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## **Directorate of Distance Education**

### **B.Sc. (Psychology)**

**II - Semester**

**119 24**

## **INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

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# SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

## Industrial Psychology

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Syllabi	Mapping in Book
<b>BLOCK I: INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR</b> <b>Unit-1:</b> Industrial psychology: Industrial psychology: Definition - Nature - Scope - Objectives - Areas covered in industrial psychology <b>Unit-2:</b> Contribution of industrial psychology - Basic Concepts - Foundations of industrial psychology. <b>Unit-3:</b> Individual Behaviour: Individual Behaviour: Individual Differences: Meaning - Nature - Dimensions - Values of individual differences in industries <b>Unit-4:</b> Factors influencing Individual Behaviour: Factors influencing Individual Behaviour: Personality - Learning - Ability - Perception - Attitude - Job Satisfaction: Factors influencing job satisfaction.	<b>Unit 1:</b> Overview of Industrial Psychology (Pages 1-15); <b>Unit 2:</b> Contribution of Industrial Psychology (Pages 16-21); <b>Unit 3:</b> Individual Behaviour (Pages 22-27); <b>Unit 4:</b> Factors Influencing Individual Behaviour (Pages 28-46)
<b>BLOCK II: MORALE AND BEHAVIOUR</b> <b>Unit-5:</b> Morale: Meaning - Types - Aspects - Characteristics of high and low morale - Essential requirements for high morale - Psychological requirements for high morale. <b>Unit-6:</b> Motivation: Meaning of Motivation - Importance - Types - Motivation in industry - Monetary and non-monetary incentives. Fatigue, Boredom and Monotony: Meaning - Causes - Remedies. <b>Unit-7:</b> Group Behaviour: Group Behaviour: Groups: Meaning - Definition of Group - Types - Group dynamics - Group norms - Group cohesiveness - Advantages of group	<b>Unit 5:</b> Morale (Pages 47-52); <b>Unit 6:</b> Motivation (Pages 53-86); <b>Unit 7:</b> Group Behaviour (Pages 87-107)
<b>BLOCK III: LEADERSHIP AND STRESS</b> <b>Unit-8:</b> Leadership: Definition of Leadership- Meaning - Types - Importance of leadership - style of leadership- Qualities of a successful leader. <b>Unit-9:</b> Leadership Skill: Organisation of culture- Role model - Behaviour Adjustment- team Work-Performance- Creativity - Interpersonal Intra personal skill-cultural flexibility -communication -Self assessment of learning <b>Unit-10:</b> Stress: Meaning - Sources of stress - Causes of stress - Managing stress - Nature of stress- Stress management - Ethical dilemmas- Work Environment Factors	<b>Unit 8:</b> Leadership (Pages 108-119); <b>Unit 9:</b> Leadership Skill (Pages 120-138); <b>Unit 10:</b> Stress (Pages 139-160)
<b>BLOCK IV: LIFE AND WORKERS</b> <b>Unit-11:</b> Maladjusted Worker: Meaning - Causes of Maladjustment - Readjustment - Maladjustment worker <b>Unit-12:</b> Counselling: Meaning - Significance - Types and process - Employee health, safety and security - Industrial accidents - Accident proneness - Prevention of accidents - Quality of Work <b>Unit-13:</b> Life: Meaning - Importance - Factors affecting quality of work life <b>Unit-14:</b> Work Motivation: Attitude of working culture -Behaviourism -Work Place -Psychological Health	<b>Unit 11:</b> Maladjusted Worker (Pages 161-166); <b>Unit 12:</b> Counselling (Pages 167-195); <b>Unit 13:</b> Life (Pages 196-201); <b>Unit 14:</b> Work Motivation (Pages 202-211)

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## INTRODUCTION

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Industrial psychology is a field of study that relates to the study of the behaviour and performance of individuals in the setting of an organization. It is also called organizational psychology since it is primarily applicable in the case of business organizations. This field of study is quite complex as social and professional relationships in the workplace are quite difficult to understand or work on. Industrial psychology is a relatively new discipline that has evolved rapidly and revolutionized the workplace within the last century.

Individuals who have adequate knowledge of industrial psychology can apply for various positions in both the public and the private sectors. They can perform the role of a human resource manager or officer in organizations and look after the welfare of employees. This role expects them to work as a bridge between the employer and employees.

This book, *Industrial Psychology*, has been designed keeping in mind the self-instruction mode (SIM) format and follows a simple pattern, wherein each unit of the book begins with the Introduction followed by the Objectives for the topic. The content is then presented in a simple and easy-to-understand manner, and is interspersed with Check Your Progress questions to reinforce the student's understanding of the topic. A list of Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit. The Summary and Key Words further act as useful tools for students and are meant for effective recapitulation of the text.

## NOTES

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## BLOCK - I INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

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### NOTES

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# UNIT 1 OVERVIEW OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

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### Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Industrial Psychology: Definition, Nature and Scope
- 1.3 Areas Covered in Industrial Psychology
- 1.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 Key Words
- 1.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 1.8 Further Readings

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## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

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This unit discusses the branch of psychology known as ‘industrial psychology’. This branch of psychology applies psychological theories and principles to organizations/workplace. Often referred to as I-O psychology, i.e. industrial-organizational psychology, the focus of this field is on increasing workplace productivity and other related issues for instance, the well-being of employees, both the physical and mental. The industrial-organizational psychologists undertake various tasks such as studying the attitude and behaviour of the worker, evaluating companies, and conducting leadership training. The main objective of this field of study is to understand human behavior in the workplace and improve worker productivity. Industrial psychologists research workplaces to find ways of increasing worker satisfaction. These professionals design and implement workplace procedures in order to improve employee efficiency.

Industrial psychology also functions as a means to design safe workplaces. Industrial psychologists study the company’s operating procedures, equipment used, and types of work performed in order to provide a safer work environment to the employees.

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## 1.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Define industrial psychology

- Discuss the nature and scope of industrial psychology
- Explain the objectives of industrial psychology
- Discuss the areas covered in industrial psychology

## NOTES

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### 1.2 INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY: DEFINITION, NATURE AND SCOPE

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Industrial psychology can be defined as the branch of psychology that deals with study of the human behavior in an organization.

According to Blum (a psychologist), industrial psychology may be defined as the simple application or for that matter the extension of psychological facts and principles to the problems which cater to the human relations in the business and industry.

Harrell defines industrial psychology as ‘an industrial psychology is the study of people who are at work in the Industry or in the business’.

Industrial psychology is the branch of science that makes use of scientific methods to study the social factors of human behaviour.

Industrial psychology makes use of experimental techniques and is therefore, a scientific discipline. After careful observation, it makes a record of all the facts. Once the classification of the interpreted data is performed, a final assumption is drawn.

One can call industrial psychology factual since it designs the factual study of behaviour besides determining behavior and even trying to find laws governing it. These laws are universal like the situations of work and wages have an effect on quality and also the quantity of production.

Principles of industrial psychology are very relevant in today’s times. The reality is that a certain type of dissatisfaction and maladjustment always exists below all labour tensions, the testing of which can be done anywhere.

Industrial psychology evaluates the cause and effect relationship. Psychologists attempt to find out the cause and effect relationship in advertisements.

The laws of industrial psychology form predictions. Due to its nature of looking for causal relationships that exist in human behavior, it can form predictions associated with it also.

Harrell suggested the following, regarding the scope of psychology:

- Industrial psychology is associated with the physical aspects of the working environment like the effect of light and the temperature on work and safety.
- It is primarily the study of the principles and behaviour of human relationships.

- Industrial psychology conducts the study on causes that lead to differences, disinterest, motives and attitudes which ultimately influence the morale.
- Industrial psychology studies those factors that create the cooperation between the labour and the management.

The scope of industrial psychology can be understood further as follows:

- **Economic, social and psychological aspects of an industry:** Industrial psychology studies the economic, social and psychological factors of human behaviour. It also performs a study of the economic factors and many other factors in the communal life of a worker that can have immense psychological impact.
- **Study of the physical aspects of work environment:** Industrial workers are greatly affected by the work environment. Proper work conditions involve clean air, appropriate water arrangement for some essential tests, lesser noise, clean environment, sufficient lighting, appropriate sanitation, good employer and employee relationship, etc. For example, psychological suggestions can prove to be extremely helpful in light arrangements and even the intensity of the light, the colour of walls, machines, floor and ceiling.
- **Principles of human relationships:** The competence of industrial workers is greatly dependent on the nature of their particular relationships with the management. The presence of trade unions that protects the interest of the employees forbids an industrialist from fulfilling his own desires without keeping the interests of his employees in mind. Industrial psychology makes an attempt to discover the principles to improve human relationships in an industry.
- **Study of aptitudes and motives:** It is vital to study the rules related to the appropriate attitudes in an industrial environment. One instance of the study that an industrial psychology performed is the Hawthorne study in the Western Electric Company to study the influence of the attitude of workers on the production.
- **Study of the principles of mental health:** The mental health or the status of the workers is greatly affected by the work environment and the method of their interaction with other workers. Industrial psychology performs a study of factors that affect the mental health of a worker. It also lays down principles for maintaining the mental health of workers.
- **Study of the relations:** It also studies human relations and discovers general principles which enable the improvement of social relations of the workers and management.

## NOTES

## NOTES

### Principles of Industrial Psychology

Organization theory can be defined as ‘the study of structure, fine-tuning and performance of the organization and the behavior of groups and individuals in an organization’.

These organization theories can be classified as follows:

1. Classical organization theory
2. Neo-Classical organization theory
3. Modern organization theory

#### 1. Classical organization theory

The Classical organization theory can be defined as ‘the beginning of systematic study of the organization’. The Classical writers saw the organization as a machine and human beings as the various constituents of that machine.

Some of the significant characteristics of the Classical organization theory are as follows:

- This theory is known to maximize weakness and control.
- It lays stress on the errors being detected and their following specific reaction.
- Stability of the employees is the primary objective of the organization.

This is made central in character and the combination of the system is accomplished with the help of an authority and the control of central mechanism.

Classical organization theory is based on the following four precepts:

- (i) **Division of labour:** A task is divided into various parts for ensuring efficiency. It enables workers to specialize in a particular part of work. This is the focal point of organization theory. The primary process of setting up associations begins with the division of labour.
- (ii) **Functional process:** This is the division an organization into specific parts including the flow of authority and responsibility in the organization.
- (iii) **Structure:** It includes organizing tasks associated with one another by handing over tasks, determining roles and then designing associations between people. One can term this as a logical conclusion of authority and responsibility at various stages in an organization.
- (iv) **Span of control:** It indicates the number of people reporting directly to the superiors. Thus, it indicates the number of subordinates one superior can supervise effectively.

#### 2. Neo-Classical organization theory

The theory makes an attempt at rectifying the errors that exist in the Classical theory. This is based on the human relations approach.

The significant intention of the theory are as follows:

- An organization is usually a social system.
- Social environment of the job affects people.
- In the case of formal organizations, informal organization is also known to exist and influence its functioning.
- Conflict exists between the organizational and individual goals which enhances the significance of integration between these two.
- Communication is very important as it carries information related to the working of the organization besides the feelings and emotions of the workers.
- Team work is important for the cooperation and effective functioning of the organization.

## NOTES

### 3. Modern organization theory

The modern organization theory depends completely on the Systems and Contingency approach. It is the outcome of constant research and integration. The vital constituents of this theory are as follows:

- Parts of the system with interdependency
- Linking process
- Goals of the organization

#### Parts of the system with interdependency

The significant parts of a system can be termed as follows:

- Individuals
- Formal organization
- Informal organization
- Physical environment where an individual works
- Reciprocal pattern of behaviour

#### Linking process

Every part of a system requires it to be functioning in a coordinated method to provide a composite picture of the organization. Linking processes can be as follows:

- Communication
- Balance
- Decision-making

*Communication* through action is evoked by several other parts of the system. The different parts of the organization are held together through communication.

## NOTES

*Balance* refers to an equilibrating mechanism where different parts of an organization maintain harmonious and structured relations with one another.

*Decision-making* may be termed as selection which is based on certain criteria from two or more alternatives.

### Goals of the organization

Every organization has certain goals and objectives. The goals of an organization include growth, stability and constant interaction.

The criticism of the Classical organization theory is as follows:

- **Span of control:** It recommends various span of management, but optionally an operational approach recommends that such a case does not exist. Wider span of management is comparatively better for the smooth working of an organization.
- **Unity of command:** The Classical theory states a reporting relationship between a worker and his supervisor. However, the trend has now undergone change and members of the organization service supervision from various personnel in the staff.
- **Structure:** A conflict exists between positions in the hierarchical structure as given in the Classical theory.
  - o **Bureaucracy:** Detailed rules and control reduce the satisfaction and efficiency of workers.
  - o **Scalar-functional principle:** A presumption of authority, levels the potential of the people who do not perform very well according to the neo-Classical theory. It is simply impossible to accomplish an exact feel of the potential to match it with authority.

### Comparisons between Neo-Classical theory and Classical theory

The comparisons between Neo-Classical theory over Classical theory are as follows:

- **Flat structure:** Neo-Classical theory recommends a flat structure as against the tall organizational structure that the Classical theory suggests. These kinds of problems are faced by those organizations that have a tall structure, short durations of control, communication problem, a greater difference between decision makers and implementers, instigation problems etc.
- **Decentralization:** Neo-Classical theory recommends decentralization in an organization in which departmental concepts of a Classical theory are made use of in a wider and analytical manner.
- **Informal organization:** This kind of organization is formed for fulfilling the psychological requirement of its employees. This factor has been totally ignored by Classical theory.

### Criticisms of Neo-Classical organization theory

The Neo-Classical organization theory has been criticized for several reasons. These reasons are as follows:

- A disagreement of the benefits amongst different groups in the organization that are structural in character have not been dealt with sufficiently in Neo-Classical theory.
- Various types of structures and formats of organization stated by Neo-Classical theory cannot be applied in all circumstances. Thus, the applications of humanistic organizations can be limited.
- This is not a new theory. Everything that the Neo-Classical model states is stated in the Classical model as well. The only difference is that the Neo-Classical model is a modified version.

### Criticisms of modern organization theory

The modern organization theory has been criticized for several reasons. These reasons are as follows:

- **An abstract theory:** This theory was seen as being abstract. It showed that there is an interrelation between the various parts of an organization. However, it does not show an exact association amongst its various parts.
- **Lack of a universal applicability:** This theory does not offer any such action framework that can be implemented to every kind of organization system. It does not find any application even in smaller organizations. In compliance with the Contingency or Situational approach, there simply cannot be any specific management action or design that would be suitable for every kind of situation. This specific action is one which has the suitable internal process of an organization adjoining an external environment and internal requirements.

### Organizational Behaviour

One can refer to an organizational behaviour (OB) as ‘a study and application of knowledge about the way in which people, individuals and groups act in an organization’. This is generally performed with the help of systematic approach. This means that it gives an interpretation of the people – organization association with regard to a complete person, an entire group, a complete organization and a whole social system. Its objective is that of building enhanced associations by getting human aims, organizational objectives and social objectives as well.

As the definition states, an organizational behaviour engulfs a broad range of topics, like the human behaviour, change, leadership, teams, etc.

### NOTES



## NOTES

### Models of organizational behaviour

There may be four extremely important models or frameworks which enable the functioning of an organization. These models are as follows:

1. **Autocratic model:** This model is based on the fact that power lies completely with the managerial direction of authority. The employees in this model are obedience oriented and depend on their superior. The primary need of an employee in this model is survival. Performance result is least.
2. **Custodial model:** The basis of this model is financial resource. The finances are managed by the management. The employees in this model are interested in their security and facilities for which they depend on the organization. The employees feel secure when their needs are fulfilled. This results in passive cooperation.
3. **Supportive model:** This model is based on leadership with managerial orientation of support. The interest of the employees in this model is job performance and participation. The status and recognition of the employees is decided by their needs being met. Enthusiasm and a revived motivation is the result.
4. **Collegial model:** This model is based on an association with a managerial orientation of teamwork. The orientation of the employee in this model is towards a responsible behaviour and self-discipline. The need fulfilled is self-actualization. Moderate enthusiasm is the outcome.

Despite there being four different models, almost no organization follows any one model completely. This is usually a principle one, with one or more than one domain overlapping the other model.

### Social System, Culture and Individualization

A social system is a complicated set of human associations that interact in several ways.

Within an organization, the social system involves all the people within it and their personal association with each other and with the external world. The behaviour of a single member may have a direct or indirect effect on others.

The social system is without any boundaries due to which there is a free exchange of the products, concepts, culture, etc. with the environment that surrounds it. Culture is a predictable behaviour of society encompassing the ideas, customs, knowledge and practices. It affects human behaviour, and rarely does it enter into their thoughts consciously.

The people depend upon the culture since it provides them with stability, security and understanding. It also enables them to respond to a certain circumstance. This is the reason for people fearing change. They have apprehensions regarding the stability of the system, loss of security, no understanding of the new

processes. Also, they will have no clue about how to react or respond to a particular situation.

Individualization takes place when the employees exert an influence in a successful manner on the social system by challenging the culture.

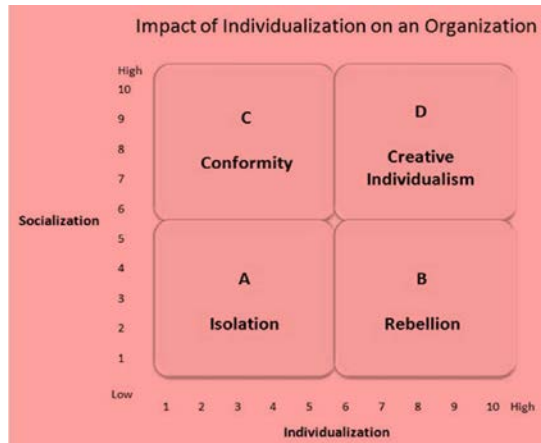


Fig. 1.1 An Impact of Individualization on the Organization

The chart illustrated in Figure 1.1 shows as to how individualization affects the different organizations:

- Very little socialization and very little individualization create isolation.
- Very high socialization and a very little individualization create conformity.
- Very little socialization and very high individualization lead to rebellion.
- Most of the organizations wish to create high socialization and high individualization for achieving a progressive environment.

This is what is needed to survive in an extremely competitive environment. People must grow with the growth of organization but doing the right thing when the others want to follow some easy path.

This might be a balancing act.

Individualism favours an individual is rights, the not very closely knitted social networks, self-respect, personal rewards and careers.

Socialization or collectivism favours the group and harmony, and asks ‘What’s best for the organization?’ An organization requires people to challenge, question and experiment while still maintaining organizational culture that binds them closely together into a social system.

### Check Your Progress

1. Define industrial psychology.
2. What is organization theory?

### NOTES

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### 1.3 AREAS COVERED IN INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

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#### NOTES

The applications of industrial psychology can be elaborated as follows:

1. **Solution of labour problems:** A conflict between the management and workers is a very normal practice in almost all organizations. Seldom, it may turn extremely violent resulting in the loss of money and the lives of the management and workers as well. Industrial psychology plays a great role during this time and can prove to be extremely helpful. It therefore studies such conflicts thus helping solve such problems.
2. **Prevention of accidents:** Industrial psychology provides certain valuable suggestions which help in the prevention of accidents. Psychologists have thus discovered and have suggested types of machines which should be designed, installed, arranged and operated inside a factory. The main purpose is to prevent the occurrence of accidents in an industrial environment.
3. **Attitude measurement:** If the worker possesses a favourable attitude related to his work then he is supposed to do it interestingly in an appropriate way, or else, even the very best of conditions cannot make him to perform his best. The study and measurement of a worker's aptitude can be done by help of a psychologist which is of great use for the industrialists.
4. **Maintenance of morale:** For maintaining a certain level of the production and improving the quality of production, it is extremely necessary to maintain high level of morale among the workers in the industry. A morale is influenced by large number of psychological factors such as- the affection, freedom, an availability of proper leadership etc. The psychologists, after carefully studying these so-called factors may give certain valuable suggestions for maintaining the morale.
5. **Creation of proper leadership:** In an industrial set up, the supervisor should not only be the official rather he should also be capable of playing the role of a good leader. Otherwise he will not be capable of getting the work done from the workers properly and will also not be able to encourage them to work hard. Thus, psychology can be of immense help in an industrial field by charting out the qualities that are essential for a leadership and it further explains the development of such qualities.
6. **Measurement of the individual difference:** Individual differences can be solved by using wide variety of psychological tests. Thus, once again the assistance from psychologists proves to be of immense value.
7. **Study of efficiency:** In any industry, all the workers don't have the same degree of efficiency and it's not required also, as there may be various kinds of functions required to be performed in an organization, requiring

varying level of the efficiency. The psychologists help in finding out persons with the requisite efficiency for performing some specific kind of a function.

8. **Usage of psychological tests:** These days, the psychological tests are brought into use for selecting the most qualified and capable person for a certain job. The important tests may be the intelligent test, interest test, aptitude test, and personality test etc.
9. **Motion and time study:** The time needed to finish a specific job is not same for the different people. In the present scenario, the time and the motion studies are conducted in order to find out efficiency of the individuals and the machines as well. The labor and the time are both saved by analyzing the motion studies so as to isolate the essential movements and then to concentrate upon them. The time study helps in economizing the time that is spent in a certain operation.
10. **Aid in an industrial training:** The efficiency of the worker may be considerably improved by giving him the proper training. The trained people may not avoid accidents only but may also improve the quality as well as the quantity of production, and they work better than the people who are not trained. For this reason, various kinds of the training programmes are now designed for different jobs with the help of the psychologists.
11. **Suggestions concerning the motives:** The employee motivation may be supplied through an increase in the wages, the promotion, the praises etc. A special study of a motivation is the one of the main tasks of a psychologist. The psychologist finds out as to how a worker may be motivated for improving the quality and the quantity of his production and secondly how the workers can be prevented from going on strikes etc.
12. **Study of fatigue and monotony:** The psychologists conducted extensive study for finding the causes of both the fatigue and the monotony and ways by which they can be eliminated.
13. **Vocational guidance:** This involves finding out the individual capabilities through the psychological tests and then suggesting an individual, the profession he is best suited for. In most progressive nations, the individual is provided such guidance regarding the various professions that he can take up suitably and profitably.
14. **Advertisement and the selling:** In the industry, a psychologist's advice is not restricted to only suggesting the methods for improving the production. It also extends to suggesting the methods for advertisement and selling. The advertisement is based on the psychology of an appeal. The psychologists after studying these so called factors, gives suggestions regarding the subject matter and layout of an advertisement. The modern industry in addition to this tries to make the most of these psychological ideas in selling process. The psychologist analyses the purpose of buying and selling the things and then gives suggestions regarding selling.

## NOTES

**NOTES**

**Check Your Progress**

3. Mention two applications of industrial psychology.
4. What influences the morale of the employees?

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**1.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS  
QUESTIONS**

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1. Harrell defines industrial psychology as ‘an industrial psychology is the study of people who are at work in the Industry or in the business’.
2. Organization theory can be defined as ‘the study of structure, fine-tuning and performance of the organization and the behavior of groups and individuals in an organization’.
3. Two applications of industrial psychology are solution of labour problems and prevention of accidents.
4. The morale of employees is influenced by large number of psychological factors such as the affection, freedom and availability of proper leadership.

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**1.5 SUMMARY**

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- Industrial psychology can be defined as the branch of psychology that deals with study of the human behavior in an organization.
- According to Blum (a psychologist), industrial psychology may be defined as the simple application or for that matter the extension of psychological facts and principles to the problems which cater to the human relations in the business and industry.
- Harrell defines industrial psychology as ‘an industrial psychology is the study of people who are at work in the Industry or in the business’.
- Industrial psychology is the branch of science that makes use of scientific methods to study the social factors of human behaviour.
- One can call industrial psychology factual since it designs the factual study of behaviour besides determining behavior and even trying to find laws governing it.
- Industrial psychology evaluates the cause and effect relationship. Psychologists attempt to find out the cause and effect relationship in advertisements.
- The laws of industrial psychology form predictions. Due to its nature of looking for causal relationships that exist in human behavior, it can form predictions associated with it also.

- Industrial psychology is associated with the physical aspects of the working environment like the effect of light and the temperature on work and safety.
- It is primarily the study of the principles and behaviour of human relationships.
- Industrial psychology conducts the study on causes that lead to differences, disinterest, motives and attitudes which ultimately influence the morale.
- Industrial psychology studies those factors that create the cooperation between the labour and the management.
- Industrial psychology studies the economic, social and psychological factors of human behaviour. It also performs a study of the economic factors and many other factors in the communal life of a worker that can have immense psychological impact.
- The competence of industrial workers is greatly dependent on the nature of their particular relationships with the management. Industrial psychology makes an attempt to discover the principles to improve human relationships in an industry.
- The mental health or the status of the workers is greatly affected by the work environment and the method of their interaction with other workers. Industrial psychology performs a study of factors that affect the mental health of a worker.
- Organization theory can be defined as ‘the study of structure, fine-tuning and performance of the organization and the behavior of groups and individuals in an organization’.
- The Classical organization theory can be defined as ‘the beginning of systematic study of the organization’.
- Neo-Classical organization theory makes an attempt at rectifying the errors that exist in the Classical theory. This is based on the human relations approach.
- The modern organization theory depends completely on the Systems and Contingency approach. It is the outcome of constant research and integration.
- Every organization has certain goals and objectives. The goals of an organization include growth, stability and constant interaction.
- Neo-Classical theory recommends a flat structure as against the tall organizational structure that the Classical theory suggests.
- Neo-Classical theory recommends decentralization in an organization in which departmental concepts of a Classical theory are made use of in a wider and analytical manner.
- Informal organization: This kind of organization is formed for fulfilling the psychological requirement of its employees. This factor has been totally ignored by Classical theory.

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

- A disagreement of the benefits amongst different groups in the organization that are structural in character have not been dealt with sufficiently in Neo-Classical theory.
- Various types of structures and formats of organization stated by Neo-Classical theory cannot be applied in all circumstances. Thus, the applications of humanistic organizations can be limited.
- This is not a new theory. Everything that the Neo-Classical model states is stated in the Classical model as well. The only difference is that the Neo-Classical model is a modified version.

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### 1.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Psychology:** It is the scientific study of the human mind and its functions, especially those affecting behaviour in a given context.
- **Neo-Classical:** It is of, relating to, or constituting a revival or adaptation of the classical especially in literature, music, art, or architecture.
- **Theory:** It is a supposition, or a system of ideas intended to explain something, especially one based on general principles independent of the thing to be explained.

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### 1.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. State the principles of industrial psychology.
2. Write a short note on neo-classical organization theory.
3. Why was classical organization theory criticized?
4. State the applications of industrial psychology.

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Classify organization theories. Discuss classical and modern organization theories in detail.
2. What is the meaning of industrial psychology? Discuss its nature and scope in detail.
3. Compare neo-classical theory and classical theory.
4. What is organizational behaviour? Discuss its models in detail.

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## 1.8 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume 1*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

## NOTES



NOTES

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## UNIT 2 CONTRIBUTION OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

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### Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
  - 2.1 Objectives
  - 2.2 Basic Concepts and Foundations
  - 2.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
  - 2.4 Summary
  - 2.5 Key Words
  - 2.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
  - 2.7 Further Readings
- 

### 2.0 INTRODUCTION

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In order to be successful and profitable, a workplace must operate smoothly and efficiently. In businesses that lay emphasis on employee happiness and healthy, the quality of a better life is a priority and the organizational infrastructure is strong. In such businesses, if conflicts arise, a swift and effective resolution is provided.

Industrial psychologists receive specialized training in the science of studying human behavior in the workplace. This training provides them with a deep knowledge of issues that are critical to business success and a positive work environment. These psychologists use quantitative research and evaluation methods to apply best practices within a company and teach people how to work better. The research conducted can be in the form of direct observation of how an individual or a team functions in a work place or can be in the form of a survey designed to identify issues affecting workplace behavior. This research is significantly aimed at increasing employee productivity, increasing overall workplace quality, or getting to the root of a work-related issue that is interfering with performance and other such processes.

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### 2.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the basic concepts and foundations
- Discuss the causes of individual differences

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## 2.2 BASIC CONCEPTS AND FOUNDATIONS

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Skinner says that, 'In today's time we think of individual differences as a measurable aspect of an entire personality'. The definition makes it very clear that industrial psychology understands each aspect of the human personality. Various individuals show dissimilarities in physical and mental growth, nature, rate of learning, potential, interest, personality, etc.

### NOTES

#### Types of individual differences

- **Average intelligence:** Certain differences exist among individuals because of their level of intelligence.
- **Particular skills:** Individual differences connected to particular skills are vital since certain professions need some types of specific skills.
- **Difference associated with background:** The existing difference in the working environment is an outcome of the various facilities and communities to which the people belong.
- **Alacrity in learning:** A difference in eagerness of learning is evident amongst the individuals. It is also dependent on the maturity and the educational background.
- **Differences in sex:** A study reveals the sources of difference between man and woman, which are as follows:
  - (i) A woman displays enhanced skills when making differentiating sensory things like taste, smell etc. On the other hand, man displays more skills when size and weight judgments have to be made.
  - (ii) The handwriting of a female is far better than that of a male whereas a man is more logical.
  - (iii) A man commits three times the mistakes committed by a woman when speaking.
- **Nationality:** The study of this factor results in the conclusion that various nations are different with respect to nature as well.
- **Economic situation:** Economic differences create differences in the interests, are character of individuals as well.
- **Difference in personality:** Terman categorized people in nine classes on the basis of their intelligence. These nine classes are as follows:
  1. Genius
  2. Nearly genius
  3. Superior intelligence
  4. Superior

## NOTES

5. Average
6. Backward
7. Feeble-minded
8. Dull
9. Idiot

### Causes of individual differences

There are certain individual variables which lead to individual differences. Situational variables also cause individual differences.

#### 1. Individual variables

Individual variables are as follows:

- (i) Age
- (ii) Physical development
- (iii) Heredity
- (iv) Sentiments of personality
- (v) Effect of rakes
- (vi) Effect of nation
- (vii) Intelligence
- (viii) Emotional stability
- (ix) Temperament
- (x) Differences related to learning
- (xi) Cultural background
- (xii) Attitude

#### 2. Situational variables

Such variables are again categorized into job variables and organizational variables. On the basis of the two, the individuals may be divided into the following:

- (i) **Rational – economic man:** A rational – economic man is one who strives to make contributions for the maximization of economic interest. The features of this individual are as follows:
  - He is motivated by economic incentives.
  - He can be motivated by financial motivation techniques.
  - He believes on the Classical organizational team.
  - His productivity increases when all his primary economic and financial requirements are met.

- (ii) **Social man:** The characteristics of a social man are as follows:
- A social man is a part of the society.
  - His activities are influenced by social forces.
  - This man values social relationships more than the economic motives of his own.
  - He obeys the orders of the management.
- (iii) **Organization man:** William H. White defined the organization man as the one 'who sacrifices his individuality for the sake of group and organization as well'. This kind of man has a firm belief in faithfulness towards an organization besides co-operation with his co-workers. The characteristics of this man are as follows:
- The individual contributes towards the production of 'whole' which is more than the sum of each of its parts.
  - A sense of belonging is the eventual requirement for this individual.
  - The eventual assumption is that the organization cares for the interests of an individual and therefore there must not be any kind of disagreement between the organization and the individual.
- (iv) **Self-actualizing man:** The features of a self-actualizing man are as follows:
- This man undergoes change from immaturity to maturity while he self-actualizes himself resulting in the requirement for several modifications.
  - This man is generally self-motivated and self-contented. Thus, any incentive or control forced on him externally will fail to intimidate him.
  - A conflict between a self-actualizing man and the formal organization often exists as the organization does not permit him fulfill his self-actualization needs.
- (v) **Complex man:** A complex man displays the following characteristics:
- The complex variables motivate this man.
  - This man can learn the various objectives as a result of his interaction with the organization.

## NOTES

### Check Your Progress

1. Mention one factor that result in individual differences.
2. How did Terman categorize people?

## NOTES

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### 2.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. Different average intelligence leads to individual differences.
2. Terman categorized people in nine classes on the basis of their intelligence.

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### 2.4 SUMMARY

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- Skinner says that, ‘In today’s time we think of individual differences as a measurable aspect of an entire personality’.
- Various individuals show dissimilarities in physical and mental growth, nature, rate of learning, potential, interest, personality, etc.
- Certain differences exist among individuals because of their level of intelligence.
- The existing difference in the working environment is an outcome of the various facilities and communities to which the people belong.
- A difference in eagerness of learning is evident amongst the individuals. It is also dependent on the maturity and the educational background.
- Economic differences create differences in the interests, are character of individuals as well.
- Terman categorized people in nine classes on the basis of their intelligence.
- There are certain individual variables which lead to individual differences. Situational variables also cause individual differences.
- A rational – economic man is one who strives to make contributions for the maximization of economic interest.
- William H. White defined the organization man as the one ‘who sacrifices his individuality for the sake of group and organization as well’.

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### 2.5 KEY WORDS

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- **Self-actualization:** It is the realization or fulfilment of one’s talents and potentialities, especially considered as a drive or need present in everyone.
- **Variable:** It is an element, feature, or factor that is liable to vary or change.
- **Heredity:** It refers to the passing on of physical or mental characteristics genetically from one generation to another.
- **Personality:** It is the combination of characteristics or qualities that form an individual’s distinctive character.

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## **2.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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### **Short Answer Questions**

1. Describe the various types of individual differences.
2. What do you understand by situational variables?

### **Long Answer Questions**

1. What are the causes of individual differences? Discuss in detail.

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## **2.7 FURTHER READINGS**

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume 1*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

### **NOTES**

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## UNIT 3 INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

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### NOTES

#### Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Individual Behaviour: Overview
  - 3.2.1 Individual Differences: Meaning, Nature, Dimensions and Values
- 3.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 3.4 Summary
- 3.5 Key Words
- 3.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 3.7 Further Readings

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### 3.0 INTRODUCTION

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It is a known fact that no two individuals are exactly the same in terms of personality or behaviour. Each individual reacts to a common situation in various different ways. A lot of external and internal factors influence this behaviour which is displayed by individuals at home and at work place.

It has been established that certain characteristics of behaviour are genetic in nature and human beings inherit a certain degree of similarity to other individuals, as well as uniqueness in the form of genes and chromosomes. Some of the characteristics such as physical traits including physical height, slimness, dexterity, intellectual capacity and the ability to learn and logicalize are all inherited and have a wide impact on behavioural patterns. In this unit, you will study about individual behaviour in depth.

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### 3.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the meaning of individual behaviour
- Discuss the meaning and nature of individual differences

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### 3.2 INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR: OVERVIEW

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According to R.S. Dwivedi, the structures of the nervous system play a significant part in the emerging pattern of behaviour thus bringing about the integration of human behaviour and personality. Some psychologists believe that some aspects of human behaviour can be explained in terms of neural activity and neuro-physiological processes. Dwivedi further explains:

‘Integration of human behaviour takes place because of the constant functioning of receptors, effectors and connectors. Here the nervous system is primarily involved in the connecting process. The numerous receptor cells attached to the individual’s sense organs tend to convert physical and chemical events from the environment into neural events while the several effector cells attached to the muscles and glands convert these neural events into responses’.

These responses result in behavioural activity ranging from simple reflex action to the complex creative activity.

### **3.2.1 Individual Differences: Meaning, Nature, Dimensions and Values**

In this section we study how ability, which includes intelligence and other biological characteristics such as age, gender and race influence the performance and job satisfaction of employees.

#### **Ability**

This can be defined as the individual’s capacity to perform the tasks he has been given. Abilities can be divided into intellectual abilities and physical abilities.

