to collaborative relationship. This type of organisation helps in building teams, and the various collaborative efforts are stressed through a variety of ways. Likert and Likert have suggested items which are used to measure human organisational variables. Out of the ten items which are mentioned six directly relate to collaboration. So the main emphasis of Likert's model of organisation building is on collaborative efforts. Likert and Likert (1976) discuss several ways of building collaboration in the organisation leading towards development of type 4 organisations.

Power Related Interventions

As we have seen that unless the individuals or groups involved in the relationship perceive that all concerned in the situation have power, collaboration cannot emerge. Several interventions can be used to create conditions in which people both perceive and increasingly have power in the system. Four interventions may be considered in this area.

Several simulation exercises help in seeing the power people have in the group. For example, Win As Much As You Can or Broken Squares exercises demonstrate that people have power and they can withhold any help, they can provide to the group for completing the task. It comes out dramatically in the Broken Squares exercise (for details see Pareek and Rao, 1983, Chapter 9) as to how even a small piece when withheld prevents the group from achieving the task. Such negative power can be converted into positive power for the attainment of a goal. This also comes out quite vividly in this exercise. Various other exercises, simulating, competitive and collaborative behaviour bring out and demonstrate the importance of power very dramatically.

11) Power Lab

Power lab helps people to explore their feelings of having or not having power (a sense of power or a sense of powerlessness). Power lab also helps the participants to explore different ways of empowering themselves, and others. In the power lab, participants analyse the structural components of various systems, regulations, and role in terms of depowering (power-depriving) or empowering processes, and develop action plans in the direction of the empowering process.

12) Role Negotiation

Two important interventions relating to roles are useful in this regard. Harrison famous intervention, called role negotiation is very useful. In role negotiation people concerned negotiate on the basis of mutuality. The basic concept of role negotiation is that people have equal power in the system and they can make demands in exchange of promises to help. Role negotiation exercise effectively uses the fact that people have power of different kinds, and they can use the power positively by helping others, and in turn demanding functional help for making this role more effective. The following steps are involved in roles negotiation.

a) Unfreezing : A variety of methods can be used for unfreezing like micro-lab exchange of images of each other, etc.
b) Generating demands by each role occupant or a group from other role occupants or groups. Each member or group writes three things for other member or groups

indicating what they would like the other group to (i) continue to do to contribute to this group's effectiveness, (ii) start or increase doing things which will make this group more effective, and (iii) stop or reduce doing so that this group's effectiveness can be enhanced.

c) Exchange of these demands from each other and consideration of the demands by the groups concerned.
d) Clarifications of any vague demands.
e) Negotiation on the demands. The groups come together and representatives of the groups sit in the outer circle. An empty chair may be kept in the inner circle for any member from the outer group to come and make a point and go back to his seat. The discussion is carried on by the inner group only. For each demand accepted by a group a counter demand is made to make it a hard negotiation. The counter demand is usually made to effectively meet the demand made.
f) Preparation of contract. A contract is written, containing the agreement on doing things for mutual effectiveness and it is signed by the concerned groups.
g) Review and renegotiation. After two months or so a review meeting is held to find out how the negotiation is working and necessary adjustments are made in the light of the experience.

13) Role Substantiation

Another role-related intervention which can be used for building more power for various roles in the system is called Role Substantiators exercise. This is one of the exercises from a package of exercises on role effectiveness (Pareek, forthcoming). This exercise helps those role occupants who feel they do not have power in the system or that their power is eroded as a result of reorganisation or redesigning of the roles. The role occupants concerned get together and prepare their maps of erosion, indicating in which areas the power is seen as eroded and also identifying the areas of vacuum. After identifying such specific areas in which power seems to be less they get together and discuss how more power can be built into the roles, or recognise some hidden power existing in the role which the role occupant was not able to see. This exercise may also lead to role negotiation for building more power.

All the interventions which are in the area of power proceed on the basis that power is not limited quantum. The more power is shared the more increases in the organisation. Therefore, it should be regarded as a multiplying entity. The main question is which role needs how much power and in what areas in order to be effective.

14) Role Efficacy Lab

Role efficacy is defined as the potential effectiveness of a role. The main purpose of this two-to-three day intervention is to increase a sense of internal control amongst the members of a group. The following steps are involved:

a) Assessing own roles efficacy by role occupants by analysing and writing on 'my role' (usually half-an-hour time is given for the essay), or by an instrument used for measuring role efficacy.
b) Understanding approach and avoidance behaviour in the behaviour.
c) Generating ideas of increasing role efficacy on ten different dimensions (including linkages, helping and superordination) by generating ideas on (i) what they themselves can do individually or collectively, (ii) what they expect from higher management to increase their role efficacy, (iii) what they can do to increase role efficacy of their subordinates.
d) Finalisation of the list by the total group.
e) Dialogue with representatives of top management and arriving at some commitment both by the role occupants and the top management.
f) Review and replanning after a few months.

Trust Building Interventions

With the increasing use of behavioural sciences in organisations trust building interventions have been most widely used. They have been used both in stranger groups as well as in organisational groups. The basic assumption behind trust building interventions is that if the individual is helped to confront himself to find out why he trusts, or why he does not trust people, he will both be able to learn to trust and generate trust in others. Three main interventions are worth mentioning in this area.

15) Process Groups

Training group, or T-group as it is more widely known, is a well-known device. In the T-Group individuals sit without any agenda, and they explore the issues which may be predominant in the group, and through that they explore their own personal and interpersonal orientations, and help each other in looking at their personal and interpersonal effectiveness as well as in planning to improve such effectiveness. T-Group explores the various dimensions of trust building and helps members to test how trust can be built in the group. Mostly T-Groups have been found to be effective in stranger labs. T-Groups have also been used for trust building within an organisation, and in many cases quite effectively. However, if the culture of the organisation is fairly closed, use of T-Groups may create problems. But T-Groups or process groups have been effectively used in creating more trust amongst members and building norms of using behaviour.

16) Non-verbal Exercises

More recently non-verbal exercise., have been widely used and developed for building trust. One such exercise is called trust walk. Half of the members of a group are blindfolded, each blindfolded person forming a pair with one is not blindfolded. The latter accompanies the former for several hours and in some cases for the whole day. He helps him to go for lunch and attend to various necessities; he also helps his partner to explore the environment and takes him around. Sometimes experience in such blindfolded situation is very dramatic and has a tremendous impact on people in building trust. Some pre-work on the process of personal relationship and interpersonal dimensions needs to be done before such a non-verbal exercise is used.

17) Simulation Exercises

Several simulation exercises have been used for trust building. One powerful exercise is the prisoners dilemma. This exercise is used in a variety of ways. Win As Much As You Can and Maximise Your Gain are also variants of the Prisoner's Dilemma applied to the group situation. Usually Prisoner's Dilemma (PD) is played in two member groups. The Prisoner's Dilemma helps people to explore the dimensions of trusting, and the consequence of not trusting. Lack of trust leads to lose-lose strategy, and both the individuals suffer as a result of that. This is dramatically brought out in such an exercise. The exercise described in the first of the book, as the main research tool, is based on the same concept.

Empathy Building Interventions

Collaboration amongst some persons is possible when they have empathy for one another—understand each others' point of view, problems, and difficulties. Several interventions can be used to develop empathy amongst people. We mention below two such interventions.

18) Enfeed Exercise

This intervention helps people in a group to develop empathy for one another through feedback. Feedback is given with empathy. A group of people get together and do the following activities in triads (groups of three persons):

a) Think of your organisation and prepare three unconventional pictorial images of the organisation to summarise
   i) your perception of the organisation,
   ii) how each of your two partners perceives the organisation, and
   iii) your group's perception of the organisation.

b) Write down on three pieces of paper for your two partners the following things
   i) three personal strengths,
   ii) three personal weaknesses, and
   iii) three main concerns.

c) Share with each how close you were able to guess strengths, weaknesses and concerns. Discuss why you were able to empathise or were not able to empathise. Take help of others in increasing your sensitivity to and empathy for them.

d) Discuss in the large group how much the images of the organisation are common or different and why.

19) Role Contribution

Role contribution is similar to role negotiation. However, there is one main difference between the two. While the emphasis in role negotiation is on the effectiveness on one's own role, the emphasis in role contribution is on the effectiveness of the other roles. This exercise is based on and is meant to promote empathy. The following steps are involved in role contribution:

a) Unfreezing. A variety of methods can be used for unfreezing like micro-lab, exchange of images, etc. A part of the Enfeed exercise can be done at this stage.
b) Analysis of extension motivation. This is done by examining why a role occupant (or a group) wants to contribute to the effectiveness of the other role(s) or group(s). Each group prepares such an analysis and shares in a general meeting.
c) Force field analysis. Each group prepares lists of factors that facilitate and hinder such contribution. These lists are shared.
d) Generating ideas of contribution. Each group prepares a list of what it can do to help the other groups become more effective. Each group does this for each other.
e) Requests for help. Each group also prepares a list of requests the group would like to make to other groups to help it to make the contributions successful.
f) Open sharing. The various ideas of contributions and requests for help are then discussed in the open large groups, and groups come to agreement. Each group searches ways of helping other groups as an exchange gesture to the help others, promise to give.
g) Review and replanning. After about two months the contributions made by each group are reviewed, and each group plans further action to increase the effectiveness of such contributions.

Communication Interventions

Collaboration increases when communication channels are open. Whenever a relationship tends to degenerate into a negative competitive situation, communication is extremely helpful in an emotionally charged situation. When there is some kind of stalemate as a result of negative competition, and communication gets blocked, the whole game turns into a lose-lose relationship, and collaboration is not likely to emerge. At such a point communication becomes extremely important. Two main interventions are useful in this regard.

Simulation exercises dramatically bring out the usefulness of communication. For example, in the Maximise Your Gain exercise, as already mentioned earlier, if communication is blocked, the parties will go on playing a lose-lose game *ad infinitum*. The change in the strategy towards collaboration comes about only after proper communication has been established. Opportunities of communication help people to explore with each other the dynamics of relationship which may turn the situation towards an upward rising spiral. This is possible only if communications are allowed and facilitated at points.

20) Feedback System

One way to keep communication open is to encourage giving and receiving feedback on feelings of resentment and other negative feelings. In a face-to-face situation if such feedback is allowed and encouraged, communication channels will continue to remain open. This can be done by legitimising the process review and feedback in a collaborative project from time to time. For example, every week an hour or so can be set aside for sharing feelings and other concerns which various members have in relation to the work being done. When such feelings are shared by people, and feedback is generated, they will be able to use these by changing their behaviour to a great extent, and relationships will not be blocked.

Team Building Interventions

This area is the most important one because it directly leads to collaboration. Several interventions have been designed in this area. A variety of structural and process interventions have been used. Some of these are briefly mentioned below.

21) Team Building Labs

Special programmes for team building are often conducted in organisations. Alban and Pollitt, 1973, for example, have mentioned a programme of what they call *team building* group. This programme is more structured in nature, although process-data are also analysed. They contrast *team building group* with T-Groups mainly on the basis of team building being done in the organisation with members who will work continuously with each other and in which more structured exercises are used. They report effective changes as a result of such team building activity. Various simulation exercises, theoretical inputs, and work on tasks are used in such a four to five day programme. Several team building labs have been reported by other authors. All these labs, whether they emphasise more on process, or use more structured material, aim at creating teams of people who have respect for each other, and who emerge with strengthened collaborative relationship.

22) Data Feedback

Team building can also be promoted when data from the interviews, by an outside consultant with the various members concerned, are used as the basis of team building activities. This intervention has been found to be useful for top team building. The consultant interviews such individual member who will participate in the team building programme, and he puts down all the data without mentioning the names on sheets of paper which are posted on the walls before the meeting starts. The feedback of the entire data on interviews helps in stimulating discussions on the various problems which the groups is facing, and in deliberations as to how the team building could be attempted. This device can be used at various other levels also.

23) Process Review

Team building is greatly helped if people are allowed to share their feelings about what happened in the groups or in the organisation. Even when the role negotiation exercise has taken place, there may be pent up feelings which people may not be able to express. Providing an opportunity and mechanism of sharing of such feelings and legitimising discussions of the dimensions generated by sharing of such feelings, helps in promoting team building. This can be practised as a regular feature wherever special teams are working on the projects. Special meetings may be designed only for purposes of processing of feelings, and reviewing the processes (not the content or subject matter).

24) Image Sharing

This intervention has been very widely used by various behavioural scientists. It was originally suggested by Blake, Shepard and Mouton for increasing role effectiveness. In the exercise the groups or the members involved generate images they have of the other groups or the members and also guess what kind of image the other members or groups have about them. After generating such images these are shared and this starts the main activity which leads to team building. The main rationale behind the intervention is that if people have negative images about each other, this comes in the way of working together. So before mutuality can be established, and team work can be developed it is necessary that these images are both shared and cleared so that people may be able to work together more effectively.

25) Role Linkage

One effective exercise in building teams in an organisation, is the role linkage exercise. This exercise helps various role occupants to come together and find out the amount of linkage existing between their roles. By analysing the role linkage (an instrument can also be used for this purpose) people see the dimension on which role linkages are weak; they work on those dimension to improve the linkages, leading to development. The following steps are involved:

a) Preparation. The facilitator explains the concept of role and role set, and the purpose of the exercise. He explains that role linkages may be considered weak when the perceived distance between a role and other role is significantly large. Weak role linkages may lead an individual to develop efficiency in isolation. Usually these tendencies are discernible in large organisations. In such situations, solving problems by individuals in isolation may be quite effective; but when collaborative effort is called for, these distances may hamper organisational effectiveness, thereby rendering this coping strategy as dysfunctional viz., developing isolated efficiency.

b) Individual diagnosis. The participants individually complete "Assessing Role Linkage" form.

c) Individual action ideas. The participants individually complete "Improving Role Linkage" form.

d) Joint diagnosis and action planning. Role pairs with perceived low-low linkages meet and discuss why there are weak linkages (or why linkages are perceived weak) and what can be done to improve these.

e) Commitment in the community. The steps mutually agreed by the role occupants are shared in the large group.

Temporary systems, already mentioned, can be useful in team building. Groups with joint responsibilities of solving certain problems can be set-up. These should be the organisational problems which are urgent and about which most of the members are concerned.

Initiative Promoting Interventions

As we have seen in the final analysis collaboration comes about when someone takes the initiative and takes a kind of risk to cooperate and thereby shows a way of establishing collaborative relationships. This can be promoted in various ways.

Simulation exercises provide data which are rich in finding out why there was a change in the development towards collaboration. In the analysis it is often found that some individuals took the initiative which turned the whole situation in a positive direction. While analysing the data from exercises like Win As Much As You Can, Maximise Your Gain and Broken Squares this kind of process analysis can be done with very good results.

It is also important that in the organisation initiative taken by a member or a group to establish collaboration is both recognised and rewarded. This can be done in a formal way while analysing the success of collaborative effort to find out which group or individual had taken what steps which started a new process of collaboration. This may help in setting norms of recognising collaboration as well as examples which others can follow. This may be very helpful in establishing the traditions of taking initiative for collaboration.

In conclusion we can say that for building collaboration in organisations it may be useful to treat collaboration and competition as complementary phenomena and work toward development of functional (positive) forms of both. Understanding the bases of collaboration (why people collaborate) may help in designing both structural and process interventions in an organisation. Several interventions suggested here can be used in most of the organisations.

14.6 SUMMARY

From this unit, one learns the appreciation of value of conflict (competition) and collaboration. It also deals with the prevention of dysfunctional conflicts, how to manage conflicts and the dynamics of collaboration. The unit explains certain ways of developing collaboration in one's organisation.

14.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) Explain the terms conflict (competition) and collaboration.
2) What are the sources of conflict and explain the bases of collaboration.
3) Explain the styles of conflict management.
4) Describe the collaboration building interventions.

14.8 FURTHER READINGS

1) Most of the ideas in this unit have been borrowed from *Managing Conflict and Collaboration* by Udai Pareek (Oxford & IBH, 1982), an expanded and revised edition of which is to be published by Management System. The book discusses theories and interventions in details. Some instruments to measure conflict management styles, and one simulation game to develop collaboration are also given in the book.

2) Rensis Likert's contributions to participative organizational design can be read in his *New Patterns of Management* and *The Human Organization* (McGraw, 1961 and 1967). His book *New Ways of Managing Conflict* (McGraw, 1976) describes collaborative ways of dealing with conflict. *Managing Intergroup Conflict in Industry* by R. Blake, H.A. Shepard and Jane Mouton (Gulf Publishing, 1964) describes in details an intervention to deal with management union conflicts.