#### **Intellectual abilities**

- There are the abilities required to perform mental tasks.
- IQ tests such as SAT, GMAT are designed to ascertain intellectual levels for college admissions.
- Jobs differ in the requirement of intellectual abilities. For example, the more information sharing needs in a job, the more intelligence and verbal abilities will be required.
- New research focuses on ‘multiple intelligences’ which breaks down intelligence into four sub parts of - cognitive, social, emotional and cultural.
- The various dimensions of intellectual ability are number aptitude, verbal comprehension, perceptual speed, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, spatial visualization and memory.

#### **Physical Abilities**

- These abilities require the capacity to do tasks which demand stamina, dexterity and strength.
- Physical strength can be ascertained or tested with the bodily requirements of the task.
- Physical abilities are divided into strength, flexibility and other factors.
- Strength factors are dynamic strength, trunk strength, static strength, and explosive strength.
- Flexibility factors include extent flexibility and dynamic flexibility.
- Other factors are body coordination, balance and stamina.

## **NOTES**



## NOTES

Employee performance is enhanced when there is a high ability fit, but care must be taken that focus is not directed only towards the employees' abilities or the abilities required by the job, there should be an equal balance of both.

When the employee is overqualified for the job, even though the performance will be satisfactory, there will be a decline in the job satisfaction of the employee as he will soon get bored or frustrated by the tasks on hand. On the other hand, if the employee has to deliver a higher quality of performance than he is able, then too there will be lack of motivation, inefficient production of work and overall frustration experienced.

### **Biographical characteristics**

Various biographical factors also have an impact on the performance and job satisfaction levels of the employee.

#### ***Age***

The relationship between age and job performance is becoming more important

- The older you are the more settled in a job and thus less likely to change or quit jobs.
- Generally, older employees have a lower rate of absenteeism, other than for unavoidable circumstances as they are more responsible. They also have more responsibilities at home and are thus more careful about quitting or changing jobs.
- Some other research however shows that a U-shaped pattern emerging, whereby there is a difference between professionals and non-professionals as they age. Professionals tend to be increasingly satisfied with their jobs as they age. Non-professionals on the other hand experience a fall in job satisfaction towards their middle age, which rises again as they age.

#### ***Gender***

Evidence based on research shows that there is very little difference between men and women that will affect their job satisfaction.

- There are no differences between males and females employed in work involving problem-solving skills, analytical skills, and both have an equal amount of motivational and competitive spirit in them.
- There is sometimes a difference seen in the preference of work schedules as women generally have families to attend to.
- Some studies have found that women produce a higher turnover but this is not very well substantiated.

***Marital status***

There is not enough research to substantiate whether marital status impacts job performance and satisfaction. Married employees are generally more satisfied and have lower absentee rates and higher turnovers than their unmarried colleagues.

***Tenure***

Research has proved that tenure and turnover are negatively related, as being approved for tenure and the seniority being recognized is a very important factor leading to job satisfaction and high performance.

<p><b>Check Your Progress</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Define ability.</li> <li>2. List the sub-parts of intelligence.</li> </ol>
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### **3.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. Ability can be defined as the individual's capacity to perform the tasks he has been given.
  2. The four sub-parts of intelligence are cognitive, social, emotional and cultural.
- 

### **3.4 SUMMARY**

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- It has been established that certain characteristics of behaviour are genetic in nature and a human being inherits a certain degree of similarity to other individuals, as well as uniqueness in the form of genes and chromosomes.
- Some of the characteristics such as physical traits including physical height, slimness, dexterity, intellectual capacity and the ability to learn and logicalize are all inherited and have a wide impact on behavioural patterns.
- According to R.S. Dwivedi, the structures of the nervous system play a significant part in the emerging pattern of behaviour thus bringing about the integration of human behaviour and personality.
- 'Integration of human behaviour takes place because of the constant functioning of receptors, effectors and connectors.
- The numerous receptor cells attached to the individual's sense organs tend to convert physical and chemical events from the environment into neural events while the several effector cells attached to the muscles and glands convert these neural events into responses

**NOTES**

## NOTES

- These responses result in behavioural activity ranging from simple reflex action to the complex creative activity.
- Ability can be defined as the individual's capacity to perform the tasks he has been given. Abilities can be divided into intellectual abilities and physical abilities.
- IQ tests such as SAT, GMAT are designed to ascertain intellectual levels for college admissions.
- The various dimensions of intellectual ability are number aptitude, verbal comprehension, perceptual speed, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, spatial visualization and memory.
- Physical strength can be ascertained or tested with the bodily requirements of the task.
- Strength factors are dynamic strength, trunk strength, static strength, and explosive strength.
- Employee performance is enhanced when there is a high ability fit, but care must be taken that focus is not directed only towards the employees' abilities or the abilities required by the job, there should be an equal balance of both.
- When the employee is overqualified for the job, even though the performance will be satisfactory, there will be a decline in the job satisfaction of the employee as he will soon get bored or frustrated by the tasks on hand.
- On the other hand, if the employee has to deliver a higher quality of performance than he is able, then too there will be lack of motivation, inefficient production of work and overall frustration experienced.
- Various biographical factors also have an impact on the performance and job satisfaction levels of the employee.
- Generally, older employees have a lower rate of absenteeism, other than for unavoidable circumstances as they are more responsible.
- Some other research however shows that a U-shaped pattern emerging, whereby there is a difference between professionals and non-professionals as they age.
- Evidence based on research shows that there is very little difference between men and women that will affect their job satisfaction.
- There is not enough research to substantiate whether marital status impacts job performance and satisfaction.
- Married employees are generally more satisfied and have lower absentee rates and higher turnovers than their unmarried colleagues.
- Research has proved that tenure and turnover are negatively related, as being approved for tenure and the seniority being recognized is a very important factor leading to job satisfaction and high performance.

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### 3.5 KEY WORDS

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- **Performance:** It is the accomplishment of a given task measured against pre-set known standards of accuracy, completeness, cost, and speed.
- **Intellectual:** It is one's ability to think and understand things, especially complicated ideas.
- **IQ:** It is the abbreviation for intelligence quotient which is a measure of someone's intelligence estimated through special tests.

### NOTES

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### 3.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. Define ability. What are intellectual abilities?
2. Discuss physical abilities of individuals.

#### Long Answer Questions

1. What do you understand by individual behaviour? What factors influence this behaviour?
2. Analyse the biographical factors that have an impact on the performance and job satisfaction levels of the employee.

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### 3.7 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume 1*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

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## UNIT 4 FACTORS INFLUENCING INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

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### NOTES

#### Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Factors Influencing Individual Behaviour: An Overview
  - 4.2.1 Personality
  - 4.2.2 Learning Ability
  - 4.2.3 Perception
  - 4.2.4 Attitude
- 4.3 Job Satisfaction: Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction
- 4.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 Key Words
- 4.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 4.8 Further Readings

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### 4.0 INTRODUCTION

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The way an individual addresses a situation is influenced by many factors. The key factors influencing an individual's attitude in personal as well as social life are as follows:

- Abilities
- Attribution
- Perception
- Attitude

Each individual has a unique personality which defines his or her conduct and behaviour in a work place setting. Different approaches have been made to define personality but there is no agreement on a single definition of personality. Though there is diversity of views but even then, all psychologists agree on certain common basic characteristics. One basic fact is that personality is unique. No two individuals, even identical twins, have alike personality. The second basic fact regarding personality is that it is the product of its own functioning. What we do today, depends on our accumulated experiences of the past. The experiences are accumulated day after day and shape our personality by continuous interaction with the external environment. The third common characteristic of most definitions is that they stress the need to understand the meaning of individual differences. Personality is what makes individuals unique: it is only through the study of personality that the relevant differences among individuals can be made clear.

This units highlights the factors that influence individual behaviour.

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## 4.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Describe the factors influencing individual behaviour
- Explain the concepts of personality, learning ability, perception and attitude
- Discuss the meaning of and factors influencing job satisfaction

## NOTES

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## 4.2 FACTORS INFLUENCING INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR: AN OVERVIEW

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This section discusses the factors that influence individual behaviour in depth.

### 4.2.1 Personality

There is no topic in the field of psychology which is more fascinating than personality. Tremendous research has been done on the topic, but no final conclusions have been drawn as regards the nature of personality. If you ask a man, the meaning of the term personality, he would not be able to give answer to this simple question in clear and definite terms because the human personality is so complex a phenomenon that it can be interpreted in many ways.

The term personality has been defined in various ways by the psychologists who worked on the problem of personality and the variables influencing its development.

#### Meaning of Personality

The meaning and definition of any term is arbitrary. This also holds true in case of the word personality. To arrive at its meaning, we have to trace the historical root of the word. The term personality has been derived from the Latin word 'Persona' that was associated with Greek theatre in ancient times. Persona means a mask which the Greek actors commonly used to wear covering their faces when they worked on the stage. In our own country, actors in *Ram Lila* and *Krishna Lila* use masks when they enact the role of a particular character from the epics.

The mask, worn by the actors, was called persona. According to the concept of mask, personality was thought to be the effect and influence which the individual wearing a mask left on the audience. Even today, for a layman, personality means the effect which an individual leaves on other people. Precisely, we can say that the mask or persona of the actor implied a cover for the real person behind it. It was developed on the basis of Plato's idealistic philosophy who believed that personality is a mere facade for some substance.

## NOTES

### Some Definitions

1. **Personality as a stimulus:** Some psychologists define personality in terms of its social stimulus value. How an individual affects other persons with whom he comes in contact, whether he is impressive or repulsive, or has a dominating or submissive personality. Personality, from this point of view, becomes identical to reputation and impression, mostly in terms of physical appearance, clothing, conversation and etiquette. Generally, we use this concept of personality in selecting applicants for various jobs and courses. The interviewers take into consideration the total picture of an individual's organized behaviour.
2. **Summative approach:** The second approach of defining personality emphasizes the importance of sum total of different processes and activities of the individual as, for example, innate dispositions, habits, impulses and emotions, etc. This approach was criticized by Gestalt psychologists who objected to the idea of aggregation or sum total of parts without introducing the concept of organization and integration of parts into a total whole.
3. **Integrative approach:** The definitions of this category lay emphasis on the integrative of personality and its definite pattern of organization. Warren's dictionary defines personality as: 'Personality is the integrative organization of all the cognitive, affective, conative and physical characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinction from others.'  
  
G.W. Hartman said, 'Personality is integrated organization of all the pervasive characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinctiveness to others.'
4. **Totality view:** This approach to define personality puts more emphasis on integration than the first category of definitions given above. It forgets the part. According to this view, the general characterization or pattern of an individual's total behaviour is his personality. A man's personality is the total picture of his organized behaviour, especially, as it can be characterized by his fellowmen in a consistent way. Mark Sherman in his book, *Personality: Inquiry and Application* (1979) has defined personality as, 'the characteristic pattern of behaviours, cognitions and emotions which may be experienced by the individual and/or manifest to others.'
5. **Personality as adjustment:** An individual, since his birth, attempts to adjust to his environment. Behaviour of an individual can be defined as an adjustment to his environment. Every individual develops his own unique way of adjustment in the society. According to this approach, personality is an individual's characteristic pattern of behaviour. An individual, through his continuous reactions, attempts to adjust himself in his environment. We can say that sum of the individual's movements as he adapts himself to the environment is his personality.

We have described the various approaches to define the term personality. We will now examine important definitions of personality.

Fredenburgh in his book, *The Psychology of Personality and Adjustment* tried to summarize the various definitions in a single definition which runs as, 'Personality is a stable system of complex characteristics by which the life pattern of the individual may be identified.'

Allport an American psychologist (1961) who devoted most of his time for research on personality defines: 'Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.'

The definition given by Allport is very comprehensive and includes all aspects of an individual's personality. Some terms used in the definition need explanation. Dynamic means that personality is undergoing a constant change but is still organized. It constitutes two types of systems, psycho (mental) and physical, and these two systems interact with internal and external environment. The word 'determine' lays emphasis that it is the psychophysical system that activates the organism for action. The unique adjustment of the individual to his environment means that each individual employ different methods of adjustment resulting in unique adjustment.

Guilford (1959) defines personality as, 'An individual's personality, then, is his unique pattern of traits .... A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another.'

#### **4.2.2 Learning Ability**

Learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour or potential behaviour as a result of direct or indirect experience. There are two primary elements in this definition that must both be present in order to identify the process of learning. First is the element that the change must be relatively permanent. This means that after "learning", our behaviour must be different, either better or worse as compared to our behaviour prior to this experience of learning. For example, if you have taken a course in "word processing" and you have learned how to use a computer to do word processing, then this change is long lasting as long as you continue to exhibit this changed behaviour that means that you continue to use the computer for this purpose. Similarly, you "learn" to drive a car or learn to use chopsticks for eating your Chinese food that you did not know before "learning".

The second aspect of the definition is that this change must occur due to some kind of experience or practice. This learning is not caused by biological maturation. For example, a child does not learn to walk, it is a natural biological phenomenon because the child gains strength as he grows older. Similarly, we do not learn to eat or drink. Accordingly, learning must be because of some interaction with the environment and some feedback from such environment that affects behaviour. This experience does not have to be direct experience such as a secretary

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enrolling for a typing course and increasing her typing speed. It can also be due to indirect experience of observing behaviour changes in others. For example, if you find out that your co-workers who come late to work are severely reprimanded by their supervisors, you would tend to come to work on time. This is an indirect experience.

Some incidents do not change the behaviour but only the behaviour potential. For example, if someone is thinking of using drugs, but has not actually used them and he finds out that a friend of his died because of drugs then he will not get involved with drugs. This experience has changed his behaviour potential.

It must be understood that the learning itself is not observable, but only the change in behaviour is observable that is the direct result of the process of learning. This change in behaviour must be differentiated from changes in behaviour because of other causes. The causes of such changes include aging, such as being stronger or improvement in memory in the early formative years, instinctive response tendencies such as a timid person being brave at the time of a crisis and such temporary factors as fatigue or use of drugs. Accordingly, as a unique determinant of behaviour, learning cannot take place unless the learner actually experiences what has to be learned.

### **4.2.3 Perception**

Perception is the process through which the information from outside environment is selected, received, organized and interpreted to make it meaningful. This input of meaningful information results in decisions and actions. It is a result of a complex interaction of various senses such as feeling, seeing, hearing, thinking and comparing with known aspects of life in order to make some sense of the world around us. The quality or accuracy of a person's perception is an important factor in determining the quality of the decision and action. Perception has been explained by Ajit Singh as follows:

“Perception refers to interpretation of sensory data. In other words, sensation involves detecting the presence of a stimulus whereas perception involves understanding what the stimulus means. For example, when we see some thing, the visual stimulus is the light energy reflected from the external world and the eye becomes the sensor. This visual image of the external thing becomes perception when it is interpreted in the visual cortex of the brain. Thus, visual perception refers to interpreting the image of the external world projected on the retina of the eye and constructing a model of the three dimensional world.”

Perception is primarily an individual process so that different people may perceive an identical situation differently. “All that glitters is not gold” and “things are not what they seem”, are all reflections of various perceptions about the same situation. People behave on the basis of what they perceive reality to be and not necessarily as what reality is.

The following two examples amply illustrate the difference between what reality is, and as is perceived by different individuals. The first example involves former US President Richard Nixon and one of his aides.

“The President was working alone, very late at night, in a hotel room while on a trip. He opened the door, beckoned to a waiting aide and ordered, “Get me Coffee.” The aide immediately responded to the directive. Most of the activities at the hotel including the kitchen, were not operating at such a late hour. Hotel personnel had to be called in and a fresh pot of coffee was brewed. All of these activities took some time and the President kept asking about “coffee” while waiting. Finally, a tray was made up with a carafe of coffee, cream, sugar and some sweet rolls and was rushed to the President’s suite. It was only at this point that the aide learned that the President did not want coffee to drink, but rather wanted to talk to an assistant whose name was Coffee.” The second example is quoted by an author, from his personal experience and it is given as follows:

“I was in a supermarket when a girl about eight years old came running around a corner. She looked back and screamed, “Stop! Stop! you are killing him. You are killing my father!” I dropped my things and hurried in the direction from which the girl had come. As I turned the corner, I was greeted by a grisly scene. A man was stretched out on the floor and another was on top of him. The man on the top must have been six feet six inches tall and must have weighed 300 pounds. He looked only half human. He had his victim by the throat and was beating his head against the floor. There was blood everywhere. I ran for the store manager.

By the time the manager and I returned to the scene, the police were just arriving. It took quite a while to straighten things out, but here are the facts that emerged. The man on the floor was a diabetic who had suffered an insulin reaction. As a result, he passed out and hit his head as he went down. This caused the cut (actually quite a minor one) that accounted for the “blood everywhere”. The “man on the top” had seen the diabetic man fall and was trying to prevent him from injuring himself further while unconscious. He also had been loosening the man’s collar.

If I had not returned, I would have sworn in court that I had seen a murder. This perhaps is understandable. But I will never probably recover from the shock I felt when I met the “murderer”. This is the man, you will recall that I had seen a few moments before, in broad daylight as a huge, vicious creature. The man was not a stranger. He was my neighbour. I had seen him dozens of times before and knew him by name. He is a rather small man”.

These two examples illustrate rather dramatically, what an important role perception plays in our understanding of the world around us and our decisions based upon such perceptions. Both these examples bring to light three influences on the concept of perception about these and other incidents. These influences are:

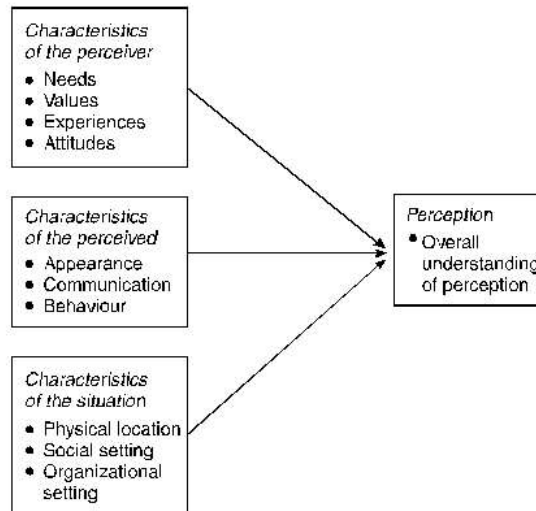
1. The characteristics of the perceiver.
2. The characteristics of the perceived.
3. The characteristics of the situation.

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The characteristics of the perceiver include such factors as needs, values, experience and attitudes. The characteristics of the perceived include his appearance, communication and personal behaviour and the characteristics of the situation include physical location, social setting and organizational setting. These influences are shown diagrammatically as follows:

### Major Influences on the Perception Process



These influences are explained in more detail as follows:

### Characteristics of the Perceiver

A person's needs, habits, impact of past experiences, ethics and values, attitudes and personality, all influence the perception process. For example, a person with strong ego needs would look at other people or situations either as ego satisfying or ego threatening, thus perhaps making the perceptions inaccurate. Similarly, less secure people often find faults with others. Secure persons tend to see others as warm and friendly.

Our ethics and values and our cultural upbringing also play an important role in our perception about others. A non-smoker may prejudice a smoker. Similarly, it is difficult to perceive the personality of a person raised in another culture, because our judgement is based upon our own values.

As an example, a negative attitude towards unions may inhibit the manager towards honest and straight-forward talks with the unions during labour-management negotiations. Similarly, a personnel manager who is biased against women, minorities or handicapped persons will be very sensitive to them during an employment interview. This happens because when we don't like a person, then we always look for negative aspects of that person.

Our attitude towards others is also influenced by our previous experiences with them. For example, if an employee was promised a bonus or a promotion on

certain accomplishments and did not receive the promised rewards in spite of such accomplishments, then he would perceive the manager with distrust.

### **Characteristics of the Perceived**

It may defy logic and objectivity, but we cannot deny that our perceptions about others are influenced by their physical characteristics such as appearance, facial expressions, age, gender, manner of communication as well as personality traits and other forms of behaviours. For example, when we see a person who appears to be assertive and confident, we assume him to be an executive or a leader. People dressed in business suits are generally thought to be professionals while people dressed in ordinary work clothes are assumed to be lower level employees.

Both verbal and non-verbal communication affect our perception about others. The choice of words and precision of language can form impressions about the education and sophistication of the person. The tone of voice sometimes indicates the mood of the person at a given time. The depth of conversation and choice of topics provide clues to people's intelligence. The body language or expressive behaviour such as how people sit and the movement of their eyes or a smile can indicate whether people are nervous or self-confident.

Similarly, the status or occupation of a person creates an impression in our minds. We are awed by people of fame, wealth or professional status. We tend to behave in a more respectful way when we are introduced to a president of a large corporation or a judge of the supreme court or a movie celebrity. When we meet a person, who is described to us as warm and friendly, we treat him differently as compared to meeting a person who is known to be cold and calculating.

### **Characteristics of the Situation**

Physical, social and organizational settings of a situation or event can also influence perceptions. For example, if you meet some lady for the first time and she is with another person whom you respect and admire, you will create a favourable image about her in your mind as compared to a situation in which you see her with a person whom you intensely dislike. Of course, these initial impressions may change over a period of time, but the saying that the "first impression is the last impression" is very valid. Location of a given event is also an important factor in determining behaviour. You will behave with your boss differently at a social function than in the office. In an organizational setting where people are given an opportunity to interact in a friendly and sociable work situation, they become more trustworthy and less defensive.

#### **4.2.4 Attitude**

One of the chief objectives of education is the development of desirable attitudes in students. It is, therefore, obvious that the teachers must understand the various dimensions of an attitude. It is also to be kept in view that different kinds of attitudes

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need to be developed in students—attitude towards studies, attitude towards self, attitude towards colleagues, attitude towards certain ideals, etc.

In the words of Anastasi an American psychologist, ‘An attitude is often defined as a tendency to react favourably or unfavourably towards a designated class of stimuli, such as a national or a racial group, a custom or an institution.’

According to another psychologist Frank Freeman, ‘An attitude is a dispositional readiness to respond to certain institutions, persons or objects in a consistent manner which has been learnt and has become one’s typical mode of response. An attitude has a well-defined object of reference. For example, one’s views regarding class of food or drink (such as fish and liquors), sports, mathematics or democracy are attitudes.’

Thurstone stated, ‘Attitude denotes the sum-total of a man’s inclinations and feelings, prejudice or bias, pre-conceived notions, ideas, fears, threats about any specific topic. Thus, a man’s attitude about pacifism means here all that he feels and thinks about peace and war. It is admittedly a subjective and personal affair.’

### Characteristics of Attitude

- It is a point of view, substantiated or otherwise, true or false, which one holds towards an idea, object or person
- It includes certain aspects of personality such as interests, appreciations and social conduct
- An attitude is learnt
- An attitude is adopted
- An attitude has aspects, such as, direction, intensity, generality or specificity

A number of scales have been prepared for the measurement of attitude.

The two most frequently used methods for the measurement of social attitude are:

- The Method of Equal Appearing Intervals developed by Thurstone
- The Method of Summated Ratings developed by Likert.

A number of statements are included in the tests.

### Check Your Progress

1. Define personality.
2. What is learning?
3. What factors are included in the characteristics of a perceiver?

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### 4.3 JOB SATISFACTION: FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SATISFACTION

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Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent of positive feelings or attitudes that individuals have towards their jobs. When a person says that he has high job satisfaction, it means that he really likes his job, feels good about it and values his job highly.

It has been established that highly satisfied workers have better physical and mental well-being. It is highly debatable as to which one is the cause, and which one is the effect, but they are known to be correlational. On the other hand, serious job dissatisfaction results in stress and tension that is usually the cause of a variety of physiological disorders.

#### **Consequences of Job Dissatisfaction**

Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is of great concern to management since there seems to be a relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Job dissatisfaction produces low morale among workers and low morale at work is highly undesirable. Accordingly, managers must be constantly watching for any signs of low morale and job dissatisfaction and take corrective action as soon as possible. Some of the indicators of low morale are:

**Employee unrest:** Unrest is a general condition of unhappiness with job and may manifest itself in a number of ways. The worker may not attend to his job properly, may be involved in daydreaming, be forgetful or just may not care. He may start complaining about work conditions and find faults with everything that goes on in the work environment. He may register formal grievances excessively and start coming late to work or be absent from work periodically. Sometimes, this unrest becomes so frustrating that it may lead to such undesirable habits as excessive drinking. At its extreme, unrest may affect the mental health and well-being of the worker.

If this unrest affects a sufficient number of workers they may take collective action such as go-slows, work stoppages, strikes and other allied group actions.

**Absenteeism:** Job satisfaction is highly related to absenteeism. Studies have found that less satisfied employees are more likely to be absent from work due to “avoidable reasons”. This is known as voluntary absenteeism as against involuntary absenteeism due to illness or other emergency reasons that are unavoidable and are not related to job satisfaction.

In an interesting experiment, Frank Smith studied the attendance rate of salaried employees at Sears Roebuck Company on a day of severe blizzard and found that highly satisfied employees were more likely to exert the high level of effort necessary to get to work. In such work units where job satisfaction was low, attendance at work was much lower.

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Management must be concerned with excessive absenteeism for it disrupts production and business operations.

**Tardiness:** Similar to absenteeism, tardiness is also generally believed to reflect job dissatisfaction. It is assumed that this tardiness is not due to some explainable reason such as getting children ready for school but only due to the fact that employees really do not care much for the job. This is indicated by such employee tardiness as spending excessive time in rest rooms, lingering in the parking lot before coming to work, spending too much time on personal telephone calls, and in general, an attitude of passing time at work rather than spending time for useful productivity. Similarly, when students come habitually late to class, it can be assumed that they are dissatisfied with the course or with the professor teaching that course.

**Employee turnover:** High employee turnover disrupts normal operations and continuously replacing the employees who leave is costly and both technically and economically undesirable. According to Arnold and Feldman, 18 organizational units with the lowest average satisfaction levels tend to have the highest turnover rates.

Managerial concern ought to be for such turnover, that is primarily the result of dissatisfactory organizational climate. There are other reasons for voluntary turnover such as alternative places of employment, geographical constraints, family responsibilities, highly marketable employee's special skills and simply an environment change. Additionally if such turnover is among poor performers, then the change may be in the best interests of the organization.

Turnover may be voluntary that is initiated by the employee and may be due to job dissatisfaction or other personal reasons beyond management control. It may be initiated by management and may be due to unsatisfactory conduct exhibited by employees such as incompetence, violation of rules, dishonesty, laziness, insubordination and habitual absenteeism. Turnover could also be due to modernization of plant, lack of orders for the product, materials shortage or generally hard economic times. In any case, the matter of turnover should be seriously investigated, and corrective measures taken wherever necessary.

**Union activity:** Studies have shown that satisfied employees are generally not interested in unions and they do not perceive them as necessary. The evidence is strong that job dissatisfaction is a major cause of unionization. Furthermore, the employees feel that individually they are unable to influence changes that would result in the elimination of such factors that cause job dissatisfaction. This job dissatisfaction is primarily caused by lower level needs in Maslow's model of hierarchal needs, such as working conditions and job security rather than higher level needs such as creativity or challenging opportunities. The level of union activities is related to level of job dissatisfaction. Lower levels of jobs dissatisfaction may result in grievances while higher levels of job dissatisfaction may result in employee strikes.

**Early retirement:** Studies have been conducted by Schmitt and McLain to establish relationship between early retirement and job satisfaction. There has been evidence that employees who choose early retirement tend to hold less positive attitudes towards their jobs. Employees with higher level positions with challenging work opportunities are less likely to seek early retirement than employees with lower level jobs.

**A job satisfaction:** Job satisfaction results from the employee's perception that the job content and context actually provide what an employee values in the work situation. It can be defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience." This positive emotional state is highly contributory to an employee's physical and mental well-being. Organizationally speaking, high level of job satisfaction reflects a highly favourable organizational climate resulting in attracting and retaining better workers.

### **Sources of Job Satisfaction**

Many research studies have been conducted on the subject of job satisfaction and employee morale in order to establish some of the causes that result in job satisfaction. These studies have revealed that certain variables are consistently correlated with job satisfaction. Some of these factors have been grouped into four identifiable, discrete categories. These are as follows:

1. Organizational factors.
2. Work environmental factors.
3. Factors related to work itself.
4. Personal factors.

### **Organizational Factors**

Some of the organizational factors as sources of job satisfaction are:

**Salaries and wages:** Salaries and wages play a significant role in determining the level of job satisfaction irrespective of the level of position that an employee holds in the organization. Studies conducted by Locke indicate that pay is the primary determinant of job satisfaction, especially when it is perceived as fair and equitable compared to others and relative to employee's own efforts and contributions. Pay is also the prime mover since it satisfies the first level needs of Maslow's model of motivation. It is also considered a symbol of achievement since higher pay reflects a higher degree of contribution towards organizational operations and welfare.

**Promotions:** Promotional opportunities are another source of job satisfaction, specially at higher level jobs, because a promotion indicates an employee's worth to the organization that is highly morale boosting. A promotion also involves a positive change in higher salary, less supervision, more challenging work assignments, increased responsibility and decision-making freedom. Promotion is a source of job satisfaction for executives more than for lower level jobs such as secretaries

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because executive promotion brings with it far better benefits than in the case of lower level administrative jobs.

**Company policies:** Organizational structure and organization policies play an important role in establishing an environment that is conducive to job satisfaction. A highly authoritative and autocratic structure may produce more resentment on the part of employees who may want more open and democratic style of leadership. Organization policies usually govern employee behaviour and depending upon how strict or liberal these policies are, can generate positive or negative feelings about the organization. Liberal and fair policies are usually associated with job satisfaction. Employees who feel unduly constrained because of strict policies or feel that they are not treated fairly, would not be happy with the job.

### Work Environment

The work environment factors include the following:

**Supervisory style:** It has been established that wherever the supervisors are friendly and supportive of workers, there is job satisfaction. Conversely, it can also be established that satisfied employees themselves create a social environment at work where supervisors are more considerate towards such employees. In any case, a close relationship between the supervisor and the worker and worker participation in decision making about such issues that directly concern the worker, are highly conducive to job satisfaction.

**Work group:** The group size and the quality of interpersonal relations within the group play a significant role in worker happiness. Larger group sizes usually lead to lower level of job satisfaction due to the fact that large groups lead to poor interpersonal communication, reduced feeling of togetherness and difficulty in getting to know each other more closely. Smaller groups provide greater opportunity for building mutual trust and understanding.

Work group also serves as a social, moral and emotional support system for the employee. If the people in the group exhibit similar societal characteristics, such as attitudes and beliefs, they tend to be drawn closer to each other resulting in a work climate that improves job satisfaction.

**Working conditions:** Good working conditions are highly desirable because they lead to greater physical comfort. People put a high premium on a clean and orderly work station and factors such as heating, air conditioning, humidity, lighting, noise level, availability of adequate tools and equipment and desirable work schedules, all contribute to higher level of satisfaction. While such desirable conditions are taken for granted, and may not contribute heavily towards job satisfaction, poor working conditions become a source of job dissatisfaction, simply because they lead to physical discomfort and physical danger.

## **Work Itself**

By and large, the work itself plays a major role in determining the level of job satisfaction. The job content has two aspects. One is the “job scope” that involves the amount of responsibility, work pace and the feedback provided. The higher the level of these factors, the higher the job scope and thus higher the level of satisfaction. The second aspect is variety. It has been found that a moderate amount of variety is most effective. Excessive variety produces confusion and stress and too little variety causes monotony and fatigue that are dissatisfiers. Additionally, lack of autonomy and freedom over work methods and work pace creates a sense of helplessness. It is not very motivating for the employees to have their every step and every action determined by their supervisor. It is highly dehumanizing and causes dissatisfaction.

Role ambiguity and role conflict are to be avoided because employees feel very unhappy if they do not know exactly what their task is and what is expected of them.

## **Personal Factors**

While the external environment within the organization and the nature of the job are important determinants of job satisfaction, personal attributes of individual employees play a very important role as to whether they are happy at the job or not. People with generally negative attitudes about life and pessimists always complain about everything including the job. No matter how good the job is, such people always find something wrong with it to complain about.

Age, seniority and tenure have considerable influence on job satisfaction, It is expected that as people grow older, they usually come up the corporate ladder with the passage of time and move into more challenging and responsible positions. Meeting these challenges and succeeding is a high source of satisfaction. Even if they do not move up in their position, it is equally natural to assume that with age, people become more mature and realistic and less idealistic so that they are willing to accept available resources and rewards and be satisfied about the situation. Employees who do not move up at all with time are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

Tenure assures job security, and the feeling of job security is highly satisfactory to employees. This means that they can plan for the future without fear of losing the job. Thus, employees with tenure are expected to be highly satisfied with their jobs.

Equally important is the intrinsic source of satisfaction that comes from within the person and is a function of the employee’s personality. Some of the personality traits that are directly related to increased job satisfaction are self-assurance, self-esteem, maturity, decisiveness, sense of autonomy, challenge and responsibility. It can be concluded that the higher the person is on Maslow’s model of hierarchical needs, the higher is the job satisfaction.

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**Check Your Progress**

4. What is job satisfaction?
5. What is the relation between absenteeism and job satisfaction?

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**4.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. Guilford (1959) defines personality as, ‘An individual’s personality, then, is his unique pattern of traits .... A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another.’
2. Learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour or potential behaviour as a result of direct or indirect experience.
3. The characteristics of the perceiver include such factors as needs, values, experience and attitudes.
4. Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent of positive feelings or attitudes that individuals have towards their jobs.
5. Job satisfaction is highly related to absenteeism. Studies have found that less satisfied employees are more likely to be absent from work due to “avoidable reasons”.

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**4.5 SUMMARY**

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- The term personality has been defined in various ways by the psychologists who worked on the problem of personality and the variables influencing its development.
- The term personality has been derived from the Latin word ‘Persona’ that was associated with Greek theatre in ancient times.
- Persona means a mask which the Greek actors commonly used to wear covering their faces when they worked on the stage.
- Some psychologists define personality in terms of its social stimulus value. How an individual affects other person with whom he comes in contact, whether he is impressive or repulsive, or has a dominating or submissive personality.
- Generally, we use this concept of personality in selecting applicants for various jobs and courses.
- The second approach of defining personality emphasizes the importance of sum total of different processes and activities of the individual as, for example, innate dispositions, habits, impulses and emotions, etc.

- This approach was criticized by Gestalt psychologists who objected to the idea of aggregation or sum total of parts without introducing the concept of organization and integration of parts into a total whole.
- G.W. Hartman said ‘Personality is integrated organization of all the pervasive characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinctiveness to others.’
- Mark Sherman in his book, *Personality: Inquiry and Application* (1979) has defined personality as, ‘the characteristic pattern of behaviours, cognitions and emotions which may be experienced by the individual and/or manifest to others.’
- Behaviour of an individual can be defined as an adjustment to his environment. Every individual develops his own unique way of adjustment in the society.
- An individual, through his continuous reactions, attempts to adjust himself in his environment.
- Fredenburgh in his book, *The Psychology of Personality and Adjustment* tried to summarize the various definitions in a single definition which runs as, ‘Personality is a stable system of complex characteristics by which the life pattern of the individual may be identified.’
- Allport an American psychologist (1961) who devoted most of his time for research on personality defines: ‘Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.’
- Dynamic means that personality is undergoing a constant change but is still organized.
- It constitutes two types of systems, psycho (mental) and physical, and these two systems interact with internal and external environment.
- The word ‘determine’ lays emphasis that it is the psychophysical system that activates the organism for action.
- Guilford (1959) defines personality as, ‘An individual’s personality, then, is his unique pattern of traits .... A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another.’
- One basic fact is that personality is unique. No two individuals, even identical twins, have alike personality. The second basic fact regarding personality is that it is the product of its own functioning.
- The third common characteristic of most definitions is that they stress the need to understand the meaning of individual differences.
- Learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour or potential behaviour as a result of direct or indirect experience.
- There are two primary elements in this definition that must both be present in order to identify the process of learning.

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- First is the element that the change must be relatively permanent.
- The second aspect of the definition is that this change must occur due to some kind of experience or practice.
- It must be understood that the learning itself is not observable, but only the change in behaviour is observable that is the direct result of the process of learning.
- Perception is the process through which the information from outside environment is selected, received, organized and interpreted to make it meaningful.
- The quality or accuracy of a person's perception is an important factor in determining the quality of the decision and action.
- The characteristics of the perceiver include such factors as needs, values, experience and attitudes.
- The characteristics of the perceived include his appearance, communication and personal behaviour and the characteristics of the situation include physical location, social setting and organizational setting.
- A person's needs, habits, impact of past experiences, ethics and values, attitudes and personality, all influence the perception process.
- Both verbal and non-verbal communication affect our perception about others.
- Physical, social and organizational settings of a situation or event can also influence perceptions.
- One of the chief objectives of education is the development of desirable attitudes in students.
- In the words of Anastasi an American psychologist, 'An attitude is often defined as a tendency to react favourably or unfavourably towards a designated class of stimuli, such as a national or a racial group, a custom or an institution.'
- Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent of positive feelings or attitudes that individuals have towards their jobs.
- Job dissatisfaction produces low morale among workers and low morale at work is highly undesirable.
- Job satisfaction is highly related to absenteeism. Studies have found that less satisfied employees are more likely to be absent from work due to "avoidable reasons".
- Job satisfaction results from the employee's perception that the job content and context actually provide what an employee values in the work situation.
- It can be defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience."

- Certain variables are consistently correlated with job satisfaction. Some of these factors have been grouped into four identifiable, discrete categories.
- Salaries and wages play a significant role in determining the level of job satisfaction irrespective of the level of position that an employee holds in the organization.
- Promotional opportunities are another source of job satisfaction, specially at higher level jobs, because a promotion indicates an employee's worth to the organization that is highly morale boosting.
- Organizational structure and organization policies play an important role in establishing an environment that is conducive to job satisfaction.
- A highly authoritative and autocratic structure may produce more resentment on the part of employees who may want more open and democratic style of leadership.
- Good working conditions are highly desirable because they lead to greater physical comfort.
- By and large, the work itself plays a major role in determining the level of job satisfaction. The job content has two aspects.
- One is the "job scope" that involves the amount of responsibility, work pace and the feedback provided. The higher the level of these factors, the higher the job scope and thus higher the level of satisfaction.
- The second aspect is variety. It has been found that a moderate amount of variety is most effective.

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### 4.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Employee:** It refers to a person employed for wages or salary, especially at non-executive level.
- **Interpersonal:** It is relating to relationships or communication between people.
- **Salary:** It is a fixed regular payment, typically paid on a monthly basis but often expressed as an annual sum, made by an employer to an employee, especially a professional or white-collar worker.

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### 4.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. What do you understand by learning ability?
2. What is attitude? Discuss its characteristics.

3. What is the meaning of job satisfaction? What are its consequences?
4. What is the importance of personal attributes in shaping job satisfaction?

## NOTES

### Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the meaning of personality in detail. What are its definitions as given by various psychologists?
2. Explain the meaning of perception. Describe the characteristics of the perceiver, perceived and the situation.
3. What are the sources of job satisfaction? Discuss in detail.

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## 4.8 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume I*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

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## BLOCK - II

### MORALE AND BEHAVIOUR

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**NOTES**

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## UNIT 5 MORALE

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**Structure**

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Objectives
- 5.2 Morale: Meaning, Types and Aspects
- 5.3 Characteristics of High and Low Morale and Essential and Psychological Requirements for High Morale
- 5.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 Key Words
- 5.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 5.8 Further Readings

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### 5.0 INTRODUCTION

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The most valuable asset of any organization is its human resource. Human resource is the sum of inherent abilities, acquired knowledge and skills represented by the talents and aptitudes of the employed persons in an organization. Therefore, it is imperative that to achieve organizational goal, human resources are utilized to the maximum.

The attitudes, feelings and emotions of employees play a vital role in determining their behaviour and performance at the work place. Which in turn determine the success and growth of the organization. Morale is a very widely used term. It generally refers to esprit de corps, a feeling of enthusiasm, zeal and confidence in individuals or groups that they will be able to cope with the tasks assigned to them.

A person's enthusiasm for his job reflects his attitude towards work, environment and to his employer, and his willingness to strive for the goals set for him by the organization in which he is employed. Feelings, emotions, sentiments, attitudes, and motives combine and result in a specific behaviour; and this is what is referred to as employee morale. It represents the attitudes of individuals and groups in an organisation towards their work environment and towards voluntary cooperation to the full extent of their capabilities for the fulfillment of organisational goals. A positive or negative morale is what influences the performance of an employee.



## NOTES

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## 5.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the meaning, types and aspects of morale
  - Discuss the characteristics of high and low morale
  - Explain the essential and psychological requirements for high morale
- 

## 5.2 MORALE: MEANING, TYPES AND ASPECTS

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Edwin Flippo (1961) defined, morale as ‘... a mental condition or attitude of individual and groups which determine their willingness to cooperate.’ Yoder Dale (1972), on the other hand, explained morale as ‘the overall tone, climate or atmosphere of work perhaps regularly sensed by the members. If workers appear to feel enthusiastic and optimistic about group activities, if they have a sense of mission about their job, if they are friendly with each other, they are described as having a good or high morale. If they seem to be dissatisfied, irritated, cranky, critical, restless and pessimistic, they are described as having poor or low morale.’ Elton Mayo defined it as ‘the maintenance of cooperative living’, which means a sense of belongingness. On the other hand, many authors defined morale as a ‘pursuit of a common purpose’, attitude, individual and group job satisfaction, participative attitudes, team spirit, etc. Whatever may be the way of defining, it is evident that morale is a cognitive concept, encompassing feelings, attitudes and sentiments, which together contribute to a general feeling of satisfaction in the workplace.

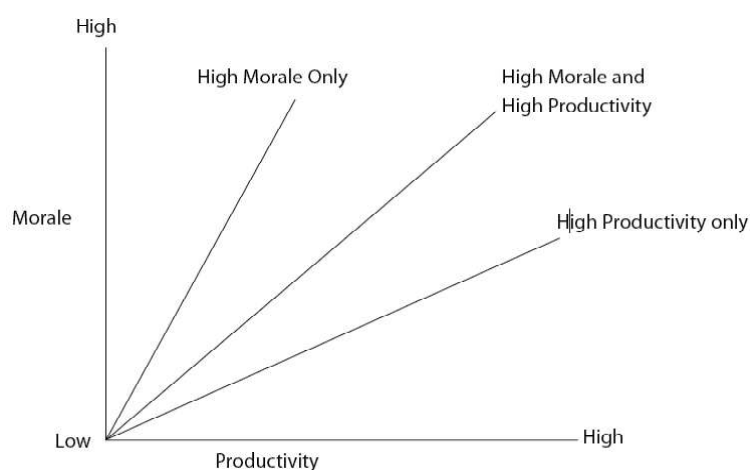
Like morale, motivation is also a cognitive concept, but it is different from morale on certain important aspects. Motivation stimulates individuals into action to achieve desired goals. It is, therefore, functions of need and drives. It mobilizes energy, which enhances the potential for morale. Morale on the other hand, is the individual or group attitude towards a particular subject. It contributes to general feeling of satisfaction at the workplace. It is, therefore, is the function of freedom or restraint towards some goal. It mobilizes sentiments, which form an important part of organizational climate. Attitudes and sentiments, i.e., morale, per se, affect productivity. High morale is an index of good human relations, which, inter alia, reduces labour turnover, absenteeism, indiscipline, grievances, etc.

Factors which affect morale are primarily attitude and job satisfaction level of individual employees. From the organizational point of view, such factors can be delineated into, organizational goals, leadership style, attitude of co-workers, nature of work, work environment and the employee himself.

### 5.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH AND LOW MORALE AND ESSENTIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL REQUIREMENTS FOR HIGH MORALE

#### NOTES

High morale is, conventionally, considered as a contributor to high productivity, but such correlation may not be always true. This is because the high productivity may be the outcome of many other organizational initiatives, which may be independent of employee morale. Hence, even with low employee morale, high productivity is achievable. This can be illustrated using the model of Prof. Keith Davis, which goes as follows:



Cause Group	Y E A R S							
	1994		1995		1997		1998	
	No. of dis-putes	Per-cent-age to total	No. of dis-putes	Percent-a ge to total	No. of dis-putes	Percent-a ge to total	No. of dis-putes	Percent-a ge total
Wages and Allowances	354	29.4	320	30	305	23.4	233	21.2
Personnel	194	16.2	195	18.3	261	20.0	175	16.0
Retrenchment	19	1.6	10	0.9	7	0.5	8	0.7
Lay-off	3	0.2	4	0.4	7	0.5	6	0.6
Indiscipline	185	15.2	145	13.6	246	18.9	225	18.9
Violence	20	1.7	14	1.3	13	1.0	7	0.6
Leave and Hours of Work/shift Working	17	1.4	21	2.0	31	2.4	14	1.3
Bonus	92	7.8	79	7.4	112	86	123	11.2
Gherao	1	0.1	1	0.1	—	—	—	—
Non-implementation of Agreements, Awards, etc.	37	3.1	43	4.0	43	3.3	32	2.9

**NOTES**

Charter of Demands	55	4.6	61	5.7	68	5.2	97	8.8
Workload	10	0.8	10	0.9	9	0.7	6	0.6
Surplus Labour	1	0.1	–	–	1	0.1	–	–
Betterment of Amenities	16	1.3	18	1.7	34	2.6	12	1.1
Suspension/Change of Manufacturing Process	1	0.1	–	–	–	–	1	0.1
Standing Orders/Rules/Service/Conditions/Safety Measures	50	4.2	52	4.9	34	2.6	13	1.2
Others	118	9.8	57	5.4	85	6.5	89	8.1
Not Known	21	1.7	29	2.7	37	2.8	49	4.5
Total	201	100	1066	100	1305	100	109	100

**Check Your Progress**

1. State one difference between motivation and morale.
2. What are the two factors which affect morale?

**5.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

1. Motivation stimulates individuals into action to achieve desired goals. It is, therefore, functions of need and drives. It mobilizes energy, which enhances the potential for morale. Morale on the other hand, is the individual or group attitude towards a particular subject.
2. Factors which affect morale are primarily attitude and job satisfaction level of individual employees.

**5.5 SUMMARY**

- Edwin Flippo (1961) defined, morale as ‘... a mental condition or attitude of individual and groups which determine their willingness to cooperate.’
- Yoder Dale (1972), on the other hand, explained morale as ‘the overall tone, climate or atmosphere of work perhaps regularly sensed by the members.
- If workers appear to feel enthusiastic and optimistic about group activities, if they have a sense of mission about their job, if they are friendly with each other, they are described as having a good or high morale.
- If they seem to be dissatisfied, irritated, cranky, critical, restless and pessimistic, they are described as having poor or low morale.’

- Elton Mayo defined it as ‘the maintenance of cooperative living’, which means a sense of belongingness.
- On the other hand, many authors defined morale as a ‘pursuit of a common purpose’, attitude, individual and group job satisfaction, participative attitudes, team spirit, etc.
- Like morale, motivation is also a cognitive concept but it is different from morale on certain important aspects.
- Motivation stimulates individuals into action to achieve desired goals. It is, therefore, functions of need and drives.
- Morale on the other hand, is the individual or group attitude towards a particular subject. It contributes to general feeling of satisfaction at the workplace.
- High morale is an index of good human relations, which, inter alia, reduces labour turnover, absenteeism, indiscipline, grievances, etc.
- Factors which affect morale are primarily attitude and job satisfaction level of individual employees.
- High morale is, conventionally, considered as a contributor to high productivity, but such correlation may not be always true.
- This is because the high productivity may be the outcome of many other organizational initiatives, which may be independent of employee morale. Hence, even with low employee morale, high productivity is achievable.

## NOTES

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### 5.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Productivity:** It is the effectiveness of productive effort, especially in industry, as measured in terms of the rate of output per unit of input.
- **Morale:** It refers to the confidence, enthusiasm, and discipline of a person or group at a particular time.
- **Leadership:** It is a process by which an executive can direct, guide and influence the behavior and work of others towards accomplishment of specific goals in a given situation.

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### 5.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. What do you understand by morale?
2. What is considered as high morale?

### Long Answer Questions

1. Differentiate between morale and motivation.
2. Give a diagrammatic description of characteristics of high and low morale and essential and psychological requirements for high morale.

### NOTES

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### 5.8 FURTHER READINGS

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Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.

Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.

Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume I*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

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## UNIT 6 MOTIVATION

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### Structure

- 6.0 Introduction
- 6.1 Objectives
- 6.2 Meaning, Importance and Types of Motivation in Industry
- 6.3 Monetary and Non-Monetary Incentives
- 6.4 Fatigue, Boredom and Monotony: Meaning, Causes and Remedies
- 6.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 6.6 Summary
- 6.7 Key Words
- 6.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 6.9 Further Readings

### NOTES

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### 6.0 INTRODUCTION

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A key element in personnel management is motivation. It is important for employees to stay motivated in order to achieve their personal as well as organizational goals. Motivation is an important factor that encourages employees to give their best performance to fulfil their roles. Motivation is directly proportional to performance. A strong positive motivation will enable the increased output of employees, but a negative motivation will reduce their performance.

According to Likert, “It is the core of management which shows that every human being gives him a sense of worth in face-to face groups which are most important to him. . . .A supervisor should strive to treat individuals with dignity and a recognition of their personal worth.” Motivation is a psychological phenomenon. When a person feels the lack of certain needs, he works more to satisfy those needs. The need satisfying ego motivates a person to do better than he normally does.

Motivation in management describes ways in which managers promote productivity in their employees.

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### 6.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the meaning, importance and types of motivation
- Discuss the concept of motivation in industry
- Describe the meaning of fatigue, boredom and monotony

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## 6.2 MEANING, IMPORTANCE AND TYPES OF MOTIVATION IN INDUSTRY

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### NOTES

To motivate means to incite. It is to create a desire to do a thing or to create a willing-ness to work in the manner in which we want a work to be done. It is distinct from the capacity to work. Yet in another way, it can be defined as a force that gives rise to behaviour—or influence the behaviour to do a thing. It is feeling or urge to do or not to do a thing to fulfil certain needs. Various management gurus like, Taylor, Mayo, Follet, Fayol, Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg, Chris Argyris, McClelland and many others have contributed to the theories of motivation. Here, however, our principal concern is to consider only behavioural aspects of motivation.

#### **Motivation Elements**

Motivational perceptions of all type of employees throughout the world are fast changing in response to a number of key variables. The conventional motivational reinforcers, either extrinsic or intrinsic are gradually losing importance. What exactly can motivate an individual again varies with time and space. In India also, it is not at all possible to identify and indicate one single motivational tool commonly applicable to various cross-section of employees. However, we can try to appreciate the relative importance of one or the other tool for a particular segment of employees belonging to some homogenous organizations.

Here we have discussed motivational elements in detail, supported by various leading theoretical and empirical works.

#### **Theories of Motivation**

By now it has been established that motivational factors are perceived needs of the employees, satisfaction of which contribute to employees' performance and productivity. However, motivation, per se, can be better defined as a process of govern-ing choices. This process may be internal or external to the individual, that arouses enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action. Motivation process starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or a need that activates a behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. All the definitions, therefore, authenticate that motivation is a behavioural syndrome, which develops when there is a perceived incongruence in employees' needs and expectations. With the widening of such perceived gap, employees feel demotivated and reduce their level of performance and productivity. On the contrary, if the gap gets reduced, employees feel motivated and contribute their best for achieving organizational objectives. From the organizational point of view, motivation pro-cess follows certain defined steps, which as a continuum, need to be periodically reviewed and strategized to ensure the proper renewal of the process. This helps to maintain the motivation of employees, which are evident from their behavioural congruence, matching organizational objectives.

In the first stage, it is important to identify the need deficiency of employees, if any. Need deficiency centres around extrinsic and intrinsic needs. Extrinsic needs are those which are related to material and tangible gains. Increased pay, incentives, bonus, better medical facilities, better retirement benefits, better canteen facilities are some examples of extrinsic needs. Intrinsic needs, on the other hand, are those which are related to the mental satisfaction and are abstract in nature. Increased status, challenge, sense of belongings, scope for growth and creativity, recognition, sense of achievement, etc., are examples of such needs. Identification of need deficiency is possible through direct observation of employees' behaviour and through a survey using structured questionnaire response. However, employees, by and large, feel sensitized about giving responses to a survey questionnaire, obviously fearing they will get identified for giving any response that criticizes organizational policy. Confidentiality in survey responses can be ensured through a secret opinion poll, where questionnaire does not require any employees' identity. However, for better results, it is always desirable to integrate survey findings with personal interview, which can be in the form of an open discussion with employees by their respective seniors. Some organizations try to document such information from 360degree Performance Appraisal, incorporating certain items in the appraisal form itself. The existence of need deficiency can also be understood from the trend of employees' performance, developing a performance index or productivity index.

In the second phase of motivational process, organizations try to identify appropriate strategy to close the perceived need gap of their employees. There are many innovative ways to close such need gap without impairing the budget much. To take an example, the need for an increase in the pay structure can be ensured by reducing deferred benefits, i.e, Non-wage Labour Cost (NWLC) and including such reduced amount to the current pay structure of the employees. This is particularly important for those organizations who mostly employ young people in exploratory age group (less than thirty-five years). Similarly, making pay and performance linked also facilitates the development of a proper compensation structure to reward and motivate good performers. Similarly, the gap of intrinsic needs can be reduced, by adopting an enabling organizational structure, which among others foster creativity and growth.

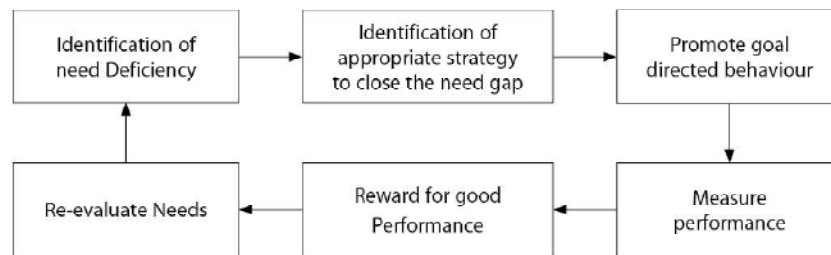
Thus, in the third phase of motivational process, organizations enforce goal-directed behaviour. Goal-directed behaviour enhances performance and productivity of employees, which further influence compensation strategy and other motivational reinforcers.

Likewise, the cycle continues as an ongoing process in an organization, as at the end of the continuum, needs are again re-evaluated to understand the emerging need deficiency, if any. In Figure-6.1 below, we have illustrated the model as a continuum.

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## NOTES



*Fig. 6.1 Motivation Model*

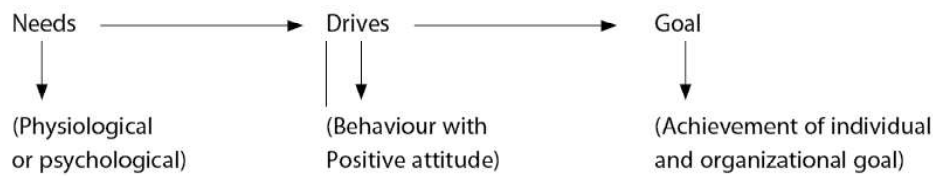
### Important Objectives of Motivation

Motivation enhances performance and improves productivity. Therefore, motivation fulfils following important objectives of an organization:

- (i) Motivation ensures productive use of resource. Physical, financial and human resources are the important resource constituents for an organization. Proper utilization of such resources is only possible when people in the organization feel motivated. Motivation leads to goal-directed behaviour, which in turn facilitates productive utilization of all such resources. Important measures for the productive use of resources are Total Factor Productivity Indices and Labour Productivity Indices.
- (ii) The second important objective of motivation is increased efficiency of people. Efficiency of motivated people increases, as it augments their willingness to work. Increased efficiency also contributes to cost reduction.
- (iii) Thirdly, a motivated employee also becomes quality conscious, as behaviourally he identifies himself with the organization and always tries to take an extra care for his jobs. Motivation, therefore, also strengthens quality objectives of an organization.
- (iv) Fourthly, by promoting goal-directed behaviour, motivated employees also help to realize organizational objectives and strategies.
- (v) Motivation also promotes friendly work culture, increased morale, increased sense of responsibility, sense of belongings, integration of individual identity with organizational identity, team work, participative decision making, etc. All these together create an environment for creativity and growth and truly transform an organization as enabling one.
- (vi) Finally, motivation ensures organizational stability by reducing employee turnover and absenteeism.

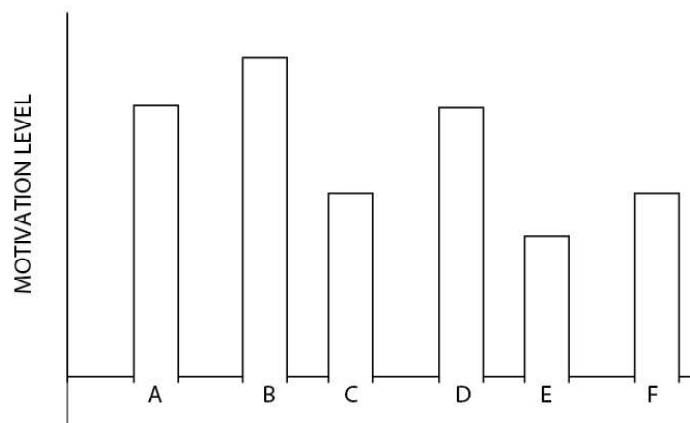
### Mechanism of Motivation

The word 'motivation' is used to describe the drive that impels an employee to work. Therefore, the process starts with physiological (extrinsic) or psychological (intrinsic) needs, satisfaction of which activates the drive to achieve a goal. Thus, the mechanism of motivation starts with a need, which activates a drive towards a goal. This we can explain using Figure 6.2.



**Fig. 6.2** Mechanism of Motivation

At this stage, it is important to understand the basic differences between the terms motive, motivation and motivating. Motive is the inner state that activates and directs the behaviour of individuals towards certain goals. The inner state of an individual is created out of the perceived need imbalance. The degree of imbalance decides a strong motive or a weak motive and accordingly, an individual propels himself into action. Thus, motives create drives that energize people into action. While motive energizes action, motivation is the actual action or work behaviour. The degree of work behaviour decides the level of motivation. If an employee performs well, putting his best efforts, we consider his motivation as high, whereas, in the reverse case, we consider it as low. Motivating, as is used in motivating environment, implies inducements to energize work behaviour. This is a managerial role, as it satisfies both individual and organizational needs. Managers always try to sustain the motivating environment to get the work done in an effective and efficient manner. For this purpose, managers need to understand the degree of motive strength of employees. We have already explained the process of identification of need deficiency. Since, needs or motives are the reasons for a work behaviour, the managers, for effective decisions, need to plot the motives with the degree of importance, which can be done in the following manner.



**Fig. 6.3** Different Motives

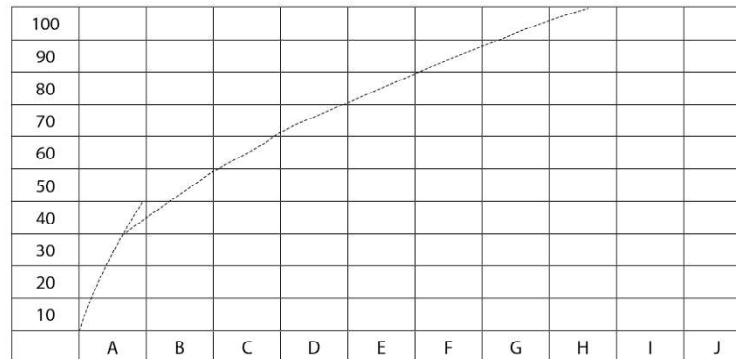
(A, B, C, D, E and F denote different motives, which may be compensation, promotional opportunities, functional autonomy, creativity, challenge and flexibility in policies)

Using the Pareto diagram, a manager can optimize the motive strength as Pareto principle suggests every problem (for us it is the motive strength) is the result of few causes and all causes are not equally important, 'a vital few: trivial

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many'. This means by taking care of 10–15 per cent of motive strengths, managers can reduce the need gaps in 70–80 per cent areas. This is because of interdependence and interrelationships in motive strengths. A typical Pareto diagram looks as follows:



*Fig. 6.4 Pareto Graph*

### **Importance of Motivation in Organizations**

As already explained, motivation is a part of directing function of organization. When managers act as good motivators, he/she can influence the members of the organization to feel motivated and deliver the desired results. Thus, motivation exerts the 'learned influences on human behaviour.' It is the degree to which an individual wants and chooses to engage in certain behaviours. Why is individual behaviour so important in trying to understand and influence motivation? The answer lies in following reasons:

- Every individual has a set of needs and a different set of goals
- Individuals behave in a way as to satisfy their needs and fulfil their goals. Therefore, individuals behave differently
- Businesses, as organizations, are in a position to offer some of the satisfactions that individuals seek, for example, relationships, sense of belonging, intellectual stimulation, mental and physical challenge, and self-development

For organizations, motivation is important because motivated employees contribute to:

- Higher productivity, (i.e., they produce more for a given level of resources than poorly-motivated workers)
- Better quality work with less wastage
- A greater sense of urgency (things happen quicker when they need to)
- More employee feedback and suggestions are made for improvements (motivated workers take more 'ownership' of their 'work')
- More feedback demanded from superiors and management
- Working at 80–95 per cent of their ability

## Theories of Motivation

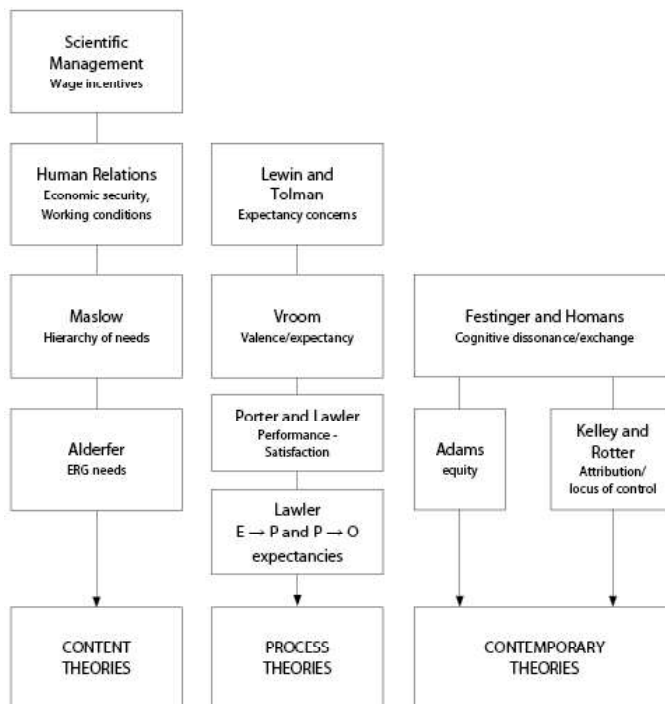
We have already discussed theories of motivation in brief. Here, we will discuss major theories of motivation with some critical notes. Before we proceed further, let us examine the process of development of the theory of work motivation as given in Figure 6.5.

### Frederick W. Taylor (1856–1917)

Taylor, considered to be the father of scientific management, observed the prosperity of management and workforce are interdependent. People are inherently capable to do hard work, but they show such qualities irregularly. To harness such potentiality pay and rewards (incentives) must be linked to the achievement of 'optimum goals'. While good performers get rewards and better pay, bad performers loose on this count.

### Elton W. Mayo (1880–1949)

Mayo and his associates through a series of experiments, known as Hawthorne Experiments (Western Electric Co., USA, 1927–1932) established that work satisfaction and hence, the performance is basically not economic. It depends more on working conditions and attitudes, communications, positive management response and encouragement, working environment, etc.



**Fig. 6.5** Work Motivation

**Source:** Luthans, Fred. 1998. *Organisational Behaviour*, 8th edition, Pp, 169. Boston: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

## NOTES

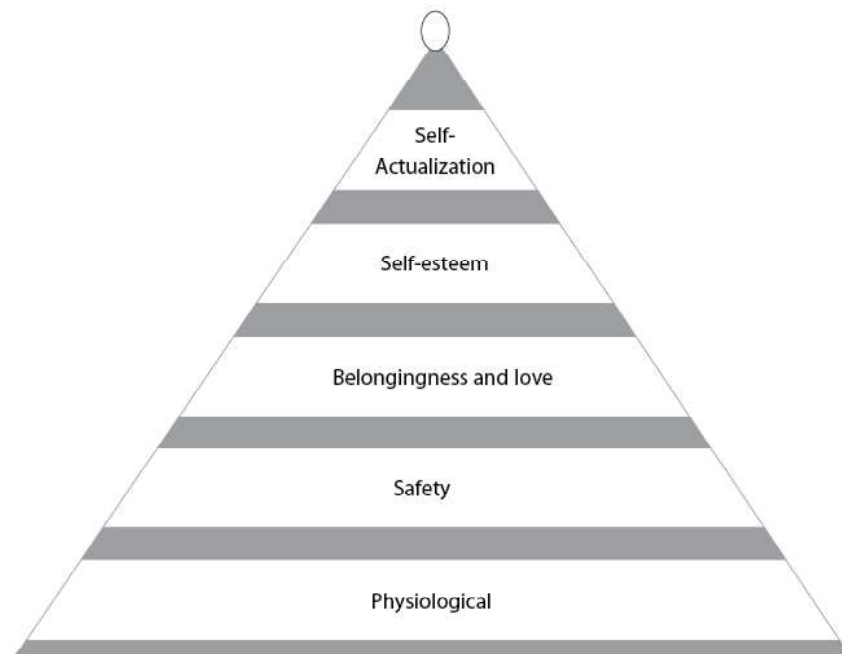
### Abraham Maslow (1908–1970)

Maslow, through his Need Hierarchy Theory established that motivation of people arises from levels, a hierarchy of needs. The essence of his theory can be summarized as follows:

#### NOTES

1. Wants and desires of human beings influence their behaviour. Already satisfied wants and desires do not act as motivators. People show their motive or behaviour to fulfil their unsatisfied wants and desires.
2. Needs of the people are arranged in order of their perceived priority or hierarchy. Perceived need factors of people vary.
3. People can advance from one level of need hierarchy to another, only when their preceding need factors are satisfied. To take an example, without satisfaction of lower-order needs like, physiological and safety, people cannot advance to the satisfaction of belongings or social needs.
4. More the people advance to the higher-order needs, the more they display their satisfaction and motivation to work.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory divides human needs into five distinct categories as follows:



**Fig. 6.6** Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Physiological needs are the basic needs of human beings which are essential to sustain or survive. Such needs include food, water, air, clothing, shelter, etc. From the organizational point of view such needs are met through salary and basic working conditions.

Safety needs ensure protection from economic and physical environment. People expect some reasonableness in their perceived environment, which minimizes the degree of uncertainty. Job security, degree of continuity, order, structure and predictability are precisely the nature of such needs. Organizations fulfil such needs of the employees by ensuring a protective work environment. Need for belongingness and love arises after satisfaction of earlier two lower order of needs. This kind of needs is also known as social needs. People in this need level develop a strong sense of affiliation and get concerned with love, affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship. Organizations meet such needs by providing appropriate work culture to help employees identify with the organization.

At self-esteem need level, employees look for satisfaction of their esteem or egoistic needs. Esteem needs pertain to self-respect and respect or esteem from others. Self-respect is ensured by achieving competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, success, independence and freedom. While respect from others come from prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, reputation and appreciation, organizations, to fulfil such needs of employees, provide challenging work assignments, performance feedback, performance recognition, participative work culture, empowerment, participation in decision making, etc.

At the self-actualization need stage, employees desire to become what they are capable of becoming. They want to create something of their own using their talent, capacities and potentialities. Organizations try to fulfil such needs of employees by nurturing an environment that fosters creativity and growth.

### ***Critical Evaluation of Need Hierarchy Theory***

Concepts of needs help the managers to understand the human behaviour at work. It also accounts for interpersonal variations in human work. Another important aspect is that it is dynamic as the model defines motivation as a constant changing force.

Despite above advantages, the theory is criticized for following reasons:

1. The theory has no empirical support. Moreover, it is not a theory of work motivation. Maslow even did not intend to relate his theory to work motivation. Maslow's theory was in fact popularized by Douglas McGregor and others, as work motivation theory.
2. It is not possible to put needs in strict defined levels. In fact, hierarchy of needs is simply a misnomer. An employee who is motivated by self-actualization need may still have lower-order needs like food and shelter.
3. The theory is not culturally aligned. It is more specific to western culture than anything else. However, work is perceived differently in different culture. Hence, motivations to work are different in different countries; sometimes it even varies within a country, from one individual work group to another. Therefore, the theory cannot hold good for heterogeneous work groups.

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4. Maslow's existential philosophy is questioned as people may not like to remain content and plateaued with the satisfaction of their lower order needs. They may like to move further up in the hierarchy.
5. Diagnosing need deficiency for employees, following Maslow's approach is time consuming. Even after such diagnosis, it may not help an organization to develop a tailor-made model for employee motivation.

### **Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory or Motivation-Hygiene Theory**

Frederick Herzberg (1959), extending the work of Maslow, developed the Content Theory of Motivation. His study is based on responses of 200 accountants and engineers, drawn from eleven industries in Pittsburgh area in the USA. Using critical incident method, he had asked the samples to respond on two aspects as follows:

- (i) When did they feel particularly good about their job
- (ii) When did they feel exceptionally bad about their job

Herzberg found that the samples described different types of conditions for good and bad feelings. Factors responsible for job satisfaction are quite different from the factors they perceive as contributors to job dissatisfaction. It means that employees are dissatisfied about their jobs not because of the absence of the factors that they consider to be satisfying in their jobs. Their reported good feelings were found to be associated with job experiences and job content. While, their reported bad feelings were found to be associated with the peripheral aspects of job. Since, his study was based on a two-factor hypothesis, we call his theory two-factor theory. As his study established that opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction and removing dissatisfying elements from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying, he has classified the factors into two categories:

- (i) Motivation factors
- (ii) Hygienic or Maintenance factors

Herzberg mentioned six motivation factors as given in the following:

- (i) Recognition
- (ii) Advancement
- (iii) Responsibility
- (iv) Achievement
- (v) Possibility of growth
- (vi) Job content or work itself

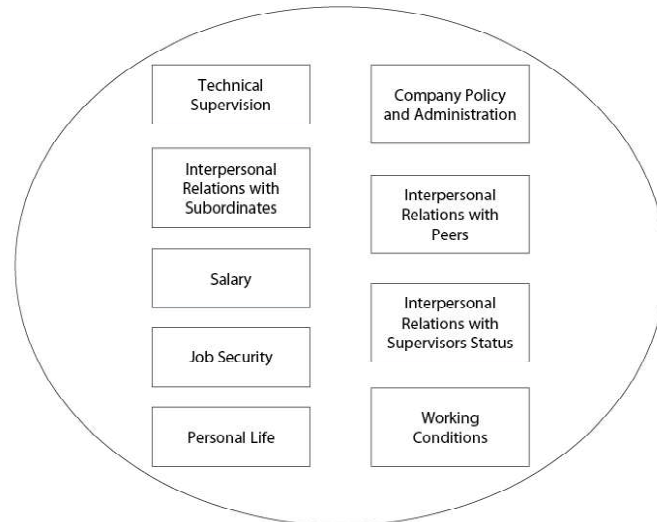
Presence of these factors in the job creates a motivating environment but the absence of these factors does not cause dissatisfaction.