3) D.C. McClelland developed some propositions for developing motivation. These along with detailed description of their application to develop achievement motive in an Indian town, are contained in *Motivating Economic Achievement* by D.C. McClelland and D.C. Winter (Free Press, 1969). These were further modified and applied to the development power motive, described in "Power is the Great Motivation" by D.C. McClelland and D.H. Burnham (HBR, 1976, 54(2), 100-110). The model of power

proposed by McClelland can be measured by analysing TAT stories. T.V. Rao has developed a manual *Stewart Maturity Scale* (Manasayan 1976) for India.

4) Two simulation exercises for developing collaboration have been described in details, including their processes in *Developing Motivation Through Experiencing* (Oxford & IBH, 1983). de la Port's intervention to build collaborative norms can be read in his "Group Norms: Key to Building a Team" (Personnel, 1974, 51(5), 60-67). Nitish De describes several interventions of work re-design in *Alternative Designs of Human Organisations* (Sage, 1984). The concept and details of role negotiation, proposed by Roger Harrison can be found in *The Social Technology of Organization Development* edited by H.A. Hornstein (NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1971).

BLOCK 5 ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES

This Block explains what are the different processes which are involved in an organisation. Unit 15 explains overview of Major concepts and Emerging Trends of organisational Processes. Unit 16 explains the concepts of Power, Politics and Authority in an organisation. The processes of Integration and control are explained in Unit 17. Organisational Climate and its improvement are explained in Unit 18. The final unit explains how Organisational effectiveness will be evaluated.

UNIT 15 ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES : AN OVERVIEW OF MAJOR CONCEPTS AND EMERGING TRENDS

Objectives

From this unit, one has to understand :

- Meaning of Process
- Organisational Processes
- Types and Approaches of Organisational Processes.

Structure

15.1 INTRODUCTION

The word 'process' has been used extensively in many disciplines. In the physical sciences, one talks about the chemical, biological, and physical processes. To take an example from nature, the process of erosion refers to the flow of events such as occurrence of rain, flow of water, fluctuations in temperature leading to the washing away of tillable soil. In the field of management, several management researchers and practioners have used the term 'process' without defining it, presuming that there is a commonly shared meaning. For example, one talks of staffing process to include advertising for positions, interviewing potential candidates and deciding to hire, transfer or promote personnel.

An examination of the management literature shows that the term 'process' has been used to denote the following :

- how things are done or how goals are pursued,
- a series of actions that lead to the accomplishment of objectives
- any course or sequence of behaviour accomplishing a necessary purpose
- progressive action or a series of acts performed by persons in the course of moving the organisation from one state to another

One notices that all the above definitions point to a flow of activity or an unfolding of progressive sequence of events. Let us examine a real-life case to gain a more concrete understanding of organisational processes.

Law and Order Problem in a City

For six months, there were clashes between two religious groups in a city in the eastern part of India, and the law and order situation was at its lowest ebb. A major religious celebration of one of the groups was round the corner. The leaders of this religion wielded considerable power, and were adamant that the religions processions should go.

The police force was highly demoralized. There had been very high interference in their working. The preventive arrests which had been made did not touch the real criminals. For example, it was found that of the individuals arrested, 200 were either below 12 or above 65.

The District Collector decided to squarely deal with the law and order situation, and had such innocent persons released. He established his own informal channels with the trade, the police force, the public and the organisers of the religious celebrations. After individually meeting 2000 people he made a list of the hardened criminals and trouble makers. This list of people to be arrested was kept a secret.

He went to the different groups of organisers and evolved a 14-point code of conduct (such as outer limit in terms of time for religious celebrations, not having processions on foot etc.). The code of conduct emerged from discussions with different groups in several forums. A large scale communication exercise was undertaken to ensure that the new norms were accepted by all the concerned individuals and groups.

At the same time, the potential trouble makers were also called, and threatened with dire consequences if they were found to create problems. In this way, some countervailing power was established over them. Two days before the celebrations, the District Collector had the hardened criminals arrested.

During the week-long celebrations, there were no calls from the state capital, no complaints of wrong arrests and no violation of the code of conduct. The entire celebration went off peacefully and this dramatically improved the law and order situation in the city.

It can be seen from the above caselet that a community was moved from one situation (severe law and order problems and insecurity among city residents) to another (satisfactory law and order situation) through a series of actions. The objectives of improved law and order situation was achieved through the processes of communication, decision making, and exercise of power. The District Collector tried to build some bridges and create certain linkages, by initiating a course of action and mobilizing support for a new set of norms.

As can be seen from the caselet, organisations are like streams which are in a state of continuous flux. Processes are elusive and difficult to describe. In the caselet, we see a sequence of events which collectively yielded a certain result. The District Collector was required to manage a set of interdependent factors, and had he not paid attention to processes, he would not have achieved his purpose.

Karl Weick states that descriptions of any organisational activity involves the use of verbs, and these verbs indicate the processes of organisations. In the above caselet, the development of new norms required **communicating** with the concerned people, **understanding** the situation, **influencing** the leaders, **buffering** the situation from hardened criminals and **creating** a climate conducive to the new norms of behaviour.

The **spatial** aspects of organisational activity are indicated by nouns and the **temporal** aspects by verbs. Verbs indicate motion, change and time. Without these, people would be observing only static displays.

Thus the essence of process activity in organisations is the connection between nouns. The greater attention we give in verbs, the more we are concentrating on the processes in organisations.

Process also implies impermanence. The raw materials of process are interests and activities of individuals. Because these are continuously changing, the processes also change.

15.2 THE PROCESS APPROACH

Wendell French defines process as a 'flow of interrelated events moving toward some goal, purpose or end'. There are certain essential words in the definition which capture the meaning of process. 'Flow' denotes continuous activity; in other words, one thing follows the other. The word 'interrelated' suggests that these activities are connected to one another. These set of events move towards some conclusion. 'Goal' refers to human objective, and 'purpose' suggests a human activity in a metaphysical sense.

All processes contain subprocesses and are a part of a larger process. For example, process of tree growth can be subdivided into plant food assimilation, photosynthesis, pollination and so on. The process of tree growth is also part of the larger life process of a forest. Similarly, we have seen that the staffing process includes advertising, interviewing, and appointing personnel. It is also part of the larger management process.

Management of forest involves many goals, and it involves the systematic manipulation and control of a highly complex network of interacting processes. In the same way, task of the administrator is to define enterprise goals, assemble resources, visualise the processes essential to the attainment of these goals, and to design the network of facilitating systems.

The process approach focuses on how things are done, and so this approach emphasises interpersonal relationships, attitudes and feelings. In bringing organisational change, while the structural approach may change the technology, social structure or procedure, the process approach would try to make the job more interesting, enhance communication, or make mutual influence possible. While the structural approach has its grounding in classical organisations theory, the process approach reflects the human relations movement.

15.3 SYSTEMS APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES

Modern organisation theory uses the systems perspective and raises a range of interrelated questions such as the following :

a) What are the strategic parts of the system?

b) What is the nature of their mutual dependence?

c) What are the main processes in the system which link the parts together and facilitate their adjustment to each other?

d) What are the goals sought by the system?

In systems theory, a complex organisation is conceptualised as a social system. The various discrete segments and functions in the system do not behave as isolated elements. All parts affect all other parts. Every action has repurcussions throughout the organisation because all its elements are linked. The system framework of organisation theory has been presented by Scott, Mitchell and Birnbaum as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

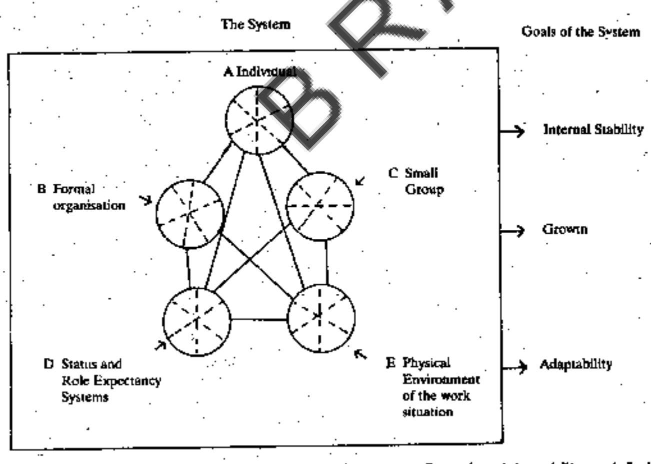


Figure 1 The System Goals of the System Internal Stability Growth Adaptability A Individual B Formal Organisation C Small Groups D Status and Role Expectancy Systems E Physical Environment of the work situation

In the figure, the large box represents the total system or the organisation and the circles stand for the parts in the system. The broken lines represent intrapart interactions i.e., individuals with other individuals, and solid lines represent interpart interactions. Both the solid lines and broken lines are the processes which tie the parts of the system.

The key linking processes are communication and decision-making. These linking processes connect the parts of the system and sustain the life of the organisation. The system as a whole strives to achieve the goals of internal stability, growth and adaptability.

To understand the systems perspective further, let us examine the following situation which unfolded in a set of villages in central India faced with severe drought conditions.

Drought situation and Tube-wells

A number of villages in Central India were facing drought situation. The villagers had to travel several miles to get drinking water. The government decided to dig tube wells to ensure that the villagers got clean drinking water. But digging tube-wells was a time consuming and expensive proposition and the scarce resource was the rig used for the purpose.

A rig was obtained, but the number of wells dug was way below the target. Before the work could be completed in one place, there were pressures to move the rig to another site and the movement of the rig was very slow. Most of the time, the rig appeared to be moving from one place to another; there were too many mechanical failures and very few tube-wells were started.

As soon as the administrator noticed these problems, he worked out a transportation model in consultation with experts, made a priority list of 500 villages and determined the optimal route. He went to different forums and convinced the powerful opinion leaders that he would increase the number of wells tenfold, but they should fully cooperate in implementing the plan.

In the revised plan, the rig worked throughout the day and moved from village to village in the night. It started on the periphery and moved towards the headquarters. The plan went without a hitch and 20 to 30 tube-wells were drilled per block which represented a dramatic increase from the earlier record. The people realised that the conflicts were reducing the size of the cake.

In the above caselet, there were individuals in the system who were interested in finding an appropriate solution to the drought problem. There were groups (different villages in this case), each with a set of expectations. There were formal arrangements of functions for drought-relief programmes, with an interrelated pattern of jobs essential for the economic and efficiency pursuits of the system. The status and role arrangements were connected to power, authority and leadership issues.

For the achievement of the goals of the systems, it was necessary to link these different parts. Initially the groups were blocking the initiatives of the individuals. In the formal organisational system, there were some procedures for conflict resolution, but these formal procedures could not address the problems faced by the officials. The contribution of the innovative government official was in terms of energizing the processes, building bridges between the system parts, and performing the role of match-maker, matching the village requirements with the technical considerations.

We shall keep the background of the above caselet in mind to examine the important role of linkage in some detail below.

The Linking Process : The different parts of an organisational system are interrelated. Communication allows the parts of the system to 'talk' with each other. It brings in information from the outside world, and it provides the means for storing and retrieving information within the system.

In the caselet, each village was initially trying to maximize its gain, but in the process was acting against its own self interest and also the interest of the collectivity. Communication helped in creating a more desirable shared reality. Communication is the method by which action is evoked from the parts of the system. It acts not only as a stimulus which initiates action, but also as a control and coordination mechanism which links the decision centres in the system.

The linking process also helps in ensuring that the various parts of the system are maintained in a harmoniously structured relationship to each other. This balancing mechanism acts as a stabilizing or adapting force. The balance is either quasi-automatic or innovative. The first refers to homeostatic properties with built-in propensities to maintain steady states. This sort of reaction occurs when the change demanded by the organisation is relatively minor and comes within the established programmes of action. The need for innovative efforts arises when adaptation to a change is outside the scope of existing programme; then, new programmes have to be evolved to maintain internal harmony. In the above case, when the administrator found that the formal conflict resolution mechanisms were unable to address the issue of allocating the rig, he initiated a new set of balancing processes to meet competing demands.

As Udai Pareek notes, a dynamic organisation is constantly evolving and growing, in terms of its missions, areas of activity, size and so on. It is continuously learning, that is utilizing the past experience for future action. The organisation also deals with the problems of change. It has to make the difficult choice between stagnation (staying where it is, including resting on its oars of glory) and self-renewal.

The organisation is also involved in a transactional process with the environment, with the organisation influencing the environment and the environment influencing the organisation. The process of influence is also concerned with the autonomy of the organisation to what extent it is able to insulate itself against undue influences from outside, along with keeping itself open to healthy influences.

This is not to suggest that organisations are primarily characterized by the processes indicated above. There are several other processes which operate, and in the following sections we shall briefly examine the emerging trends in the areas of Decision-Making Processes, Power and Intergroup Relations, and Organisational Learning and Renewal. These concepts will give us a richer understanding of Organisational Processes.

Decision-Making Process

Decision-making processes represent the brain and nervous system of the organisation. The managers monitor the external environment, interpret environment, detect short comings in expected behaviour and performance, analyse potential alternatives, and implement new courses of action. Decisions are made about organisation structure, innovation, goals, products, facilities, and technology.

At any time, an organisation may be identifying problems and implementing alternatives for hundreds of decisions. Organisations somehow "muddle through" these processes. The purpose of analysing these processes is to learn what decision-making is like in organisational settings. There are several models of organisational decision-making. Our purpose here is not to examine these different models, but to highlight some important underlying ideas. For doing so, we shall use the following caselet as an illustration.

Facit AB

Facit AB grew large and profitable while making and selling business machines and office furnishings. Although Facit made many products, the top managers believed the key product line to be mechanical calculators; they saw products such as typewriters and desks as peripheral. In fact, the top managers declined to authorise production of computers and electronic calculators designed by a subsidiary.

In the mid 1960s, Facit borrowed large sums and built new plants that enabled it to make better mechanical calculators at lower costs than any other company in the world. Between 1962 and 1970, employment rose 70 per cent and sales and profits more than doubled. By 1970, Facit employed 14,000 people who worked in factories in twenty cities in five countries, or in sales offices in fifteen countries.

Facit's focus on mechanical calculators was self-reinforcing. They concentrated on keeping their costs low, service fast, problems rare, understanding high, and expertise great. But only within the domain of mechanical calculators!

One loyal customer finally cancelled a large order for Facit machines. Although some lower-managers and engineers were acutely aware of the electronic revolution in the world at large, this awareness did not penetrate upward, and the advent of electronic calculators took Facit's top managers by surprise. Relying on the company's information-gethering programmes, the top managers surmised that Facit's mechanical-calculator customers would switch to electronics very slowly because they liked mechanical calculators. Of course, Facit had no programmes for gathering information from people who were buying electronic calculators.

Actual demand for mechanical calculators dropped precipitously, and Facit went through two years of loss, turmoil, and contraction. The top managers' contraction strategy aimed perversely at preserving the mechanical-calculator factories by closing the typewriter and office-furnishings factories. With bankruptcy looming, the board of directors sold Facit to a larger firm, and a dozen top managers were fired.

The new top managers discovered that demand for office furnishings atleast twice the production capacities: sales personnel had been turning down orders because the company could not fill them. Not only did Facit face weak competition in the sale of typewriters and office furnishings, its subsidiary had also designed electronic calculators and computers. The company turned around in less than a year, including the addition of electronic products.

Facit case shows us that organisational decisions are not necessarily made in a logical, rational manner. Most decisions do not begin with the careful analysis of a problem, followed by systematic analysis of alternatives, and finally implementation of a certain solution. Decision processes are characterised by conflict, coalition-building, trial and error, and mistakes. Intuition and hunch are often the criteria for choice. The decision process is disorderly, and may even seem random. In a few cases, the solution may actually drive the problem because someone likes an idea and tries to find a problem as an excuse to adopt it.

Another important idea is that individuals make decisions, but organisational decisions are not made by a single individual. In the above case, the Facit top management group was involved in making a set of decisions, but the linkage of this group with the rest of the organisation was weak, and the views and ideas at other levels did not either reach the top managers, or were not considered seriously by them.

Organisational decision-making is a social process. Many problems are not clear, so widespread discussion and coalition-building take place. In the Facit case, of course, this process remained localised at the top, with the rest of the system remaining distant from the decision-making processes at the top

When managers do make an individual decision, it is often a small part of a larger decision process. Organisations solve big problems through a series of small steps. A single manager may initiate one step, but should be aware of the larger decision process in which it is embedded.

The greatest amount of conflict and coalition-building occurs when goals are not understood and agreed upon. Priorities must be established to indicate which goals are most important and what problems should be solved first. If a manager attacks a problem other people do not agree with, the manager will lose support for the solution to be implemented. Thus time and activity should be spent in building a coalition in the problem-identification stage of decision-making. Once problems are identified and agreed upon, the organisation can move towards solutions. Intuition and trial and error often characterise this part of the process. Under conditions of uncertainty the solution unfolds as a series of incremental trials that will gradually lead to an overall solution.