Similarly, Herzberg mentioned ten hygiene or maintenance factors as follows:

- (i) Company policy and administration
- (ii) Technical supervision
- (iii) Interpersonal relations with subordinates
- (iv) Salary
- (v) Job security
- (vi) Personal life
- (vii) Working conditions
- (viii) Status
- (ix) Interpersonal relations with supervisors
- (x) Interpersonal relations with peers

These factors are context factors. Their existence just creates an environment for doing work. However, factors by itself cannot motivate people to work. In Herzberg's words, their absence can dissatisfy people but their presence, per se, cannot satisfy people.

The crux of the Two-factor Theory of motivation therefore, is that managers should be concerned about both the satisfying and dissatisfying factors. Mere improvement of hygienic factors cannot guarantee a motivating environment. In Figure 6.7, we have presented the essence of Herzberg theory, using a diagram.



*Fig. 6.7 Hygiene Factors and Motivators*

### **Critical Evaluation of Herzberg's Theory**

Herzberg's theory is first of its kind based on field research unlike Maslow's work, which was based on clinical observations (laboratory-based findings), Herzberg did his study to understand motivation in work environment. Secondly, Herzberg's

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study recommends actions for managers to improve motivation in work environment. His emphasis on content factors, shifts the focus from traditional concept, where money was viewed as the most potent factor for work motivation. Thirdly, Herzberg had also contributed to the alternative approach to motivation by job enrichment. Finally, Herzberg had considered two dimensions of the employees' needs, instead of the absolute categorization into five distinct levels, as was done by Maslow.

Despite all the above listed merits, Herzberg's theory has also been subjected to following criticisms:

- (i) It is limited by its methodology. When things go well, people tend to take credit for the success. Contrarily, they attribute failures to the external environment.
- (ii) Herzberg's theory is also method bound. We cannot get the same results by using other methods. Critical incident method, by nature, may cause people only to recall the recent incidents or experiences. Moreover, while narrating a critical incident, respondents get wide flexibility to give vent to their opinions rather than the realities. Thus, according to many survey findings were more of opinions than actual happenings.
- (iii) Herzberg's model talks more about job satisfaction than job motivation.
- (iv) The theory ignores situational variables as it is not backed by adequate research in different work environments.
- (v) Even though the theory assumes a relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, the methodology applied by Herzberg limits its focus only on job satisfaction and not on productivity.

### ***Comparison of Maslow and Herzberg's Models***

Herzberg's framework is compatible with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow referred to the needs or motives, whereas, Herzberg dealt with goals or incentives which tend to satisfy those needs. To illustrate, hygiene or maintenance factors of Herzberg are satisfied by physiological, safety and belongingness needs of Maslow, while motivation factors of Herzberg tend to be satisfied by self-esteem and self-actualization needs of Maslow. It is for this reason Herzberg's theory is often considered, as an extension of Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory. Despite such similarities, there are some major differences between the two theories. Maslow's need hierarchy is a sequential arrangement of needs, whereas, Herzberg's model does not have any such hierarchical arrangement. Maslow believed that any unsatisfied need, irrespective of its level of hierarchy, can be a potential motivation. On the contrary, Herzberg believed that only the higher-order needs serve as motivators.

Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham (1975) developed a Job Characteristic Model on Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, showing how a good job design can lead to internal motivation of the employees and contribute to better job performance. The theory postulates that five job characteristics lead to three psychological states, which affect the motivation and satisfaction of the employees. The five job characteristics are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback.

Skill variety is the extent or range of skills, abilities and talents of employees. The more they are able to utilize skills in the job, the greater their level of satisfaction. Hence, jobs are to be designed in a way that ensures the utilization of wide variety of skills of individuals. Task identity signifies the extent of involvement of employees in the job. This enables an individual to identify himself in the total creation, which gives him a sense of pride and satisfaction. Task significance, on the other hand, denotes significance of a job on the life of others—both within and outside the organization. A positive significance of a job gives psychological satisfaction to the person who does it. Autonomy is the extent of freedom given for a job. The degree of autonomy depends on the extent of independence given to an employee in deciding about job scheduling, formulating the procedures, decision making without interference of others. The more the job autonomy, the greater the job satisfaction and so also motivation. Feedback provides the opportunity to assess the right or wrong for doing a job.

The three psychological states, which an individual experiences, are as follows:

Skill variety, task identity and task significance provide experienced meaningfulness. Autonomy provides 'experienced responsibility', whereas, feedback ensures 'experienced knowledge of results'.

Once an employee experiences arousal of these three psychological states, they feel intrinsically rewarded, which results into intrinsic motivation.

Hackman and Oldham developed a Motivating Potential Score (MPS), based on their study, which measures the propensity of a job to become motivating. The formula is presented below:

$$MPS = \left[ \frac{\text{Skills variety} + \text{Task identity} + \text{Task significance}}{3} \right] \times (\text{Autonomy}) \times (\text{Feedback})$$

### ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer (1972) of Yale University developed ERG Theory based on the empirical research. He modified Maslow's five levels of needs to three levels and labelled them as needs for Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The name ERG has been derived from the first letters of each such need.

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ERG theory differs from Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory in following ways:

- (i) Instead of five need hierarchies, ERG Theory considers only three need hierarchies.
- (ii) Need Hierarchy Theory postulates rigid progression from one need level to another, whereas, ERG Theory assumes that more than one need may be operative simultaneously. This means an employee working on growth need, may even remain unsatisfied in relatedness and existence needs.
- (iii) Basic postulate of ERG theory is that it works on Frustration-Regression Model. If for any reason, employees continually become frustrated to satisfy their needs at one level, they intensify their desire to satisfy lower level needs. It is like a failure to get recognition is compensated by the desire to make more money. Contrarily, Maslow suggests people stay at a certain need level, till they are able to satisfy the same.

**Critical Evaluation of ERG Theory**

ERG Theory is pragmatic in its approach, as it takes into consideration the individual differences among people. Individual differences in terms of education, family background and culture can alter the motive strength vis-à-vis the perceived need factors. The theory is more appealing, intuitive and logical than Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory. Despite such advantages, the theory does not offer any clearcut guidelines. It just indicates that people get motivated to behave in a particular way to satisfy one of the three sets of needs, i.e., the need for existence, the need for relatedness and the need for growth. Moreover, the theory is yet to be backed by adequate research.

McClelland's Three Needs Theory (nAch, nAff, nPow) or Achievement Motivation Theory

David C. McClelland (1976), through his twenty years of study at Harvard University, documented differences in needs of the people in three important areas as under:

- (a) Achievement need (nAch): People in this need category drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards. They like challenge and like to succeed in a competitive environment. They willingly work hard and volunteer for work which stretches their ability fully. This category of people does not get motivated by money. They feel more motivated with a sense of accomplishment and achievement.
- (b) Affiliation Need (nAff): This need emerges from the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships. Obviously, they try to fulfil such needs with satisfying relation-ships with the organization, peer groups,

work teams, etc. Since this need group people try to identify them with the organization, they always prefer to foster a friendly work culture and try to meet their needs through friendly relations.

- (c) Power Need (nPow): People in this need group always try to get satisfaction by controlling others. This need emerges from the drive for superiority. Obviously, people in this need category look for leadership positions in the organization.

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### Evaluation of the Theory

McClelland highlighted the importance of matching individual and the job. People with high achievement need always prefer challenging job assignments, whereas, people with low achievement need, prefer a job situation that ensures stability, security and predictability. Organizations by manipulating the achievement need can get the complex jobs accomplished by high achievers. However, McClelland's work is criticized on many important counts like, how a sense of achievement or other associated motives can be inculcated in an adult employee. McClelland contends that this can be taught, and thus, motives related to achievement, etc., can be developed in an adult. This contention is not tenable in the psychological literature. Secondly, McClelland contends that needs can be changed through education and training; however, psychologists contend needs are permanently acquired.

Third, Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) used for the study by McClelland is also subject to criticism as the interpretation of responses using TAT can be subjective, depending on the personal thoughts and opinions of the researcher.

### Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1990) of MIT defined organizations as psychological entities. Therefore, organizations can be characterized by their assumptions about what motivates people. The basic hypothesis is that managerial decisions and actions are based on certain assumptions about human nature and human behaviour. McGregor proposed two distinct views and assumptions about human behaviour. A group of people was categorized by him under Theory 'X' and positive behaviour group people was categorized under Theory 'Y'. Employees labelled as Theory 'X' dislike work, are lazy, dislike responsibility and they need to be coerced to get the work done. Employees labelled Theory 'Y' like work, creativity, responsibility and they can exercise self-direction. Motivational implications of McGregor's analysis, therefore, can be best analysed in the context of Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory. Theory X-labelled people can be motivated by the satisfaction of lower-order needs, whereas, Theory Y-labelled people can be motivated by the satisfaction of higher-order needs.

Attributes of different people falling under Theory X and Theory Y categories as observed by Maslow are presented in the chart below:

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S. No.	Theory X attributes	S. No.	Theory Y attributes
1.	The average human being inherently dislikes work and will always try to avoid work.	1.	People of this group exercise self-direction and self-control in achieving objectives to which they have committed.
2.	People with such inherent characteristics must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get work done from them.	2.	Commitment to objective is a function of reward associated with their achievement.
3.	The average human being prefers to be directed, avoids responsibility, less ambitious and, above all, likes security.	3.	The average human being learns (under proper conditions) not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
4.	For motivating this group of people, an organization has to enforce strict control and restrict the motivational reinforcements only to those areas that fulfil their lower-order needs.	4.	They have the capacity of imagination, intensity and creativity in the solution of organizational problems.
		5.	Organizations are able to only partially utilize their potentials.
		6.	People with these attributes need to be developed so that they can release their potential towards common objects. These people, by and large, can be motivated with the satisfaction of their higher-order needs.

**Cognitive or Process Theories of Motivation**

Content theories of motivation lay emphasis on the importance of inner needs in motivation. On the contrary, cognitive models or process theories of motivation put emphasis on the idea that people take conscious decisions about their job behaviour. Therefore, to motivate, the process theory suggests that organizations must understand how an individual takes decisions and what efforts he puts for the job. Expectancy Theory, Equity Theory and Performance Satisfaction Model are the important approaches to understand the cognitive or process theories of motivation.

**Expectancy Theory**

This theory essentially emphasizes that people feel increasingly motivated if they perceive that:

- (i) their effort will result in successful performance
- (ii) successful performance will ensure desired results

Expectancy Theory has different names like, Instrumentality Theory, Path-Goal Theory and Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) Theory. It has its roots in the cognitive concepts of Kurt Lewin and Edward Tolman and in the choice behaviour and utility concepts from the Classical Economic Theory. However, it was Victor H. Vroom (1964), who formulated the Expectancy Theory, as an alternative to content models, for work motivation. The theory identified relationships among variables, which affect individual behaviour in a dynamic environment. It was an attempt to capture how people determine their extent of effort for a job and how such effort gets influenced by their perceived expectation. The strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation of outcome, which is likely to accrue upon the accomplishment of the job. So, motivation is the product of strength of one’s desire (valence) and perceived probability of getting some thing good (expectancy). We can show such relationships as under:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Valence—} \\ \text{Strength of one's desire} \\ \text{for something} \end{array} \right] \times \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Expectancy—} \\ \text{Probability of getting it} \\ \text{with a certain action} \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Motivation—} \\ \text{Strength of drive} \\ \text{towards an action} \end{array} \right]$$

V                          ×                          L                          =                          M

Valence is the degree of desirability of certain outcomes. It is, therefore, the strength of an individual’s preference for a particular outcome, which may either be a promotion or a pay rise or recognition, etc., after he successfully accomplishes the job. Since people may have positive or negative preferences for an outcome, valence may be negative or positive. Hence valence may vary from –1 to +1.

Expectancy is the perceived possibility of a particular outcome that would follow after an action. It is, therefore, the strength of belief that an act will be followed by particular outcomes. The strength of expectations is based on the past experience. People expect what will happen in the future on the basis of what has occurred in the past. As expectancy is an action-outcome association it may range from zero to one. If employees perceive no possibility of an outcome from certain acts, their expectancy would be zero, whereas, on the contrary, the value of expectancy would be one, when they feel (from their experience of action-outcome relationship) that they are likely to achieve something.

Vroom has used one more term in between expectancy and valence, which is usefulness or instrumentality. Instrumentality is the belief that the first-level outcome would lead to the second-level outcome.

To take an example, one may be motivated for a performance of the superior level, for his desire to get promoted. Here, the first-level outcome (superior-level performance) is seen as being instrumental for the second-level outcome (promotion).

Therefore, the strength of motivation to perform a certain act will depend on the sum of the products of the valences (including instrumentality) and the expectancies, which can be represented as follows:

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$$\text{Motivation Strength} = \sum V \times I \times E$$

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Evaluation of the Theory: It is believed that content theories oversimplified the complex process of work motivation, whereas on the contrary, Vroom's model highlights the importance of organizational behaviour, clarifying the relationship between the employees and the organizations. His model has generated research interests among the corporate and academic circles. The theory also has a cognitive dimension as individuals are viewed as thinking and rational beings, and they just do not simply act for the satisfaction of their unfulfilled needs.

Despite such unique features in Vroom's approach, his theory was also criticized for following aspects:

- (i) It needs to be adequately tested in different work environment.
- (ii) Employees may not always take a conscious decision. It was observed that they were also prone to take unthoughtful decisions, and later on, they tried to rationalize the action with their own logic.
- (iii) Linkages between efforts-performance and performance-rewards may not be linear. Organizational policies may further complicate the process. To take an example, promotion may be on seniority, educational background, etc.
- (iv) The theory is complex. In real life situation, managers may face time and resource constraints to implement it.

**Equity Theory**

This theory owes its origin to several contributors like Festinger, Heider, Homans, Jacques, Patchen, Weick, etc. However, James Stacy Adams' contribution is much discussed in the literature on motivation. The theory proposes that in a work environment, motivation is influenced by one's perception of how equitably he or she is treated compared to others. The theory is also known as 'Social Comparison Theory' or 'Inequity Theory'. Perceptively, employees try to reduce their inequity through such comparison or by establishing a hypothetical exchange relationship. An individual accounts for the amount of work he puts in and corresponding rewards he gets for the same. He then compares the efforts and rewards of similarly placed person in the organization. If equity exists, the individual feels good or com-placent about the situation. In case of inequity, it propels him into action to create a condition of equity. Since inequity propels action, it is the motivator. The greater the perceived inequity, the greater the motivation to reduce it. While doing so, individuals can make any of the following choices:

- (i) Change or alter inputs
- (ii) Change or alter outcomes
- (iii) Distort inputs and outcomes

- (iv) Distort inputs and outcomes of others (whom they compare)
- (v) Select a different referent (to compare)
- (vi) Withdraw from the field

Evaluation of the Theory: It is a promising theory of work motivation as well as job satisfaction. For this reason, it has generated extensive research. Since the basic theory works on the perception in a social comparison process, it is, by default, dynamic because inequity in perceived perception motivates employees to restore equity.

However, the theory is criticized for following reasons:

- (i) It is complex and difficult in application
- (ii) Perceptions are difficult to measure or assess
- (iii) Choosing a 'comparison other' may not be always correct
- (iv) A given factor may be an input as well as an outcome
- (v) The study is based on laboratory experiments rather than in real-life situations in organizations

### **Performance Satisfaction Theory**

Layman W. Porter and Edward W. Lawler (1968) based on Vroom's Expectancy Model, observed that performance leads to satisfaction contrary to our belief that satisfaction leads to performance. Other interesting observations made by them are that motivation (efforts), performance (accomplishment) and satisfaction are separate variables. This again is, in contrast, to our belief that motivation leads to performance, which in turn leads to satisfaction. Efforts (force or motivation) do not directly lead to a performance. It is mediated by abilities, traits and role perceptions. After performance, rewards that follow and the way they are perceived, determine the satisfaction. The theory is illustrated in Figure 6.8.

Whether an individual will make an effort depends on the interaction between the value of reward (Box 1) and the perceived effort-reward probability (Box 2). Effort (Box 3) is the motivation. Performance (accomplishment) (Box 6) is not the direct consequence of effort. It is the product of effort (Box 3) abilities and traits (Box 4) and role perceptions (Box 5). Performance leads to certain outcomes in the form of intrinsic rewards (Box 7A) and extrinsic rewards (Box 7B). Both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards provide satisfaction (Box-9). However, such reward-satisfaction relationship is moderated by the perceived equitability of rewards (Box 8).

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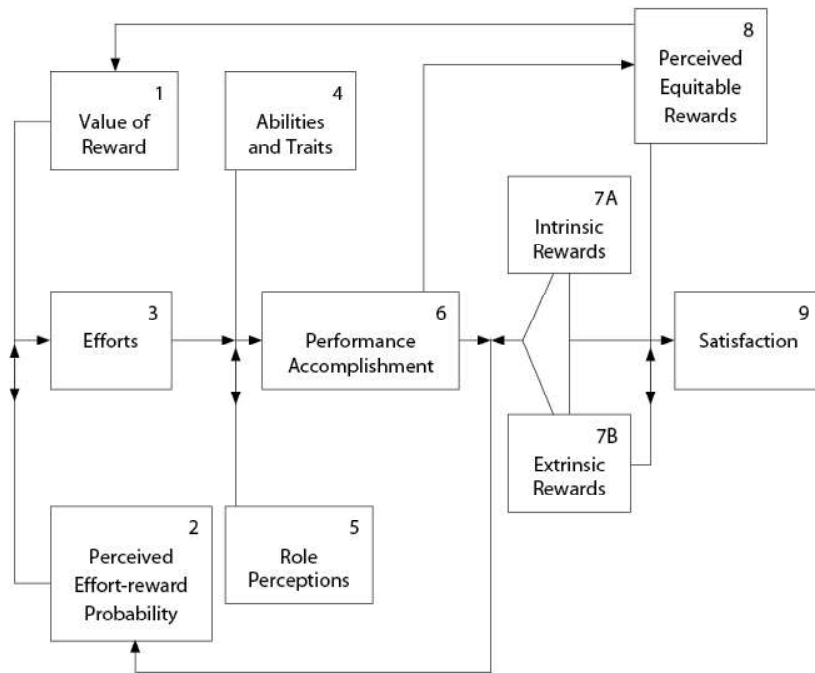


Fig. 6.8 Performance Satisfaction Theory

**Attribution Theory and Locus of Control**

Harold Kelley advocated Attribution Theory and Locus of Control, which are mainly concerned with the cognitive process by which an individual interprets behaviour attributing to certain parts of the relevant environment. Such casual relationships or attributes are interpreted by an individual for his own behaviour or for others' behaviour. Fritz Heider contended that both perceived internal forces (ability, efforts and fatigue) and external forces (others' supervision, machines, methods, climate, rules and procedures) together determine the behaviour of an individual. Since, the perceived causes are the determinants of work behaviour and there are differences in the perception of the people, they behave differently in a given situation. The concept of locus of control is different from the concept of attribution. While Attribution Theory is concerned with the identification of the causes of one's own, as well as, others' behaviour, Locus of Control Theory is applicable to oneself only. Employees may perceive that their own behaviours are internally or externally controlled. Since, the external control factors (which influenced their own behaviour) are beyond their own control, employees believe that their rewards and punishments are dependent on factors like fate, luck or chance. For internal control factors, they feel they can influence their outcomes through their own ability, skills or effort. Julian Rotter (1966) developed a twenty-three-item scale for the measurement of locus of control known as Internal-External (I – E) Scale.

## Goal Setting Theory

Edwin Locke (1968) considered two cognitive determinants of behaviour— values and intentions (goals). Emotions and desires represent the form of values and value judgements. Intentions are goals to satisfy desires or emotions (values). Goal Setting Theory results in consequences, feedback and reinforcement. The study suggests that individuals are willing to work hard when they know what is required from them. Setting specific attainable goals is related to the high level of performance.

## Miscellaneous Theories on Motivation

Apart from the theories of motivation listed above, there are certain other theories, which, however, revolve around the core content or process theories. Those can be briefly discussed.

H.A. Murray (1938) discussed about Manifest Needs Theory, which is basically a multivariate approach to the structure of needs. The basic difference between Murray's formulation and formulations of Maslow and Alderfer is that Murray does not suggest a hierarchical order of various types of needs. Based on several years of clinical observations at the Harvard Psychological Clinic, Murray argues that intensities of various personality-related needs, taken together, represent a central motivating force.

R.W. White's Competence Motive Theory (1959), (quite similar to the Power Motive Theory of Adler) relates motivation to the desire of employees for mastery over physical and social environs (Cornell Study).

S. Schachter's Affiliation Motivation Theory (1959) relates motivation to the strong need for affiliation.

C. Argyris' Maturity-Immaturity Theory (1957) relates motivation to an environment which serves both the needs of the organization and the needs of the members of the organization (Yale study).

W.F. Whyte's Money Motivation Theory (1955) suggests that people are motivated primarily by the desire to make money. However, Whyte contends that monetary incentives should not be considered in isolation from other non-monetary incentives.

R. Likert and D. Katz's Michigan studies (1948) have emphasized the vital point that a productivity-motivated work-team is really a function of a particular type of supervisory style. Since, productivity has its root in the motivation of employees, it can be harnessed by carefully designing an organization, in which the individual develops a feeling that he has some importance in the organizations.

Leon C. Megginson, for the sake of our convenience, has classified the leading theories of motivation into three groups that are stated below.

- (i) Perspective Theories: Taylor's Scientific Management Approach, various human relations theories, McGregor's Theory Y and Theory X, which, in reality, tell management to motivate people.

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- (ii) Content Theories: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two-factor Theory, McClelland's Achievement Need Theory, etc., which try to identify the causes of behaviour.
- (iii) Process Theories: Various behaviouristic theories, which believe in stimulus-response relationship vis-a-vis motivation (e.g., Skinner's Behaviour Modification Theory) and Cognitive Theories (e.g., Vroom's Expectancy Theory and Porter-Lawler's Future-Oriented Expectancy Theory) which deal with the genesis of behaviour.

The brief discussions above regarding different motivation theories, studies and experiments, taken together, reflect our basic understanding of the concept of motivation and related aspects in a systematic manner.

Our next phase of discussion has mainly focused on the relevant Indian studies in this field in order to understand the underlying motive forces determining the behaviour and performance of the Indian employees.

In India, not many empirical studies on motivation and its related aspects have been carried out. There are some studies on the industrial workers and some on technical personnel, supervisors and managers. Most of the studies in India have attempted to find out the job-satisfaction variables, which have been construed as the motivational variables.

The first such study in India is by S.K. Bose (1951) on industrial workers and that has paved the way for other researchers to investigate into the perceived importance of job-factors to workers.

Most of the studies relating to the industrial workers, during the period 1951–1971, have rated adequate earnings, job security and personal life as the main factors which determine their behaviour.

H.C. Ganguli's study (1964) on first-line supervisors ( $N^* = 44$ ), has ranked incentive, adequate income, promotional opportunities, job security and sympathetic treatment from superiors as the important job-factors vis-à-vis motivation.

D.K. Lahiri and S. Srivastava's study (1967), on the middle-management personnel ( $N=93$ ), has ranked good organizational policies and administration, better scope for promotion, good salary, good superior-subordinate relationship and opportunity for growth as the major determinants of satisfaction.

M.P. Sawalapurkar and others' study (1968), on middle-level managers ( $N=30$ ), has ranked nine job-factors in the following order of importance: job content, opportunity for advancement, job security, superior, company, working conditions, facilities, working hours, and grievance alleviation.  $N$  indicates number of people surveyed, i.e., the sample size.

O. Padaki and A.M. Dolke's study (1970), on job attitudes of supervisors ( $N=15$ ) (based on Herzberg's Two-factor Theory), has found the lack of recognition, unfavorable superior-subordinate relationship, lack of technically-

competent supervision, unfavorable organizational policies and administration and inadequate salary as the major dissatisfying factors. Another study conducted by them has also found more or less the same as perceived dissatisfaction.

G.V.S. Rao's study (1970), on bank managers (N=60), with a view to testing the Herzberg's Two-factor Theory, has found promotion, company policies and salary on the dissatisfaction scale.

L. Narain's study (1971), on public-sector managers (N=1213), has ranked eight factors in the following order of importance: feeling of worthwhile accomplishments, recognition, decision-making authority, opportunity for personnel growth and development, promotional opportunity, prestige of the organization in the community, pay and fringe benefits and job security. So, as far as the need-deficiencies are concerned, he has found that promotion, recognition and personal growth and development respectively show very high degrees of dissatisfaction in that order.

S.K. Bhattacharyya's study (1972), on managers (N=210), has shown lack of participation in goal-setting, inadequate pay, inadequate job-authority and 'lack of opportunity given to help people' on the dissatisfaction scale.

D.M. Pestonjee and G. Basu's study (1972), on executives (N=80), has shown promotion and growth, recognition, prestige, organizational policies and administration and autonomy as the major determinants of satisfaction.

S. Singhal and H.S. Upadhyay's study (1972) on supervisors (N=22), has also found opportunities for promotion, job security, working conditions, work group, opportunities for training, competent and sympathetic supervisors, adequate income and other facilitates, etc., as major motivational factors.

K.G. Agarwal (1977) has sharply criticized the Indian studies on work motivation, alleging that such researches suffer from a number of inconsistencies mainly because those have been carried out practically as a part of the job done for the employees with a view to helping them reduce production costs. Thus, the measures, suggested by such researchers, have always proved to be short-term remedies, and much-spoken-about theories on motivation have come more like fads or fashions than something substantial and lasting. Thinking in line with U. Pareek (1974), he has developed a Stratification Model of Work Motivation with variables like, social system, self-status and role. Pareek has assumed the societal system as a very important variable in the field of motivation that causes or determines that behaviour of an individual in an organization.

B.R. Sharma's study (1981), on administrators in Delhi (N = 67), has found power-motive as the main guiding force for motivation.

Sharma's study (1982), on supervisors (N = 3378), drawing samples from fifty manufacturing organizations, both in the public sector and the private sector, has obtained score values for different factors that influence motivation.

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The score values are presented below:

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Superintendent-management relations	63.21%
Monetary benefits	60.30%
Objectivity and rationality	56.00%
Recognition and appreciation	51.32%
Welfare facilities	48.39%
Scope for advancement	47.32%
Grievance handling	45.83%
Training and education	43.46%
Participative Management	39.68%

The study has been carried out on a three-point scale—low, medium and high frequencies.

S. Neelamegham and D.K. Vaid’s study (1986), on motivation of the sales force

(N=116), has found the highest need-deficiencies with respect to prospects of promotion and recognition for good work.

It is important to note that the major Indian studies are on supervisory and managerial personnel. Another important feature of the Indian studies is that most of the studies have been carried out with a small sample, using only conventional methods like ranking, percentage calculation, etc. Some studies have been carried out simply to authenticate Herzberg’s Two-factor Theory, while some others are highly opinionated studies without much adherence to the norms of sampling and survey methods. Even, in most of the cases, suitable structured close-ended questionnaire was not administered. Those are simple inferences after informal discussions with the samples, mostly drawn without following any proper sampling procedure. Another feature is that most of the studies are based on experiences of single industrial units. Representative results are difficult to obtain from a survey based on a small sample drawn from a single unit.

**Check Your Progress**

1. What is the third phase of motivational process?
2. State one objective of motivation.
3. Who developed the content theory of motivation?

**6.3 MONETARY AND NON-MONETARY INCENTIVES**

As has been discussed, rewards play an important role in the process of motivating employees in an organization. Rewards fulfil a variety of needs, influence emotion, and shape or represent a person’s self-identity. In order to motivate employees

successfully, managers need to be knowledgeable about the types of rewards that can be provided to employees. Organizations reward their employees for their membership and seniority, job status, competencies, and performance.

### **Rewards Based on Membership and Seniority**

The duration for which an employee stays in an organization, thereby determining his seniority, affects the kind of pay-packet that he is likely to receive. Many organizations reward their employees on the basis of the number of years they have served in the organization. Japanese firms typically increase every employee's pay rate for each year on the job or for age, although some companies are moving towards performance-based pay (Park 1996). Many Indian organizations try to use a combination of both seniority and performance based-pay.

Seniority-based rewards are attractive for the applicants and also provide a level of security that minimizes stress and builds loyalty (Newman and Krzystofiak 1998). The problem with seniority-based rewards is that they do not directly motivate job performance. They also discourage poor performers from quitting as they do not have better job options available. Instead, the good performers are attracted to better-paying jobs.

### **Rewards Based on Job Status**

Companies try to evaluate the worth of each job in the process of job evaluation. Jobs which require high skills and abilities, have more responsibility, and difficult working conditions are placed higher in the order of importance and are rewarded more. Government-based jobs generally rely on the pay commission recommendations to reward high status. In the private sector, people at higher status jobs are rewarded with large offices, company-paid vehicles, and other attractive perks.

Rewards which are based on status motivate employees to work harder to compete for the higher position in the organizational hierarchy. This also minimizes pay discrimination between the sexes by ensuring that jobs dominated by women receive similar pay as the jobs dominated by men in the organization. However, status-based rewards may create a psychological distance between employees and management, thereby inhibiting communications across these groups. They also encourage traditional hierarchy and are inconsistent with flatter organizational structures and the increasing emphasis on knowledge. Sometimes, the employees may create a façade of doing a good job by rewriting their job description and not by raising their productivity.

### **Rewards Based on Competency**

Competencies are the skills, knowledge, and other underlying characteristics that lead to superior performance (Kochanski 1997). Competency-based rewards are the organizational rewards that are not based on status or position, but on skills, competence, and abilities of the employees. The employees are rewarded

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for their competencies such as customer service, technical knowledge, and creativity (Lawler 2000).

Skill-based pay plans represent a variation of competency-based pay. In skill-based pay plans, employees’ pay rates increase with the number of skill modules they master (Murray and Gerhart 2000). Through special training and job rotation, employees learn how to operate another machine or complete another set of tasks. An employee’s pay rate depends on the number of skill modules that he has mastered, not on the specific jobs performed on a particular day.

Rewards based on competency and skills improve flexibility as employees possess a variety of skills to move into different jobs as required. The quality of product or service also enhances because employees possess multiple skills to perform tasks.

This also facilitates continuous learning on the part of the employees leading to longer employability. The only problem that can arise is the subjectivity arising out of the measurement of competencies, particularly when the competencies are personality traits or values (Crumpley 1997).

**Rewards Based on Performance**

The rewards based on performance can be classified into individual rewards, team rewards, and organizational rewards (Table 6.1).

*Table 6.1 Types of Rewards Based on Performance*

Individual Reward	Team Reward	Organizational Reward
• Piece rate	• Gain sharing	• Stock ownership
• Commissions	• Bonuses	• Stock options
• Royalties		• Profit sharing
• Bonuses		

**Individual rewards**

Piece rates are the wage rates calculated based on the number of units produced by the employees. The reward paid on the basis of sales volume is called commission. When a percentage of revenue is paid to the individual from the resource or work assigned to him, it is called royalty. Bonuses are offered for accomplishing specific tasks or achieving certain goals.

**Team rewards**

Most companies now prefer to enforce a team-based reward system in place of individual rewards. One of the most popular team-based rewards is the gain-sharing plan. Gain-sharing motivates team members to reduce costs and increase labour efficiency in their work processes. Gain-sharing enhances team dynamics

and pay satisfaction. They also add to strong effort–performance expectancy as most of the activities are under the control of the team. In other words, team members quickly learn that their work efficiencies increase the size of the gain-sharing bonus (Cooper and Dyck 1992).

### **Organizational rewards**

The most common organizational rewards are:

**Employee stock ownership plans (ESOPs)** These plans encourage employees to buy shares in the company, usually at a discounted price or with a zero-interest loan from the company. Employees are subsequently rewarded through dividends and market appreciation of these shares. It enables them to own stocks of their company and enjoy tax benefits. They can also use the ESOPs as security to obtain loans from financial institutions.

Organizations strategically plan their ESOP structure. It is a special incentive structure where a company creates a trust and makes regular contributions to the trust in the form of shares or cash. If the contribution is made in cash, the trustee-manager buys the company's shares from the secondary market. Each employee has a separate account to which the shares are credited. When an employee leaves the company, he receives the shares in his account. If the shares are not traded in the secondary market, the company has to buy back the shares from the employee at a fair price. They make annual contributions in a special trust set up for ESOPs. For example, Infosys has created an employee welfare trust to allocate shares to its employees. The company contributes to the trust, and the employees generally do not pay for these shares. The company continues to contribute to the trust until the employee quits, dies, retires or his services are terminated. Another example is that of Tata Technologies which provides fresh recruits with the benefit of ESOPs since they are the first to initiate work in a new venture.

**Stock options** These options give employees the right to purchase company stock at a future date at a predetermined price. Under a stock option plan, a company assigns options to its employees. The option gives employees the right to buy shares at a specified price during a specified period. These options are not traded on stock exchanges.

A company may, for instance, grant each employee the right to buy 500 shares at ₹100 after 2 years. Employees will exercise their options only if the stock price in the secondary market is higher than ₹100. If the secondary market price is lower, the option will be allowed to lapse. Stock options are typical examples of employee benefit plans in India. For example, Wipro provides its employees with the Wipro Employee Restricted Stock Unit Plan 2004, which is given to all eligible employees of the company, all its subsidiaries as well as to all the directors except promoter directors and directors who directly or indirectly hold more than 10% of the outstanding equity shares of the company. The objectives of this stock option are to attract, retain, and motivate talented employees; encourage employees to

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align individual performance with company objectives; reward employee performance with ownership in proportion to their contribution; and align employee interests with those of the organization.

**Profit-sharing plans** These plans consist of paying bonuses to the employees on the basis of the previous year's corporate profits. It is the process of sharing the profits earned by the organization with all the employees. Indirectly, all organizations follow the profit-sharing plan by giving out dividends.

Most companies that follow profit-sharing programmes report consistent productivity improvement. Profit-sharing increases productivity as it increases involvement in decision making, partly because of the financial incentives and partly because of the greater perceived employee ownership within firms. Profit-sharing incentive plans are practised in retail and FMCG sectors. Other sectors too implement the plan based on organizational policies.

Procter & Gamble was the first company in the United States to introduce a profit-sharing programme, in 1887. Today, approximately 25% of the company is owned by its former and current employees. Even workers in the manufacturing plants often own hundreds of thousands of dollars in company stock, thanks to a lucrative profit-sharing plan. In return, the company gets an assurance that top-of-the-line employees (who could possibly make more in base salary elsewhere) will remain with the company for years to come.

Organizational rewards create an ownership culture in which employees feel aligned with the organization's success. Profit sharing helps to automatically adjust employee compensation with the firm's prosperity, thereby reducing the need for layoffs or negotiated pay reductions during recessions (Cheluis and Smith 1990).

The main disadvantage is that employees often perceive a weak connection between individual performance and corporate profits or the value of company shares. The rewards also fail to motivate employees when profits are negligible and when stock prices decline in bear markets. Morale may suffer in companies in such conditions (Leckey 2001).

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## 6.4 FATIGUE, BOREDOM AND MONOTONY: MEANING, CAUSES AND REMEDIES

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The occurrence of boredom in our day-to-day lives especially in the work place should motivate the behavioral scientists to seek increased understanding of the phenomenon and how it affects quality of life. It is fairly visible that the occurrence of boredom is widespread, and job-related boredom has considerable negative impact upon organizational goals and societal functioning. In-fact it also has a negative impact on the individual's health and well-being. The consequences of increased intensity of boredom leads to consequences such as performance

decrements and changes in attitude and in physical and cognitive functioning occurring within the individual.

Each of these changes suggests an area where more research is needed to understand fully the effects of boredom and the conditions under which they occur.

### **Effects on Performance**

Though it is often assumed that the general impact of boredom, fatigue and monotony on work performance is fairly negative; conclusions about the effect of boredom on performance have often been reached by evaluating performance over a period of time on tasks that are assumed to be boring rather than by directly measuring boredom itself. Performance efficiency under boring conditions is apparently related to the amount of effort expended, although the person successful in maintaining performance pays a higher toll in the level of irritation, fatigue, and physiological changes experienced as increasingly greater effort is required.

Lowered performance on boring jobs is generally attributed to shifts in attention “away from the task. Theories of arousal suggest that attentional shifts may be a function “of increased reticular activation initiated to break up perceptual sets. Alternately, shifts in attention may represent a deliberate behavioral compensation for a decrease in arousal.

Still unresolved is the question of when, and under what conditions, brief attentional shifts may fulfill an adaptive function without detrimental effects. Also, the extent to which boredom is reflected in a performance decrement probably depends more upon the interaction of the task demands with the coping strategies of the person than upon individual skill level. By developing an in-depth understanding of the meaning of boredom in organizations, organization members can learn to constructively confront their boredom, thereby expanding their awareness and improving employee performances.

#### **Check Your Progress**

4. What are competency-based rewards?
5. Define piece rate.

## **6.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

1. In the third phase of motivational process, organizations enforce goal-directed behaviour.
2. One objective of motivation is to ensure productive use of resource.
3. Frederick Herzberg (1959), extending the work of Maslow, developed the content theory of motivation.

## **NOTES**

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4. Competency-based rewards are the organizational rewards that are not based on status or position, but on skills, competence, and abilities of the employees.
5. Piece rates are the wage rates calculated based on the number of units produced by the employees.

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## **6.6 SUMMARY**

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- To motivate means to incite. It is to create a desire to do a thing or to create a willing-ness to work in the manner in which we want a work to be done. It is distinct from the capacity to work.
- Various management gurus like, Taylor, Mayo, Follet, Fayol, Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg, Chris Argyris, McClelland and many others have contributed to the theories of motivation.
- Motivational perceptions of all type of employees throughout the world are fast changing in response to a number of key variables.
- Motivation process starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or a need that activates a behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive.
- All the definitions, therefore, authenticate that motivation is a behavioural syndrome, which develops when there is a perceived incongruence in employees' needs and expectations.
- In the first stage, it is important to identify the need deficiency of employees, if any. Need deficiency centres around extrinsic and intrinsic needs. Extrinsic needs are those which are related to material and tangible gains.
- In the second phase of motivational process, organizations try to identify appropriate strategy to close the perceived need gap of their employees.
- In the third phase of motivational process, organizations enforce goal-directed behaviour.
- Goal-directed behaviour enhances performance and productivity of employees, which further influence compensation strategy and other motivational reinforcers.
- Motivation enhances performance and improves productivity.
- Motivation ensures productive use of resource. Physical, financial and human resources are the important resource constituents for an organization.
- The second important objective of motivation is increased efficiency of people.
- Motivation also promotes friendly work culture, increased morale, increased sense of responsibility, sense of belongings, integration of individual identity with organizational identity, team work, participative decision making, etc.

- The word ‘motivation’ is used to describe the drive that impels an employee to work. Therefore, the process starts with physiological (extrinsic) or psychological (intrinsic) needs, satisfaction of which activates the drive to achieve a goal.
- Motive is the inner state that activates and directs the behaviour of individuals towards certain goals.
- Using the Pareto diagram, a manager can optimize the motive strength as Pareto principle suggests every problem (for us it is the motive strength) is the result of few causes and all causes are not equally important, ‘a vital few: trivial many’.
- Taylor, considered to be the father of scientific management, observed the prosperity of management and workforce are interdependent. People are inherently capable to do hard work, but they show such qualities irregularly.
- Mayo and his associates through a series of experiments, known as Hawthorne Experiments (Western Electric Co., USA, 1927–1932) established that work satisfaction and hence, the performance is basically not economic.
- Maslow, through his Need Hierarchy Theory established that motivation of people arises from levels, a hierarchy of needs.
- Physiological needs are the basic needs of human beings which are essential to sustain or survive.
- At self-esteem need level, employees look for satisfaction of their esteem or egoistic needs. Esteem needs pertain to self-respect and respect or esteem from others.
- At the self-actualization need stage, employees desire to become what they are capable of becoming. They want to create something of their own using their talent, capacities and potentialities.
- Concepts of needs help the managers to understand the human behaviour at work. It also accounts for interpersonal variations in human work.
- Frederick Herzberg (1959), extending the work of Maslow, developed the Content Theory of Motivation.
- The crux of the Two-factor Theory of motivation therefore, is that managers should be concerned about both the satisfying and dissatisfying factors.
- Herzberg’s theory is first of its kind based on field research unlike Maslow’s work, which was based on clinical observations (laboratory-based findings), Herzberg did his study to understand motivation in work environment.
- Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham (1975) developed a Job Characteristic Model on Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory, showing how a good job design can lead to internal motivation of the employees and contribute to better job performance.

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- The theory postulates that five job characteristics lead to three psychological states, which affect the motivation and satisfaction of the employees.
- The five job characteristics are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback.
- Skill variety is the extent or range of skills, abilities and talents of employees. The more they are able to utilize skills in the job, the greater their level of satisfaction.
- Clayton Alderfer (1972) of Yale University developed ERG Theory based on the empirical research. He modified Maslow's five levels of needs to three levels and labelled them as needs for Existence, Relatedness and Growth.
- McClelland highlighted the importance of matching individual and the job.
- People with high achievement need always prefer challenging job assignments, whereas, people with low achievement need, prefer a job situation that ensures stability, security and predictability.
- Douglas McGregor (1990) of MIT defined organizations as psychological entities. Therefore, organizations can be characterized by their assumptions about what motivates people.
- Content theories of motivation lay emphasis on the importance of inner needs in motivation.
- On the contrary, cognitive models or process theories of motivation put emphasis on the idea that people take conscious decisions about their job behaviour.
- Expectancy Theory has different names like, Instrumentality Theory, Path-Goal Theory and Valence–Instrumentality–Expectancy (VIE) Theory.
- Valence is the degree of desirability of certain outcomes. It is, therefore, the strength of an individual's preference for a particular outcome, which may either be a promotion or a pay rise or recognition, etc., after he successfully accomplishes the job.
- Expectancy is the perceived possibility of a particular outcome that would follow after an action.
- Vroom has used one more term in between expectancy and valence, which is usefulness or instrumentality. Instrumentality is the belief that the first-level outcome would lead to the second-level outcome.
- Layman W. Porter and Edward W. Lawler (1968) based on Vroom's Expectancy Model, observed that performance leads to satisfaction contrary to our belief that satisfaction leads to performance.
- Harold Kelley advocated Attribution Theory and Locus of Control, which are mainly concerned with the cognitive process by which an individual interprets behaviour attributing to certain parts of the relevant environment.

- The concept of locus of control is different from the concept of attribution.
- While Attribution Theory is concerned with the identification of the causes of one's own, as well as, others' behaviour, Locus of Control Theory is applicable to oneself only.
- Since, the external control factors (which influenced their own behaviour) are beyond their own control, employees believe that their rewards and punishments are dependent on factors like fate, luck or chance.
- Edwin Locke (1968) considered two cognitive determinants of behaviour— values and intentions (goals). Emotions and desires represent the form of values and value judgements.
- H.A. Murray (1938) discussed about Manifest Needs Theory, which is basically a multivariate approach to the structure of needs.
- The basic difference between Murray's formulation and formulations of Maslow and Alderfer is that Murray does not suggest a hierarchical order of various types of needs.
- R.W. White's Competence Motive Theory (1959), (quite similar to the Power Motive Theory of Adler) relates motivation to the desire of employees for mastery over physical and social environs (Cornell Study).
- S. Schachter's Affiliation Motivation Theory (1959) relates motivation to the strong need for affiliation.
- C. Argyris' Maturity-Immaturity Theory (1957) relates motivation to an environment which serves both the needs of the organization and the needs of the members of the organization (Yale study).
- W.F. Whyte's Money Motivation Theory (1955) suggests that people are motivated primarily by the desire to make money.
- S. Neelamegham and D.K. Vaid's study (1986), on motivation of the sales force (N=116), has found the highest need-deficiencies with respect to prospects of promotion and recognition for good work.
- It is important to note that the major Indian studies are on supervisory and managerial personnel.
- Another important feature of the Indian studies is that most of the studies have been carried out with a small sample, using only conventional methods like ranking, percentage calculation, etc.

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### 6.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Compensation:** It is the total cash and non-cash payments that you give to an employee in exchange for the work they do for your business.

- **FMCG:** Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) are products that are sold quickly and at a relatively low cost.
- **Inequity:** It means lack of fairness or justice.

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### 6.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. Briefly discuss the concept of motivation in the industry.
2. What are theories of motivation?
3. Discuss Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory or Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Give its critical evaluation.
4. Draw a comparative study between Maslow and Herzberg's Models.
5. Write a short note on Attribution Theory and Locus of Control.
6. What are the various miscellaneous theories on motivation?

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the meaning and types of motivation in the industry. What are the objectives of motivation?
2. Describe any three theories of motivation in detail.
3. Critically examine the ERG theory.
4. Give a detailed description of cognitive or process theories of motivation.
5. Discuss the Indian studies on motivation theories.

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### 6.9 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume I*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

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## UNIT 7 GROUP BEHAVIOUR

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### Structure

- 7.0 Introduction
- 7.1 Objectives
- 7.2 Meaning, Definition and Advantages of Groups
- 7.3 Types of Groups
- 7.4 Group Dynamics
- 7.5 Group Norms
- 7.6 Group Cohesiveness
- 7.7 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 7.8 Summary
- 7.9 Key Words
- 7.10 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 7.11 Further Readings

### NOTES

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## 7.0 INTRODUCTION

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When two or more interdependent individuals come together and interact to achieve particular objectives it is known as a group. The course of action that all the members of the group collectively take is called group behavior. Groups can be classified into types namely formal groups and informal groups. The formal groups work towards achieving organizational goals.

These groups are created by the organization and have designated work assignments and specific tasks. Formal groups are further divided into two sub-groups which are command group and interest group.

On the other hand, as the term suggests, informal groups are formed with friendships and common interests. Just like formal groups, this group too can be further divided into two sub-groups known as task group and friendship group.

This unit discuss the meaning, and other dynamics of groups in detail.

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## 7.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss meaning, definition and advantages of groups
- Explain types of groups
- Describe group dynamics and group norms
- Assess and explain group cohesiveness



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## 7.2 MEANING, DEFINITION AND ADVANTAGES OF GROUPS

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### NOTES

In general, a number of people together at a given place and given time can be considered a group. People in a bus or the same compartment of a train or students in a class are all known as groups. However, from an organizational point of view, a group has a different meaning and definition. According to Marvin Shaw, “A group is two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person.” There are two key elements in this definition that are essential. First is the “interaction” among group members. For example, co-workers may work side by side on related tasks, but if they do not interact with each other, they are not a group in the organizational sense. The second element is the influence of one group member on every other group member. This means that the group members are mutually dependent with respect to the attainment of one or more common goals.

While all individuals in the group are primarily required to direct their efforts towards common organizational goals, there may be situations where individuals within the group are more interested in the achievement of their personal goals, thus making the organizational goals secondary. For example, a member of the high school basketball team may be more interested in highlighting his own performance in order to win a college scholarship irrespective of whether the entire team wins or not, even though all members of the team interact with each other and influence each other’s performance.

It should be noted that in order for the group members to interact with each other effectively, the group size should be reasonably small. It is difficult to interact closely with each other when the group size is very large. In fact, the dynamics of large groups are significantly different from the dynamics of small groups. Accordingly, our concern is primarily with groups of reasonable size.

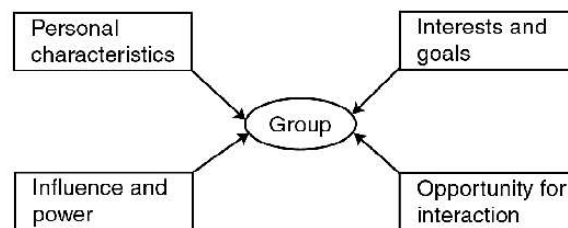
### **Reasons for Group Formation**

Why do individuals form themselves into groups? What are the reasons for forming or joining a group and what are the benefits to such individuals who become a part of the group? There are many factors that influence the formation of the group, the most important being that the individual need satisfaction. This means that the members expect affiliation with the group to satisfy a need. This need is primarily a social need for love, affection and friendship, which is the third level need in Maslow’s model of hierarchical needs. But the need could also be economic in nature because of economic group incentives, that are generally financially more generous than individual incentives. Also, being a member of a union is economically advantageous because unions can fight for higher pay and fringe benefits more effectively.

The most basic theory explaining group affiliation is the geographic proximity. For example, individuals working in the same area are more likely to form a group than those who are not physically located together. Similarly, students sitting near each other in a classroom are more likely to form into a group than students sitting at opposite ends of the classroom.

According to George Homans, there are three elements that form the foundations of groups. These are activities, interactions and sentiments. These three elements are inter-related. An improvement in one element will trigger an improvement in others. For example, the more activities persons share, that means improvement in the first element, the more interaction will take place and stronger will be their sentiments.

While there are many reasons why individuals would either form or join a group, some reasons stand out. A sense of belonging and interpersonal attraction may be so strong that some people are willing to pay a high price for joining an exclusive country club, golf club or flying club. Some of the more important reasons are illustrated as follows.



### Personal Characteristics

People are more likely to form groups with others who share similar beliefs, values, and attitudes. As the saying goes, “birds of a feather fly together”, so the groups form around common political and cultural philosophies, ethnic and religious affiliations and such factors as age, sex, intelligence or similar interests and hobbies. For example, salesmen who are high need achievers may want to interact with other high achiever salesmen. There is also a contradictory saying that, “opposites attract each other”. There may be situations where some dominant individuals may seek the company of submissive individuals specially when this grouping leads to achievement of a common goal. For example, if a vice-president and a low-level clerk of the same company lose their jobs, they may form a group to fight the company together.

### Interests and Goals

Interests and goals that are common and require cooperation with others for achievement of such goals are a powerful force behind such group formation. Individuals with common goals tend to work together. For example, within an organization, the salesmen form a group, so do the production people and the

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accounting people. Even though the salesmen may have individual goals, their organizational goal is common.

Some goals simply cannot be achieved by individuals alone and they require group cooperative activity. For example, the sky-scrapers cannot be built by one person alone. It requires group efforts in all areas of building. Similarly, there are a number of groups involved in constructing and sending a satellite into space. If these individuals in the group with a common group and organizational goal also have similar personal characteristics, then the group cohesion can be strengthened, and group efforts can be improved. Some groups form because of similar intellectual and recreational goals and pursuits. Golf clubs, chess clubs and hunting clubs are some of the groups with recreational pursuits. Groups are often organized to accomplish some problem solving and decision-making tasks such as designing political strategies or designing computers.

The goals can also be social and emotional in nature. Thus, the groups are formed because of the individual's need for safety and security, sense of belonging and affiliation and self-esteem. Safety and security needs of individuals are satisfied through groups. Even from the early days, men used to go out hunting for food together in groups to face outside threats from animals and other hostile environments. Group formation is likely when the environment becomes hostile and threatening. For example, in times of floods, fire or other natural disasters, neighbours who may not be even speaking with each other form effective groups to help and shelter the people affected by such disasters. In an organizational setting, individual workers join unions because the unions have the ability to meet their needs and interests as well as protect them from threats of being fired.

A sense of belonging is the third level need in Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. It is an emotional need for friendship, love, affection and affiliation with others. Most people have strong a need for being with others who can understand, support and help them when they are in need and render them moral and emotional support in times of difficulty. The concept of family and friends fills this need.

Membership of prestigious groups is a source of enhanced self-esteem. The members of the group feel good about themselves by virtue of the group's power, prestige and social standing. For example, being in United States Marines or SWAT team can be a source of pride for the members.

### **Opportunity for Interaction**

When people are provided with an opportunity to interact, they may discover that they have a lot in common, thus necessitating the formation of a group. This interaction leads to friendships and group formation, for example, in college dormitories, apartment complexes and sometimes in the compartment of a train or on cruise ships where people are together and have an opportunity to form informal groups.

In an organizational setting, management generally tries to create a physical as well as psychological environment to induce interaction. Sometimes, the offices are designed in such a manner that people who need to interact with each other can do so and they are assigned work space close to each other. Common cafeterias and coffee breaks given at the same time increases opportunity for interaction.

### **Influence and Power**

There is a saying in India that, “while a single one is just a one, two single ones make it an eleven”. We all know that there is strength in unity. Henry Fayol’s last of the fourteen principles of effective administration is “Espirt de Corps”, which means the “power of spirit of togetherness”. There is another saying supporting the same sentiment, “united we stand, divided we fall”.

Most managers listen to a complaint of employees when the employees approach the managers together. The same managers may not listen to individual complaints. In the case of one college, that the author knows, there were many individual faculty complaints against the President of the college for some of his decisions and actions, as well as against many aspects of the physical and conceptual academic environment of the college. But the President refused to listen or show sympathy for the needs and desires of faculty on individual basis. But when the faculty as group in the form of “faculty organization” approached the President with their problems and difficulties and the President still refused to listen, he was forced to resign, because of the power of the group.

Groups also provide opportunities for individual members to become leaders of the group and influence other members of the group with their views and reasoning. As a leader of a group, he may influence people outside the group or other groups. Leaders of certain groups are often called upon to speak to other groups thus giving them an opportunity to express their own view points and ideologies. These leaders may also find that their leadership roles give them increased public visibility and may prove to be stepping stones for enhancement of their own careers.

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## **7.3 TYPES OF GROUPS**

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From an organizational behaviour point of view, there are basically two types of groups. These are: formal groups and informal groups.

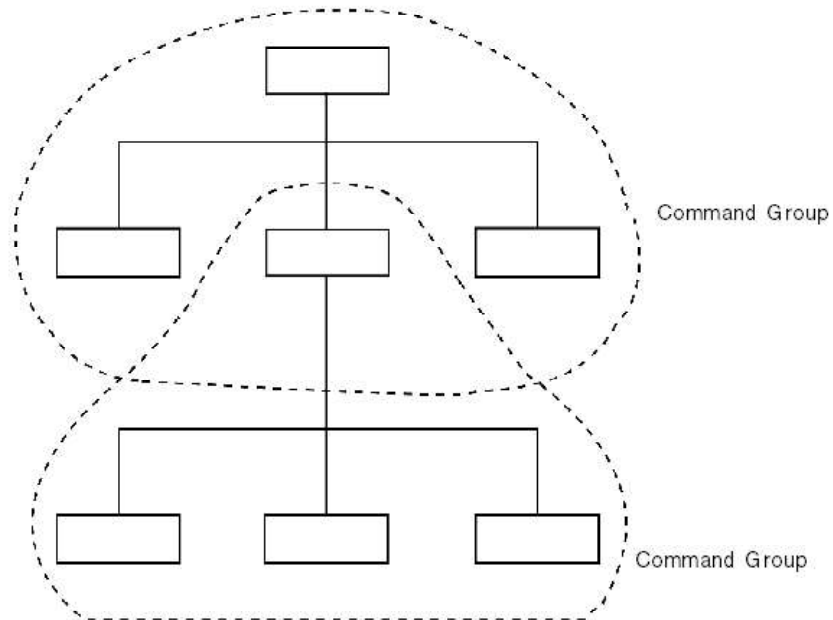
### **Formal Groups**

A group is formal when it is purposely designed to accomplish an organizational objective or task. It is created via a formal authority for some defined purpose.

A formal group can be a command group or a functional group that is relatively permanent and is composed of managers and their subordinates who meet regularly to discuss general and specific ideas to improve product or service. A typical command group in an organization chart may be illustrated as follows.

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The formal groups usually work under a single supervisor, even though the structure of these groups may vary. For example, in one form of group such as in production, the members of the work group depend on each other as well as on the supervisor and in another form of group, such as sales force, the members of the group work fairly independently and their common contact may be the district sales manager.

Other types of formal groups include task forces and committees. The task forces are temporary in nature and are set up for some special projects. The committees can be permanent, such as a planning committee, a finance committee or a budget committee and may become an integral part of the organizational structure. A committee can also be temporary such as a special task force that is set up for a particular purpose and is then disbanded when the purpose is achieved. For example, the committee to re-elect the President is temporary in nature and is disbanded after the election.

**Informal Groups**

Whereas formal groups are established by organizations to achieve some specific objectives, the informal groups are formed by the members of such groups by themselves. They emerge naturally, in response to the common interests of organizational members. They are formed spontaneously, without any formal designation, and with common interests such as self-defence, work assistance and social interaction. They exist outside the formal authority system and without any set rigid rules. Though officially unrecognized, they exist in the shadow of the

formal structure as a network of personal and social relations, that must be understood and respected by the management.

The informal work groups are based upon socio-psychological support and reasoning and depend upon member's interaction, communication, personal likings and dislikings and social contacts within as well as outside the organization. How powerful are these informal groups can be seen from the fact that if one member of the group is fired, sometimes all workers go on strike in support of that member of the group. The bonds between members are very strong and these bonds bring in a sense of belonging and togetherness. This togetherness can have a powerful influence on productivity and job satisfaction, since employees motivate each other and share each other's burden by training those who are new and by looking up to old timers for guidance, advice and assistance.

Informal groups generally result due to personal bonds and social interaction among people who work together at the same place and may have similarities as well as differences in their nature and their outlook. These groups have their own leaders and followers, group goals, social roles and working patterns. They have their own unwritten rules and a code of conduct, that every member implicitly accepts. Members trust and help each other. For example, in a department of a college, the departmental secretary may wield more authority in some areas than even the chairperson as in the case of typing exams and typing course outlines. Thus a professor who has a good rapport with the secretary, as a member of the informal group, would have the papers typed sooner than others.

The leadership of the informal groups develops from within rather than a formal election. An individual, who is working in a group for a long time and has a good rapport with other members, may emerge as a leader due to his technical expertise and his seniority. For any problem within the group, either technical or social, the members would go to this leader rather than the formally assigned supervisor.

Some of the other aspects of informal groups are as follows:

**Group norms:** Parallel to performance and other standards established by the formal organizational structure, the informal groups have their own norms as rules of conduct and a standard of behaviour that is expected of all members. These norms may be established in consultation with the management, so that group goals do not conflict with the organizational goals. For example, if one member of the group is unproductive or talks ill about the organization, he may be sanctioned by other members either by reprimand or ridicule or simply by the "silent treatment". Similarly, if one member is overly productive in order to be in the good books of management personally, thus making the other members look bad, he could be similarly sanctioned in order to bring him back in line. A study conducted by P.C. De La Porte showed that the group norms that are favourable to the organization are: organizational pride, team work, honesty, security, planning, customer relations and so on. The norms about profitability and supervision were unfavourable to the organization.

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**Groups roles:** There is an unwritten assignment within the group as to which task will be done by whom and under what conditions. Some job roles are assigned by the management by matching the job description with the person's qualifications and some other roles develop within the group. For example, some members may informally be technical advisors to others as to how to do the job better and others may act as arbitrators in social problems or other differences that may arise among members.

**Group goals:** The goal of the informal group, whether it be profitability that conflicts with the organizational goals or customer service which is in accord, heavily influences productivity. It is necessary to integrate the group goals with the organizational goals for the purpose of improvement and success.

**Leadership:** The informal leader emerges from the group either because of his personal charisma, his social status or his technical expertise. He is not formally elected but is accepted in the minds and hearts of the workers. These leaders influence the behaviour of others and remain leaders as long as they are sincere to the group interests.

**Group cohesiveness:** Cohesiveness refers to the degree and strength of interpersonal attraction among members of the group. High degree of cohesion is highly motivating in achieving the group goals. Members help each other and support each other. The degree of cohesiveness depends upon the commonness of the perceived group goal, the size of the group and the ability of the group leader to facilitate cohesion. Group cohesion also has synergetic effects where, together they produce much more by the collective efforts than the sum product of the individual efforts. (Detailed discussion of groups cohesiveness follows later.)

The informal groups are powerful instruments in all organizations and sometimes they can make the difference between success and failure. When the group members "want" to do a job, it is always done better than when they "have" to do it because of instructions from the superiors. A cooperative group makes the supervision easier thus lengthening the effective span of management. The group is also there to make sure that the basic principles of the formal organization are not violated. For example, if a manager misuses his authority and promotes an unqualified person, the informal group may use its influence in making sure that it does not happen. The informal group also serves as an additional channel of communication to the management about conditions of work when such information may not be available through official channels.

One problem with an informal group is that it is primarily centered towards human elements, that can be highly unpredictable affecting the smooth operations of the organization. Due to rules and procedures being unwritten, they can change from situation to situation. Also the informal group can be considered subversive in nature if their goals conflict with the formal organizational goals. In such situations, managers often view them with doubt and suspicion. They tend to see informal groups as potentially harmful to the formal organization. For that reason, some

mangers seek the support of informal groups and their leaders in order to reduce such a threat. They tend to view such informal groups as valid, stable and structurally sound and hence show consideration and respect for their existence and their views.

### **Check Your Progress**

1. What is the most basic theory which explains group affiliation?
2. Name the three elements that form the foundations of groups.

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## **7.4 GROUP DYNAMICS**

The phrase, 'group dynamics', came into being in 1944 when Curt Lewin set up the Research Centre for Group Dynamics, to meet the need of making a scientific approach to understanding the dynamics of groups.

### **Definitions of Group Dynamics**

In the words of D Cartwright and A Zander, "Group dynamics should be defined as a field of inquiry dedicated to advancing knowledge about the nature of groups, laws of their development, and their interrelations with individuals, other groups and larger institutions."

According to Good's Dictionary of Education, "Group dynamics implies an interactive psychological relationship in which members of a group develop a common perception based on feelings and emotions."

Kretch and Crutchfield viewed group dynamics "as changes that place within the group."

In the words of Otto Klineberg, "It is not easy to define or limit the important area of group dynamics. From one point of view, it represents a field of enquiry, a series of inter-related problems; from another it includes a set of techniques; from a third, a theory, of the groups and of interaction within groups."

The focal point of all the above-mentioned definitions is 'inter-relation' or 'interaction' among the members of the group.

### **Meaning of Group Dynamics**

The term group dynamics consists of two words, i.e., group and dynamics.

The meaning of a group has already been explained in the previous section.

The word dynamics has its origin from a Greek word, which means force. Therefore, group dynamics refers to forces operating with the groups. It studies these forces, the factors that give rise to them, conditions that give them the particular structure and then modify or change it, the sources that govern the flux of status, position and role of relationships among members. When a group of people is



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formed with a common goal, a kind of social force is created. Group dynamics is related to the field theory of Lewin, which assumes a man's behaviour to be a function of the field existing at the time of the occurrence of behaviour. The concept of field is very dynamic which takes into account the total influence of time, place and circumstances of human organism.

Thus, group dynamics may be conceived as the study of group processes, their objective analysis and measurement and the effect of group membership on individual members.

The scientific study of group processes, or group dynamics is of great concern to educators since it corrects the earlier overemphasis of educational psychology on an individual learner. Findings apply not only to class work, and to student activities, but also to interviews with students and parents, to faculty meetings and committees, parent-teacher associations, educational conferences, and various aspects of educational administration.

Behaviour is not static. Group dynamics means the change of behaviour through interaction in the group.

### **Group Dynamics in the Classroom**

IA Gates was of the view that group dynamics offered the best means available for the development of three types of skills, namely, (i) Skills essential for democratic living, (ii) Skills essential for better social understanding, and (iii) Skills for preparing the individual members of the group for democratic leadership.

According to D Segal, group dynamics is the process by which one must consider other individuals in a group, and a problem at the same time, and it not only tends to increase understanding to the problem, but also creates a solution which the individual practises in bringing about emotional balance.

A wise teacher can make his classroom teaching, easier and effective, if he can direct group dynamics into constructive paths. Through group discussion and activity methods, he can give the individual student a chance to participate actively and to contribute to group work in the class.

The teacher is expected to understand the various forces working in the classroom so that he makes use of the forces in his teaching. He must know how adolescents form groups and should know the structure of these groups in general. He must understand the pattern of friendship or preferences of the members of the various groups. The teacher must detect 'stars', as well as the 'isolates' in the group to take appropriate action for adjustment.

The teacher must ensure that groups are not formed on the basis of caste, creed or religion, etc.

If the teacher is well-equipped with the basic knowledge of group dynamics, he would be in a better position to improve the emotional and social climate in the class.

Group dynamics is also influenced by sympathy, suggestion and imitation.

Sympathy enables the member of a group to perceive the psychological state of the other member. He begins to feel as others feel.

Suggestion plays a big role in influencing the group behaviour. The suggestions put forward by the leader of the group are readily accepted.

The behaviour of the leader of the group is imitated by the members of the group.

It would be desirable for a teacher to throw some light on the qualities of leadership so that students choose their leaders wisely and the teacher is able to influence the class through its leaders. However, it must be stressed, that teacher must remain neutral in the selection of leaders.

The recent studies have made it clear that for bringing about changes in the individual, we must bring about changes in the characteristics of the group. The teachers, therefore, should adopt group methods in the class and through these influence the attitudes of the members of the group. Group training is better than individual training.

Some specific group techniques which could be utilized for improvement of the group process are:

- (i) Buzz session in which a small group of five or six students participate, is organized for purposes of stimulating discussion.
- (ii) Role playing, in which problems of handling a situation are dramatized for the benefit of the group.
- (iii) Brain storming, in which a group is organized for stimulating discussion.
- (iv) Catharsis, in which a planned group expression of problems of concern to the group is provided.
- (v) Recreational experiences in which opportunities are provided for participation in dramatics, picnics, parties, etc., to improve the morale of the group.

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## 7.5 GROUP NORMS

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Group norms are the informal guidelines of behaviour and a code of conduct that provides some order and conformity to group activities and operations. These rules are expected to be followed by all the group members. These norms and rules usually develop gradually and informally as group members learn as to what behaviours are necessary for the group to function effectively. These norms may include a code of dress for meetings or being on time for the meetings and behaving in a predictable manner both within and outside the group meetings. This predictability of behaviour also causes higher degree of cohesiveness within the group. Predictability reduces chaos, ambiguity and conflict. Discomfort would be

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high in a committee or a task group, if the group members are not sure as to how each member would behave. Norms also identify the values and ethics of the group members. They are established on the basis of what is right and decent and expected of professionals. For example, some companies have very rigorous dress standards, tolerating no deviation, such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI).

There are basically two types of norms. These are:

**Behaviour norms:** These are rules and guidelines defining the day-to-day behaviour of people at work. This behaviour pattern may include punctuality as a habit, completing any given assignments within the required time frame-work, not losing temper, showing respect for other member's opinions, not monopolizing the conversation and so on. Certain professionalism is expected from all members and this professionalism is predictable form of behaviour.

**Work norms:** Work norms regulate the performance and productivity of individual members. An overly ambitious worker who produces more is considered as much a deviate from the norms as a worker who is an under producer. Work norms usually put an acceptable level of productivity, within reasonable tolerances so that comparatively poor performers can also be accommodated and that they do not become a burden on their peers. Workers performing below the lower acceptable level are generally informally reprimanded and encouraged to produce more. On the other hand, rate-busters who perform above the upper acceptable limit set by the group are also ostracized for encouraging the management to raise its expectations.

In addition to productivity, work norms may also define the extent of time spent on the job. For example, if coffee breaks are allowed for 15 minutes in the morning, then those members who do not take coffee breaks at all as well as those members who take longer coffee breaks are considered as disobeying the group norms. Thus, groups will often want to regulate not only how much workers produce, but also how many hours they put in on the job. Some work norms are strengthened when management tends to exploit some of the members of the groups. Thus, norms might also define the limits placed upon worker interaction and cooperation with superiors.

Other work norms might involve loyalty or confidentiality on the part of members. Workers are not expected to report about fellow workers to supervisors. Similarly, confidentiality is a powerful group norm so that no matter how much tension there may be between workers and management, the workers will not divulge company secrets to competing organizations.

Group norms are generally reinforced if all members agree to abide by them and the members will agree if they firmly believe that adherence to such norms will facilitate group goals achievement or ensure group survival and additionally, such norms do not conflict with individual values and principles. Also,

the norms are reinforced if the members value their membership in the group and do not like the outcomes of violating them. The outcome of violating the group norms must be sufficiently consequential in order to discourage members to deviate from them.

The groups enforce compliance with norms in many ways. They can reward people who comply with group norms by appreciating them, by listening to them in a respectful manner and by making them leaders of the group. Also, they can take negative actions against those persons who deviate from group norms in the form of ridicule or “silent treatment” or by withdrawing privileges or by ultimate action of expelling them from the membership of the group.

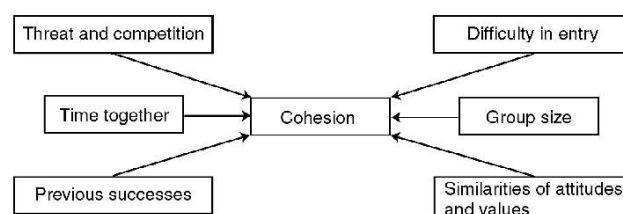
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### 7.6 GROUP COHESIVENESS

Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group. It identifies the strength of the member’s desires to remain in the group and the degree of commitment to the group. The extent of cohesiveness depends upon many factors including the compatibility of individual goals with group goals. The more the members are attracted to each other and the more the group goals align with their individual goals, the greater the group’s cohesiveness.<sup>8</sup> Similarly, less attraction of members towards each other will lessen the strength of cohesiveness. There may be situations where an individual may become a member of a country club for the sake of his own prestige or career enhancement or for making selective friends for his business interests. These reasons for joining the group will undermine the strength of cohesiveness.

#### Factors Contributing to Group Cohesiveness

There are many factors that foster the cohesion of the group. Some of the more important factors are illustrated below:



These factors are explained in more detail as follows:

**Time together:** It is quite natural that the more time people spend together, the more they will get to know each other and more tendency there will be to get closer to each other, thus strengthening the degree of cohesiveness. This is based upon the assumption that you will spend more time with only those whom you like personally and want to continue interacting with them. These interactions typically lead to common interests and increased attraction. The idea of long courtships or

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the idea that couples live together before marriage is primarily to ensure that there will be a high degree of cohesiveness in the marriage if the couple gets to know each other well by spending more time together and in close proximity to each other.

In an organizational setting, people who work near each other are more likely to spend more time together. For example, among clerical workers in one organization, it was found that distance between their desks was the single most important determinant of the rate of interaction among them.

**Group size:** Since continuous and close interaction among members is a fundamental necessity for cohesiveness, it would be natural to assume that large groups restrict the extent of communication and interaction with each other, thus resulting in the reduction of degree of cohesiveness. Another problem with large size groups is that there is a likelihood of forming small groups within the large groups. This would result in the dilution of the common group goal thus increasing the extent of power politics play. This tends to decrease the overall cohesiveness.

Another interesting aspect about group cohesion depends upon whether the group is all male, all female or mixed. Studies showed that if all members were of the same sex then small groups had better cohesion than large ones. But when the groups were made up of both males and females, then larger groups had better cohesion. It seems that people like to join mixed groups than single sex groups and an opportunity to interact with a larger set of both sexes increases cohesiveness.

**Difficulty in entry:** Some groups are not easy to join. The members are very carefully selected, and the selected member feels a sense of pride and accomplishment. The more difficult it is to get into a group, the more cohesive that group becomes. The reason being that in exclusive and elite groups the members are selected on the basis of certain characteristics and these characteristics being common to all add to the degree of liking and attraction towards each other. The more exclusive the group, the more is the closeness among members. Accordingly, individuals like to join such exclusive groups. That is one reason, for example, why many bright students want to study at Harvard and Princeton universities. Similarly, exclusive yacht clubs and golf clubs have applicants on their waiting lists for many years before they are accepted.