Finally, organisations make mistakes. The mistakes made through trial and error should be encouraged. Managers do not have perfect knowledge or information. The best alternative cannot be known in advance when uncertainty is high. By encouraging trial and error increments, organisational learning is facilitated.

On the other hand, the Facit case demonstrates that unwillingness to change from a failing course of action can have serious negative consequences for the organisation. Norms consistency orthe desire to prove one's decision correct can be to a continued investment of time and resources in a vast course of action.

15.4 POWER, CONFLICT AND INTERGROUP RELATIONS

Many managers prefer the rational model of decision-making. The rational model is clean and objective. Rational processes are effective when decision factors are sharply specified because of certainty, agreement, and good information. But the real of power and politics cannot be ignored.

Political decision processes are used in situations uncertainty, disagreement, and poor information. Decisions are reached through the clash of values and preferences, and by the influence of dominant departments. Politics will be accepted when it is used to achieve the legitimate goal of the department organisation rather than when it is employed for personal gain.

To examine some concepts relating to intergroup relation let us look at the following situation.

Alpha Company

Alpha Company is located in Baroda and makes speciality chemicals. The company experienced intense conflict between the research department and the production department. The research scientists were expected to develop new products and come up with process improvements, and the production department was responsible for day-to-day production.

The operations personnel felt that the research scientists were of little service to them. They claimed that research personnel took far too long to complete projects. The production manager said "Their suggestions for process improvements are highly theoretical". Research personnel had developed certain process innovations, but the resistance to the innovations was high.

Research personnel wanted to cooperate with operations executives, but complained that they were being asked to release half-completed innovations or water down their ideas for less qualified personnel working in the production department.

The General Manager of the unit was concerned about the problems between the two departments. He noticed that there was little communication between research and production. He wondered if he should set up committees or task forces consisting of personnel from both the departments. The Human Resources Development department had also sent him a proposal for joint training programmes and also a plan for rotating managers between operations and research departments.

Alpha company is faced with the inevitable conflicts between two departments. Differences in goals, backgrounds and tasks are necessary for departmental excellence. But these differences throw groups into conflict. At a personal level, most of us dislike conflict. But conflict should not be avoided or suppressed. It needs to be managed, so that it leads to greater creativity and better performance.

Conflict between groups represents a dilemma for the organisation. Intergroup conflict has clear advantages within each group. The increased focus on achieving group goals, increased cohesion, satisfaction, and stimulation represent the type of group atmosphere organisations strive for. Intergroup conflict is a powerful device for achieving a positive group atmosphere within departments.

But the atmosphere within departments does not translate into relationships between departments. The improved identification with one's own group leads to disregard, and dislike for external groups. Members begin to see other departments as inferior, as the enemy, and cooperation with them may decrease. The dilemma for managers is to obtain the advantages of in-group feelings without the advantages of intense intergroup conflict. This is accomplished in the zone of managed conflict. The right level of conflict allows organisations to balance the within-group and between-group forces at a satisfactory level.

Much of the work in organisations has been concerned with horizontal conflict. Horizontal conflict is the day-to-day preoccupation of most managers. Horizontal relations across departments are less predictable than vertical relations, and there are fewer rules and regulations to prescribe conflict resolution.

Vertical conflict is reflected in relationships among organisational members at different hierarchical levels, union-management relations and so on. There have been some experiments in the recent past to improve vertical relations in organisations. Problem solving teams, employee ownership of company shares, and workers' participation on the board of directors are experimental steps to achieve collaboration between management and workers. As these developments become the focus of organisational research, new approaches and processes for managing vertical conflict will become part of management literature.

15.5 ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING AND RENEWAL

Organisational Learning can be viewed as a process by which decision-makers learn about their organisation and the environment in which it operates; this learning helps them coordinate the firm's actions and ensure the survival and development of the organisation. Thus organisational learning lies at the heart of the firm's ability to live in harmony with the environment over a long period of time. Learning is the process which underlies and gives birth to change. Change is the child of learning.

But there are organisations and departments which fail to adapt to external changes and fail to learn. An illustration of such an organisation is presented below.

> **Gamma Consultants**
> A division of Gamma Consultants, which was providing accounting services to client organisations, had recently lost a number of important clients. There was a steady decline in the division's volume of business and profitability, but attempts at reorientation had met with little success.
>
> The senior employees of the division territorialised much of the office work. For example, the secrets of accounts receivable were the province of one senior employee; the mysteries of discount rates and accounts payable belonged to another. Even the employees who performed the specialised functions did not fully comprehend the reasons for some of the actions they executed. Much of the office work reflected the reasoning of the long tenured office manager whose style did not include explanation of his directions.
>
> Like following religious rituals whose original significance had been lost in the midst of history, the office personnel performed countless tasks not understanding their relevance but unwilling, unable, and even frightened to change them. Not understanding the goals of their activities, they could not evaluate and modify their behaviour. The employees were threatened by even minor changes. In such a context, the division was going down steadily in performance and yet all attempts to bring a strategic outlook were proving to be futile.

It can be noted from the illustrative caselet that re-adaptation, renewal and revitalisation of an organisation cannot be taken for granted. These can be achieved only by finding the right environmental domain, and by communicating a common goal to the organisational membership, specialising to cope with the environment, coordinating across individuals and departments, and using appropriate approaches for human resources development. This approach to the management of organisations enables organisations to learn, which means that they constantly change and improve themselves.

In India, organisational learning and renewal has assumed special importance in recent years due to dramatic changes in the external and internal environment. For instance, several organisations are experiencing competition in the market place for the first time; there are major technological changes taking place rapidly and the managers are wondering how to cope with these changes; the changes in the social environment are reflected in the changing expectations and behavioural patterns of individuals and groups at the work place.

Some organisations have remained stagnant for a number of years and are now hard pressed to satisfy the growing expectations of the employees. Curiously, there are also organisations which face just the opposite set of problems: they have been riding friendly waves and have grown large over a period of time, but are now confronting the internal complexities associated with rapid organisational growth, such as conflicting demands of different interest groups and organisational values and norms, which are not in tune with pressure for performance.

Many organisations are buckling down under such changes in the environment because they are unable to perform at the level required by customers, employees, financial institutions, and other stakeholders. These organisations have to unlearn their old, obsolete approaches and learn new ways for coping with the external and the internal environment. They have to develop processes to foster a sprit of inquiry, mobilise human resources, and act on ideas.

15.6 SUMMARY

To sum up, we have tried, in this note, to understand what organisational processes are, and examine some important concepts and emerging trends in this area. But as Udai Pareek has stated, the stress on process does not mean understressing the importance of structure. In fact, they are two sides of the same coin. Thus emphasis on process should increase emphasis on structure. Instead of thinking of structure as the only method to solve organisational problems, the emphasis on process implies that structural changes are considered as a part of the dynamics which underlie the organisational phenomena. It also means that structure supports the process, and process work is done to strengthen the structural changes being introduced. Thus an integration of structure and process is achieved, rather than their hanging independent of each other under a debate about which of the two is more important.

15.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) What is a process? Explain organisational process.
2) Explain the systems approach to the study of organisational processes.
3) Explain the dynamics of power, conflict and Intergroup relations.
4) Describe organisational learning and renewal.

15.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 16 POWER, POLITICS AND AUTHORITY

Objectives

From this unit, one has to understand,

- Meaning of Power, Politics and Authority and
- Their importance in Organisations

Structure

16.1 INTRODUCTION

Whether it is a casual cafeteria conversation or a serious seminar deliberation, Power emerges as an important theme in managerial discussions. The person may be talking about international affairs, industry-level issues, or their individual departments, but we find direct and indirect references to the dynamics of power. Abraham Zaleznik says that power evokes strong reactions because it connotes dominance and submission, control and acquiescence, one man's will at the expense of another man's self esteem..... Yet it is power, that provides the basis of the direction of organizations and for the attainment of social goals.

Let us consider the example of Damodar Valley Corporation to illustrate the role of power in furthering organizational effectiveness.

Damodar Valley Corporation

When Mr. P.C. Luther took over as the Chairman of Damodar Valley Corporation (DVC) in August, 1980, normlessness had acquired the status of norm in the organization. Rules were flouted more than they were observed. Productivity was very low and so was the morale of employees.

The problems at the Chandrapur School, run by DVC was characteristic of the problems in the Corporation. At one time the manager of the power plant who was the administrative head of the school sought asylum in the Chairman's office as he had received threats to his life and life of his family members from 500 DVC high school students and the General Secretary of the DVC staff association. The students and the staff association had several demands including the sanction of posts of additional teachers, extension of the school building and better quality of food in the canteen.

The Chairman visited the school and addressed the teachers and the students making it clear that indiscipline of any kind would not be tolerated. The school would be closed down if such behaviour continued. He imposed a ban on all representations for a period of 3 months, during which time he gave his word that he would make a genuine attempt to sort out their grievances.

During the following three months, the Chairman visited the school from time to time. He found that the inordinate delays in addressing grievances of the teachers and the students by a powerless and demoralized management had adversely affected al aspects of the functioning of the school. This had infuriated the members of the school community who blocked the functioning of the school even more. The school was thus caught in a vicious cycle.

Through intensive consultations with the teachers and the students he found ways of tackling the genuine grievances. He went beyond the scope of the original demands by upgrading the school from 10th standard to 12th standard. The functioning of the school improved drammatically following these interventions.

The DVC example highlights how power energizes the organization and empowers members to take initiative and contribute to the organization.

16.2 POWER VS. AUTHORITY

Power is the ability to get things done, to mobilise resources, to get and use whatever it is that a person needs for the goals he or she attempting to meet. Power is an intangible and elusive process in organization, but its effects can be felt. For example the following outcomes are indicators of power in an organization.

- Obtain a larger increase in budget than other departments
- Get a hearing before top decision makers
- Obtain the production schedules that are favourable to one's department
- Get items on the agenda at policy meetings
- Get a desirable position for a talented subordinate.

The concept of authority is related to power but is narrower in scope. It is prescribed by the formal hierarchy and reporting relationships and the power is associated with one's position. While organisational power can be exercised in upward, downward, or horizontal directions in organisations, formal authority is exercised only in downward direction along the hierarchy. There are three properties that identify authority.

1) Authority is invested in organizational positions, and does not come from personal characteristics.
2) Authority is voluntarily accepted by subordinates, who comply because they perceive that position holders have a legitimate right to exercise authority
3) Authority flows down the vertical hierarchy. Authority exists along the formal chain of command, and positions at the top of the hierarchy are invested with more formal authority than positions at the bottom.

These properties are illustrated in the following case example.

An Overworked Typist

In a busy organization, a young MBA student doing his summer training approaches an over-worked senior typist and requests him to type out a lengthy project report.

The typist thrusts the report aside and claims that he has no time. Soon afterwards the departmental head approaches the typist and makes a similar request. There is instant compliance.

It must be added, however, the authority too has its constraints. Today, we cannot expect that subordinates would passively accept and completely obey a constant stream of orders from the boss just because the superior has the formal authority. Not only are the social norms changing, but the organisational relationships themselves are impacted by several external forces. For example, first-line supervisors find it difficult to exert formal authority when there is a powerful union. So power cannot be gained simply through one's position in the organizational hierarchy. Among other things, one's expertise, personal qualities, style, access to key information, and ability to provide or withhold rewards, determine one's power in a given situation.

16.3 DIFFERENT FACES OF POWER

It is often observed that people express mixed feelings about power. On the one hand, they recognize that power can serve a useful function. Managers need power in order to lead, and leadership is obviously important for ensuring organisational effectiveness. On the other hand, power is also associated with exploitation and corruption. There are some who even go to the extent of arguing that the very existence of power is evil.

Power is considered to be a loaded word. According to Rosabeth Kanter, people who have it deny it; people who want it do not want to appear to hunger for it; and people who engage in its machinations do so secretly.

Thus, power fascinates and repulses people at the same time. It is a double edged sword-negative use of power is aimed at one's selfish ends and therefore frustrates the rest of the system, while positive use of power fulfills a larger organisational purpose and provides a dynamic force for organisational functioning. Exhibit 1 shows the different facets of powers.

Exhibit 1 : Different Facets of Power

- Power is the ability of A to cause B to change course of action
- It is Coercion, when there is a threat of deprivation where there is a conflict over values or course of action.
- It is Influence, when B changes course of action without A resorting to either a tacit or overt threat of severe deprivation.
- It is Authority, when A's command is reasonable, legitimate and prescribed by the formal hierarchy.
- It is Force, when A achieves objectives in the face of B's non-compliance by eliminating the choice between compliance and non-compliance.
- It is Manipulation, when compliance is forthcoming in the absence of recognition on B's part as to the source or exact nature of the demand placed by A

Organisational power is analogous in simple terms to electrical power. Where the power is "on" the system can be productive. Of course, there are hazards associated with its misuse. But we cannot overcome the problem by wishing away power because where the power is "off" the system bogs down.

16.4 WHERE DO MANAGERS NEED POWER ?

There are some situations in managerial work life where there is little need for power. For example, when managers are involved individually or in a small group in the process of technical problems or creating plans, they face very little external dependence. In fact there are some positions in organisations which are given the designation of the 'manager' but which are, but in fact, specialist positions where dependence on even the peer group may not exist to a substantial extent. In such cases, success on the job depends on one's own personal skills and capabilities, and power is not a critical factor for managerial effectiveness. On the other hand, consider the following situation: a manager has taken charge of a division whose performance has been slipping because of labour problems and low productivity on one side, and increased competition on the other. This manager's performance depends on his/her ability to work with and influence the employees, union customers, suppliers, and also perhaps other constituents like the superior, staff services and peers.

John Kotter says that very few managers enjoy the luxury of directly controlling all the resources necessary for doing their jobs. The managers are dependent not only on their subordinates but also on the subordinates of their subordinates for their effectiveness. In addition, for critical supplies, the managers are dependent on external sources and other departmental managers. The executives are also dependent on the government, regulatory bodies and union officials. Increase in the complexity of the business enviornment has increased sources of external dependence for managers. The issue becomes even more difficult to manage, when the managers find that they are dependent on people and things whom they do not directly control and who are also not cooperating. As Kotter says, "Power is extremely important in organizations, because the dependence inherent in managerial jobs is greater than the power or control given to the people in those jobs. Power dynamics, under these circumstances, are inevitable and are needed to make organisations function well."

16.5 SOURCES OF POWER

We will now, examine the sources of power at different levels of the organisation. We can broadly identify three levels in any organisation.

At the top level individuals have overall responsibilities for the organization. They control the distribution of resources that others in the system value.

The lower level participants live or work in a system whose mission has been determined by others, whose structures are developed by others, and where the distribution of resources is controlled by others.

The middle level participants are expected to be responsive to two or more positions which be in conflict with one another.

Individuals may be powerful or powerless in all the three levels of the organisation. Irrespective of the formal authority it is often observed that there can be persons who may be in the so-called powerful positions but feel powerless to influence their own condition or condition of the organisation, and persons may be in so-called powerless position and yet feel powerful. Power is thus the ability to recognize and realize the potential of whatever position we are in.

Power Sources for upper management

Let us consider the following case example.

State Institute of Public Administration

A training Institute in a north Indian city was already in the process of decline when it was struck by a calamity in the form of floods. The floods wiped out half of its physical structure. At this time a senior administrator took charge as the Director of the Institute. Some of the steps undertaken by him in turning around this Institute were as follows:

- He contacted various departments of the Government and brought important officials to the campus to get them committed to the various tasks.
- The Prime Minister's (PM) visit to the campus to assess the damage caused by the floods was fully exploited by the Director to show the staff and other Government officials that what he was undertaking was an important activity.
- He met the Chief Secretary and the Chief Minister (CM) frequently to obtain their support for his activities. Their support enabled him to raise financial resources for rebuilding the Institute.
- The PM was called again to inaugurate the new building by persuading the CM to write to the PM. The PM's visit enabled the Director to get cooperation from the different Government departments.
- He improved the existing programmes quantitatively and qualitatively through active consultations with the members of the academic group.
- He improved the climate in the Institute by emphasizing the norms of punctuality, regularity and participation of lower level staff.
- He strengthened different committees for research, publication, library and development of training materials etc.
- He obtained funding and initiated autonomous centres for management studies, urban development studies and rural development studies.

It is evident from the case example that the power of the Director flowed from his central position in the organization, his ability to focus and channelize the energies of the organisation by clearly identifying the organisational mission, and mobilizing necessary resources through development of network, with powerful actors in the organisation's external environment. To generalize, we can say that the power of upper management comes from the following sources.

1) **Formal position :** The top management is given a great deal of responsibility, hence authority is also great. Other organisational members generally accept the legitimate right of the top managers to set goals, make decisions and direct activities.

2) **Control of resources :** The top managers control the allocation of financial and physical resources. The resources can also be used to reward and punish, which are also sources of

power. Lower level participants depend on the top managers for budget allocations to perform their tasks.

3) **Control of decision premises** : Top managers make big decisions which provide the framework for decisions made at the lower levels. For example, top management decides which goal the organisation will try to achieve and lower level participants then decide how the goal is to be reached. Top managers also control organisational agenda through control of information and selection of the issues for consideration.

   An even more subtle exercise of power for top managers is achieved through the control of the perceptions and desires of others. Charismatic leaders who can influence the thinking of others along the desired direction acquire power by shaping the superordinate goals.

4) **Network Centrality** : The top managers are in the centre of an information network, and gain power by being well informed, having access to other people in the network, and having multiple people dependent upon them. They can use their central position to build internal and external alliances and loyalty, and hence be in a position to wield substantial power.

Power Sources for middle managers

In many of our organisations, middle managers feel that they do not have sufficient power and latitude to perform their jobs well. Consider the following example.

State Public Sector Organisation

In a large state public sector organisation, the middle managers confessed that they felt powerless and their 'will to manage' had hit the rock bottom because of several reasons. Firstly, there was no continuity of leadership at the top and so the managers experienced no influence or rapport with the top management. Secondly, they had to depend on the bureaucracy at the State Government level for several policy decisions. According to the managers, the ministry was insensitive to their needs and kept several critical matters unresolved. Thirdly, the managerial promotions within the organisation were based on seniority and minority considerations and there were no incentives for performance and excellence. Finally, the union was highly militant and even minor changes in organisational systems were not possible.

Rosabeth Kanter has examined the issues of power and powerlessness at middle management level and has shown that certain organisational design factors influence the amount of power. These factors are listed in Exhibit 2.

Exhibit 2 : Ways in Which Design Factors Contribute to Power

Design factor	Generates Power When Factor is	Generates Power Lessness When Factor is
Task Activities :		
Rules, precedents, and established routines in the job	few	many
Task variety/flexibility	high	low
Rewards for unusual performance/innovation	many	few
Approvals needed for non routine decisions	few	many
Relation of tasks to current problem areas	central	peripheral
Network Interactions :		
Physical location	central	distant
Publicity about job activities/contact with senior officials	high	low
Participation in programme, conferences meetings	high	low
Participation in problem solving task forces	high	low

As shown in Exhibit 2, power is the result of both task activities and network interactions. Middle managers feel powerful.

- when they are involved with some non routine work,
- when their jobs pertain to pressing organisational problems, and their contributions are seen as relevant to the organisational requirements,
- when their jobs involve contact with high level people and bring visibility and recognition to employees,
- when there are opportunities for developing peer networks both inside and outside the organisation,
- when there are opportunities to get out of narrow functional specialization and develop broad general management orientation, and,
- when the members are encouraged to attend professional meetings, programmes, conferences etc. thereby increasing their visibility and stature.

Power Sources for Lower Level Participants

Though it is generally true that positions at the bottom of the organization have less power than positions at higher levels, it is not uncommon to find some people at lower levels having power disproportionate to their positions. These individuals obtain power from several sources as indicated in Exhibit 3.

Exhibit 3—Power Sources at Lower Levels

Personal Sources	**Position Sources**
Expertise	Physical Location
Effort	Information Flow
Persuasion	Access
Manipulation	

As presented in Exhibit 3, lower level participants are able to influence decisions when they become knowledgeable about certain activities. In other words, their power arises from their expertise, understanding, and logic rather than their authority or position. Accumulation of power is also associated with the amount of effort and interest displayed by these organisational members. Every organisation has influential individuals at lower levels whose power can be traced to their initiative and persistence. As noted earlier, power also flows from persuasion which is a direct method of influencing higher management, and manipulation where the true objectives for using influence is concealed.

When the employees have central physical locations, such as being the secretary to the top executives, they become part of interaction networks and visible to key people. Exposure to powerful people and the development of relationship with them provide important bases of power. One can recall examples of several individuals in our political circles, who have built their power base through the use of access to powerful individuals.

Power opportunities and low power patterns at the top, middle and bottom

As indicated in Exhibit 4, there is potential for contributing to the organization through the use of positive power, whether an individual is at the top, middle or bottom of an organization.

Exhibit 4 — Power Opportunities and Low Power patterns at Different Levels

Position	Power Opportunities	Low Power Patterns
Top	Focusing and channeling the energy of the organizational system	Understructuring or overstructuring
Bottom	Enriching the system's visions and structures and shaping, modifying changing its visions and structures	Being stuck on either participation oror rebellion
Middle	Influencing the Top/Bottom communication and interaction patterns	Being stuck-up, being stuck-down or being stuck-in-the middle.

As top managers, individuals are effective when they can focus the energies of the organisational members and create structures which are enabling of others. This power is dissipated when the top managers make organisation over-structured by resisting changes even when the existing visions and structures do not capture the energies of the organisational members, or rigidly adhering to the rules and procedures when such adherence is not in the system's best interest. Under-structuring involves dissipation of the energy of the organisation by allowing the system to exist in a diffused and unfocused condition and thereby allowing a sense of drift to set in.

At lower levels, employees enrich the organisation's vision and structures by contributing as well as confronting the system. The members dissipate their power when they either passively go along with everything or rebel against everything.

The power of the middle levels lies in influencing the communication and interaction patterns between the top and the bottom and by being responsive to both groups, while at the same time being independent from them. It is only through responsiveness and independence that the group can maintain its own perspective on what the organisation is and what it needs. This power is dissipated when the group is either consistently aligned with the top or with the bottom, and thus confuse their views with its own. Sometimes the group is also stuck in the middle when it becomes a passive and reactive interaction channel. In such a case the group loses its ability to stand back and make its own assessment of what the organisation needs and take appropriate steps.

Compliance, Identification and internalization

Kelman presents an overall contingency model of power, Exhibit 5 shows such a model.

Exhibit 5 — A Contingency Model of Power

Power : Ability of A to cause B to change course of action

Sources of Power	Process of Power	Requirement in terms of A's behaviour	B's likely behaviour
Reward coercion	Compliance	Must have surveillance over B	Wants to gain favourable reaction and avoid a punishing one from A
Charisma Attractiveness	Identification	Must have salience and be in the forefront of B's awareness	Finds a self-satisfying relationship with A Wants to maintain this relationship
Expertise legitimacy credibility	Internalization	Must have relevance to B's needs	Goes along with A because of consistency with internal values.

According to the model, power evokes compliance, identification or internalization depending on the source. For **compliance** to work, the manager must be able to reward and punish, and keep an eye on their subordinates. On the other hand, people will **identify** not in order to obtain a favourable reaction from the manager, as in compliance, but because it is self-satisfying to do so. This happens when employees identify with the manager. But if the manager is not in the forefront of the employees awareness, he/she may be forgotten. Finally, people will **internalize** because of compatibility with their value structure. Internalization evokes commitment which represents a strong motivation on the part of an individual to adopt the intent of the directive. This process of power is the most effective. Management practitioners and researchers have found that internalized power has lasting impact.

Horizontal Power

Horizontal power pertains to relationships across departments. It is difficult to measure because power differences are not defined on the organisational chart. Consider the following case example.

Hindustan Insurance Corporation

Prior to the establishment of the technical department, the fire department was solely in charge of issuing policies and deciding premium rates at Hindustan Insurance Corporation (HIC). The technical department was established when the insurance business became very competitive. In light of the advancements in technology, industrial safety had also become a technical job.

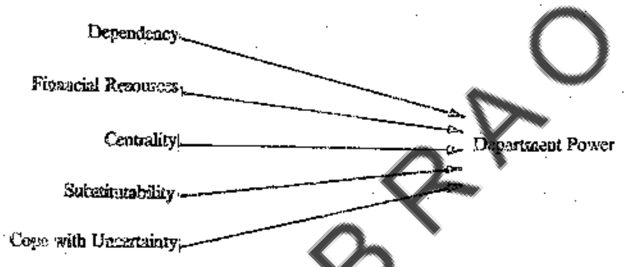
Officials at the technical department were soon at the centre of the organisational processes. Other sections depended on them for information, technical advice and clarifications. This section had the skills required for solving the difficult technical problems facing the company. The clients interacted only with the members of the technical department, who were able to give them appropriate advice on technical matters and thereby reduce their premium rates.

However in order to provide best and efficient service to the clients, the cooperation between the fire and technical departments was necessary. In course of time, the fire department stopped consulting the technical department and started issuing policies and charging premium rates based on their own calculations. Soon complaints started pouring in from clients that the company was charging different rates of premium for similar risks.

It is obvious from the HIC case that the departments involved with more critical issues and activities both inside and outside the organization tend to acquire greater power. The departmental activities become important when they remove problems that have strategic value for the organisation. The technical department became more powerful because it could address the complexities of the emerging business.

Pfeffer and Salancik define strategic contingencies as those events and activities that are essential for attaining organisational goals. Their findings indicate that the power of the department arises from the characteristics listed in Exhibit 6.

Exhibit 6 – Strategic Contingencies that Contribute to Departmental Power



Dependence : The power of a given department is related to the dependence of other departments for materials, information, and resources on this department. The number and strength of dependence are also important. When a large number of departments must come to a given department for help or service requirements, it acquires a strong power position. Likewise a department that has high dependence is in a low power position.

In HIC, the technical department acquired greater power because the officials of this department had control over a strategic contingency. They had the expertise to solve the pressing technical problems of the day.

Financial Resources : Departments which ensure the inflow of money or those which supervise the budget allocation or the release of funds have greater power because these departments control a critical resource that the other departments want.

Centrality : Centrality reflects the department's role in the primary activity of the organization. It is associated with power because it reflects the contribution made to the organisation.

Substitutability : Substitutability decreases power. If an organisation has alternative sources of skill and information, the department's power will be less. For example availability of consultants as substitutes for staff experts reduces the power of staff groups.

Coping with uncertainty : Departments which help the organisation cope with uncertainty associated with changes in the environment will increase their power. For example a government liaison department which can ensure that the organisation's proposals are rapidly cleared through the corridors of the government bureaucracy gains in power and prestige because it has reduced a critical uncertainty.

16.6 POLITICAL PROCESSES IN ORGANISATIONS

While power is the available force or potential for achieving desired outcomes, politics refers to the actual behaviour used to influence decisions in order to achieve those outcomes. There are two ways in which politics is viewed. In the first view, politics is seen as self-serving behaviour involving activities that are not sanctioned by the organisation. In this definition, politics involves deception and dishonesty for purposes of individual self interest. This perspective of politics is widely held, have a negative view of politics, and believe that politics will more often hurt than help the organisation achieve its goals.

The second view sees politics as a natural organisational process for resolving differences among organisational interest groups. It involves bargaining, negotiation, coalition-building to overcome conflicts and differences of opinions. For certain issues, a political rather than a rational decision process is needed to muster support for organisational actions as illustrated by the following case example.

A Government Development Agency

- A new administrator of a government agency wished to initiate some new developmental programmes to reflect the priorities of the organisation. He knew that the proposed programmes would encounter passive resistance from the organisational members. He took the following steps to ensure the successful implementation of the programmes.
- He convinced his superiors about the importance of the programmes. Initially they did not favour the idea of 'rocking the boat'. But the administrator's persistence paid dividends in terms of achieving their whole-hearted support for the new thrust areas.
- He involved his senior colleagues actively in planning and monitoring the programmes. Through their involvement, he was able to obtain their cooperation and contribution.
- He held a series of meetings at different levels in the organisation to explain the purpose of the new programmes. Training workshops were organised to discuss the key factors for success and how these could be strengthened.
- He talked on an informal basis with a number of key employees thereby building a coalition in favour of the programmes. At the same time he used his formal authority to isolate the individuals who were blocking the change. The preparation for the introduction of new programmes took almost one year, but when they were introduced the implementation was smooth and effective.

We can, therefore, define organisational politics as involving those activities to acquire, develop, and use power and other resources to obtain one's preferred outcome when there is uncertainty or disagreement about choices. In other words, politics is the use of power to get things accomplished, good as well as bad. Uncertainty and conflict are natural and inevitable, and politics is the mechanism for reaching agreement.

A number of management researchers like Robert Miles, Dubrin, and Jay have examined the political strategies used by managers in organisation. A strategy may be appropriate in one situation but not in another. Exhibit 7 presents some of the common political strategies used by managers. The list is self-explanatory.

Exhibit 7

Political Strategies Used to Acquire and Keep Power in Organisations

- **Maintain alliances with powerful people**
- **Attract positive attention from the right people by looking good on important tasks/projects**
- **Do other people favours with implicit message that they owe something in return**
- **Create a sponsor protege relationship**
- **Commit the uncommitted**
- **Develop winning coalitions**
- **Employ trade-off**
- **Control the generation and dissemination of information**

- Divide and rule
- Take counsel with caution
- Exhibit confidence
- Develop expertise
- Build personal stature
- Develop and use data to support your point of view
- Withdraw from petty disputes
- Make your activities central and non-substitutable
- Wait for a crisis to push the change ideas
- Do not ruffle feathers. Avoid decisive engagements
- Gain cooperation and trust of others
- Progress one step at a time instead of trying to push a whole major change

16.7 RATIONAL VERSUS POLITICAL MODELS OF ORGANISATIONS

The rational model of organisation assumes that organisations have specific goals, and that problems can be logically solved. The other view is based upon a power and political model of organisation. The goals of an organisation are not specific or agreed upon. The different sub-units of an organisation have different values, priorities and interests, and conflicts are inevitable. Decisions are made on the basis of power and political influence. Bargaining, negotiation, persuasion, and coalition-building decide outcomes.

As Exhibit 8 illustrates neither the rational model nor the political model characterizes an organisation fully, but each will be observed some of the time. The rational model applies best to organisations in stable environments with well-understood technologies. But under conditions of uncertainty, disagreement, and poor information, the political model is an important mechanism for reaching decision. Understanding sources of power and how to use politics constructively to achieve outcomes for the organisation is a requirement for effective management.

Exhibit 8

Rational Versus Political Models of Organisation

Organizational Characteristic	Rational Model	Political Model
Goals, Preferences	Consistent across participants	Inconsistent, pluralistic, within the organisation
Power and Control	Centralized	Decentralized, shifting coalitions and interest groups
Decision Process	Orderly, logical, rational	Disorderly, characterized by push and pull of interests
Rules and Norms	Norms of optimization	Free play of market forces, conflict is legitimate and expected
Information	Extensive, systematic, accurate	Ambiguous, information used and withheld strategically
Beliefs about couse-effect relationships	Known, at least to a probability estimate	Disagreements about causes and effects

Decision	Based on outcome maximizing choice	Results of bargaining and interplay among interests
Ideology	Efficiency and	Struggle, conflict winners and losers

16.8 SUMMARY

To sum up, power provides the basis for the direction of organisations and for the attainment of social goals. It is important for managerial performance and organisational effectiveness. It is commonly assumed in organisations that if there has to be an increase in power at one level, it implies its diminution at other levels. This assumption is clearly inaccurate. In fact, one of the main functions of experimenting with distribution of power is to enlarge the available volume of power—the volume of power that is available not only to certain levels but to all the organizational members.

Organisational power can grow in part by being shared. Sharing power is obviously different from giving or throwing it away. The concerned managers have to create control systems to ensure that institutional goals are achieved. It should also be noted that a leader does not decrease his personal power by empowering others; instead he increases it, especially if the whole organisation performs better. The total amount of power is, therefore, related to the total system effectivenes. So when more people feel powerful, more is accomplished.

The work gets done in organisations when employees feel powerful to act, contribute and deal with issues on their merits or lack of merits Employees realise their own and organisational potential when they feel free to stretch their contributions to their joint capacities. It is vitally important that employees experience a sense of power, so as to release the vast human potential that otherwise remains dormant and unutilised in organisations.

16.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) Explain the contrast and similarities of Power vs Authority.
2) Describe different faces of power and explain why managers need power.
3) What are the sources of power? Describe them with examples.
4) Explain political processes in organisations.

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UNIT 17 INTEGRATION AND CONTROL

Objectives

From this unit, one has to understand:

- Meaning of Integration
- Meaning of Control and
- Their necessity in an organisation.

Structure

17.1 INTRODUCTION

Conflict and Integration as social phenomena have been with us since the beginning of time. The inherent presence of conflict at all levels of human interaction has generated intense interest in and wide-ranging research into its nature, contexts and management. At a microscopic level, intra-psychic conflict, human endeavour and the realisation of personal potential are challenged by the forces of conflict. At a macroscopic level, international conflict, the very survival of life on earth is subject to the negotiating skills of world leaders. Conflict and Integration are significant topics for study.

Most of us experience ambivalence towards conflict. We have shared exhilarating moments with others when we have confronted a conflict, worked arduously toward its resolution, and emerged from our task having learned, grown, and shared a piece of our humanity. We have also experienced conflict as an immobilizing, demotivating, and alienating force which has driven us away from the contexts in which the conflict occurred. It is, therefore, not surprising that conflict as a topic for research has been broadly investigated by diverse disciplines, and integration as an approach to conflict management runs through the conflict literature as a major theme.