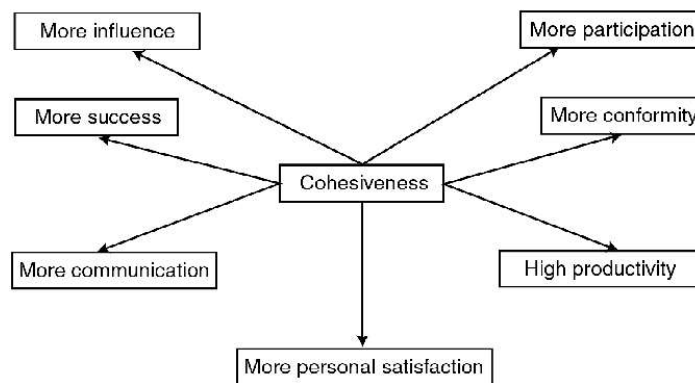
**Threat and competition:** Whenever the common group goal is threatened, cohesiveness increases. Also, such cohesiveness increases the importance of the goals. When we fight for a goal then the goal gets the highest priority. For example, when a hostile group wants to take over a corporation, the Board of Directors of the corporation suddenly becomes a united front against the threats and their cohesiveness reaches its peak. Similarly, management threats frequently bring together an otherwise disarrayed union. Thus, the threatening party will have less chance of success when faced with a unified force.

Many organizations, when faced with tough competition ask their members to stand together and make sacrifices in benefit cuts in order to meet the competition and the members have been known to do that. This reflects the extent of cohesiveness among the members of the organization.

**Previous successes:** When a group achieves a meaningful goal, the cohesiveness of the group increases because the success is shared by all the members and each one feels responsible for the achievement. For example, when a sports team wins an important game, everyone in the team congratulates every other member of the team for this success. Specially, if a group has a series of successes, it builds a united team spirit. For this reason, successful companies find it easier to hire new talented employees. Similarly, prestigious universities are never short of applicants for admission. This proves the adage that everyone loves a winner.

**Similarity of attitudes and values:** One of the strongest sources of group cohesiveness is the similarity in values, morals, beliefs and code of conduct. We enjoy the company of others who hold similar opinions and characteristics as ourselves. That is one reason why interfaith marriages are discouraged. Similarity of interests is especially important when the group's primary goal is that of creating a friendly interpersonal climate. This increases group cohesiveness. This factor may not be so important if the goal is task oriented. For example, if an army unit has to win a strategic battle, then the successful task accomplishment becomes the cohesive factor rather than the similarity of interests because the unit may consist of black soldiers and white soldiers who may not have much in common.

### Consequences of Cohesiveness



These positive outcomes of group cohesiveness are explained in more detail as follows:

**More participation:** Because group cohesiveness involves close interpersonal relationship, the members consider the group as their own, just like a family and they are motivated to participate actively in group affairs and activities. Members also try to assist and support other members of the group in times of need and this strengthens the bonds of friendship. The turnover rate of members is very low, and

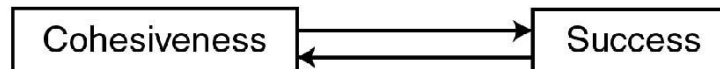
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they look forward to group meetings and group activities as it gives them an opportunity of social interaction in addition to devising strategies for achieving individual and group goals.

**More conformity:** While all individuals who are in the group are unique in many ways with their own norms, values, beliefs and attitudes and sometimes these characteristics may be in conflict with the group norms, the members usually make sacrifices in order to conform to group norms. The cohesive group is generally able to put subtle pressure on the individual member who “deviated” from the group norms in order to bring him back to the mainstream. For example, if a member is working too hard or is playing politics to enhance his personal objectives, the group might put social pressure on him to comply with the group norms. If these pressures do not succeed, then the member may be dropped from the group in order to maintain cohesiveness among other members.

**More success:** Success and cohesiveness are interdependent factors. Cohesiveness makes the goal achievement easier and goal achievement adds to cohesiveness.



In general, cohesive groups are more successful in achieving their goals. The reason for this relationship is that a high degree of cohesiveness involves a high degree of communication, participation and conformity to group norms and this results in successes in achieving them. Thus, such coordinated efforts tend to result in successes in achieving such goals.

**More influence:** Individual members will respond favourably to the demands of the cohesive groups in comparison to less cohesive groups. An informally accepted and respected leader of the group can have quite an autocratic authority and influence over the group members specially when confronting an external threat. Thus, the leader will have considerable influence over the members in shaping their opinions and operations. For example, during negotiations between the union and management, if the union leader is satisfied that he has reached an equitable settlement, he will advise the union members to accept it and even if some members are not happy about such an agreement, they will accept it because of the leader’s sincerity and influence.

**More communication:** Communication reduces conflict. The better the communication, the less likely is any misunderstanding among members. Because the members of the cohesive groups share common values and goals, they are inclined to greater communicativeness. Since communication is key to understanding, respect and closeness, it tends to foster and cement positive social relations as well as deep personal relationships.

**More personal satisfaction:** Satisfaction, though a state of mind, is primarily influenced by positive external factors. These factors include friendliness, respect from other members and self-respect, support, opportunity to interact, achievement,

protection against threats and a feeling of security. Members of cohesive groups report that they are more satisfied than members of less cohesive groups. This is expected since the members of a cohesive group will not stay as members if they were dissatisfied.

**High productivity:** It is quite easy to understand that unity has synergetic effect. The group effort is expected to bring better results than the sum efforts of individual members. However, the outcome of the efforts is a function of not only group cohesiveness but also group compliance with the organizational goals. According to Richard M. Steers, “specifically, when cohesiveness is high, and acceptance of organizational goals is high; performance will probably be high. Similar results would be expected for low cohesiveness and high goal acceptance, although the results may not be as strong. On the other hand, performance would not be expected to be high when cohesiveness is high and goal acceptance is low. In that case, group effort will probably be directed away from organizational goals and towards goals valued by the group. Finally, when both cohesiveness and goal acceptance are low, effort will probably become dissipated, leading to low productivity.”

Studies conducted by Katz and Kahan<sup>11</sup> with respect to participation by workers as a group in a Swedish truck factory showed that cohesiveness and togetherness experienced by group members had a significant positive impact on performance outcome. Members of the group identified more strongly with goals and worked harder to improve productivity.

#### Check Your Progress

3. What is the origin of the term “group dynamics”?
4. What are group norms?
5. What is cohesiveness?
6. What happens when a group achieves a meaningful goal?

### 7.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The most basic theory that explains group affiliation is the geographic proximity.
2. According to George Homans, there are three elements that form the foundations of groups. These are activities, interactions and sentiments.
3. The phrase, ‘group dynamics’, came into being in 1944 when Curt Lewin set up the Research Centre for Group Dynamics, to meet the need of making a scientific approach to understanding the dynamics of groups.
4. Group norms are the informal guidelines of behaviour and a code of conduct that provides some order and conformity to group activities and operations.

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5. Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group.
6. When a group achieves a meaningful goal, the cohesiveness of the group increases because the success is shared by all the members and each one feels responsible for the achievement.

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### 7.8 SUMMARY

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- In general, a number of people together at a given place and given time can be considered a group.
- According to Marvin Shaw,<sup>1</sup> “A group is two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person.”
- There are two key elements in this definition that are essential. First is the “interaction” among group members. The second element is the influence of one group member on every other group member.
- While all individuals in the group are primarily required to direct their efforts towards common organizational goals, there may be situations where individuals within the group are more interested in the achievement of their personal goals, thus making the organizational goals secondary.
- The most basic theory explaining group affiliation is the geographic proximity.
- For example, individuals working in the same area are more likely to form a group than those who are not physically located together.
- According to George Homans,<sup>3</sup> there are three elements that form the foundations of groups. These are activities, interactions and sentiments.
- People are more likely to form groups with others who share similar beliefs, values, and attitudes.
- Interests and goals that are common and require cooperation with others for achievement of such goals are a powerful force behind such group formation. Individuals with common goals tend to work together.
- Groups are often organized to accomplish some problem solving and decision-making tasks such as designing political strategies or designing computers.
- The goals can also be social and emotional in nature. Thus, the groups are formed because of the individual’s need for safety and security, sense of belonging and affiliation and self-esteem.
- A sense of belonging is the third level need in Maslow’s model of hierarchical needs. It is an emotional need for friendship, love, affection and affiliation with others.

- In an organizational setting, management generally tries to create a physical as well as psychological environment to induce interaction.
- Groups also provide opportunities for individual members to become leaders of the group and influence other members of the group with their views and reasoning.
- From an organizational behaviour point of view, there are basically two types of groups. These are: formal groups and informal groups.
- A group is formal when it is purposely designed to accomplish an organizational objective or task. It is created via a formal authority for some defined purpose.
- A formal group can be a command group or a functional group that is relatively permanent and is composed of managers and their subordinates who meet regularly to discuss general and specific ideas to improve product or service.
- Other types of formal groups include task forces and committees. The task forces are temporary in nature and are set up for some special projects.
- The committees can be permanent, such as a planning committee, a finance committee or a budget committee and may become an integral part of the organizational structure.
- Whereas formal groups are established by organizations to achieve some specific objectives, the informal groups are formed by the members of such groups by themselves.
- They emerge naturally, in response to the common interests of organizational members.
- They are formed spontaneously, without any formal designation, and with common interests such as self-defence, work assistance and social interaction.
- The informal work groups are based upon socio-psychological support and reasoning and depend upon member's interaction, communication, personal likings and disliking and social contacts within as well as outside the organization.
- The leadership of the informal groups develops from within rather than a formal election.
- An individual, who is working in a group for a long time and has a good rapport with other members, may emerge as a leader due to his technical expertise and his seniority.
- Parallel to performance and other standards established by the formal organizational structure, the informal groups have their own norms as rules of conduct and a standard of behaviour that is expected of all members.
- The goal of the informal group, whether it be profitability that conflicts with the organizational goals or customer service which is in accord, heavily influences productivity.

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- Cohesiveness refers to the degree and strength of interpersonal attraction among members of the group.
- The degree of cohesiveness depends upon the commonness of the perceived group goal, the size of the group and the ability of the group leader to facilitate cohesion.
- One problem with an informal group is that it is primarily centered towards human elements, that can be highly unpredictable affecting the smooth operations of the organization.
- The phrase, 'group dynamics', came into being in 1944 when Curt Lewin set up the Research Centre for Group Dynamics, to meet the need of making a scientific approach to understanding the dynamics of groups.
- In the words of D Cartwright and A Zander, "Group dynamics should be defined as a field of inquiry dedicated to advancing knowledge about the nature of groups, laws of their development, and their interrelations with individuals, other groups and larger institutions."
- According to Good's Dictionary of Education, "Group dynamics implies an interactive psychological relationship in which members of a group develop a common perception based on feelings and emotions."
- Kretch and Crutchfield viewed group dynamics "as changes that place within the group."
- Thus, group dynamics may be conceived as the study of group processes, their objective analysis and measurement and the effect of group membership on individual members.
- Behaviour is not static. Group dynamics means the change of behaviour through interaction in the group.
- Group norms are the informal guidelines of behaviour and a code of conduct that provides some order and conformity to group activities and operations.
- When a group achieves a meaningful goal, the cohesiveness of the group increases because the success is shared by all the members and each one feels responsible for the achievement.
- One of the strongest sources of group cohesiveness is the similarity in values, morals, beliefs and code of conduct.
- In general, cohesive groups are more successful in achieving their goals. The reason for this relationship is that a high degree of cohesiveness involves a high degree of communication, participation and conformity to group norms and this results in successes in achieving them.

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## 7.9 KEY WORDS

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- **Satisfaction:** It is fulfilment of one's wishes, expectations, or needs, or the pleasure derived from this.

- **Behaviour:** It is the way in which one acts or conducts oneself, especially towards others.
- **Principle:** It is a fundamental truth or proposition that serves as the foundation for a system of belief or behaviour or for a chain of reasoning.

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### 7.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. What is a group?
2. Why is a group formation needed?
3. Write a short note on various aspects of informal groups.
4. Briefly discuss group dynamics in the classroom.
5. What are the consequences of group cohesiveness.

#### Long Answer Questions

1. What are the characteristics that make people to come together to form groups? Give a detailed answer.
2. Describe the different types of groups in detail.
3. Define group dynamics. How can group process improve?
4. What are group norms? Discuss the types of group norms in detail?
5. Describe group cohesiveness. What factors contribute to group cohesiveness?

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### 7.11 FURTHER READINGS

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**BLOCK - III**  
**LEADERSHIP AND STRESS**

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**NOTES**

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**UNIT 8 LEADERSHIP**

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**Structure**

- 8.0 Introduction
- 8.1 Objectives
- 8.2 Definition, Meaning and Types of Leadership
- 8.3 Importance of Leadership and Qualities of a Successful Leader
- 8.4 Style of Leadership
- 8.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 8.6 Summary
- 8.7 Key Words
- 8.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 8.9 Further Readings

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**8.0 INTRODUCTION**

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Leadership means different things to different people around the world. Different situations also call for different kind of leadership.

In business, a vision is a realistic goal about where the you and the organization want to be in the future. Vision lays the way forward, gives direction, sets priorities, and provides a marker in order for you to be able to tell that you have achieved what you earlier set out to achieve.

Leadership is the ability of a company's management to set and achieve challenging objectives, both in the short and in the long run, take swift and decisive action, outperform the competition, and inspire others to perform well. It is a bit difficult to quantify leadership and the qualitative aspects of a company, compared to quantitative metrics that are commonly tracked and much easier to compare between companies.

Effective leadership includes strong character. Successful leaders exhibit honesty, integrity, trustworthiness and ethics. Clear communication skills are an important pre-requisite for a strong leadership. Leaders speak with and listen to staff members, respond to questions and concerns, and are empathetic. Leaders use effective communication skills for moving the company forward and achieving new levels of success.

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## 8.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the meaning and types of leadership
- Discuss the importance of leadership
- Assess the qualities of a successful leader
- Describe the style of leadership

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## 8.2 DEFINITION, MEANING AND TYPES OF LEADERSHIP

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Leadership is an integral part of management and plays a vital role in managerial operations. If there is any single factor that differentiates between successful and unsuccessful organizations, it is dynamic and effective leadership. Perhaps, it would be a valid assumption to state that the major cause of most business failures would be ineffective leadership. All managers, in a way, are business leaders, even though management primarily relies on formal position power to influence people whereas leadership stems from a social influence process. However, management is an integral component of technical as well as social processes.

Leadership is not an attribute of business alone. In the army, in the government, in universities, in hospitals and anywhere else where people work in groups, the leadership function emerges. There must be somebody to guide that group. The group leader may also be an informal leader, one who emerges from the ranks of the group according to consensus of the members.

Leadership may be defined as the art of influencing and inspiring subordinates to perform their duties willingly, competently and enthusiastically for achievement of group objectives. Most management writers agree that, “leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation.”

It is important to have the element of willingness in the above definition. This element differentiates successful and effective leaders from the “common run of the managers”. Motivating and influencing people to move towards a common goal are all essential elements of management but the “willingness” of the followers to be led, highlights a special quality that puts a leader high above others.

Based on these elements of the leadership function, the leadership may be defined as:

$L = F(f, g, w, s)$  where leadership (L) is a function (F) of

f = followers

g = goal

w = a measure of willingness on the part of subordinates, and  
s = a given situation

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### Formal and Informal Leadership

Leadership can be formal or informal. The formal leadership occurs when a person is appointed or elected as an authority figure. For example, anyone who is appointed to the job of a manager is also given the authority to exercise formal leadership in relationship to his subordinates. Similarly, a formally elected leader of a country or a state acquires the authority of leadership in giving direction to the country or state.

The informal leadership emerges when a person uses interpersonal influence in a group without designated authority or power. These leaders emerge in certain situations because of their charm, intelligence, skills or other traits and to whom other people turn to for advice, direction and guidance. Religious and civic leaders fit into this category. Successful managers who exercise their given authority in a formal way are also capable of exercising informal leadership relationships with people both within as well as outside the organization.

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### 8.3 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP AND QUALITIES OF A SUCCESSFUL LEADER

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A leader has certain inherent qualities and traits that assist him in playing a directing role and wielding commanding influence over others. Some of these traits according to Jago are:

1. Energy, drive
2. Appearance, presentability
3. A sense of co-operation
4. Enthusiasm
5. Personality—height and weight
6. Initiative
7. Intelligence
8. Judgement
9. Self-confidence
10. Sociability
11. Tact and diplomacy
12. Moral courage and integrity
13. Will power and flexibility
14. Emotional stability
15. Knowledge of human relations

These traits are not universal in nature, nor do all the leaders have all these traits. Not all these traits work all the time. While some of these characteristics differentiate successful managers and leaders from unsuccessful ones, it is the behaviour of the leaders, either as a result of these characteristics or otherwise, that is more tangible and obvious and less abstract in nature. The leadership behaviour is directly related to individual and group work activity, loyalty of the group, absenteeism, turnover and employee morale. These are some of the indicators, that some degree reflects the effectiveness of leadership behaviour.

Many studies have been conducted in order to identify and separate such characteristics and personal traits that are unique to the behaviour of successful leaders. These traits could then be set up as standards against which the profiles of leaders could be matched and judged. However, such attempts have not been successful. According to Ralph Stogdill, who studied the subject of leadership most extensively, “a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers.”

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## 8.4 STYLE OF LEADERSHIP

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The leadership styles can be classified according to the philosophy of the leaders. What the leader does determines how well he leads. A style of leadership is a “relatively enduring set of behaviours which is a characteristic of the individual, regardless of the situation.” Some of the more significant leadership styles are discussed as follows:

### **Autocratic or Dictatorial Leadership**

Autocratic leaders keep the decision-making authority and control in their own hands and assume full responsibility for all actions. Also, they structure the entire work situation in their own way and expect the workers to follow their orders and tolerate no deviation from their orders. The subordinates are required to implement instructions of their leaders without question. They are entirely dependent on their leader and the output suffers in the absence of the leader.

The autocratic leadership style ranges from tough and highly dictatorial to paternalistic, depending upon whether the leader’s motivational approach is threat and punishment or appreciation and rewards. In highly autocratic situations, the subordinates develop a sense of insecurity, frustration, low morale and they are induced to avoid responsibility, initiative and innovative behaviour. The autocratic leader believes that his leadership is based upon the authority conferred upon him by some source such as his position, knowledge, strength or the power to punish and reward. Some of the advantages and disadvantages of autocratic leadership are as follows:

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**Advantages**

1. Autocratic leadership is useful when the subordinates are new on the job and have had no experience either in the managerial decision-making process or in performing without active supervision.
2. It can increase efficiency and even morale and get quicker results, especially in a crisis or emergency when the decision must be taken immediately.
3. The paternalistic leadership is useful when the subordinates are not interested in seeking responsibility or when they feel insecure at the job or when they work better under clear and detailed directives.
4. It is useful when the chain of command and the division of work is clear and understood by all and there is little room for error in the final accomplishment.

**Disadvantages**

1. One-way communication without feedback leads to misunderstanding and communications breakdown.
2. An autocratic leader makes his own decisions that can be very dangerous in this age of technological and sociological complexity.
3. Since it inhibits the subordinate's freedom, it fails to develop his commitment to the goals and objectives of the organization.
4. Since it creates an environment that provides for worker resentment, it creates problems with their morale resulting in poor productivity in the long run.
5. It is unsuitable when the workforce is knowledgeable about their jobs and the job calls for teamwork and cooperative spirit.

**Participative or Democratic Leadership**

In this type of leadership, the subordinates are consulted, and their feedback is taken into the decision-making process. The leader's job is primarily of a moderator, even though he makes the final decision and he alone is responsible for the results. The management recognizes that the subordinates are equipped with talents and abilities and that they are capable of bringing new ideas and new methodologies to work setting. Thus, the group members are encouraged to demonstrate initiative and creativity and take intelligent interest in setting plans and policies and have maximum participation in decision making. This ensures better management-labour relations, higher morale and greater job satisfaction. This type of leadership is especially effective when the workforce is experienced and dedicated and is able to work independently with least directives, thereby developing a climate that is conducive to growth and development of the organization as well as the individual personality. The feasibility and usefulness of the participative decision-making style is dependent on the following factors:

1. Since participative decision-making process is time consuming, there should be no urgency to the decision.
2. The cost of participation of subordinates in the decision making should not be more than the benefits derived from the decision.
3. The input from the subordinates should be free from any fear of repercussions in case such input is in conflict with the views held by the management.
4. The participation of subordinates should not be of such a degree as to be perceived as a threat to the formal authority of management.
5. Subordinates should be sufficiently responsible so that there is no leakage of confidential information to outside elements.

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### Advantages

1. Active participation in the managerial operations by labour assures rising productivity and satisfaction.
2. Workers develop a greater sense of self-esteem due to importance given to their ideas and their contributions.
3. The employees become more committed to changes that may be brought by policy changes, since they themselves participated in bringing about these changes.
4. The leadership induces confidence, cooperation and loyalty among workers.
5. It results in higher employee morale.
6. It increases the participants' understanding of each other that results in greater tolerance and patience towards others.

It has been demonstrated by numerous researchers<sup>28</sup> that participation by subordinates improves quality of work, enhances an easy acceptance of changes in the organization and improves morale and loyalty.

Notwithstanding numerous advantages and great reliance on participative leadership, it has several disadvantages also.

### Disadvantages

- (a) The democratic leadership requires some favourable conditions in that the labour must be literate, informed and organized. This is not always possible.
- (b) This approach assumes that all workers are genuinely interested in the organization and that their individual goals are successfully fused with the organizational goals. This assumption may not always be valid.
- (c) There must be total trust on the part of management as well as employees. Some employees may consider this approach simply an attempt to manipulate them. Accordingly, the employees must be fully receptive to this approach to make it meaningful.

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- (d) Some group members may feel alienated if their ideas are not accepted for action. This may create a feeling of frustration and ill-will.
- (e) This approach is very time consuming and too many viewpoints and ideas may make coming to a decision more difficult and may be a source of frustration to impatient management.
- (f) Some managers may be uncomfortable with this approach because they may fear an erosion of their power base and their control over labour.
- (g) This approach relies heavily on incentives and motivation of recognition, appreciation, status and prestige. However, labour may be interested in financial incentives instead of prestige.

### **Laissez-faire or Free-reign Leadership**

In this type of leadership, the leader is just a figure-head and does not give any direction but delegates the authority to subordinates so that they must plan, motivate, control and otherwise be responsible for their own actions. The leader acts principally as a liaison between the group and the outside elements and supplies necessary materials and information to group members. He lets the subordinates develop their own techniques for accomplishing goals within the generalized organizational policies and objectives. The leader participates very little and instead of leading and directing, he becomes just one of the members. He does not attempt to intervene or regulate or control and there is complete group or individual freedom in decision making. This type of leadership is highly effective when the group members are highly intelligent and are fully aware of their roles and responsibilities and have the knowledge and skills to accomplish these tasks without direct supervision.

This type of leadership is evident in research laboratories where the scientists are fairly free to conduct their research and make their decisions. Similarly, in a university or a college, the chairperson of a division does not interfere in the professor's teaching method, but only assigns the courses to be taught. From then onwards, the professors are very much their own leaders.

### **Advantages**

- (a) It creates an environment of freedom, individuality as well as team spirit.
- (b) It is highly creative with a free and informal work environment.
- (c) This approach is very useful where people are highly motivated and achievement oriented.

### **Disadvantages**

- (a) It may result in disorganized activities that may lead to inefficiency and chaos.
- (b) Insecurity and frustration may develop due to lack of specific decision-making authority and guidance.

- (c) The team spirit may suffer due to possible presence of some uncooperative members.
- (d) Some members may put their own interests above the group and team interests.

### Personal Characteristics of Leaders

Leadership is an intangible quality and its effectiveness can best be judged by the behaviour and attitudes of followers. Even though, personal backgrounds and personalities differ widely, some of the factors such as education and socio-economic status are poor indicators of judgments of successful leaders. However, some behavioural characteristics may be common to most of the successful and effective leaders. Some of these characteristics are:

**Ability to inspire others:** This ability may be due to an internal “charisma” that is an inborn trait and may not be a learnable factor.

**Problem solving skills:** An effective leader has developed the patience and ability to look at the problem from various angles and get down to the cause of the problem and he tries to solve the problem from its roots rather than the symptoms of the problem.

**Emotional maturity:** Emotional stability and maturity is a major ingredient for effective leadership. It pertains to good adjustment to life, calm, cool and calculated reaction to undesirable situations and obstacles and normal acceptance of success as well as failure. Such leaders are self-confident, rational and are open hearted towards differences in opinions and opposing viewpoints. They generally have a happy family life and have a balanced outlook towards life and the world. They are warm and sensitive and not vindictive in nature.

**Ability to understand human behaviour:** A leader must understand the needs, desires and behaviour of his subordinates and show respect for such desires. He is emotionally supportive and is careful enough to avoid ego threatening behaviour. He must give credit to subordinates when their efforts are successful.

**Verbal assertiveness:** A leader must be an effective orator and must be confident of his views and opinions. He must communicate his views honestly and in a straight forward manner without fear of consequences.

**Willingness to take risks:** Routine work, no matter how well-done, never makes a leader. Successful leaders always charter the unknown. They must accept and seek new challenges. However, the risks must be calculated ones and outcomes of actions be reasonably predicted. Should these risks result in failure, a leader must take full blame and responsibility and not shift blame on others, even though they may be operative factors. He must be willing to tolerate frustration and defeat and learn from these failures.

**Dedication to organizational goals:** A leader must demonstrate his dedication and commitment to the organization’s mission, goals and objectives by hard work

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and self-sacrifice. He must make sure that his followers fully understand the organizational objectives and are equally dedicated and willing to work for these objectives.

***Skill in the art of compromise:*** Settling differences is a vital part of leadership and genuine differences must be solved by compromise and consensus. This will induce faith in the fairness of the leader. He must be willing to give in where necessary and must be able to take criticism with grace. However, he must not compromise for the sake of compromising or just smooth sailing but must be willing to take a stand on controversial issues and accept the consequences of his stand.

### Check Your Progress

1. Define leadership.
2. Name the types of leaderships.
3. How are leadership styles classified?
4. State one disadvantage of dictatorial leadership.
5. What is the role of subordinates in democratic leadership?

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## 8.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation.”
2. Leadership is of two types namely, formal and informal.
3. The leadership styles can be classified according to the philosophy of the leaders.
4. One disadvantage of dictatorial leadership is that one-way communication without feedback leads to misunderstanding and communications breakdown.
5. In democratic leadership, the subordinates are consulted, and their feedback is taken into the decision-making process.

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## 8.6 SUMMARY

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- Leadership is an integral part of management and plays a vital role in managerial operations. If there is any single factor that differentiates between successful and unsuccessful organizations, it is dynamic and effective leadership.
- Leadership may be defined as the art of influencing and inspiring subordinates to perform their duties willingly, competently and enthusiastically for achievement of group objectives.

- Most management writers agree that, “leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation.”
- Motivating and influencing people to move towards a common goal are all essential elements of management but the “willingness” of the followers to be led, highlights a special quality that puts a leader high above others.
- Leadership can be formal or informal. The formal leadership occurs when a person is appointed or elected as an authority figure.
- The informal leadership emerges when a person uses interpersonal influence in a group without designated authority or power.
- A leader has certain inherent qualities and traits that assist him in playing a directing role and wielding commanding influence over others.
- These traits are not universal in nature, nor do all the leaders have all these traits.
- The leadership behaviour is directly related to individual and group work activity, loyalty of the group, absenteeism, turnover and employee morale.
- According to Ralph Stogdill,<sup>3</sup> who studied the subject of leadership most extensively, “a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers.”
- The leadership styles can be classified according to the philosophy of the leaders.
- Autocratic leaders keep the decision-making authority and control in their own hands and assume full responsibility for all actions.
- The autocratic leadership style ranges from tough and highly dictatorial to paternalistic, depending upon whether the leader’s motivational approach is threat and punishment or appreciation and rewards.
- In highly autocratic situations, the subordinates develop a sense of insecurity, frustration, low morale and they are induced to avoid responsibility, initiative and innovative behaviour.
- The autocratic leader believes that his leadership is based upon the authority conferred upon him by some source such as his position, knowledge, strength or the power to punish and reward.
- Autocratic leadership is useful when the subordinates are new on the job and have had no experience either in the managerial decision-making process or in performing without active supervision.
- The paternalistic leadership is useful when the subordinates are not interested in seeking responsibility or when they feel insecure at the job or when they work better under clear and detailed directives.

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- One-way communication without feedback leads to misunderstanding and communications breakdown.
- An autocratic leader makes his own decisions that can be very dangerous in this age of technological and sociological complexity.
- Participative or Democratic Leadership: In this type of leadership, the subordinates are consulted, and their feedback is taken into the decision-making process.
- The leader's job is primarily of a moderator, even though he makes the final decision and he alone is responsible for the results.
- This type of leadership is especially effective when the workforce is experienced and dedicated and is able to work independently with least directives, thereby developing a climate that is conducive to growth and development of the organization as well as the individual personality.
- Active participation in the managerial operations by labour assures rising productivity and satisfaction.
- The democratic leadership requires some favourable conditions in that the labour must be literate, informed and organized. This is not always possible.
- Laissez-faire or Free-reign Leadership: In this type of leadership, the leader is just a figure-head and does not give any direction but delegates the authority to subordinates so that they must plan, motivate, control and otherwise be responsible for their own actions.
- Leadership is an intangible quality and its effectiveness can best be judged by the behaviour and attitudes of followers.

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### 8.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Risk:** To be at risk means to be in a situation where something unpleasant might happen.
- **Laissez-faire:** It is the policy of leaving things to take their own course, without interfering.
- **Manager:** It refers to a person responsible for controlling or administering an organization or group of staff.

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### 8.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. What is leadership? Give a brief explanation of the types of leadership.
2. What are the qualities of a good leader?

3. Describe the characteristics of participative or democratic leadership.
4. Write a descriptive note on the personal characteristics of leaders.

### Long Answer Questions

1. Are leadership traits universal? Critically examine.
2. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of autocratic or dictatorial leadership.
3. Assess the advantages and disadvantages of participative or democratic leadership.
4. What is a laissez-faire or free-reign leadership? What are its advantages and disadvantages?

### NOTES

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## 8.9 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
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## UNIT 9 LEADERSHIP SKILL

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### NOTES

#### Structure

- 9.0 Introduction
- 9.1 Objectives
- 9.2 Organization of Culture and Role Model
- 9.3 Behaviour Adjustment: Team Work Performance
- 9.4 Creativity
- 9.5 Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Skill and Cultural Flexibility
- 9.6 Self Assessment of Learning
- 9.7 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 9.8 Summary
- 9.9 Key Words
- 9.10 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 9.11 Further Readings

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### 9.0 INTRODUCTION

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Organizing other people to reach a common goal involves using leadership skills. Leadership skills require you to motivate others to complete a series of tasks, often according to a schedule, irrespective of whether you are at a managerial position or leading a project. The combination of a set of different skills working together form a leadership.

Every organization values effective and efficient leaders. These leaders build strong teams within a business and ensure projects, initiatives or other work functions are timely completed and performed successfully. Leadership skills can be improved and inculcated by each and every one. These skills involve multiple interpersonal and communication skills. The results of both effective and ineffective leaders in an organization is fairly visible to all. Effective leaders increase employee engagement, support a positive environment and help remove difficulties for their team. Good leadership is also contagious and inspires other employees to apply positive leadership traits in their own work.

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### 9.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Describe organization of culture and role model
- Explain behaviour adjustment and team work performance
- Discuss the concept of creativity
- Assess interpersonal and intrapersonal skill and cultural flexibility

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## 9.2 ORGANIZATION OF CULTURE AND ROLE MODEL

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Culture can be considered as a constellation of factors that are learned through our interaction with the environment and during our developmental and growth years. A growing baby learns a basic set of values, ideas, perceptions, preferences, concept of morality, code of conduct and so on through family and cultural socialization and such prevailing culture with which the member of the family is associated determines many of the responses that an individual makes in a given situation.

The organizational culture is a system of shared beliefs and attitudes that develop within an organization and guides the behaviour of its members. It is also known as “corporate culture”, and has a major impact on the performance of organizations and specially on the quality of work life experienced by the employees at all levels of the organizational hierarchy. The corporate culture “consists of the norms, values and unwritten rules of conduct of an organization as well as management styles, priorities, beliefs and interpersonal behaviours that prevail. Together they create a climate that influences how well people communicate, plan and make decisions.” Strong corporate values let people know what is expected of them. There are clear guidelines as to how employees are to behave generally within the organization and their expected code of conduct outside the organization. Also, if the employees understand the basic philosophy of the organization, then they are more likely to make decisions that will support these standards set by the organization and reinforce corporate values.

The word “culture” has been derived metaphorically from the idea of “cultivation”, the process of tilling and developing land. When we talk about culture, we are typically referring to the pattern of development reflected in a society’s system of knowledge, ideology, values, laws, social norms and day-to-day rituals. Since the pattern of development differs from society to society, the cultural phenomenon varies according to a given society’s stage of development. Accordingly, culture varies from one society to another requiring a study of cross-national and cross-cultural phenomenon within organizations. For example, Japanese work culture is very different from American work culture. In America, the ethics of competitive individualism shapes the organizational management and operational performance. The industrial and economic performance in America is taken as a kind of a game in which each individual desires to be a “winner” in order to receive a reward for successful behaviour. This work culture is a continuation of general culture and family upbringing where children are encouraged to “think for themselves”, and show a sense of assertion and independence.

The Japanese culture, on the other hand, encourages individuals as a part of the team thus encouraging interdependence, shared concerns and mutual help.

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The organization is viewed as a family to which workers frequently make life long commitments as they see the organization as an extension of their own families. The authority relations are often paternalistic in nature and strong links exist between the welfare of the individual, the corporation and the nation.

### **Origins of Organizational Culture**

While culture has been a continuous development of values and attitudes over many generations, at least the organizational culture can be partially traced back to the values held by the founders of the organization. Such founders are usually dynamic personalities with strong values and a clear vision as to where they want to take their organizations. These founders usually selected their associates and their employees who had a similar value system so that these values became an integral part of the organization.

Secondly, the organizational culture is influenced by the external environment and the interaction between the organization and the external environment. For example, one organization may create a niche for itself for extremely high quality defect-free product as a result of competitive forces and customer demand, while another organization may opt for moderate quality but lower prices. The work cultures at these two types of organizations would accordingly differ and would be influenced by external forces such as customer demand.

Thirdly, work culture is also a function of the nature of the work and mission and the goals of the organization. For example, in a professional, research oriented small organization, the workers may be more informal at all hierarchical levels of the organization, the dress code may not be strictly observed, and the employees may be encouraged to be independent and innovative. In contrast, other organizations may have a strictly enforced formal classical hierarchical structure with clearly established channels of communications and strict adherence to work rules. Accordingly, the organizational culture of these two types of organizations would be different.

Much has been written and talked about Japanese management styles. Almost invariably, the economic success of Japanese society is associated with Japanese culture. The cultural aspect of organizational performance came into focus with Theory Z, proposed by William Ouchi in 1981. Even though Theory Z draws heavily on Japanese approach to management, it is more a combination of the current American as well as Japanese style of managing an organization. Basically, Ouchi's approach to management calls for:

### **Consensus decision making**

- Worker participation in all phases of organizational operations.
- Genuine concern for the overall well-being of employees.
- Life time job security.