17.2 UNDERSTANDING CONFLICT

Many authors writing about conflict define the phenomenon according to their particular perspectives. The definition given by Deutsch captures the breadth of the concept :

"A conflict exists whenever incompatible activities occur. The incompatible actions may originate in one person, in one group, in one nation... or they may reflect incompatible actions of two or more persons, groups, or nations.... A conflict may arise from differences in information or belief... It may occur as a result of scarcity of some resources such as money, time, space, position... or it may reflect rivalry in which one person tries to outdo or undo the other."

Katz and Kahn define conflict more simply : "Two systems (persons, groups, organisations, nations) are in conflict when they interact directly in such a way that the actions of one tend to prevent or compel some outcome against the resistance of the other.... Conflict requires direct resistance as well as a direct attempt at influence or injury."

Finally, Follett's definition most simply captures conflict as "The appearance of difference, difference of opinions, of interests." Follett's definition assumes the presence of friction between the opposing parties, which lends energy and investment to the interaction; once differences are experienced as friction-producing, they are transformed into an experience of conflict. Follett looks at integration as an orientation toward conflict management, an attitude toward the potential for cooperation inherent in conflict situations.

Conflict as a manifest or potential phenomenon is present everywhere. Conflict in its most simple definition—the appearance of differences—is a reflection of the presence of diversity in human interaction. To Follett, "the fear of difference is dread of life itself". Conflict is an inherent part of the richness of life.

The pervasiveness of conflict in human life is well described by Katz and Kahn : "The fact of conflict—of being somehow involved with opposing forces—must surely be among the most common of human experiences. We recognize conflict in the opposition of wishes within ourselves, in the clashes between others whom we observe, and in the struggles against those we ourselves oppose. And, according to our temperament and experience, we seek it or avoid it, fear it or enjoy it, call it sickness or call it life."

Conflict is ubiquitous in organisations. Perrow asks and then answers the question, why is there so much conflict in organisations? "One answer is obvious enough : there is a never-ending struggle for values that are dear to participants—security, power, survival, discretion, and autonomy—and a host of rewards. Because organisations do not consist of people sharing the same goals, since the members bring with them all sorts of needs and interests, and because control is far from complete, people will struggle for these kind of values."

That conflict exists and persists is not open to question. More debatable is the issue of conflict as a constructive or destructive force.

17.3 POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE ASPECTS OF CONFLICT

It has been said that without conflict, there is no learning. Conflict prevents stagnation and stimulates interest and curiosity; conflict is the medium through which problems can be aired and solutions arrived at. It is the root of personal and social change. Features of productive conflict resolution are likely to be similar, at the individual level, to the processes involved in creative thinking; at the social level, they are likely to be similar to the processes involved in co-operative group problem-solving. The absence of conflict in groups can lead to "group-think", a form of social conformity which may have serious social consequences.

That conflict is socially useful is supported by the majority of conflict theorists. Coser has found that the closer the group, the more intense the conflict. Groups or relationships that originate in caring give rise to a host of socially functional forces, and conflict is often an essential medium in forming those forces. Conflict mobilizes energies, develops identity, clarifies options, can secure social commitments, and contributes to innovativeness.

But, it is also both popularly recognized and acknowledged in literature that conflict is not always constructive; indeed, there is evidence that levels of conflict regularly exceed the desirable. According to Katz and Kahn, "For any system certain kinds and levels of conflict will be optimal for certain criteria... Our opinion is that most organisations show levels of conflict considerably above the optimum." We easily move from constructive problem solving to a desire to beat an opponent; we are much more oriented to waging conflict than to discovering and inventing constructive solutions to conflict.

The destructive potential of conflict is widely recognized. Too much conflict can lead to strong negative feelings, blindness to interdependencies, or uncontrolled escalation or aggressive action and counteraction. In organisations, it can demotivate, lead to suboptimum effectiveness, create costly manpower turnover, and viciate the climate. Equilibrium at all levels of social structures, from friendship to international cooperation, is threatened when conflict is out of control or ineffectively handled.

Conflict per se is neither good nor bad; its consequences, however, may have constructive or destructive effects on society. Our task, according to Follett, is to "set it to work for us".

17.4 THE INTEGRATION MODEL

Follett delineates three primary methods for dealing with conflict. The first of these is **domination**, which provides for the victory of one side over the other. It is the easiest in the short run (requires little time or energy expenditure), but is usually not successful in the long run. The issues leading to the original conflict will usually resurface later under the domination mode.

The second method is **compromise**, which is a common way to settle controversy. In compromise, each side gives something up for the sake of peace or "solution"; since some degree of sacrifice is involved, unsatisfied needs and wants are likely to resurface again later, as with domination.

The third way of resolving conflict is **integration**. Follett used the term integration as a very broad construct, as an orienting principle to a wide range of human social experiences. The use of integration in conflict is simply one arena in which the idea can be properly applied.

Integration is a dialectical process. Both parties speak to their needs, desires, and visions. As clarity emerges around the issues of both sides, creative inventiveness is used to seek an original, higher-order synthesis. The integration process supports and encourages diversity; indeed, Follett asserts the need for both sides to be highly "self-interested", for without this characteristic there will be insufficient data put forward to enable both parties to find a creative solution.

Integration avoids a "two alternative" polar mentality (e.g. a win-lose attitude). According to Follett, "there are always more than two alternatives in a situation, and our job is to analyze the situation carefully enough for as many as possible to appear." Diversity is united, the integrity of both parties is protected, and creative problem solving is advanced; these benefits accrue to the parties in conflict as well as, in a ripple effect, to society in general. An integrative experience is always a progressive experience, i.e. it moves us forward.

Follett's values foster a union of what is good for society and good for the individual. She respects the present as well as the future. She writes, "Integration means three things : you and I both get what we want, the whole situation moves forward, and the process often has community value. I do not therefore think that my participation in any social process should be one of self-sacrifice, but one of self-contribution."

Follett does not suggest that integration as a method for conflict resolution is always possible. According to her, "Not all differences can be integrated. That we must face fully, but it is certain that there are fewer irreconciliable activities that we at present think, although it often takes ingenuity, a creative intelligence, to find integration."

But, she notes that many people find it easier to fight than to work constructively toward conflict solutions. "Now many people do not like the effort of using their intelligence; they fight because it is easier. The thinking out of a solution by which the interests of both sides shall be satisfied means sometimes long and arduous labour. That is often the reason of conflict, that it is the line of least resistance to fight."

Integrative thinking is, in essence, a dialectical process. Redfield, quoted in Diesing, states, "I think we may well conceive of the process by which understanding of human wholes is advanced as a kind of dialectic of viewpoint, a dialogue of characterizations. "This", but on the other hand "that", is the orderly swing of the mind toward truth."

The use of dialectical analysis in conflict situations is described by Lourenco and Glidewell; "The dialectic is concerned with opposition, contrast, and contradiction. It has had a diversity of usage from Plato, through the Middle Ages to Fichte and is more commonly known as employed by Hegel and Marx. In the social sciences, the dialectical tradition... views conflict—within an individual, between individuals, or between societies and nations—as inevitable. The dialectic is seen as a sequence; the parties to such conflict relate as thesis and antithesis and resolve into the form of synthesis, which not only subsumes aspects of both thesis and antithesis but creates new patterns or structures.... synthesis, therefore, refers to the ordering of parts to form a new whole".

Consistent with Follett's ideas, then "the notion of synthesis thus entails a creativity which is contingent upon some perceptual, conceptual, or empirical reorganisation by both sides." In spirit and in method, dialectical synthesis is analogous to integration.

17.5 STEPS TO INTEGRATION

According to Follett, "the problem before us is one of discovering a technique for unifying". She identifies six obstacles to integration :

1) Integration requires a high order of intelligence, keen perception, and discrimination, and most of all a brilliant inventiveness. Often, it is easier to fight. Many people prefer to criticize others rather than work to come up with a creative solution.

2) Our way of life has habituated many of us to enjoy domination. Integration is too tame—there are "no thrills". The need for "thrills" may mark a "win-lose" mentality. Sometimes, even defeat is more interesting than integration.

3) Intellectual agreement—"theorizing" over an issue—does not alone bring full integration, although we often view this process as effective for resolving conflict; it doesn't take us far enough.

4) The language we use with others may arouse antagonisms and hence escalate conflict.

5) The whole emotional field of human intercourse must be taken into account, particularly the undue influence of leaders. We are manipulated by the unscrupulous and the suggestibility of the crowd. The field may interfere with creative conflict resolution.

6) We are not trained for integration. We are socialized by such experiences as debate clubs; we have not learned the art of cooperative thinking. People often come to the bargaining table with preconceived ideas of what they want—self interest, dogmatism, prejudice, rigidity. We need to respect others' views and our own. "Mushy" people are no better than stubborn people.

Follett suggests several bases of integration. They are grounded in a process based on a "win-win" orientation.

1) The first step in integration is to bring all differences into the open. We cannot hope to integrate our differences, unless we know what they are. The opposite of this is evasion or suppression. Whenever you have a "fight-set" you are in danger of obscurities, consciously or unconsciously. Both sides must desire agreement.

2) Evaluation of the above often leads to revaluation. We may not estimate now much something means to us until it comes into conflict with another's desire. Many conflicts could be prevented from ending disastrously by getting the desires of each side into one field of vision where they could be viewed together and compared.

3) Find the significant rather than the dramatic features of a controversy. The most obvious views in a situation are not always those which are most indicative of the real issues involved. Break up demands into their constituent parts, break up **wholes.** Examine symbols.

Follett's views are echoed in the work of subsequent theorists who, from their own perspectives, often discover her wisdom in disparate disciplinary pursuits. As a specific case, we shall now examine how companies achieve a high degree of integration between R&D and Marketing. It is based on a study of 167 high-technology companies by Gupta, Raj and Wilemon.

17.6 THE CASE OF ACHIEVING INTEGRATION BETWEEN R&D AND MARKETING

Building an integrated R&D—Marketing effort is a difficult and demanding task. Numerous problems arise in the process of mixing creativity with the reality of the market. For instance, there is R&D's notion that no one from the outside should direct their efforts, that "managing innovation" often means stifling creativity, and that R&D cannot be programmed. On the other hand, Marketing may feel that R&D should be able to "create on demand". Moreover, a Marketing group often believes that only they can understand the "real needs" of the market.

In light of such attitudes, what can management do to achieve a high degree of integration between R&D and Marketing? It was found that four factors separated the high-integration companies from the low-integration ones :

- The quality of R&D-Marketing relations
- Organisational Structure
- Senior management attitudes
- Methods used to organise new product activity

A) **R&D-Marketing Relations :** The quality of the relationship existing between the R&D and Marketing groups had the greatest impact on the degree of integration achieved by a company.

Give-and-Take Relationship : It was found that in high-integration companies there was a high level of give-and-take between the R&D and Marketing groups. Various trade offs such as cost, design and product features, for example, were weighed in an effort to ascertain if there was a common understanding of important issues.

As one Marketing Manager stated :

> "We try to understand the pulse of the technical people in meetings. At the sametime, we have to make certain that they understand our needs and concerns. We except honest, frank discussions with the R&D people and they know that's how we operate.

This give-and-take attitude helps build trust and solve problems. As a result, the high-integration companies, both groups felt free to disagree and discuss opposing viewpoints. In low-integration companies, R&D perceived Marketing's input as lacking credibility. It was also found that in high-integration companies, more marketing managers had a technical background, they were more eager to substantiate their claims with hard data, and a larger number of R&D Managers had exposure to business courses.

Early Involvement : In high-integration companies, a conscious effort was made to involve both R&D and Marketing from the earliest stages of the new product development process. A Marketing Manager stated that, "R&D is brought in during the earliest stages of the product conception. We start off with a 'Position paper' of where we are and where we want to go. This helps us communicate with R&D about proposed new product opportunities."

Conflict Resolution : In high-integration companies, R&D-Marketing conflicts were resolved sooner and at lower organizational levels. The senior management of high-integration firms were seldom involved in these conflicts.

B) **Organisational Structure :** The research indicates that the organizational design of high-integration firms differed from the low-integration companies in the following four respects.

Clarity of Roles : In high-integration companies, the responsibilities of the Managers were clearly articulated via policies, new product development procedures, and job descriptions, without making them too structured. As one R&D Manager noted, "clear policies and procedures help us know what is expected. They remove much of the ambiguity and stress". Thus, the high-integration firms "formalize" the need for R&D-Marketing integration in their new product planning and development process.

Decentralized Decision-Making : High-integration companies were characterized by a high degree of decentralization, where Managers were delegated authority to make important decisions. On the other hand, a R&D Manager from a low-integration company said, "we are so tightly controlled that we have to get approval from our bosses to do anything. The Marketing people face the same constraints. So, when we need to make a design change we have to get the approval of our bosses and sometimes even the Corporate Product Review Committee. Sometimes the bosses will make changes we don't want or even worse they will sit on it for weeks while we are grinding our teeth for some action."

Increased Participation : It was found that high-integration firms encouraged participation at all levels within R&D and Marketing regarding new product development. The increased involvement, along with the power to make decisions, helped create a climate that resulted in high creativity.

Physical Proximity : "Out of sight, out of mind". This phrase characterized the low integration companies, where R&D people were usually far apart from their Marketing counterparts. Proximity facilitates communication, creates understanding and trust, and can reduce product development time. As one marketing manager remarked: "It's a lot easier working with R & D when their key people are readily accessible."

C) **Support from Senior Management :** The research findings indicate that senior management plays a crucial role in creating a climate and culture conducive to a collaborative R&D-Marketing effort.

Promoting Integration : In the high-integration companies, senior management was found to value and support cooperation between R&D and marketing. These values were an essential part of their corporate cultures. They also emphasized the need for collaboration in their public statements, and more importantly through their actions.

Tolerance of Failure : The Senior Management in the high-integration companies provided enough incentives for R&D and Marketing to work on new ideas, despite the uncertainty of their outcomes. Initial failures in the attempt to develop new products were not perceived as reflecting the ultimate competence of those involved.

Joint Reward System : Both R&D and Marketing Managers in high-integration firms felt that they shared equally in the rewards from successfully commercializing a new product. They were jointly held responsible and were jointly rewarded or blamed for the success or failure of a new product. On the other hand, R&D Managers in low-integration companies complained that they received little credit for commercial success of a new product. There was a general feeling that "collaboration does not get us anything."

Opportunities to communicate : It was also found that the senior management in high-integration companies provided greater opportunities for their R&D and marketing managers to communicate and understand one another's needs. These opportunities included informal interaction sessions, workshops, educational programmes, and rotating job assignments.

D) **Organising New Product Activity :** High-integration companies organized their new product activity differently than low-integration companies. The most widely used methods among the high-integration companies were : temporary task forces; product, project or matrix managers; separate new product development departments; and venture teams. These methods achieved a high level of integration due to their reliance on and integration of multidisciplinary experts. When a top manager orchestrated the new product development process, or when a R&D Manager or a Marketing Manager dominated the new product development effort, the approach was less likely to result in high integration between Marketing and R&D.

Thus, the companies are able to achieve a high degree of R&D-Marketing integration when they make a deliberate effort to create and manage effective R&D-Marketing relations. They treat integration as an organisational challenge.

17.7 ORGANISATIONAL CONTROL

Now we turn to the topic of organisational control. Control is a major responsibility of management, and a large portion of organisational information processing pertains to control. Organisational control is a cycle that includes the three stages of target setting, measuring and monitoring, and feedback. Target setting involves planning and goal-setting for desired performance levels. Measuring and monitoring information indicates whether work activities are on target. Feedback information is designed to make corrections in either targets or work activities to bring them into alignment.

Management control differs by hierarchical level. The overall control process involves both downward and upward communication. Downward communication is designed to influence work activities, inform people about the targets and plans that were established by upper management, and provide feedback to correct or reward performance. Upward communication in the form of reports, printouts, and other data are designed to help management at each level measure and monitor the performance for their responsibility centre.

17.8 MAJOR CONTROL STRATEGIES

Managers at the top and middle levels of the organisation can choose among three strategies for control. A framework for organisational control was proposed by William Ouchi. Ouchi identified three control strategies that organisations could adopt : market control, bureaucratic control, and clan control. Each form of control uses different types of information. All three types may appear in an organization. The requirements for each control strategy are given below.

Three Organisational Control Strategies

Type	Requirements
Market	Prices, competition, exchange relationship
Bureaucracy	Rules, Standards, hierarchy, legitimate authority
Clan	Tradition, Shared values and beliefs, trust

Market Control : Market control occurs when price competition is used to evaluate the output and productivity of an organisation. The idea of market control originated in economics. It is an efficient form of control because managers can compare prices and profits to evaluate the efficiency of their corporation. Price mechanism is used often by top managers to evaluate performance.

Sales and costs are summarized in a profit-and-loss statement that can be compared to performance in previous years or to that of other corporations.

Let us consider the case of ABC Corporation. The company has six self-contained business divisions, each of which is a profit centre. Each division manages its own inputs needed to produce its product. The top managers at the corporate office have decentralized the operations and need only a few key profit figures to evaluate the performance of each division. The business divisions are evaluated on the basis of profit or loss compared to other divisions.

The use of market control requires that outputs be sufficiently explicit that a price can be assigned, and that competition exists. Without competition, the price will not be an accurate reflection of internal efficiency. Even traditionally not-for-profit organisations such as hospitals are turning to market control to enhance efficiency.

Market control is not appropriate for many organisations. It can be used only when the output of the organisation can be priced and when there is competition. Market control is also not appropriate for the control of functional departments within an organisation.

For example, an organisation experimented with profit centre concept for Computer Services Department (CSD). The different user departments were charged at a certain rate for utlization of computer services. Over a period of time, the CSD steadily increased the price of its services and used the resources to buy highly sophisticated machines, which were hardly used in the organisation. When a review was made following bitter complaints by the user departments, it was found that users were being charged a price nearly three times the actual cost to the computer centre. The users had to get computer services only from the CSD, and the prices did not reflect the true value of computer services. Finally, the CSD was again made a part of the overall management services and the overhead payment covered computer costs. Thus, market control fails when the organisation has no means of putting an accurate price on certain services, or of comparing prices to competitive services in the market place.

Bureaucratic Control : Bureaucratic control is the use of rules, policies, hierarchy of authority, written documentation, standardization, and other bureaucratic mechanism to standardize behaviour and assess performance. Within a large organisation, thousands of transactions take place both vertically and horizontally. Rules and policies evolve through a process of trial and error to regulate this behaviour. Bureaucratic control mechanisms are used when behaviour and exchanges are too complex or ill-defined to be controlled with a price mechanism. An example of bureaucratic control occurred when ABC Corporation, in the example above, decided to make the computer centre a part of administration. The provision of services to other departments was controlled by rules and policies rather than by price.

Bureaucratic control is used to some extent in almost every organisation. Rules, regulations, and directives contain information about a range of behaviours. Bureaucratic mechanisms are especially valuable in not-for-profit organisations because prices and competitive markets often do not exist.

Management control systems are part of the written records and procedures that supplement overall bureaucratic control. These are the formal planning, data gathering, and transmission systems that provide management with information about departmental performance. For example, the operating budget, periodic statistical reports, performance appraisal system, and standard operating procedures enable middle and upper management to both monitor and influence major departments.

Clan Control : Clan control is the use of social characteristics such as values, commitment, traditions, and shared beliefs to control behaviour. Organisations that use clan control require trust among employees. Clan control is important when ambiguity and uncertainty are high. High uncertainty means the organisation cannot put a price on its services, and rules and regulations are not able to specify appropriate behaviour. People may be selected because they are committed to the organisation's purpose, such as in a voluntary organisation. New employees may be subjected to a long period of induction and socialization to gain acceptance by colleagues. The clan mechanism is used most often in small, informal organisations because personal involvement in the purpose and activities of the organisation is possible. Clan control is also used within departments where performance is difficult to measure in a systematic way.

Some of our family-owned organisations are examples of clan control. These organisations recruit family members in the upper echelons of the organisation. Family members trust each other, and share common beliefs and traditions. With clan control, these organisations do not need as many bureaucratic controls to regulate the behaviour of its executives.

One important use of clan control is in departments that experience high uncertainty, such as research and development. The important thing for managers is not to assume that the absence of written, bureaucratic controls means that no control is present. Clan control is invisible yet very powerful. When clan control works, bureaucratic control is not needed.

17.9 CONTINGENCY CONTROL MODEL

A question for organisation designers is when to use each control strategy. Each type of control often appears in the same organisation, but one form of control will usually dominate at a given management level.

Bureaucratic control mechanisms are by far the most widely used control strategy. Some form of bureaucratic control combined with internal management control systems are almost always necessary. Bureaucratic control is used extensively when organisations are large, and when the environment and technology are certain, stable, and routine. Bureaucratic control is also associated with functional structure. Management control systems complement the bureaucratic strategy by controlling resource inputs to departments and evaluating outputs with statistical reports.

Clan control is used in the opposite circumstances. When organisations are small, and when the environment and technology are uncertain, unstable and non-routine, then trust, tradition, and shared values are important. Clan control is best when horizontal information and control processes are needed as they are with a matrix organisation structure. Rules and budgets will be used, of course, but trust, values, and commitments will be the primary reasons for employee compliance.

Market Control is used when costs and outputs can be priced, and when a market is available for price competition. The technology must produce outputs that can be defined and priced, and competition must exist in the environment. Market control can be used in organisations of any size so long as costs can be identified and outputs are competitively priced.

The balance among control strategies may differ from organisation to organisation. The use of each strategy reflects the structure, technology, and environment as well as the ability to price output.

17.10 SUPERVISORY CONTROL STRATEGIES

The control strategies described so far apply to the top and middle levels of the organisation where the concern is for the entire organisation or major departments. Control is also an issue at the lower, operational level in organisations where Supervisors must directly control subordinates, which is called supervisory control. Supervisory control focuses on the performance of individual employees. The two types of supervisory strategies available to managers are output control and behaviour control.

Output control is based upon written records that measure employee outputs and productivity. Output control is used when the outputs of individual workers can be easily measured.

17.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) Explain what is conflict and positive and negative aspects of conflict.
2) What is Integration? Describe and Explain what are the steps to Integration?
3) Explain how Integration was achieved between R & D and Marketing.
4) What is Organisational control? What are the major control strategies? Describe.
5) Explain contingency control Model.

Behaviour control is based upon personal observation of employee behaviour and procedures. Behaviour control usually takes more time than output control because it requires personal surveillance. Managers observe employees at work. Behaviour control is used when outputs are not easily measured. The form of supervisory control depends on whether employee output or behaviour is measurable. Many organisations incorporate a balance of output and behaviour control to provide broader evaluation for employees.

A control system and the way that it is used constitutes a potentially powerful tool for influencing the behaviour of individuals in organisations. Just as the manager needs to make a careful and informed choice among control strategies, the organisation needs to be conscious of the alternative approaches to designing and using control systems. Becoming aware of the potential effects of control systems and of the importance of the process of control is central to making an organisation and its people more productive and effective.

17.12 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 18 ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Objectives

After completing the unit you should be able to :

- Appreciate the importance of organisational climate in motivating employees
- Diagnose organisational climates and
- Generate ideas of developing relevant climates.

Structure

18.1 WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE?

Most organisations have a structure (division of work into units and establishment of linkages among units) and systems (specific ways of managing the major functions of the organisation, such as finance, production, marketing personnel, information, and the relationship with the external environment). Most also have norms (accepted patterns of behaviour), values, and traditions; and these three elements constitute the organisational culture. The main actors in the organisation are its top leaders; they and the other employees have their own individual needs in addition to those of the organisation. All of these organisational components—structure, systems, culture, leader behaviour, and psychological needs of employees, interact with one another and create what can be called organisational climate.

Organisational climate can only be discussed in terms of how it is perceived or felt by organisational members. Consequently, a climate may be perceived as hostile or supportive, as conducive to achievement or stifling, and so on. Hellriegel and Slocum (1974, p. 225) defined organisational climate as "a set of attributes which can be perceived about a particular organisation and/or its subsystems, and that may be induced from the way that organisation and/or its subsystems deal with their members and environment."

While most authors have used organisational climate as a descriptive concept, some have used it for classifying organisations into categories. For example, Burns and Stalker (1961) describe organic versus mechanical climates, whereas Likert (1967) proposes four types of climates: exploitive, benevolent, consultative, and participative. Such frameworks generally use described categories. Only one framework, proposed by Litwin and Stringer (1968), emphasizes the effect of organisational climate on the motivation of its members. In a rigorous study Litwin and Stringer simulated three different climates (each fostering, respectively, achievement, affiliation, and power motives) and monitored the effects of these climates on productivity.

18.2 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATES

Different authors have proposed different dimensions of organisational climate. Some of these are mentioned below:

Likert (1967) : Leadership, motivation, communication, decisions, goals, and control.

Litwin & Stringer (1968) : Conformity, responsibility, standard rewards, organisational clarity, warmth and support, leadership. Prakasam (1979) : Conformity, sharing in decision-making, supervision (task orientation, people orientation, bureaucrating orientation), responsibility, reward (financial, non-financial) promotion, team spirit, standard.

Sharma (1988) : Supervisory-management relations, scope for advancement, grievance handling, monetary benefits, participative management, objectivity and rationality, recognition and appreciation, safety and security, training and education, welfare facilities.

Some dimensions proposed relate to organisational policies. A critical review of the literature on organisational climate shows that the following twelve processes or dimensions should be used in studying organisational climate.

1) *Orientation :* The dominant orientation of an organisation is the main concern of its members, and this dimension is an important determinant of climate. If the dominant orientation or concern is to adhere to established rules, the climate will be characterised by control; on the other hand, if the orientation is to excel, the climate will be characterised by achievement.

2) *Interpersonal relationships :* An organisation's interpersonal-relations process are reflected in the way in which informal groups are formed, and these processes affect climate. For example, if groups are formed for the purpose of protecting their own interests, cliques may develop and a climate of control may result; similarly, if people tend to develop informal relationships with their supervisors, a climate of dependency may result.

3) *Supervision :* Supervisory practices contribute significantly to climate. If supervisors focus on helping their subordinates to improve personal skills and chances of advancement, a climate characterized by the extension motive may result; if supervisors are more concerned with maintaining good relations with their subordinates, a climate characterized by the affiliation motive may result.

4) *Problem management :* Problems can be seen as challenges or as irritants. They can be solved by the supervisor or jointly by the supervisor and the subordinate(s) concerned, or they can be referred to a higher level. These different perspectives and ways of handling problems contribute to the creation of an organisation's climate.

5) *Management of mistakes :* Supervisors' attitudes toward subordinate mistakes develop the organisational orientation, which is generally one of annoyance or concern or tolerance. An organisation's approach to mistakes influences the climate.

6) *Conflict management :* Conflicts may be seen as embarrassing annoyances to be covered up or as problems to be solved. The process of dealing with conflicts has as significant an effect on climate as that of handling problems or mistakes.

7) *Communication :* Communication, another important determinant of climate, is concerned with the flow of information : its direction (top-down, bottom-up, horizontal), its dispersement (selectively or to everyone concerned), its mode (formal or informal), and its type (instructions or feedback on the state of affairs).

8) *Decision-making :* An organisation's approach to decision-making can be focused on maintaining good relations or on achieving results. In addition, the issue of who makes decisions is important: people high in the hierarchy, experts, or those involved in the matters about which decisions are made. These elements of decision-making are relevant to the establishment of a particular climate.

9) *Trust :* The degree of trust or its absence among various members and groups in the organisation affects climate. The issue of who is trusted by management and to what degree is also relevant.

10) *Management of rewards :* Rewards reinforce specific behaviours, thereby arousing and sustaining specific motives. Consequently, what is rewarded in an organisation influences the motivational climate.

11) *Risk taking :* How people respond to risks and whose help is sought in situations involving risk are important determinants of climate.

12) *Innovation and change :* Who initiates change, how change and innovation are perceived, and how change is implemented are all critical in establishing climate.

The way in which these twelve dimensions of climate operate in an organisation indicates the underlying motive of top management and the principal motive that is likely to be generated and sustained within the organisation's population. When the twelve dimensions are combined with the six motives discussed previously, a matrix is formed that can be useful in diagnosing the motivational climate of an organisation.

18.3 MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE

Litwin & Stringer's studies indicated the importance of motivational framework to study organisational climate. Climate affects motivation of the members of an organisation. Therefore, a framework based on motivation seems to be quite relevant for the study of organisational climate. Organisational climate studied in this framework can also be called motivational climate.

Activity 1

Below are given six statements. Rank the statements from 6 (most like the situation in your organisation or unit) to 1 (least like the situation in your organisation or unit). Do not give the same rank to more than one statement.

Rank **Statements**

a) People here are mainly concerned with following established rules and procedures.

b) The main concern of people here is to help one another develop greater skills and thereby advance in the organisation.

c) Achieving or surpassing specific goals seems to be people's main concern here.

d) Consolidating one's own personal position and influence seems to be the main concern here.

e) The dominant concern here is to maintain friendly relations with others.

f) The main concern here is to develop people's competence and expertise.

Six motives are particularly appropriate in developing a framework that facilitates analysis of the connection between organisational climate and motivation :

1) *Achievement :* This motive is characterized by concern for excellence, competition in terms of the standards set by others or by oneself, the setting of challenging goals for oneself, awareness of the obstacles that might be encountered in attempting to achieve these goals, and persistence in trying alternative paths to one's goals.

2) *Affiliation :* Affiliation is characterized by a concern for establishing and maintaining close, personal relationship; an emphasis on friendship; and a tendency to express one's emotions.

3) *Expert influence :* This motive is characterized by a concern for making an impact on others, a desire to make people do what one thinks is right, and an urge to change situations and to develop people.

4) *Control :* Control is characterized by a concern for orderliness, a desire to be and stay informed, an urge to monitor events and to take corrective action when needed, and a need to display personal power.

5) *Extension :* Extension is characterized by concern for others; interest in superordinate goals; and an urge to be relevant and useful to large groups, including society.

6) *Dependency :* This motive is characterized by a desire for the assistance of others in developing oneself; a need to check with significant others (those who are more knowledgeable or have higher status, experts, close associates, and so on), a tendency to submit ideas or proposals for approval, and an urge to maintain a relationship based on the other person's approval.

Ranking of the 12 diminisions suggested in section 2 can be done on the six motives (pareek, 1989). A matrix can then be obtained to show which motivational climate characterises the overall climate, and which motive is the dominant (highest) motive in each dimension. We can thus have achievement or affiliation or expert influence or control or extension or dependency climate in an organisation or a unit.

The motivations reflected in the six statements in the exercise respectively are : dependency, extension, achievement, control, affiliation, and expert influence. Examine your rankings in the light of the discussion in the rest of this section.

Generally, significant relationship has been reported between climate on the one hand, and job satisfaction and performance on the other.

Deci (1980) suggested three different kinds of environments as being associated with three different attributional patterns. A "responsive and informational' environment (in terms of motivational climate one that is characterised and by achievements and expert influence) has been linked with internality : a "controlling and demanding" environment (one characterised by control and dependency) has been linked with externality; and a "non responsive and capricious" environment has been linked with "impersonality"

Organisational environments and climate seem to influence the development of internality. Baumgartel, Rajan, and Newmar (1985), using four indices of organisation environment (freedom-growth, human relations, performance pressure, and personal benefit) found clear evidence of the influence of organisational environments on locus of control. They concluded that internality could be developed by creating educational and work environments characterised by freedom to set personal performance goals, opportunity for personal growth, and opportunity to influence important events or conditions.

oTheoretically, one might predict a negative relationship between organisational effectiveness and climates characterised by affiliation, dependence, and control. Litwin and Stringer (1968), found that an authoritarian climate (a "control" climate) produced low job satisfaction and low performance. A climate characterised by achievement, extension, and expert influence might be assumed to be related to higher job satisfaction and performance. Higher job satisfaction has been reported among insurance personnel who perceived the motivational climate as one of achievement.

One study has reported high positive correlations between five aspects of organisational effectiveness (organisational commitment, organisational attachment, job satisfaction, total satisfaction, and total effectiveness) and an achievement climate, and there was a negative correlation between these five aspects and a control climate. An extension climate correlated positively with organisational commitment and with job satisfaction, total satisfaction, and total effectiveness. A dependence climate showed no relationship with any measure. An affiliation climate had a negative correlation with job satisfaction and with total satisfaction and total effectiveness.

Negative correlations might be predicted between role stress and climates perceived as characterised by achievement, extension, and expert influence; and positive correlations might be predicted between role stress and climates characterised by affiliation, dependence, and control. The study have reported of the following specific correlations between role stress and the various climates :

- No significant correlation with a climate characterised by expert influence;
- Two positive correlations with an affiliation climate (role erosion and personal inadequacy);
- One positive correlation with a dependency climate (role stagnation);
- Six negative correlations with an extension climate for inter-role distance, role overload, and role isolation, and at the .01 level for role-expectation expectation conflict, self-role distance, resource inadequacy, and total role stress;
- Negative correlations with an achievement climate for all aspects of role stress except interrole distance and personal inadequacy; and
- Positive correlations with a control climate for all aspects of role stress except personal inadequacy.