The importance of strong culture as a driving force for organizational success was emphasised by Peters and Waterman in their well-received book, “In Search of Excellence”. They observed:

“Without exception, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an essential quality of the excellent companies. Moreover, the stronger the culture and the more it was directed towards the marketplace, the less need was there for policy manuals, organization charts and detailed procedures and rules. In these companies, people, way down the line know what they are supposed to do in most situations because the handful of guiding values is crystal clear.”

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### 9.3 BEHAVIOUR ADJUSTMENT: TEAM WORK PERFORMANCE

We have discussed earlier that human behaviour is a function of the person and his environment where the “person” is primarily shaped by general biological characteristics, and environment that generates external stimuli. It does not include the possibility of randomness of human behaviour and it assumes that all human behaviour is goal directed so that a measurable correlation exists between the goals and behaviour. The external stimulus is most important since it excites the internal processes to activate and the behaviour takes place, so that an external input is necessary to elicit behavioural responses.

The basic input-output model can be described as  $S \leftrightarrow O \rightarrow B$  model where  $S$  stands for the stimuli generated by the external environment as input,  $O$  stands for human organism that is activated by physiological as well as psychological processes, and  $B$  stands for behaviour as the output. Before behaviour is exhibited, there is mutual interaction between the stimulus and the organism and except for reflex actions, the organism “decides” as to the type of behaviour outcome. This interaction results in perception and it becomes the cause of human behaviour.

Another input-output model has been proposed by Kolasa that describes human behaviour in terms of a systems model that may describe the process in a more objective manner. The input from the external environment is processed and analyzed through a central processing function that is similar to human organism “ $O$ ” in the previous model except that this central processing region is the crucial region of cognition consisting of perception and such core processes as thinking, reasoning, logic, problem solving and decision making.

Here the stimuli form the input and is transformed into information by various sensory organs. This information is organized by the central information processing function in a manner that is meaningful to the individual. This organization takes place through the perceptual processes that are formed through experience in the social setting and is a function of the personality traits as far as the values and the utility of information is concerned. The second step in the behavioural sequence is the analysis of the information, choice of alternatives in dealing with the information,

then selecting the most beneficial alternative to the individual and taking action. This step is known as decision-making and action taking and becomes the output of the system and this output reflects the behaviour of the person.

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### **Behaviour and Performance**

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn performance is a reflection of 3 characteristics. These are:

- Individual's "capacity" to perform
- Individual's "willingness" to perform
- Organizational support

While organizational support basically provides an individual with an "opportunity" to perform that does affect behaviour to some degree, the "capacity" and the "willingness" are directly associated with the human behaviour.

The capacity to perform is an outcome of such competency characteristics as ability and aptitude that can be considered as inherited characteristics of behaviour. Ability, that is partly a measure of intelligence, is the basic and important ingredient for effective performance and all the motivation and organizational efforts will not be of any help towards performance if the basic ability does not exist. Accordingly, job performance is facilitated when ability matches the requirements.

Even when the ability fits the task requirements, it does not necessarily result in high performance. To achieve high levels of performance, the individuals must show willingness to perform and put in adequate work effort. The effort or the degree of willingness to perform effectively would depend upon the degree of motivation of the individual. This motivation that is a behavioural concept defines the forces within the individual that account for the direction and level of effort relating to a given task. For example, in a classroom setting, all students generally come from a similar background, similar age, and similar abilities and are exposed to the same instructor and similar study requirements, but all students will not get similar grades because some students will be highly motivated to work harder than the others.

Organizational support and resources affect human behaviour in a significant way and the performance is influenced by this behaviour. Physical facilities and technology in the organizational structure, as well as advice and direction from the leaders are highly conducive to positive outlook towards work, resulting in high quality performance. Inadequate support systems such as rush jobs, unavailability of best tools to perform work with unclear guidance and instructions; are all negative influences on behaviour and performance. Some of the symptoms of inadequate organizational support are given as follows:

- Inadequate budgets.
- Inadequate tools, equipment, supplies.
- Lack of time.

- Unclear instructions and job-related information.
- Unfair levels of expected performance.
- Lack of job-related authority.
- Lack of required services and help from others.
- Inflexibility of procedures.

### **Check Your Progress**

1. What does the corporate culture consist of?
2. What brought the cultural aspect of organizational performance into focus?

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## **9.4 CREATIVITY**

Creativity and critical thinking is essential for making effective and unique decisions. The degree and depth of creativity would greatly influence the quality of the decisions and consequently the results of actions that are based upon such decisions. Creative thinking is important to bring about novel and unique ideas and critical thinking is necessary to criticize and test these ideas so that they are feasible and optimally beneficial.

Creativity, though not tangible, is an essential ingredient of organizational growth. Without creativity, organizations would be stale, non-dynamic entities and their employees would stagnate into nothingness. Creative and bold decisions have contributed significantly to product improvement in inventing a new use for an existing product as well as inventing a new product or service.

Creativity can be defined as, “socially recognized achievement in which there are novel products to which one can point as evidence such as inventions, theories, buildings, published writings, paintings and sculptures and films, laws, institutions, medical and surgical treatments and so on”.

Creativity and creative ideas must be socially useful and recognized. Some ideas may be creative but so eccentric that they may not have any socially redeemable value. Accordingly, the utility and usefulness would determine the value of creativity. This usefulness may be materially beneficial or intellectually stimulating.

Creativity primarily means originality in ideas. An original idea is considered to be the one that has never occurred before. If such an idea is the outcome of some established procedure of manipulating variables, it may not be considered original. Only when a pattern of manipulations has never been applied to a given situation before, can the results be considered new and original. A young school student, when asked, “why do we build brick houses rather than wooden houses?” replied that it was done to save the forests. This was a novel response. The routine response would have been that a brick house is stronger and more resistant to fire.

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Accordingly, originality can be associated with “those ideas that result from manipulations of variables that have not followed a rigid formula and in which the ideas have other sources of strength.”<sup>2</sup> The world as we know it now would not have been possible without creative ideas put into production. The steam engine that revolutionized the world of travel was a novel application of an existing idea that steam under pressure tries to escape. We also have a much better control of the world than our ancestors had and this has been because of discovery and inventions that seem to be based upon a strong element of originality. Heavy rains and typhoons, once considered as acts of God are now fairly predictable because of original inventions in the field of meteorology. Advances in medical sciences have saved millions of lives and tremendously increased the average life span. We still have a lot of areas to cover within this world and out of it in outer space, and original ideas are being generated daily and put into practice.

### **The Creative Process**

Is creativity a direct function of intelligence? Are there some recognizable characteristics and traits of creative people? Studies have shown that intelligence does play an important role in creativity. It is believed that while people with high IQs show different levels of creativity, those with low IQs are likely to exhibit low creativity levels. Other characteristics that may have some bearing on creativity include such measures as family educational background, social status, liberal or conservative thinking, divorced or broken family, opportunity for the child to think independently and act responsibly from the very childhood and so on. It is indeed difficult to isolate creativity either as an inborn and inherited trait or a phenomenon that can be learned through established processes by acquiring sustained knowledge in the area where creativity is expected to take place. However, it can be reasonably established that creative breakthroughs rarely occur to people who are not prepared for them. The level of creativity is also a function of the degree of such preparation. Perhaps, it took a long time and considerable and consistent effort to invent the telephone that was highly creative. On the other hand, the creation of push button telephone was less cumbersome, once a telephone was invented, and perhaps not as creative.

The creative process generally follows the following broad outline:

**Preparation** Preparation involves a hard and concentrated look at the problem at hand and its various parameters in order to develop a breakthrough solution. Scientists work in their labs, sometimes for many years, before they get a creative idea. The general tendency of the scientists is to look at the various tentative solutions available for a problem. These tentative solutions are generally routine and known solutions and hence do not lead to new and unique outcomes. The more tentative solutions there are, the more difficult it would be to generate another different solution. It is the generation of this new solution that differentiates a creative thinker from a non-creative thinker. The non-creative thinker would be satisfied with a satisfactory and known solution. It is the creative thinker who will continue

to look for a different and unique solution. Accordingly, preparation in the form of education, training and research is an essential foundation to build creativity.

**Incubation** Incubation is a time of thought and reflection and is generally a period when the conscious attention is turned away from the problem at hand. The main idea is the observation that some creative and innovative ideas come to mind when you are not really thinking about them—a kind of result of thinking by the “unconscious mind”. It is something like “sleeping over” the issue and not thinking about it. Creative people use many different methods to provide this incubation period. They may go fishing or read a book or take a nap. This incubation period is unpredictable in timing and duration. It may take a day or many years. The main idea is that the conscious mind usually looks for familiar channels that are known and thus not new or creative. But the unconscious mind, free from the constraints of the conscious mind, is able to look at the issue from new angles or put information together into new combinations.

**Persistence** Merely providing incubation period does not necessarily result in creative breakthroughs. Sometimes persistent effort is necessary. Persistent effort would make it more likely that more and new information would be added to the decision maker’s frame of reference or the problem could be redefined that could generate new and different conclusions. This is especially true about highly creative persons. According to Daniel Goleman,<sup>4</sup> “the picture of the exceptionally creative person shows that at its high levels, creativity involves important sacrifices. For people at the most exceptional level, creativity is a pervasive, almost compulsive preoccupation; innovative activities dominate their lives often to the detriment of other aspects of living”. Persistence means not only total involvement in the area of issues under consideration but also requires courage and perseverance in the face of repeated failures or criticism. Most new ideas in the beginning meet with resistance, for example, when instant coffee was first introduced in the consumer market, it was resisted by housewives who felt that their self-concept and self-esteem were threatened so that they would be known as lazy and non-caring for the family. Accordingly, highly creative persons remain committed to their ideas no matter what the cost or the consequences.

**Insight** Insight is the actual point of breakthrough achieved as a result of preparation and incubation. It is the tentative outcome of persistent efforts and thinking when the individual believes that he has found a unique solution to the problem under study. This is the result of extensive analysis of various factors and various combination of factors, even though the creative idea generally comes up suddenly and unexpectedly. It is a kind of “eureka” state, that brings excitement where the person finds what he was looking for and which was deluding him previously.

**Verification** Now the “insight” or the new idea has to be tested to make sure that the idea is valid and feasible. It is a kind of a critical stage because if an idea is put into practice without measuring its potential utility in a significant manner, then

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it could turn out to be the wrong decision. The idea may fail in the critical stage so other ideas may have to be created. A scientist must verify his hypothesis through critical analysis or through laboratory procedures, whichever is necessary and if the hypothesis cannot be proven, the scientist must formulate alternate hypothesis. Similarly, if a manufacturer has a unique idea for a new product, he should not put the product into the market until he has criticized, verified and tested the idea for its marketability.

### **Enhancing Creativity**

Organizations interested in maintaining and enhancing creativity recognize that excessive disciplines, excessive rigidity in structure and too much control inhibit creativity. Generally speaking, creativity needs freedom from constraints and especially from time pressures, even though in certain situations, people do develop breakthroughs under time constraints. Creative people are intrinsically motivated, and they tend to do their best within free and supportive environments. Intrinsic motivation comes into play when we are truly aware of our interest, personal challenge and internal satisfaction in our work. Studies were conducted by Teresa M. Amabile,<sup>5</sup> and her colleagues in training children to focus on their intrinsic motives for doing various types of school work and to minimise the importance of extrinsic constraints. The children under study were allowed to watch video tapes in which the adults asked some other children what they liked to do in school and why. The children in the video tape replied with statements of interest, excitement and deep involvement in some aspect of their studies. To these children, getting better grades was not as important as “really trying to enjoy your work”. The message of the video tapes was clear: it is nice to get approval and rewards for your work, but the most important factor is to be aware of the intrinsically interesting, satisfying and challenging aspects of whatever you are doing. This video tape training of the children under study was highly successful. They showed higher level of intrinsic motivation than those children who were not so trained. These children with intrinsic motivation did not show any less creativity, even when there were extrinsic constraints. Accordingly, one way to enhance creativity is through proper training by offering training programmes and training workshops. This is especially true in areas where relevant education and knowledge is required to be creative such as mathematics or medicine.

In general, there are two techniques of creativity enhancement that have been studied carefully. These techniques are brainstorming and Synectics.

**Brainstorming:** Brainstorming is a technique for stimulating imaginative and novel ideas.<sup>6</sup> It involves a group of people, usually between five and ten sitting around a table, in a class room setting, generating ideas in the form of free association. This generates a variety of ideas and solutions. The leader of the group briefly defines the problem and encourages the participants to suggest as many innovative, extreme and even wild ideas as possible and they are not allowed to discourage or criticize the ideas of others, no matter how far fetched such ideas may be. The idea of

brainstorming is to create a climate in which people feel free to suggest whatever comes into their heads without caring for its feasibility. This encourages free-wheeling and one idea sometimes leads to another idea. This free association and unrestricted thinking may generate some novel idea and a unique solution that may not have been thought of before.

**Synectics:** Creativity assists in developing a variety of alternatives. It is basically the generation of new ideas or using old ideas in a new way from unsuspecting angles. Synectics approach assists in generating such ideas. As Barron<sup>7</sup> put it: “Synectics in operation depends heavily on two mechanisms: making the strange familiar and making the familiar strange. The first of these is a search for similarity, so that when confronted with a new problem, we ask ourselves whether it is not an old problem, had we but the wit to see it. Seeing even partial resemblances may lead to the application of familiar methods in solving the new problem. Making the familiar strange is a way of shedding preconceptions and perceptual habits. Innocence of vision, a certain naivete and ingenuousness characterize the creative individual. If these qualities can be cultivated, the novelty of invention and problem solution should be increased”.

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## 9.5 INTERPERSONAL AND INTRAPERSONAL SKILL AND CULTURAL FLEXIBILITY

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Interpersonal communication refers to communication that takes place between two or more individuals. On the other hand, intrapersonal communication means communication that takes place within the self.

Individuals who have strong **interpersonal communication** is proficient in speaking with others. They are capable enough to deliver their message across efficiently and effectively. People with good interpersonal communication are good listeners and are also active participants while conveying as well as receiving a message. Employers continually seek employees with great interpersonal communication skills.

Some interpersonal skills are as follows:

- Active listening
- Positive attitude
- Collaborative mindset
- Clear verbal communication
- Receptive to feedback

Intrapersonal communication is communication that happens within an individual. It consists of self-talk, self-concept, introspection, and personal reflection. It can take several forms. Working through a problem in the privacy of your own mind is a form of intrapersonal communication.

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Despite that fact that intrapersonal communication and interpersonal communication are both communication oriented, they are different from each other and operate on different frequencies altogether.

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### 9.6 SELF ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING

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Several attempts have been made to define learning. The following definitions give a comprehensive view of learning.

1. **According to R S Woodworth (1945)**, “Any activity can be called learning so far as it develops the individual (in any respect, good or bad) and makes his behaviour and experiences different from what that would otherwise have been.”
2. **H L Kingsley and R Garry, (1946)** said, “Learning is the process by which behaviour (in the broader sense) originates or changes through practice and training.”
3. **Gates and Others (1946)** observed, “Learning is the modification in behaviour to meet environmental requirements.”
4. **F S Freeman (1958)** defined, Learning is the process of developing the ability to respond adequately to a situation which may or may not have been properly encountered.”
5. **B L Hilgard (1958)** was of the view, “Learning is the process by which an activity originates or is changed through reacting to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the change in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native responses, tendencies, maturation or temporary states of the organism (e.g., fatigue or drugs, etc.)”
6. **H Faigan (1958)** believed, “Learning is a sequence of mental events or conditions leading to changes in the learner. As a sequence of events, the learning process is as follows:
  - (i) The individual has needs and is therefore in a state of readiness to respond. These are antecedent conditions within the learner.
  - (ii) He meets a learning situation or problem. A new interpretation is required because previously learned responses are not adequate for reaching the goal and satisfying his need. He encounters something new or unexpected, and must search for a different response.
  - (iii) He interprets the situation with reference to his goals, and tries a response or responses which seem to satisfy his need. The way he perceives the situation and the response he makes depends both on his ‘readiness’ and on the external conditions of the situation.
  - (iv) If his response leads to devised goals or satisfaction, he will tend to interpret and respond to similar future situations in the same way. If

not, he keeps on trying and reinterpreting until consequences are attained. The learning process is this whole sequence!”

7. **H J Klausmeir** (1961) said, “Learning is a process whereby a change in behaviour results from some form of experience, activity, training, observation and the like.”
8. **H P Smith** (1962) observed, “Learning is the acquisition of new behaviour or the strengthening or weakening of old behaviour as the result of experience.”
9. According to **E A Peel** (1962), “Learning is a change in the individual following upon changes in the environment.”
10. **Hunter and Hilgard** (1964) said, “Learning is the process by which an organism in satisfying its motivations, adopts and adjusts its behaviour, in order to overcome obstacles or barriers.”
11. **Blair, Jones and Simpson** (1964) defined “Any change of behaviour which is a result of experience, and which causes people to face later situations differently may be called learning.”
12. **Pressey, Robinson and Horrocks** (1967) wrote, “Learning is an episode in which a motivated individual attempts to adapt his behaviour to succeed in a situation which he perceives as requiring action to attain a goal.”
13. **W C Morse and G M Wingo** (1968) observed, “Learning can be defined as changing one’s potential for seeing, feeling, and doing through experiences partly perceptual, partly intellectual, partly emotional and partly motor.”
14. According to **J F Travers** (1972), “Learning is a process that results in the modification of behaviour.”
15. **Crow and Crow** (1973) said, “Learning is the acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes. It involves new ways of doing things, and it operates in an individual’s attempts to overcome obstacles or to readjust to new situations. It represents progressive change in behaviour. It enables him to satisfy interests to attain goals.”
16. **CV Good** in *Dictionary of Education* (1973), explained the term ‘learning’ as a “Change in response or behaviour (such as innovation, elimination or modification of responses, involving some degree of performance) caused partly or wholly by experience, such experience being in the main conscious, but sometimes including significant unconscious components, as is common in motor learning or in reaction to unrecognized or subliminal stimuli; includes behaviour changes in the emotional sphere, but more commonly refers to the acquisition of symbolic knowledge or motor skills, does not include psychological changes, such as fatigue or temporary sensory resistance or non-functioning after continued stimulations.”
17. **ML Bigge** (1976) observed, “Learning may be considered as a change in insights, behaviour, perception, motivation or a combination of these.”

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18. **Bernhardt** in *Practical Psychology* wrote, “Learning is more or less permanent modification of an individual activity in a given situation, due to the practice in attempts to achieve some goal or solve some problem.”
19. **According** to Colvin,—”Learning is the modification of the reactions of an organism through experience.”
20. **Cronbach** defined learning to be a change in behaviour as a result of experience.”
21. **Eason** viewed, “Learning includes changes in behaviour that are determined primarily by the individual’s interaction with his environment.”
22. **Gooch** said, “Learning, as we measure it, is a change in performance which occurs under the condition of practice.”
23. **Harrimn** defined, “Learning is the improvement in efficiency of adjustment as a result of practice, insight, observation, imitation and conditioning.”
24. **Heidgerken** explained, “Learning is not an addition of new experience *per se*, nor is it an old experience summed up, rather it is the synthesis of old and the new experiences which result in completely new organization or pattern of experience.”
25. According to **Kimble**, “Learning is a relatively permanent change in behavioural potentiality that occurs as a result of a reinforced practice.”
26. **M H Marx** observed, “Learning is a relatively enduring change in behaviour which is a function of prior behaviour (usually called practice).”

### Key Phrases used in the Definitions of Learning

An analysis of the above mentioned definitions would reveal the following key words and phrases in learning:

- (i) Modification of behaviour,
- (ii) Practice for behaviour,
- (iii) Training for behaviour,
- (iv) Changes in environment,
- (v) Motivated individual, i.e., the learner,
- (vi) Attainment of a goal,
- (vii) Acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes,
- (viii) New ways of doing things,
- (ix) Overcoming obstacles,
- (x) Readjusting to new situation.
- (xi) Ability to respond,
- (xii) Satisfaction of needs through encountering something new,
- (xiii) Trying and reinterpreting the situation for the satisfaction of needs,

- (xiv) Acquisition of new behaviour,
- (xv) Strengthening of old behaviour,
- (xvi) Weakening of old behaviour,
- (xvii) Satisfaction of motivations by adopting and adjusting behaviour,
- (xviii) Overcoming obstacles,
- (xix) Changes in the individual through changes in the environment,
- (xx) Adopting behaviour to the situation,
- (xxi) Permanent modifications in the behaviour,
- (xxii) Changes in behaviour as a result of reinforcement,
- (xxiii) Changes occurring in behaviour through practice,
- (xxiv) Improvement in the efficiency of adjustment through practice,
- (xxv) Learning as the synthesis of old and new experiences.

It may be stated that learning should enable us to make the best use of the things around us. If a man has not learnt the art of living harmoniously with others, he would be beset with difficulties than the person who has learnt to establish social relations with his fellows. So the acquisition of abilities, which enable us to adjust ourselves in an effective manner in an environment and to control it successfully, is said to be the aim of learning.

### Main Characteristics of Learning

Yoakman and Simpson enumerated nine general characteristics of learning as below:

- (i) **Learning is Growth:** The word growth is generally associated not only with the body which is growing physically, but with the mental growth of an individual. Through his daily activities, a child grows both mentally and physically. Therefore, we say that learning is growth through experience.
- (ii) **Learning is Adjustment:** Learning helps the individual to adjust himself adequately to new situations. Children come across new situations which demand effective solutions. Life is full of experiences, and each experience leaves behind some effects in the mind, which in turn, modify our behaviour.
- (iii) **Learning is Experience:** Learning is not mere addition to knowledge and acquisition of facts and skills through drill and repetition. It is the reorganization of experience.
- (iv) **Learning is Purposeful:** True learning is based on purpose. Purpose plays a big role in learning. According to Ryburn, "This purpose is always connected with the use of some instinctive power, with the use of the energy with which we are endowed with birth." We do not learn anything and everything that comes in our way, in a haphazard manner. All school activities should be purposeful so that a child feels the real urge for learning.

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- (v) **Learning is Intelligence:** Meaningless efforts do not produce permanent result as work done mechanically is without any soul. When a child learns something unintelligently, he is likely to forget it soon. He does not assimilate but simply memorizes. Only efforts made intelligently have lasting effects.
- (vi) **Learning is Activity:** Learning does not take place without a purpose and self-activity. In the teaching-learning process, the activity of the learner counts more than the activity of the teacher. This is the main principle of learning and it has been recommended by all modern educationists. In fact, all progressive methods of education such as the Dalton, the Project, the Montessori and the Basic are based on this.
- (vii) **Learning is Both Individual and Social:** Learning is more than an individual activity, it is a social activity too. An individual's mind is affected by the group mind consciously as well as unconsciously, as he is influenced by his friends, relatives, classmates, parents, etc., and learns their ideas, feelings and notions. Social agencies like the family, church, playmates, social networking including media, have a tremendous influence on a child's mind.
- (viii) **Learning is the Product of the Environment:** Environment plays an important role in the growth and development of an individual. A conducive healthy and educative environment should be provided for effective learning.
- (ix) **True Learning Affects the Conduct of the Learner:** There is a change in the mental structure of the learner after every experience.

### When and Where Learning Takes Place

Learning is not limited to school only; it begins long before and may continue long after school days. Thus the ability to speak one's mother tongue begins in early infancy. On the other hand, the ability to practise a profession, such as that of a doctor, is acquired after leaving the medical college. Similarly, one learns the art of walking before one goes to school. The behaviour towards the one's family is learnt at home, but to behave as a member of society, is learnt in school.

### Self-Assessment Learning

Self-assessment entails a wide variety of mechanisms and techniques through which learners describe (i.e., assess) and possibly assign merit or worth to (i.e., evaluate) the qualities of their own learning processes and products. Educational research has identified various types of self-assessment implementations, considering different features. Over the years, there has been a focus for "summative" purposes of self-assessment (e.g. students "guessing" their score that was compared to the teacher's or peer's). However since the inception of formative assessment in the last few years, more attention has been paid to formative purposes, where the focus is on using self-assessment to increase students' learning and self-regulated learning. Presently, two meta-analyses support the effect of self-assessment interventions in achievement and self-regulated learning and self-efficacy.

### Check Your Progress

3. What is incubation?
4. Name the two techniques of creativity enhancement.
5. Define brainstorming.

### NOTES

## 9.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The corporate culture consists of the norms, values and unwritten rules of conduct of an organization as well as management styles, priorities, beliefs and interpersonal behaviours that prevail.
2. The cultural aspect of organizational performance came into focus with Theory Z, proposed by William Ouchi in 1981.
3. Incubation is a time of thought and reflection and is generally a period when the conscious attention is turned away from the problem at hand.
4. In general, there are two techniques of creativity enhancement that have been studied carefully. These techniques are brainstorming and Synectics.
5. Brainstorming is a technique for stimulating imaginative and novel ideas.

## 9.8 SUMMARY

- The organizational culture is a system of shared beliefs and attitudes that develop within an organization and guides the behaviour of its members
- It is also known as “corporate culture” and has a major impact on the performance of organizations and specially on the quality of work life experienced by the employees at all levels of the organizational hierarchy.
- The corporate culture “consists of the norms, values and unwritten rules of conduct of an organization as well as management styles, priorities, beliefs and interpersonal behaviours that prevail.
- If the employees understand the basic philosophy of the organization, then they are more likely to make decisions that will support these standards set by the organization and reinforce corporate values.
- The word “culture” has been derived metaphorically from the idea of “cultivation”, the process of tilling and developing land.
- While culture has been a continuous development of values and attitudes over many generations, at least the organizational culture can be partially traced back to the values held by the founders of the organization.



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- The organizational culture is influenced by the external environment and the interaction between the organization and the external environment.
- Work culture is also a function of the nature of the work and mission and the goals of the organization.
- The cultural aspect of organizational performance came into focus with Theory Z, proposed by William Ouchi in 1981.
- The importance of strong culture as a driving force for organizational success was emphasised by Peters and Waterman in their well-received book, “In Search of Excellence”.
- According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn 17 performance is a reflection of 3 characteristics.
- While organizational support basically provides an individual with an “opportunity” to perform that does affect behaviour to some degree, the “capacity” and the “willingness” are directly associated with the human behaviour.
- The capacity to perform is an outcome of such competency characteristics as ability and aptitude that can be considered as inherited characteristics of behaviour.
- Ability, that is partly a measure of intelligence, is the basic and important ingredient for effective performance and all the motivation and organizational efforts will not be of any help towards performance if the basic ability does not exist.
- To achieve high levels of performance, the individuals must show willingness to perform and put in adequate work effort.
- The effort or the degree of willingness to perform effectively would depend upon the degree of motivation of the individual.
- This motivation that is a behavioural concept defines the forces within the individual that account for the direction and level of effort relating to a given task.
- Inadequate support systems such as rush jobs, unavailability of best tools to perform work with unclear guidance and instructions; are all negative influences on behaviour and performance.
- Creativity and critical thinking is essential for making effective and unique decisions. The degree and depth of creativity would greatly influence the quality of the decisions and consequently the results of actions that are based upon such decisions.
- Creativity can be defined as, “socially recognized achievement in which there are novel products to which one can point as evidence such as inventions, theories, buildings, published writings, paintings and sculptures and films, laws, institutions, medical and surgical treatments and so on”.

- Creativity primarily means originality in ideas. An original idea is considered to be the one that has never occurred before.
- Incubation is a time of thought and reflection and is generally a period when the conscious attention is turned away from the problem at hand.
- Insight is the actual point of breakthrough achieved as a result of preparation and incubation. It is the tentative outcome of persistent efforts and thinking when the individual believes that he has found a unique solution to the problem under study.
- Organizations interested in maintaining and enhancing creativity recognize that excessive disciplines, excessive rigidity in structure and too much control inhibit creativity.
- In general, there are two techniques of creativity enhancement that have been studied carefully. These techniques are brainstorming and Synectics.
- Brainstorming is a technique for stimulating imaginative and novel ideas.
- It involves a group of people, usually between five and ten sitting around a table, in a class room setting, generating ideas in the form of free association.
- Creativity assists in developing a variety of alternatives. It is basically the generation of new ideas or using old ideas in a new way from unsuspecting angles. Synectics approach assists in generating such ideas.
- Interpersonal communication refers to communication that takes place between two or more individuals. On the other hand, intrapersonal communication means communication that takes place within the self.

## NOTES

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### 9.9 KEY WORDS

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- **Feedback:** It is information about reactions to a product, a person's performance of a task, etc. which is used as a basis for improvement.
- **Synectics:** It is a problem-solving technique which seeks to promote creative thinking, typically among small groups of people of diverse expertise.
- **Stimuli:** It refers to something that incites to action or exertion or quickens action, feeling, thought, etc.
- **Consensus:** It refers to a generally accepted opinion or decision among a group of people.

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### 9.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. Define culture. What do you understand by organizational culture.

## NOTES

2. What is the origin of organizational culture?
3. List some of the symptoms of inadequate organizational support.
4. Write a short note on interpersonal and intrapersonal skill and cultural flexibility.

### Long Answer Questions

1. What is performance? How does behaviour impact performance?
2. Write a descriptive note on creativity and the creative process.
3. How can one enhance creativity?

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## 9.11 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
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## UNIT 10 STRESS

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### Structure

- 10.0 Introduction
- 10.1 Objectives
- 10.2 Meaning of Stress
  - 10.2.1 The General Adaptation Syndrome
- 10.3 Stress Responses
- 10.4 Basic forms of Stress: Frustration and Anxiety
- 10.5 Sources of Stress
- 10.6 Consequences of Job Stress
- 10.7 Managing Stress
- 10.8 Stress Management
- 10.9 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 10.10 Summary
- 10.11 Key Words
- 10.12 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 10.13 Further Readings

### NOTES

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## 10.0 INTRODUCTION

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Stress is a state of mind that reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body and is projected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the resources available to the person. The intensity of such demands that require a readjustment of resources or operational styles would determine the extent of stress. Such environmental events or conditions that have the potential to induce stress are known as “stressors”.

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## 10.1 OBJECTIVES

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

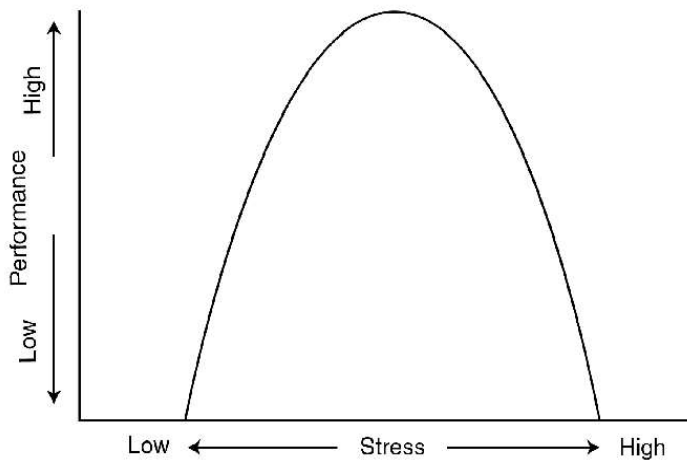
- Explain the meaning and forms of stress
- Discuss the General Adaptation Syndrome
- Assess the sources of stress
- Analyse the consequences of stress
- Describe how to cope with stress

## 10.2 MEANING OF STRESS

### NOTES

Medical researcher Hans Selye first used the term “stress” to describe the body’s biological response mechanisms. He defined stress as “the nonspecific response of the body to any demand”. It must be understood that for the stress to occur, the response should be non-specific. All responses require utilization of energy. Any demand made on the body that is for some specific activity that is natural, expected and a part of daily routine, does not necessarily create stress. Even walking, thinking, writing and doing physical activities that are a part of personal and organizational existence, require energy consumption of the body but are not necessarily stress producing forces.

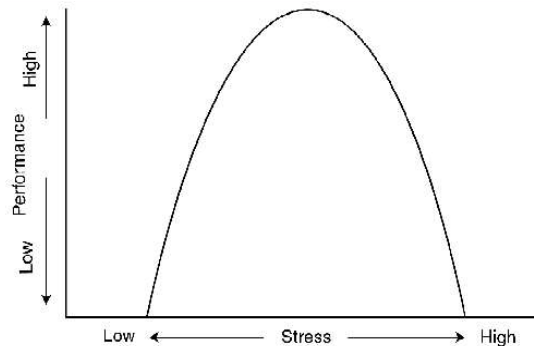
Stress does not necessarily occur due to undesirable developments. All situations that produce increased demand on a vital activity requiring adaptation to a new situation, produce stress in the form of a stereotyped pattern of bio-chemical, functional and structural changes in the human organism. These situations could be fear, pain, fatigue, emotional arousal, humiliation, frustration, need for concentration, loss of blood, drugs, loss of a loved one, non-occurrence of an expected event and even unexpected successes that require a change in the operational style.



Source: Henry L. Tossi, John R. Rizzo and Stephen J. Carroll, *Managing Organizational Behavior*, Ballinger Publishing Co., 1986, p. 296.

The stress created by desirable and successful events is called “eustress” and the stress created by undesirable outcomes is known as “distress”. It is primarily the distress form of stress that requires examination and steps to cope with it. Eustress is a positive, healthy and developmental stress response. Thus, just as tension on muscles causes them to strengthen, some level of stress may lead to better performance and a more adjusted personality. Since we learn how to deal with our problems better, it improves our capacity to confront distress better. However, even though some levels of stress are necessary for psychological growth, creative activities and the acquisitions of new skills such as learning to drive a car

or learning the use of a computer, it is the highly stressful situations that weaken a person's physical and psychological capacity to cope with the stressors that have dysfunctional consequences. Just as high-level stress is damaging to the physical and psychological well-being of the person, extremely low levels of stress are equally undesirable for they cause boredom, and result in lack of stimulation, innovation and challenges. Thus, moderate level of stress is necessary for higher level of performance. The following diagram shows the relationship between the level of performance and degree of stress.



Source: Henry L. Tossi ..... See second revised edition.

### 10.2.1 The General Adaptation Syndrome

The General Adaptation Syndrome refers to a general development of responses to stressful events in the form of physiological, psychological and behavioural responses believed to follow a fairly consistent pattern and consists of three stages. The first stage is known as “alarm” stage and it occurs at the first sign of stress. It results in physiological changes in the body as a warning and preparation against stress. During this initial stage, muscles become tense, blood pressure rises, pupils dilate and there is increase in hormone flow such as adrenaline from endocrine glands. The second stage in bodily responses is that of resistance. In this stage, the body's energies tend to resist the stress so that the physiological and psychological equilibrium can be maintained. If this resistance is successful, then the stress will disappear. However, if the stress is of a high degree and continues long enough, then the body's capacity for adaptation becomes exhausted. In this third stage of exhaustion, the person is unable to cope with the stress and the individual experiences physical and mental pressures that result in such illness as continuous headaches, ulcers and high blood pressure. It is this last stage that presents the greatest threat to the individual's well-being.

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## 10.3 STRESS RESPONSES

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As mentioned briefly above in the General Adaptation syndrome, the process of stress elicits three types of responses. These are: physiological, psychological and behavioural responses.

## NOTES

**NOTES****Physiological Responses**

As soon as stress appears, the brain reacts, and immediate biochemical changes take place in heart beat and heightening of practically all the senses. The long terms physiological effects are more disturbing. Serious health problems occur as body confronts stress over a long period of time. The stress could lead to breakdowns in the body's immune systems and may result in serious health problems such as high blood pressure, ulcers and heart attack. In general, according to Baron, "taking all evidence into account though, it seems reasonable to conclude that high level of stress can result in physical changes that threaten our health and well-being".