In summary, organisational climate has an enormous influence on organisational effectiveness, role efficacy, and role stress. An achievement climate seems to contribute of effectiveness, satisfaction and a sense of internality; a climate characterised by expert influence seems to contribute to organisational attachment; and a climate characterised by extension seems to contribute to organisational commitment. All of these climates foster relatively low levels of role stress. A control climate seems to lower role efficacy, job satisfaction organisational commitment, organisational attachment, and total effectiveness and to foster relatively high levels of role stress. An affiliation climate tends to lower both satisfaction and effectiveness and increase role erosion and feelings of personal inadequacy.

18.4 EFFECTIVENESS OF CLIMATES

The completed matrix provides scores for all six motives tested by the MAO-C. The highest of these scores represents the perceived dominant motive within an organisation. The general connections between dominant motives and particular types of organisations are shown in Figure 1.

A combination of an organisation's highest or "dominant" score and its second-highest or "back-up" score results in a basic characterisation of that organisation's climate. When the six motives are combined in patterns of dominant and secondary or back-up styles, thirty organisational profiles are possible. Brief descriptions of these thirty profiles are provided below. In each description the first motive noted represents the organisation's dominant motive, and the second represents its secondary or back-up motive. Some of these profiles are based on studies that have been made : others need to be studied to validate the concept. In general, climates dominated by achievement, expert power, and extension are conducive to the achievement of results, whereas climates dominated by control, dependency, and affiliation retard the achievement of results.

Motive	Type of Organisation
Achievement	Industrial and business organisatins
Expert influence	University departments and scientific organisations
Control	Bureaucracies such as governmental departments and agencies
Dependency	Traditional or autocratic organisations
Extension	Community-service organisations
Affiliation	Clubs

Figure 1 Connections between Dominant Motives and Types of Organisations

1) *Achievement-Expert Influence :* Employees are involved in and highly stimulated by challenging tasks, and the specialists within the organisation dominate in determining these tasks. The organisation rewards specialization.

2) *Achievement-Control :* Most employees are involved in challenging tasks, but they face a lot of constraints attributable to rigid procedures and an inflexible hierarchy.

3) *Achievement-Dependency :* In spite of an emphasis on high achievement that is shared by most employees, there is a tendency to postpone critical decisions for the approval of a higher authority. The organisation discourages making such decisions without approval from a higher level, resulting in a sense of frustration.

4) *Achievement-Extension :* Employees work on challenging tasks and devote equal attention to the social relevance of these tasks. The organisation has a highly developed sense of social responsibility as well as a strong sense of its responsibility to fulfil employee needs.

5) *Achievement-Affiliation :* While employees work on challenging goals, they also form strong groups based on common interests or other factors. The organisation pays a lot of attention to maintaining good relations among these cliques.

6) *Expert influence-Achievement :* The organisation places a high value on specialization. The specialists influence most decisions, and they emphasize high work quality and unique contributions.

7) *Expert influence-Control :* The organisation is controlled by experts who employ cumbersome procedures. The result is generally a lack of job satisfaction and low to moderate (rather than high) output.

8) *Expert influence-Dependency :* The organisation has a rigid hierarchy dominated by experts. Decisions are made only at the upper levels of the hierarchy, and bright employees are highly dissatisfied.

9) *Expert influence-Extension :* Specialists play the major roles in the organisation, working in a planned way on socially relevant matters. The organisation pays attention to the employees' needs and welfare.

10) *Expert influence-Affiliation :* Although the organisation is dominated by experts, strong groups are formed on the basis of common interests or other factors. Because primary attention is placed on maintaining a friendly climate, results usually suffer.

11) *Control-Achievement :* The organisation is bureaucratic, is run in accordance with detailed procedures, and has a clear hierarchy. Quality of work is emphasized, but most

employees with an achievement orientation feel frustrated. This climate is sometimes found in public-sector organisations.

12) *Control-Expert influence :* The organisation is a bureaucra [illegible] hich specialists opinions are valued but rules are treated as more important.

13) *Control-Dependency :* A bureaucracy and a rigid hierarchy dominate the organisation. Because actions are generally referred to levels above for approval, decisions are usually delayed. It is more important to follow rules and regulations than to achieve results. The senior employees protect those subordinates who do not make any procedural mistakes. Most government offices function in this way.

14) *Control-Extension :* Although the organisation is hierarchical, it emphasizes social concern and attends to the needs and welfare of its employees.

15) *Control-Affiliation :* The organisation is hierarchical but places more emphasis on good relations among employees than on results. Informal groups based on relationships are seen as important. Some voluntary organisations are of this type.

16) *Dependency-Achievement :* Respect for those in positions of power is emphasized, and so is achievement. Freedom is granted to employees, with the exception that key decisions are controlled by those in power. Many family-owned organisations have such a climate.

17) *Dependency-Expert influence :* The organisation has a hierarchy, with decisions made by those at higher levels. Experts play an important role in the various aspects of organisational life.

18) *Dependency-Control :* The organisation has clear-cut channels of communication and is controlled by a few people who ultimately make all decisions.

19) *Dependency-Extension :* A few people dominate and control the organisation and demand respect from all other members. However, they take care of the members' needs, and the organisation works in socially relevant areas.

20) *Dependency-Affiliation :* The top managers control the organisation and employ their own "in-group" members, who are extremely loyal to these managers.

21) *Extension-Achievement :* The organisation strives to be relevant to society and emphasizes the achievement of results. People are selected for their competence and are given freedom in doing their work.

22) *Extension-Expert influence :* Social consciousness is emphasized by the organisation, and experts influence all major decisions.

23) *Extension-Control :* The organisation's goals have to do with serving a larger cause; but the structure is bureaucratic, with rules and regulations that are to be followed strictly.

24) *Extension-Dependency :* The business of the organisation is community service (for example, education, health, or development). Emphasis is placed on conformity to the policies laid down by the top person or team, to whom all final decisions are referred.

25) *Extension-Affiliation :* The organisation's business is community service, and members with similar backgrounds (ideology, specialization, and so on) form strong linkages with one another.

26) *Affiliation-cAchievement :* The organisation places great importance on relation-ships and draws people with similar backgrounds. Although the organisation values achievements of results and excellence in performance, rewards are given mainly on the basis of an employee's relationship with the person or persons who are in a position to give such rewards.

27) *Affiliation-Expert influence :* The organisation consists mainly of experts, emphasizes good relations, and either employs people of similar backgrounds or has cliques based on common links.

28) *Affiliation-Control :* Although the organisation is concerned with maintaining good relations among members, its form is bureaucratic. (For example, a club with strict rules and procedures might be in this category.)

29) *Affiliation-Dependency :* The organisation values the maintenance of friendly relations among members, and one or two people make most decisions. Employees are rewarded on the basis of their closeness to the top person(s).

30) *Affiliation-Extension :* The organisation's main goal is to maintain good relations among members, and its work involves socially relevant issues. (The Lions Club and similar organisations might be in this category.)

18.5 IMPROVING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Look at the ranks you have given to various motives in the Exercise. Are you satisfied with the combination of the dominant (the highest rank) and the back-up (next-highest rank) motives? If not develop some specific ideas in changing the combinations in other words, improving the climate.

Generally an instrument like MAO-C or MAO-C_2 can be used (see details about the instrument in suggested readings). The instruments can be used to diagnose organisational climate from the stand point of motivation. The focus of the instrument can be perceptions of the overall organisational climate or of individual units, divisions, branches, or departments within the organisations. After the instrument has been administered, the respondents may individually use a rating scale to evaluate the operating effectiveness of the climate that has been analysed. Then the supervisor manager may lead a discussion on the basic characteristics of the different effectiveness profiles represented in the group (see the previous section). Subsequently, the respondents may discuss their individual scores and ratings and then arrive at a consensus regarding the diagnosis and evaluation of the climate, which of the twelve dimensions of organisational climate need improvement, why particular dimensions are weak, and what steps may need to be taken in response. The another approach is to discuss individual rankings and to develop a consensus regarding the desired rankings of motives and what might be done to effect the perceived climate accordingly. Any specific action ideas that are developed may be presented to top management for discussion, approval, and commitment. Then the agreed-on action steps may be carried out and followed up with monthly reviews to determine the success of implementation.

18.6 SELF ASSESSMENT TEST

1) What do you understand by organisational climate and what do you think are its main characteristic features?
2) From your own organisation, give examples of features that have contributed to and/or detracted from a healthy climate.
3) What are the steps necessary for improving organisational climate?

18.7 FURTHER READINGS

D. Hell riegel & J.W. Slocum have summarized very well findings from a large number of studies on organisational climate in their paper "Organisational climate : Measures, research and contingencies *(Academy of Management Journal,* 1974, 17(2), 255-280).

R. Likert, based on extensive research in several countries, proposed in *The Human Organisation* (McGraw Hill, 1967) four types of climates, which was an improvement on the dichotomy of organic vs. mechanical climate proposed by T. Burns & G. Stalker in *The Management of Innovation* (Tavistock, 1961).

G. Litwin & R. Stringer proposed the concept of motivational climate, based on achievement, power, and affiliation motives in *Motivation and Organisational Climate* (Harvard U. Press, 1968). Their instrument was used in a doctoral dissertation of Gujarat University by R. Padke (1981).

Several studies in India have been done on organisational climate e.g. in the Banks (R. Prakasam, M.V. Deshpande & S.S. Kshirsagar at NIBM), agricultural scientific organisation's (Y.P. Singh at IARI), manufacturing organisations (B.R. Sharma currently with Shri Ram Centre published in his book *Not by Bread Alone*), in hospitals and other organisations (J.B.P. Sinha at A.N. Sinha Institute of Social Services, Patna, published in his book *The Nurturant Task Leader*), church (D. Peirera's doctoral dissertation at Gujarat U.)

isolate them as to their precise effect on effectiveness. There is, often, no agreement on appropriate criteria to evaluate effectiveness. It is related to the purpose of evaluation and the choice of referent. The case study on evaluating branch performance, which forms part of this unit seeks to provide an exmaple of relating the concepts and problems in evaluating effectiveness to a specific aspect.

19.2 WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Organisational functioning is a product of strategic choices. If the purpose of organisations is

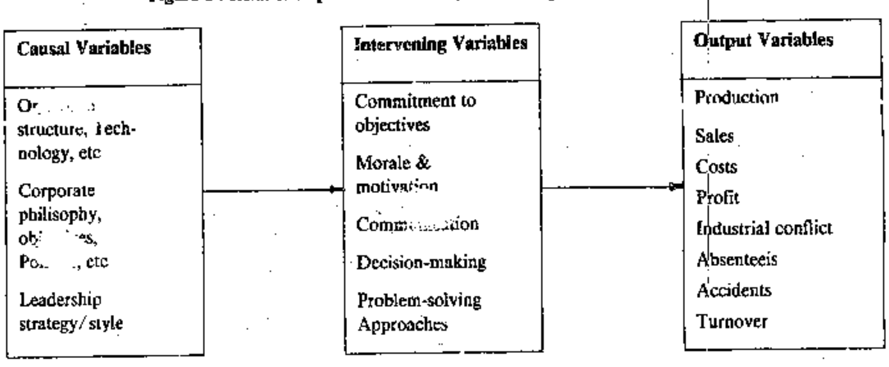
U. Pareek prepared an instrument, MAO-C (motivational Analysis of Organisations-Climate) to study organisational climate approach described in this unit. This was published in *The 1989 Annual : Developing Human Resources* (University Associates, San Diego, USA, pp. 160-180). The instrument has been used in several doctoral dissertations, e.g. Khanna (BHU, 1986), Sen (Gujarat U., 1982), Surti (Gujarat U., 1982). Another instrument (MAO-C_2), using the same framework but studying the six motives both an approach and avoidance dimensions, has also been prepared, and has been used in a doctoral dissertation by K.K. Keshote (Gujarat U., 1990). MAO-C was extensively used for OD work in BHEL, Bhopal and ECC-Larson & Toubro by S. Chattopadhyay, and for HRD in BEML by T.V. Rao of IIM, Ahmedabad, M.M.P. Akhouri of NIESBD used it with the entrepreneurship development institutes in North Eastern States of India (two volumes published by NSIET, Hyderabad), and some neighbouring countries like Thailand, Korea and Bangladesh (in *Small Entrepreneurial Development in Some Asian Countries* edited by SVS Sharma, Life & Light Publishers, New Delhi 1979).

Intervening variables are those factors which represent the internal state of the organisation. They include such aspects like commitment to objectives, morale and motivation of employees, decision-making and problem solving skills/approaches, communication, group cohesion, etc. Causal variables like leadership style and behaviour affect the intervening variables identified above.

End-result (or output) variables reflect the resluts/accomplishments/failures of the organisation. Output could be measured in terms of production, sales, net profit, etc.

The inter-relationship among the three classes of variables as stimuli (causal variables) acting upon the organisation (intervening variables) and creating certain responses (end-result variables) is shown in Figure 1:

Figure 1 : Relationship Between Causal, Intervening and Output Variables



Source : Adapted from Rensis Likert, Human Organization.

The internal state of an organisation reflected by the intervening variables are influenced by causal variables and result in end-result/output variables.

The intervening variables tend to be overlooked in organisations concerned merely with the short-term results. But organisations with a long-term perspective will give importance and recognition to develop and build morale, motivation commitment, etc. Often there could be a time lag before the impact of the neglect of intervening variables is discerned in the output variables. For instance higher production could be achieved by neglecting maintenance. Managers with responsibility over limited time span may conveniently pass the buck to their successors.

Activity A

Review two major incidents, one with a positive end-result and the other with a negative outcome. Identify the three types of variables suggested by Rensis Likert and explain how they are interrelated.

Kim Cameron argues that there can be no perfect evaluation but suggests that by addressing oneself to the following six questions the effectiveness evaluation can be improved:

1) What domain of Activity should be the focus of the Evaluation?

For a professional organisation the domain could be relations among members and/or with public, professional and ethical standards and/or lobbying through interest representation, internal cohesion and absence of conflict and strain and so on. For an academic institution, it can be academic (teaching, research and professional development), external adaptation (training, consulting, etc) extracurricular (emphasising personal, social, cultural and physical development of institution members) and/or morale (smooth internal organisational processes and an absence or conflict and strain).

Effectiveness in one domain may or may not lead to effectiveness in the other sphere. For example, a professional body which cares more for its members may not necessarily care much for its publics. Internal cohesion in a professional body may lead to better relations with members but not necessarily to higher professional standards.

The importance and relevance of particular domains of activity also may change over time. In the early stages of an organisation—whether professional body, academic institution or an individual organisation—the domain of activity could be on activities relating to the individuals in the organisation or acquiring resources and inputs (membership base, corpus, building, etc). But as organisations grow and mature the focus may shift to organisational/environmental relations and outputs and organisations becomes institutionalised and bureaucratic.

Different organisations may have thrust in different areas and over a period of time the thrust may shift to other areas. It is important to make appropriate choices in selecting the domain (s) of activity in evaluating organisational effectiveness. The ITC LTD. in private sector and HMT LTD in public sector perhaps offer good examples of shifting their domain of activity through planned diversification strategies.

2) Whose Perspective or which Constituency's Point of View should be Considered?

Usually, the criteria chosen for evaluation reflect the values of some major constituency.

Increasing organisational effectiveness from one constituency's perspective may result in lowering effectiveness from another constituency's perspective. Responding to a narrow set of constituency demands may lessen their ability to adapt to a broader set of or expectations and even find it hard to be flexible enough. Highly effective organisations may therefore strike a balance among divergent demands. Few organisations, if ever, satisfy all strategic constituencies. Some seek to satisfy varied constituencies in different domains of activities.

If a power plant decides not to pollute, its cost of operation at present level of business may go up by 16%. If it were to be concerned merely by profit motive, it may find any investment for pollution treatment unprofitable and therefore ineffective. A professional body may choose to sacrifice the professional code if it felt that its effectiveness lies in inclusion of more members than explusion of existing ones. The perspective is thus important and should not be lost sight of.

3) What level of analysis should be used?

The level of unit of analysis could be individual member, group or the organisation as a whole. Sometimes effectiveness at one level may adversely effect effectiveness at other level. For loosely coupled organisations individual level of analysis may be more important while organisational level of analysis becomes more appropriate as it becomes mature, institutionalised and bureaucratic.

4) What time factor should be employed?

The time frame is important because not infrequently what makes sense in the long run may seem otherwise in the short-run. What is necessary for long-term effectiveness could sometimes be incompatible with what is expected for short-term efficiency. The trade-offs inherent in the choice of time-frame have to be recognised.

5) What type of Data should be used?

Should we use subjective perceptual data (interviews and/or questionnaire responses) or objective verifiable data (organisational records) or a blend of both.

Perceptional data suffers from bias, dishonesty or lack of informations to verify reliability. But it is possible to cover a broad set of criteria.

Objective data is seldom available organisation—wide, in the required manner. There is need to guard oneself against using proxy data that may not have apparent connections to the organisation's prime task

While it may be useful to use a combination of both types of data, it is important to be wary about potential differences between subjective and objective indications. Research evidence suggests that objective indicators of an organisation's structural and technological dimensions frequently correlate negatively with perceptual indicators of structure and technology.

6) What Referent should be Employed?

After selecting the effectiveness indicators it becomes necessary to choose among one or more of several possible referents (or approaches) such as those listed below:

- compare performance against the stated goal to see what was accomplished (goal centered evaluation)
- compare the performance against the standard (normative evaluation)
- compare performance this year with those of last one or several years (time series or improvement evaluation)
- evaluation on the basis of stated desired characteristics (trait evaluation)
- compare one's performances with those of others (comparative evaluation).

It is common to use goal-centered evaluation. But then, organisations may have multiple goals with potential trade-offs. Normative evaluation becomes difficult when organisations operate in multiple domains, loosely coupled or operate in different environments. Trait evaluation focuses on characteristics than behaviour *per se*. It seeks to describe the conditions in the organisation than evaluate how well the organisation is doing. The assumption is that effective characteristics lead to effective behaviour of the remaining two approaches, time-series or improvement evaluation seeks to assess relative improvement in the performance of the organisation over past performance while the other (comparative evaluation) seeks to assess how an organisation fared in relation to others at a given point of time over a corresponding period of time. It is important to compare the likes and avoid comparing oranges with apples.

It is possible that an organisation may seen to be effective in terms of one referent (e.g., comparison with others). It is important to be aware of the rationale for selecting the appropriate referent for purpose of evaluating effectiveness in a comparative perspective be it against set goals, norms, past performance or performance of other comparable organisations.

19.5 CASE STUDY : EVALUATING BRANCH PERFORMANCE

Introduction

This case study intends to deal with a possible framework to evaluate the performance of the branches of professional body like the National Institute of Personal Management (NIPM). At the outset a general typology of the characteristics of effective and ineffective branches is presented. Since any evaluation is to be related to a purpose, an illustrative list of objectives and sub-objectives is considered for two aspects, membership and training and possible criteria and action points are identified. A range of services activities that field (local) branches can take up is also presented so that the framework could extended to as many as considered appropriate. Thereafter, the criteria followed by three different professional bodies to adjudicate the best branch are presented in a comparative framework and certain issues are raised for discussion.

A General Typology

To begin with, an attempt is made to provide a typology of the characteristics of effective and ineffective branches (Table 1). This typology in classical theoretical mould seeks to provide a general framework to understand the features that possibly distinguish the effective branches from the ineffective ones.

Here we need to mention a Caveat : Each of the characteristics may not be considered in isolation because then they may not hold water. For example a strong secretariat in itself need not necessarily make the branch effective. Also, this typology is developed based on commonsense perceptions, experience and consultations with purposively selected professional colleagues using delphi technique and is not borne out by empirical evidence as such. A typology of this nature is considered a useful first step to prepare an inventory of items that can go into the development of an instrument that could possibly measure objectively the performance of a branch.

Purposive Criteria

Any system of evaluation should be related to a purpose. For a professional body like the National Institute of Personnel Management (NIPM) there could be a range of objectives. For example, one such objective could be related to membership and the other, say, to training. In respect of each of the two, there could be a variety of sub-objectives as shown in Table 2. The criteria to verify the fulfillment or otherwise could vary according to sub-objectives. So do the action points that show the way for improvement. Though here (Table 2), we have considered only two aspects, membership and training, the framework could be extended to other areas as well. The purpose at this juncture is to stress that the sub-objectives may change in priority depending upon the principal thrust/strategy, perceived strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities in each branch, from time to time. The criteria for evaluation should be related to the objectives and sub-objectives based on the needs and/or critical areas of concern at a given point of time as they ought to be tailor-made to specific situations and an array of activities/services (Table 3).

Tested Criteria

Almost without exception every professional body offers annual awards for best branch/chapter/local association besides other awards and fellowships to individual members in recognition of their outstanding performance/distinguished service in furthering the cause of the profession. Invariably each evolved a set of criteria over the years. It would indeed be instructive to discern how the criteria evolved across and within professional bodies over the years. It has not become possible here to document how it evolved in different, major professional bodies, we have merely shown in a comparative framework (Table 4). The criteria followed by the National Institute of Personnel Management (NIPM), Indian Society for Training and Development (ISTD) and All India Management Association (AIMA). Some professional bodies like the ISTD have separate awards for smaller branches.

It may, however, be added that the problem often may not be so much with the criteria or the lack of it, as with the management information and control systems which provide the necessary safeguards in implementation with a high degree of credibility and acceptance. The service organisations like the Rotary Club and the Lions Club seem to have evolved and perfected the Information and Control System better than some of the professional bodies.

TABLE 1: Chracteristics of Effective and Ineffective Branches

Effective	Ineffective
Membership	
Fairly large, representative and continuosly growing membership base	Too small with a thin (restricted to a few organisations), stagnating/declining membership base
Vigorous, continuous and successful membership drive	Selective, ad hoc and partially successful/unsuccessful membership drive
Cohesive, close and cordial interpersonal relationships	Interpersonal dynamics leading to factions among members
Common interests among members	Diverse (and/or vested) interests among members
Fewer separations, due more to professional mobility than dissatisfaction with branch leadership/services/ functions	High turnover of disgruntled members
Large proportion of members regular in clearing subscription dues	Large proportion members irregular/defaulters in clearing subscription dues
Very good attendance at meetings	Poor attendance at meetings
High degree of participation and involvement in branch activities	Low degree of participation and involvement in branch activities
Greater opportunities and motivation for sharing responsibilities among a large proportion of members	Limited opportunities and motivation in sharing responsibilities among members
Inducement and motivation among members to come up with suggestions to improvement of branch performance	Members disinterested, dispirited, demotivated and fatalistic in their assumptions about branch leadership/ performance

Organisational Processes	**Leadership (Office-bearers**	
	Equal access and wider opportunities to members for leadership positions/responsibilities	Unequal access and limited opportunities to members for leadership position/responsibilities
	Leadership changes once every one or two terms	Same office-bearers continue over the years, unmindful of other members aspirations and potential
	Office-bearers institutionalise systems and procedures and make themselves redundant	Office-bearers tend to individualise the institutions, cling on to positions as private property and blindly believe in their being indispensable
	Democratic functioning	Manipulative and authoritarian in style and aproach
	Past presidents and office-bearers continue association even if not represented in the executive committee	Past presidents and office-bearers remain passive or seek to create troubles or resort to backseat driving
	Secretariats	
	Strong	**Weak**
	Recruit and retain full-time, core, competent and motivated professional and support staff	None or part-time/ad hoc arrangements
	Can function without material/manpower support from organisations which one or more office-bearers represent	Cannot function without material/manpower support from at least one or more organisations where office-bearers are employed
	Competent to correctly assess members needs and organises services they need	Not geared to assess/offer services based on the felt needs of members
	Offer at least some services which induce members to continue on rolls	Offer little inducement to members to continue on rolls
	Generate resources through creative programmes so that poverty of resources do not result in poverty on services	Caught up in a chicken or egg syndrome with regard to resources and services
	Concern for efficiency and effectiveness through regular introspection/diagnostic excercises O&M reviews and then follow up with appropriate remedial actions	Disregard for planning and productivity in operations/activities
	Finances/Assets	
	Subscription is an important source of income, but not the only major one	Subscription is the only major source of income
	At least 30 to 40 per cent of the budget is funded by sources of income other than membership subscription	Difficult to raise funds from other sources because the branch is caught up in a 'poverty' syndrome. Since there are no funds it finds unable to launch new projects/services which can augment revenue
	Has at least a couple of revenue centres (eg., seminars/training programmes, publications), which built up on a service/expertise base, project positive public image and generate revenue/surplus	No revenue centres only expense centres
	Own and maintain a fully equipped premises of its own and have a 'corpus' to provide financial stability/viability	No rented premises. No corpus. May be carrying on with overdrafts/sundry creditors
	Activities	
	Regular	Irregular
	Planned and organised based on members interests/needs/preferences and builds on the strengths and the resources it can access	Planned and organised based on leadership fantasies
	Activities sustained over a period, if these are no compelling grounds for their discontinuance	Activities dropped/discontinued with every change in leadership/secretariat
	Executive Committee meets at least once or twice every month, on average	Executive Committee meets less than once a month, on average
	Forum for members to meet/interact once a month	Members get together barely once in two months
	Regular communications	Erratic circulars
	Members discuss common problems concerning the profession	Members avoid discussion of common problems concerning the profession
	Sharing of organisation based specific information among members of creative/unusual/recent/current events and issues concerning the profession	Reluctance to share experiences because they are perceived to be confidential/sensitive or because of concern about competitive considerations
	Maintain cordial relations with other constituents (local management associations, trade unions, employers, organisations, public bodies/authorities academic/social organisations, etc) with emphasis on mutual learning/understanding and joint problem solving	Maintain ostrich-type exclusiveness with preference to do things alone

Representation	
Branch Nominees find a place in tripartite/government committees, public bodies, educational institutes, etc	Members may find place in similar bodies in their individual capacity than as nominees of branches
Others seek advise and counsel from the branch in policy formulation/legislation/problem-solving, etc	Branch lacks professional standing/credibility
Education and Training	
Maintain close contact with academic institutions	Minimal contact with educational institutions
Active role in development of curriculum, teaching methodologies and materials, teaching, examination and accreditation	Passive role in related aspects
Conduct of coaching classes and examinations for NIPM Diploma	Usually don't take up these activities; even if they do, the response is poor
Career counselling, placement assistance and orientation courses for young professionals	Unwillingness/unviability to perform these tasks
Setting professional standards and pursuit of ethical behaviour	Branches perceive such efforts as demarketing strategies and hence do not consider them appropriate/feasible. They may contend their purpose as one of inclusion, not exclusion
Social/Family/Community Welfare	
Provides opportunities for members families to come together to create a common feeling and shared purpose in the cause of the profession	No for members families to interact and understand the rationale of spouses activities
Take up activities which make tangible contributions to social and family welfare (eg. Programmes to deal with alcoholism, indebtedness, family planning etc)	No time/resource even for 'core' professional activities
Relations with Headquarters (CEC/National Office) Other branches	
Harmonious	Conflictual
Regular in collecting and forwarding subscription, communications, holding elections, meetings (including AGM) audit of accounts and submission of reports/returns/ information	Irregular in most of these aspects
Compliance with norms and expectations	Confrontation about norms and expectations of the National office
Active participation in Joint programmes with National Council/other branches	Limited interaction usually restricted to ritualistic ceremonies/functions
Endeavours to suggest improvement of structure, functions and relations	Criticism about the functioning of National Council/other branches
Active support to branches in the region, particularly at times of regional conferences, etc	Disinterest in the activities of other branches/National Council

TABLE 2: Illustrative Check-List of Objective, Criteria and Action Points

(sub) objectives		
Membership	**Criteria**	**Action Points**
To raise membership strength by a number/percentage (recall President's call for, "each one enrole one" during the Membership Month of the year)	Membership Targets. Percentage increase in membership over the base period	Membership campaigns awards
To cover all or maximum possible number of potential (i.e., those eligible to be) members with emphasis on either or both individual/institutional members	Matrix type analysis of targets based on profile (vertical) and industry sectors/geographic (horizontal)/ aspects; years of service put in by members could also be one dimension	Concentrate on membership bases with low coverage and/or high unrealised potential
To improve occupational/ industry/sectoral/geographic/ age/sex balance or coverage	(Same as above)	(Same as above)
To make defaulters clear the arrears of subscription	Anvlyse number of defaulter's as a % of members over a period of time. See whether there is a progressive decline in defaulters	Meet and understand defaulters. Assign groups of defaulters to certain active members to pursue with responsibility to activise the defaulters
To enhance the degree of participation of members in terms of number and quality	(Same as above)	(Same as above)

Organisational Processes	To inculcate professional pride	Frequency (Number) and response of special campaigns to promote awareness and pride in the profession. Response could be gained by increase in membership strength, their participation in branch activities and/or weightage given to the profession in terms of seeking expert advise/nominations to committees etc	Organise such campaigns say at least for one week in a year
	To promote and maintain professional standards and ethical values	Feedback/complaints from constituents	Obtain, assess and act upon public image poll/feedback Promptly deal with unfair professional practice (Medical council and professional bodies have similar arrangements)
	To increase members involvement in community	Frequency (Number), variety (Number) and quality (response) of community programmes	Sensitivity to community needs and aspirations
	To persuade a large number of members to subsribe to its training Programmes/contribute to journal, etc	Develop membership Response Index for each activity	Diagnose reasons, if response is less than desired development programmes to induce higher participation
	Training		
	Increase the training activity	No. of programmes over a period	Training needs analysis of members/member firms
		No. of programme days	Analysis of faculty competence among members
		No. of programme person days	Evaluation of training programmes
			Monitoring of feedback to oversee implementation of corrective actions
	Increase the response to training programmes	No. of programme person days	Some/all of the above
	To improve the quality of training programmes	Programme feedback (Average rating of programmes on a pre-determined rating scale)	Some/all of the above
	To organise training as a profit centre	Budget for every programme income/expenditure analysis	Some/all of the above

Table 3 : Possible Activities/Services

Direct Services to Members

- Periodic interaction (through circulars, lecture-cum-discussing meetings, etc.)
- Sharing experience (news and views)
- Updating professional knowledge/skills/techniques etc.
  - Lecture meetings
  - Seminars/conferences
  - Training programmes (pre and post entry)
  - News letters/journal
  - Legal advise/representation
  - Advice/participation in collective bargaining, dispute resolution
  - Assistance in design, development and implementation of proactive/creative Personnel/IR policies and programmes
  - Surveys/Research/publications

Representation of Members Interest

- Membership Drive
- Proactively responding to impending changes in legislation, public policy, etc.
- Representation in Tripartite fora

- Nomination to institutions (government bodies, educational institutions, etc.)
- Dealing with Media

Relations with Publics

- Public image and Public Relations
- Public counselling
- Career counselling
- Maintenance and furtherance of professional/ethical standards
- Holding Essay/Education competition for Students/young professionals, etc.
- Participation in Radio/TV programmes
- Participation in Social and Family Welfare programmes including occupational safety and health, quality of working life, etc
- Promoting continuous dialogue with unions/government
- Regular interaction with professional/educational institutions in developing appropriate academic programmes and enhancing the academic standards

Building the Organisation at Branch Level

- Active involvement of members in branch activities
- Recruiting and retaining competent and motivated staff
- Own and maintain a premises of its own to carry on its activities and create a corpus to provide financial stability/viability
- Sustained efforts to improve efficiency and effectiveness in the various activities of the branch
- Diagnosis/introspection through membership satisfaction surveys/organisations and methods studies to improve planning and productivity at branch level.

Activity B

1) Discuss the suggested characteristics of effective and ineffective braches. Add/delete/modigfy the suggested characteristics.

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2) What could be the criteria to evaluate the performance of branches ?

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3) Consider/suggest and prioritise the action areas to induc/ motivate branches to improve their performance.

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Table 4 : Criteria for Best Branch Award

	Criteria	AIMA (Local Management Association)	NIFM (Branch)	ISTD (Chapter)
1)	Growth of Membership	10	√	√
	Membership Drop outs	...	√	√
	Different Categories	√	√	√
2)	Activities (No. of activities and attendance)			
	Regularity			
	Variety			
	Lecture Meetings			
	Training	30%	√	√
	Seminars	√	√	√
	Research/consulting Publications	10%	√	√
	Professor Awareness Building/ Development	30%	√	√
	Assistance in establishing new branches/chapters	—	—	√
	Assistance to National/Regional Offices	—	—	√
	Collaboration with professional bodies and liaison with international training bodies	—	—	√
	Special contributions			
	Popularising training aids/visuals	—	—	√
	Procuring nominations for national	programmes—	—	√
	Marketing ISTD in company programmes	—	—	√
3)	Administrative (meetings, submission of reports etc.)	10%	√	√
4)	Financial viability/strength	—	√	√
5)	Other Activities ( )	10%	√	√

— denotes that the said criteria is not explicitly considered

— criteria explicitly reckoned

19.6 SUMMARY

In this unit we have examined the concept of organisational effectiveness, its determinants and the critical issues in evaluating effectiveness. We have also tried to understand how to apply these to a specific situation by looking at the problem of evaluating the effectiveness of branches of professional organisations.

19.7 KEY-WORDS

Effective : Having an effect; powerful in effect

Efficient : Capable, competent

Successful : Accomplishment of what was aimed at; favourable outcome.

19.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1) What is organisational effectiveness? How it can be evaluated? Illustrate with appropriate criteria citing an example.

2) What, according to Rensis Likert are the determinants of organisational effectiveness? Comment.

3) Applying the six critical questions, using the structure of the organisation you work for or are familiar with as a point of reference, design one measure related to each of the six areas.

19.9 FURTHER READINGS

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Notes