**Psychological Responses**

There are some people who can handle stress better than others. People who tend to be highly affected by stress tend to be depressed and lack self-confidence and self-esteem. They tend to believe that they are helpless and elicit sympathy from others. They have greater fear of the unknown and an increased sense of futility, tension and neurotic tendencies. They become irritated quickly, are impatient and tend to blame everybody else for their own problems. They are more worried about their job security and their job commitment is very low.

**Behavioural Responses**

According to Cohen,<sup>4</sup> people under constant stress behave differently as compared to people who are emotionally well-balanced. Stress is usually associated with increased use of alcohol, smoking, eating and sometimes drugs. People under stress may gain weight and thus behave differently. Their behaviour becomes highly defensive or highly aggressive towards others and inter-personal relationships are highly affected. Stress induces irritation and lack of patience and these elements are exhibited in behavioural patterns. The person may become an introvert, may withdraw from social situations and may avoid communication with others resulting in social isolation.

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## **10.4 BASIC FORMS OF STRESS: FRUSTRATION AND ANXIETY**

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Frustration is a form of behaviour that occurs when a person wishes to achieve a certain objective or pursue a certain course of action but is prevented from doing so. It refers to an obstruction or impediment to goal oriented behaviour. Examples of frustration include a salesman continuously failing to make a sale, a professor continuously applying for a promotion and failing to get it or inability to get subordinates to act according to our wishes. There are several factors that cause frustration. First is the unnecessary delay in achieving the goal, even when the goal is eventually available. Delay in getting a promotion, delay in finishing a report and

even waiting for a friend after the due time can cause frustration. The second factor causing frustration is the lack of resources. Sometimes the goals are not achieved because individuals lack the physical, personal or interpersonal resources. A professor who is burdened with administrative duties and does not get enough time to do research that is necessary for promotion may become frustrated because of such time constraints. The third cause of frustration may be the actual failure in achieving the goal. A lost client, a poor evaluation by superiors, failure in the exam or failure to get a promotion are all causes of frustration that are manifested in stress.

A second form of stress is the “anxiety” which is a feeling of inability and helplessness in formulating appropriate responses or plans for dealing with the anticipated negative outcomes. It occurs when a decision has to be made but the outcome of the decision could have positive as well as negative consequences. For example, should you cheat in the exam or not, not knowing whether you will get through or get caught? These are some anxious moments. Anxiety also occurs when all your options result in undesirable consequences. For example, if you are working with a company for a long time and have built roots in the community where you live and your company is moving to a different far off location and you have the choice of either moving with the company or losing the job. Both of these alternatives make you feel uncomfortable and hence become a cause of anxiety. What causes anxiety in work environment? According to Hammer and Organ:

“Difference in power in organization which leave people with a feeling of vulnerability to administrative decisions adversely affecting them, frequent changes in organizations, which make existing behavior plans obsolete, competition, which creates the inevitability that some persons lose “face”, esteem and status, and job ambiguity (especially when it is coupled with pressure). To these may be added some related factors, such as lack of job feedback, volatility in the organization’s economic environment, job insecurity and high visibility of one’s performance (success as well as failure). Obviously, personal non-organizational factors come into play as well, such as physical illness, problems at home, unrealistically high personal goals and estrangement from one’s colleagues or one’s peer group”.

Accordingly, there are a number of factors, both organizational as well as individualistic, that cause frustration and anxiety.

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## 10.5 SOURCES OF STRESS

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There are two major sources of stress. These are organizational sources and personal sources. Both these categories are considered in detail:

### **Organizational Sources**

Almost every aspect of work can be a stressor for someone. Even though there are many factors in the work environment that have some influence on the extent

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of stress that people experience at the job, the following factors have been shown to be particularly strong in inducing stress.

***Stressors intrinsic to the job*** The nature of the job itself can determine the type and degree of stress that can be induced. Some jobs lead to more stress-related responses than others. For example, such jobs as that of a police officer, or air traffic controller are often considered to be low-stress jobs.

In general, high stress occupations are those in which the employees have little control over their operations, work under time constraints and have major responsibilities for human or financial resources. Persons working under threatening working conditions such as temperature extremes, pollution, uncomfortable lighting and ventilation and loud noise are also vulnerable to high stress.

According to one study, some of the high-stress jobs are: foreman, manager, inspector, waitress or waiter and clinical lab technician. On the contrary, some of the low stress jobs are: college professor, personnel worker, craft worker, farm labourer and so on.

Studies conducted by Karasek and his colleagues at Columbia University showed a higher risk of coronary disease as a consequence of stress in some jobs and less in others. They identified two job factors that affect the level of such risk. These factors are the “level of psychological demand” and the “level of decision control” over work. People with high psychological demands and low decision control are constantly under pressure, for they must meet the demands imposed upon them without having any say in it. For example, a waitress in a restaurant must wait on the customer as well as depend upon the cook. She is subjected to demands both by the customer as well as the cook with no control over it and thus is subjected to high pressure and risk. According to this study, some of the jobs are categorised as follows:

- (a) Low psychological demand/Low decision control —some of the jobs are: janitor, night watchman, truck driver, billing clerk and so on.
- (b) Low psychological demand/high decision control. The jobs in this category are: auto repair man, sales clerk, peddler, scientist and so on.
- (c) High psychological demand/High decision control. This category contains jobs such as: sales manager, bank officer, physician, school teacher and so on.
- (d) High psychological demand/Low decision control. These jobs carry maximum strain and are those of: waitress, telephone operator, cook, assembly line worker and so on.

***Role ambiguity:*** A role is a set of activities associated with a certain position in the organization or in the society. According to Kahn, if these work activities are ill-defined, then the person who is carrying out these activities will not behave as others expect him to, because his role is not clearly defined. Thus, when there is a

lot of uncertainty regarding job definitions or job expectations, then people experience role ambiguity.

Role ambiguity is particularly strong among managerial jobs where responsibilities are more general in nature and role definitions and task specifications are not clear. This role ambiguity is especially prevalent among companies that have merged or acquired other companies while keeping the employees. Thus, employees become uncertain of what exactly they are supposed to do and exactly whom they should report to. This role ambiguity causes stress. French and Caplan, summarised their study findings as follows:

“In summary, role ambiguity, which appears, to be widespread, (1) produce psychological strain and dissatisfaction, (2) leads to under-utilization of human resources, and (3) leads to feeling of futility on how to cope with the organizational environment.”

**Role conflict:** Role conflict occurs when two or more persons have different and sometimes opposing expectation of a given individual. Thus, there are two or more sets of pressures on the individual so that it is not possible to satisfy all of them. In other words, role conflict occurs when contradictory demands are simultaneously placed upon an employee. For example, an architect may be expected to produce creative designs, while on the other hand, there may be time constraints put upon him, both roles being in conflict with each other. Similarly, a contractor may ask a carpenter to do something that may be different than what the city building code prescribe, thus causing a role conflict.

Another type of role conflict is the inter-role conflict where an individual plays more than one role simultaneously in his life and the demands of these roles conflict with each other. For example, a father may know that his son has committed a crime but does not inform the police or a police officer may be invited to his brother’s wedding party where the guests use drugs that is against the law.

Studies conducted by Robert Kahn and his colleagues at the University of Michigan regarding role conflict, lead to the following conclusion:

“Contradictory role expectations give rise to opposing role pressures (role conflict), which generally have the following effects on the emotional experience of the focal person: intensified internal conflicts, increased tension associated with various aspects of the job, reduced satisfaction with the job and its various components, and decreased confidence in superiors and in the organization as a whole. The strain experienced by those in conflict situations leads to various coping responses such as social and psychological withdrawal (reduction in communication and attributed influence) among them.

Finally, the presence of conflict in one’s role tends to undermine his relations with his role senders to produce weaker bonds of trust, respect and attraction. It is quite clear that role conflicts are costly for the person in emotional and interpersonal terms. They may be costly to the organization, which depends on effective coordination and collaboration within and among its parts”.

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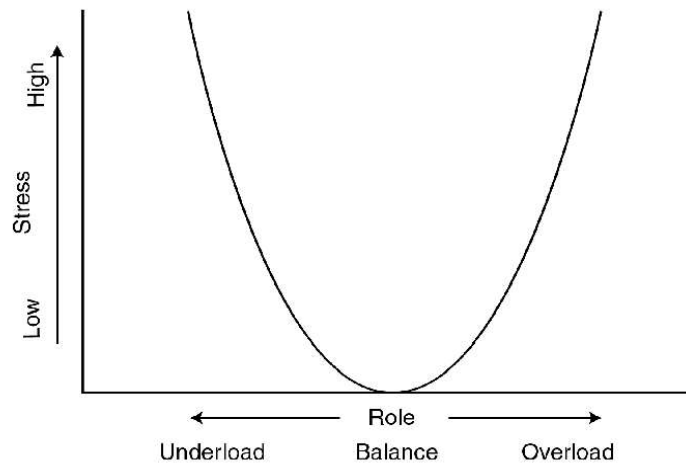
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**Role overload:** Role overload occurs when the work requirements are so excessive that employees feel that they do not have adequate time or ability to meet such requirements. Working under time pressure is especially stressful whether it is meeting a deadline for a report or studying near the exam period. The physiological symptoms of stress increase significantly prior to deadline and decrease sharply after the deadline has passed. The role overload can occur either when there is too much work to complete in a given time or when it is too difficult to accomplish because of lack of skills and ability.

**Role underload:** Role underload occurs when a person's ability is underutilised so that either there is too little work or there is too little variety in the work. If a salesman with high inter-personal skills is given a job in a department store where there are not too many customers, then he will feel that his ability is not being properly utilised. Similarly, assembly line workers whose jobs are routine and highly monotonous also experience role underload.

Role underload leads to excessive absenteeism and such workers show very little interest in the organizational activities. It results in low self-esteem and low work satisfaction. This creates stress with increased frequency of nervous complaints and other health problems.

Stress as reflected in role overload and underload can be reflected diagrammatically as follows:



**Responsibility for people:** Any type of responsibility can be a burden upon an individual. For example, organizational responsibility for such factors as budgets, equipment and projects can cause stress. However, it is the responsibility for people working for you that is a cause for continuous concern. As a manager, your effectiveness is a function of quality performance of your subordinates. Hence, you will be held responsible for anything that goes wrong, which creates stress and this stress is intensified when the manager has a limited degree of control over the subordinates. As noted by French and Caplan.

“If there is any truth to the adage that ‘man’s greatest enemy is himself’, it can be found in these data—it is the responsibility which organizational members have for other organizational members, rather than the responsibility for impersonal aspects of the organization, which constitutes the more significant organizational stress.”

***Lack of participation:*** When the employees are invited to participate in decision making process in their areas of concern then the employees perceive that they have more control over their own environment thus reducing the extent of role conflict and role ambiguity that cause stress. For example, in a work situation where high role conflict is created because of inconsistent demands from the superiors, the stress created by such high role conflict is reduced if the subordinates and superiors can participate and work together in reducing such inconsistencies.

Participation in decision making also helps in reducing role ambiguity and role overload resulting in reduced stress.

### **Interpersonal Relationships**

The effectiveness of the organization is influenced by the nature of the relations among group members. One of the major sources of stress in organizational setting is poor interpersonal relationships, be it within the group or with superiors or subordinates. When interpersonal relationships are not very cordial, the employees develop a general sense of anxiety when they have to deal with each other or depend upon each other such as a group task or departmental meetings where they have to interact with each other.

Sayings like “too much familiarity breeds contempt” have validity in that too much prolonged contact with other people can cause stress. This stress is further intensified when the people we come in contact with are in distress themselves. For example, we become distressed when our friends have problems. Parents are generally under great tension when their children do not do well in schools or when they get involved in drugs. For this reason, employees in such professions as health care and social services report the highest level of stress. According to Albrecht, doctors have the highest rate of alcoholism among all the professions and psychiatrists have the highest rate of suicide.

When a person has to deal with people in other departments, conflict may also occur. For example, assume that there is a professor from Business Division who is up for promotion that is to be decided by a committee comprised of representatives from all divisions. If the professor does not get the promotion he may feel that the representatives from the Humanities Division or Social Sciences Division do not appreciate the requirements in the Business Division, thus causing conflict and stress. As another example, the X-ray technicians in a hospital may not be able to deal with the service demands of the doctors and surgeons, thus creating stress and tension.

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Much of the quality of interpersonal relationships also depends upon the organizational climate. An organizational climate may be conducive to a relaxed style of working or it may be tense and crisis-oriented. The employees are continuously tense, if the organizational climate in general is unfriendly, hostile or totally task oriented.

### Personal Factors in Stress

Events in personal life cannot be isolated from events in work life. A person with an unhappy family life seldom expresses a positive attitude at work. Much of the stress brought about by non-work situations may be due to divorce, marriage, death of a loved one, financial difficulties and many other socio-cultural relationships. These difficulties are stress producers specially if they are unexpected. For example, we know that children leave home when they grow up or when they go to college so that this is expected, and this separation does not necessarily cause stress. On the other side, problems at work can manifest in stress in personal life. Thus, job stress and life stress are often related in that high stress in one area can induce or increase stress in the other.

Some of the specific non-work stressors are:

**Job concern** Job and career variables can become stressors when they become sources of concern, anxiety or frustration to the individual. One of the major concerns is the lack of job security. Except for jobs with tenure or strong union support, very few employees have job security. This insecurity increases during times of recessions or impending recessions. The prospect of losing a job, especially when you have a family and your social roots are well-established, is very stressful.

Another reason for job related stress may be the perception of the employee regarding his status on the job. Persons who are not promoted when due or persons who feel that their jobs are beneath their qualifications may feel that they are not using their potential to the best and may become anxious about it. This is especially true for middle aged men and women when that time itself becomes a period of soul searching and self-doubt. Career progress then becomes a focal point.

**Relocation** When an employee has to relocate geographically because of a transfer or promotion, it disrupts the routine of his daily life, causing concern and stress. The fear of working in a new location, unpredictability about new work environment, and the prospect of creating new relationships always cause some anxiety. Relocation also creates problems for the spouses and children of employees. They are also uprooted from schools, friends and jobs. It is especially difficult for them because generally the family moves with the husband's job and they do not have much say in it. The stress related to this geographic mobility is greater when the wife also has a job and she has to leave the job to go with the family. Uncertainty about getting a new job at the new location creates some degree of stress. Thus the more changes that occur in a person's social relationships and family life because of relocation, the greater the person's stress will be.

**Changes in life structure** The structure of life and process of living has many facets. Some of these facets are socio-cultural in nature such as family, religion, race, education, economic situation as well as a person's interaction with the socio-cultural world in the role of a husband, a parent, a friend or a citizen. In addition, the life structure may change as we grow older from one period to another such as childhood to adolescence and so on. As we grow older, our responsibility to ourselves as well as others changes and increases. The higher the responsibility, the greater the stress.

The extent of stress is also determined by the ability to cope with stress or the kind of sources a person seeks to deal with stress. For example, people who have strong faith in God and His Will find it easier to deal with such stressful situations as the loss of a loved one. Similarly, family and friends are source of great comfort at such times of crisis.

The pace of life would also determine whether a person's life is stable or turbulent. As the responsibilities increase, so does the capacity to execute them. Professions such as those of doctors or businessmen are more stressful and hectic than those of say, college teaching.

The degree of stress created by certain events in life can be assessed by "Social Readjustment Rating Scale" developed by Thomas Holmes and Richard Rake. In order to construct the stress impact scale, they asked people to rate as to how long it would take to adjust to certain stressful events and how severe the adjustment to these events would be. From the responses, they developed a ranking and a weighting for each of these stress producing events. For example, the death of a spouse was considered to be the most stress producing event. The following table shows the ranking of some of these events.

Life Event	Weight
Death of a spouse	100
Divorce	73
Jail term	63
Death of a close family member	63
Marriage	50
Fired from work	47
Pregnancy	40
Sex difficulties	39
Child leaving home	29
Change in residence	20
Christmas	12

If an individual accumulates a large number of stressor points in a relatively short period of time, it is more likely that stress would be obvious. The higher the number of points, the more likely that stress will result in serious illness.

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**NOTES****Check Your Progress**

1. What is the first stage of the General Adaptation Syndrome?
2. Define frustration.
3. List the major sources of stress.
4. When does role conflict occur?
5. How can we assess the degree of stress?

**10.6 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB STRESS**

As has been discussed, the conditions that create stressful situations for employees are fairly constant: fear of losing the job, work overload, lack of participation in decisions regarding their own work environment, non-supportive supervisors, and co-workers, limited job opportunities and so on. The stress is acute specially for current generation middle managers whose jobs are more uncertain, and who have less control over their destinies as compared with senior level managers, furthermore their stress coping capabilities are reduced because they are generally more mobile, less religious, marry later in life and have fewer children-factors that act as a buffer and reduce the impact of stress.

**According to Business Week**

“Stress. From the corner office to the factory floor, it is epidemic in US business. Competition, Bloody Monday layoffs, mergers and acquisitions—all are taking their toll in derailed careers, broken families and emotional disorders. Signs are everywhere. Employees drink to excess and slip disastrously in their performance. They erupt into fits of uncontrollable rage at work and abuse their families at home. A few commit suicide.”

It is important to deal with stress at an early stage. Early warning signs such as headaches, back pain, irritability, insomnia, absenteeism from work or alcoholism should be taken seriously. Otherwise they could lead to serious emotional disorders as well as physiological problems such as ulcers and heart disease. When stress is left untreated for a long time, it can develop into anxiety and depression. According to Business Week again, stress and depression share a common chemistry in the brain. A hormone called Corticotropin Releasing Hormone (CRH) puts a shield of defense against stress. Even after the stress subsides, the body keeps releasing the hormone, sometimes for years. When stress gets out of hand, it results in severe depression, and depression if untreated can be fatal. Depressed individuals make up some 60% of all suicides.

## Physiological Reaction to Stress

High degree of stress is typically accompanied by severe anxiety, frustration and depression. There is evidence that work stress is associated with heart irregularities, high levels of blood pressure and high levels of cholesterol. Studies conducted by Stole, regarding the effects of a plant closing in Detroit showed an “alarming rise in anxiety and illness”, with at least fifty per cent of employees suffering from ulcers, arthritis, serious hypertension, alcoholism and depression.

Some of the physiological symptoms of stress, anxiety and depression are as follows:

**Stress:** Irritability, insomnia, alcohol and food abuse. Physical changes including rapid breathing and heart rate, tensed muscles. Prolonged stress can cause muscular twitches, skin problems, baldness and sexual problems such as impotence.

**Anxiety:** Excessive worry, irritability, anger, nervousness as well as inability to concentrate or sleep. Physical changes include palpitations, chest pain and dizziness.

**Depression:** Feelings of sadness, hopelessness, guilt and worthlessness, loss of interest in activities, change in appetite or weight, difficulty in concentrating and suicidal thoughts.

Also, there is strong evidence that job stress contributes directly to life threatening diseases and in fact shortens one’s life.

## Stress and Job Performance

One of the major concerns of management is the negative impact stress has on performance. People under high stress tend to withdraw from the contact with the stressor in the form of turnover and absenteeism. In extreme cases it may result in sabotage. Workers sometimes create mechanical failure in order to take a break from strain of monotonous work. Any factor that causes negative effects on our physical and psychological well-being is also expected to affect our work behaviour. Exposure to strong and enduring stress influences important aspects of our behaviour at job thus affecting productivity.

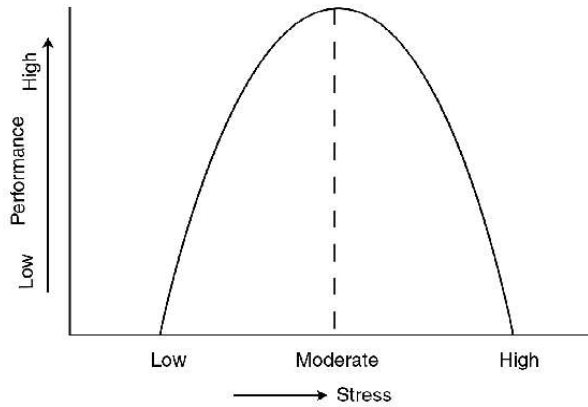
The relationship between stress and performance appears to be rather complex. It is affected by the difficulty of the task being performed, the nature of the specific stressor involved and a wide range of personal and situational factors. However, in general, productivity is considered to be at a peak with moderate level of stress. Performance is poor at low level of stress as well as at high level of stress. At low level of stress, the person may not be sufficiently energized and may not be whole-heartedly involved in his work, resulting in low productivity. As the level of stress increases from low levels to moderate levels, the performance level also increases to reach the peak level. An optimum level of stress exists for any task. If the stress continues to increase from this level, the person becomes too agitated and frustrated, resulting in performance deterioration.

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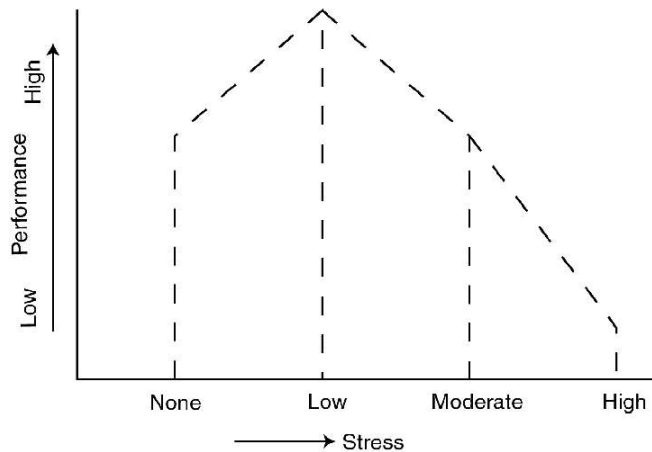


It has been believed that the relationship between stress and performance is curvilinear. It follows an inverted U-shaped curve as shown previously and reproduced here.

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However, the validity of the clear-cut relationship is being questioned and some behaviour scientists believe that performance actually decreases when stress increases from low levels to moderate levels, even though the rate of decrease in performance is less than the rate of decrease when stress increases from moderate to high levels. This relationship is shown as below:



Stress also impairs the ability to make effective decisions. People under stress are in a state of irritation and are unable to concentrate. They become impatient and are more likely to avoid or postpone making decisions. They are less likely to seek new information and are more likely to forget some important pieces of available information. As a result, the quality of decisions they make suffers, and the cost of a wrong decision can be very high.

### Job Burnout

Job burnout is the extreme case of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion, when stressors seem to be unavoidable and sources of relief seem to be unavailable. People feel totally drained and dread going to work. They develop negative feelings

about their jobs and about their life in general. This burnout is a direct result of prolonged exposure to intense stress.

Physical exhaustion results in general feelings of tiredness and people exhibit such symptoms as low energy, frequent headaches, sleeplessness and changes in eating habits.

Emotional exhaustion results in feelings of depression, helplessness, and hopelessness. People who are emotionally exhausted develop a feeling of worthlessness and tend to believe that life has no meaning or goal.

Mental exhaustion result in low self-esteem and develops negative attitudes towards life and job. People tend to feel inadequate and incompetent and they often dislike their colleagues, their co-workers or their clients.

Recent studies have shown that burnout seems to be the most common among professionals who must deal extensively with other people. Job burnout is most visible among professionals such as managers, lawyers, nurses, accountants and social workers. It has been estimated that 20% of such professionals suffer from job burnout.

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### 10.7 MANAGING STRESS

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We know that some stress is necessary for optimum efficiency. We also have a general idea as to the level of stress that is destructive to job performance. Accordingly, it is necessary for individuals, as well as management to take steps to reduce stress to acceptable levels.

#### Individual Strategies

It is necessary for physical and psychological well-being of the person to reduce or eliminate the negative effects of stress. It is possible to manage stress, at least in the sense that a person can either avoid stressful conditions, change them or learn to cope with them. There are a number of ways by which stress can be managed so that the person has control over his life. Some of these strategies deal with the individual himself and focus on improving his physical and mental strength to deal with stress from all sources and some strategies deal specifically with job related stress.

Some of the stress reducing strategies that strengthen the individual's well-being are:

**Readjust life goals** Because of the severe competition to “get ahead”, most individuals set very high standards and goals for themselves. They are always trying to do too much in too little time. They have tremendous fear of failing and they are running to nowhere. These high expectations and limited resources to reach such expectations result in stress. Accordingly, people must readjust their goals and make sure they have the ability and proper resources to reach such goals. Perhaps the goals should be established after resources have been analysed.

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**Social support** There is a saying that, “a friend in need is a friend indeed”. Good friends become highly supportive during the times of stress and crisis. Close and reliable friends may give a sympathetic hearing to your problems, a more objective assessment of the situation and support your sagging self-confidence or self-esteem. Many people turn to God for support during times of difficulties, believing God to be their “best friend”. The idea of confession to a priest in the Catholic religion is primarily meant to receive moral support for stress created by some individual actions. Thus God, priests, family, friends can all be a source of great comfort during times of stress.

**Plan your life in advance** While the attitude of “whatever will be, will be” is a way to accept the unexpected difficulties in life, it is better to project events in life and plan to confront them when they occur. Many times, people create situations that induce stress because they either did not plan or they did a bad job of planning. For example, students who plan the pace of their studies during the semester seldom find exams excessively stressful. Accordingly, if we plan the proper utilization of our resources of time and money, the chances are that we will have *less stress*.

**Physiological fitness** There is evidence to suggest that individuals who exercise and so strengthen their endurance and cardiovascular system, are much less likely to suffer from certain types of stress-related illnesses. As the correlation between physical fitness and stress resistance has become clear, many organizations have added facilities for physical exercise in their premises. With proper exercise, diet control and non-smoking habits, blood pressure and cholesterol levels become low and the body becomes more resistant to pressures. People are more likely to get physically sick or emotionally depressed if they are overweight or poorly nourished.

**Yoga** During the last twenty-five years, there has been a growing interest in yoga as a stress reduction strategy. The word “yoga” means union and according to Amarjit Sethi, it “implies union with the ultimate where the process of desiring has come to an end and where stress is non-existent”. To a common man, yoga is a structured set of exercises and body movements with deep breathing and mind concentration, so that it is a way of getting away from the stressors. To a serious student of yoga, it is a methodology to integrate body and mind forces to bring them into a state of harmony with the ultimate goal of being in unison with the Infinite. At the lower levels of physical and mental fitness, yoga consists of certain postural habits (known as asanas) and these postures are non-dynamic, passive and stable, resulting in increased flexibility of skeletal structure. This in turn stimulates the nervous system. Accordingly, with proper “asanas” and controlled breathing, the neuromuscular coordination is strengthened, affecting glandular activity that is responsible for physical as well as mental health. Thus, the development of a sound mind in a sound body improves the stress coping capabilities.

## Meditation

Meditation involves concentration of mind away from stress producing areas, sitting in a comfortable position, closing the eyes and clearing the mind from all disturbing thoughts. Any form of concentration that redirects our thought processes away from daily concerns can be considered meditation. Primarily, it involves silently repeating a single syllable or “mantra” over and over again. This concentration on “mantra” shuts out other distractions and results in physical and mental relaxation at its peak. The place of meditation should be such that the meditator is not disturbed by any outside force such as telephone, children or visitors. This technique was popularised by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi, an Indian mystic, and the method is known as “Transcendental Meditation” or TM.

Another form of meditation that has grown popular is Benson’s method or “Relaxation Response.” This technique is similar to TM and is designed to elicit “relaxation response” that is considered to be opposite to “stress response”. The basic idea is to block extraneous and distracting thoughts from one’s mind. It is a form of breathing meditation, where the meditator consciously thinks of a word or a symbol on every out breath. The idea is to dwell upon a particular word or sound or to gaze at a symbol or even concentrate on a particular feeling. Relaxation response should become an integral part of behaviour so that life stresses are effectively countered. Benson recommends “relaxation response” breaks instead of coffee breaks to rejuvenate workers.

**Biofeedback** Biofeedback is a methodology designed to alter undesirable physiological responses through psychological strategies. Sophisticated electronic instruments are used to measure small undesirable changes caused by stress. Then a state of relaxation is induced in order to bring back such bodily functions to a normal non-stress state. For example, whenever blood pressure is registered as too high, individuals then try to relax to bring the blood pressure down. This tendency to relax is voluntary on the part of the individual. The potential benefit of biofeedback is the human ability to bring some of the bodily functions under voluntary control. These functions include heart rates, brain waves, muscle tension, blood pressure and stomach acidity. Changes in these functions are most often caused by stress. By measuring these changes precisely through the system of biofeedback, an individual can respond to these changes effectively. Thus, stress management can be voluntarily practiced by individuals.

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## 10.8 STRESS MANAGEMENT

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While it is necessary for individuals to design their own strategies to reduce stress to an acceptable level, it is equally important for organizations to develop programs that will help employees reduce their stress. This will help in controlling employee turnover, absenteeism, and as a result, productivity will improve. Some of the steps that organizations can take are:

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**Health maintenance** Many organizations provide facilities at their premises for physical fitness such as gyms, swimming pools, as well as psychological counselling. They hold seminars, workshops and lectures to help employees in understanding the nature and sources of stress, its ramifications and possible ways to reduce its negative effects. Workshops are designed in a manner that they are therapeutic in nature to help individuals who are already experiencing stress problems. Most programmes involve one or more of the following techniques: biofeedback, meditation, muscular relaxation exercises, and skill training areas such as time management, interpersonal skills, training to think positively about life and its problems and looking at sources of stress realistically and analytically.

**Selection and placement** The basic hiring process should be based upon matching of skills, personality and work requirements. Being placed in a job that is not compatible with your ability and temperament, can be highly frustrating and stress producing. The applicants should be hired not only on the basis of educational background and past relative experience but the criteria for selection could also include the applicant's ability to handle role ambiguity and role conflict when present. Accordingly, during the process of hiring, some personality tests can be designed to evaluate the candidate's stamina for stress.

**Job enrichment** Redesigning the job should be in such a manner as to use the maximum potential of the employee with emphasis on employee involvement in such redesigning. This will help reduce stress caused by monotony, routine work, role ambiguity, work overload or underload. Job enrichment enhances motivation and leads to more challenging assignment, improved task significance, more responsibility, more meaningful work and more control of the employee over his own work environment. It also improves feedback to the employee regarding his performance and this will reduce uncertainty. Since stress occurs when work is important and there is some uncertainty surrounding it, a redesigned job will help overcome this stress and enhance "quality of work life".

**Effective and equitable performance appraisal and reward systems** It is necessary that performance be appraised in an objective and non-biased manner and the rewards be clearly and proportionately related to performance. The employee must know what is expected of him and for what exactly he is responsible and accountable. This will reduce role conflict. Employees' contribution to the organization must be well recognised, appreciated and rewarded. This will instill enthusiasm and a sense of dedication and belonging which in itself is a stress fighting phenomenon. This also strengthens the bonds of interpersonal relationships between the employees and the superiors and helps in clear and open communication.

**Participation in decision making** If the employees are invited to participate in making decisions involving their own work setting, within the organizational guidelines, this would make the employees feel that they are their own boss, a factor that is associated with less negative reactions to stress. Participation increases job involvement and reduces ambiguity and conflict—the two stress producing agents. This would also result in closer cooperation among superiors and

subordinates and a better work environment, especially when the superiors support their subordinates.

**Building teamwork** The management must create a work environment in which the members of the work group consider themselves as members of the same family. There should be no provision for interpersonal conflict within the group nor for conflict between an individual and the group. Such conflicts are causes of stress and should be prevented from building or eliminated if they develop. Accordingly, such groups should be developed that are more productive and mutually supportive. Members of the group would seek each other for social support, which is a necessary ingredient for diluting stress.

## NOTES

### Check Your Progress

6. Define job burnout.
7. What is biofeedback?

## 10.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The first stage of the General Adaptation Syndrome is known as “alarm” stage and it occurs at the first sign of stress.
2. Frustration is a form of behaviour that occurs when a person wishes to achieve a certain objective or pursue a certain course of action but is prevented from doing so.
3. There are two major sources of stress. These are organizational sources and personal sources.
4. Role conflict occurs when two or more persons have different and sometimes opposing expectation of a given individual.
5. The degree of stress created by certain events in life can be assessed by “Social Readjustment Rating Scale” developed by Thomas Holmes and Richard Rake.
6. Job burnout is the extreme case of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion, when stressors seem to be unavoidable and sources of relief seem to be unavailable.
7. Biofeedback is a methodology designed to alter undesirable physiological responses through psychological strategies.

## 10.10 SUMMARY

- Stress is a state of mind that reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body and is projected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the resources available to the person.
- Medical researcher Hans Selye first used the term “stress” to describe the

## NOTES

body's biological response mechanisms. He defined stress as "the nonspecific response of the body to any demand".

- All situations that produce increased demand on a vital activity requiring adaptation to a new situation, produce stress in the form of a stereotyped pattern of bio-chemical, functional and structural changes in the human organism.
- The stress created by desirable and successful events is called "eustress" and the stress created by undesirable outcomes is known as "distress".
- The General Adaptation Syndrome refers to a general development of responses to stressful events in the form of physiological, psychological and behavioural responses believed to follow a fairly consistent pattern and consists of three stages.
- The first stage is known as "alarm" stage and it occurs at the first sign of stress.
- The second stage in bodily responses is that of resistance.
- In third stage of exhaustion, the person is unable to cope with the stress and the individual experiences physical and mental pressures that result in such illness as continuous headaches, ulcers and high blood pressure.
- The General Adaptation syndrome, the process of stress elicits three types of responses. These are: physiological, psychological and behavioural responses.
- According to Cohen, 4 people under constant stress behave differently as compared to people who are emotionally well-balanced.
- Frustration is a form of behaviour that occurs when a person wishes to achieve a certain objective or pursue a certain course of action but is prevented from doing so. It refers to an obstruction or impediment to goal oriented behaviour.
- There are several factors that cause frustration. First is the unnecessary delay in achieving the goal, even when the goal is eventually available.
- The second factor causing frustration is the lack of resources. Sometimes the goals are not achieved because individuals lack the physical, personal or interpersonal resources.
- A second form of stress is the "anxiety" which is a feeling of inability and helplessness in formulating appropriate responses or plans for dealing with the anticipated negative outcomes.
- There are two major sources of stress. These are organizational sources and personal sources.
- In general, high stress occupations are those in which the employees have little control over their operations, work under time constraints and have major responsibilities for human or financial resources.

- Studies conducted by Karasek and his colleagues at Columbia University showed a higher risk of coronary disease as a consequence of stress in some jobs and less in others.
- They identified two job factors that affect the level of such risk. These factors are the “level of psychological demand” and the “level of decision control” over work.
- A role is a set of activities associated with a certain position in the organization or in the society.
- According to Kahn, if these work activities are ill-defined, then the person who is carrying out these activities will not behave as others expect him to, because his role is not clearly defined.
- Role conflict occurs when two or more persons have different and sometimes opposing expectation of a given individual.
- Another type of role conflict is the inter-role conflict where an individual plays more than one role simultaneously in his life and the demands of these roles conflict with each other.
- Role overload occurs when the work requirements are so excessive that employees feel that they do not have adequate time or ability to meet such requirements.
- The degree of stress created by certain events in life can be assessed by “Social Readjustment Rating Scale” developed by Thomas Holmes and Richard Rake.
- High degree of stress is typically accompanied by severe anxiety, frustration and depression.
- There is evidence that work stress is associated with heart irregularities, high levels of blood pressure and high levels of cholesterol.
- Studies conducted by Stole, regarding the effects of a plant closing in Detroit showed an “alarming rise in anxiety and illness”, with at least fifty per cent of employees suffering from ulcers, arthritis, serious hypertension, alcoholism and depression.
- One of the major concerns of management is the negative impact stress has on performance. People under high stress tend to withdraw from the contact with the stressor in the form of turnover and absenteeism.
- Job burnout is the extreme case of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion, when stressors seem to be unavoidable and sources of relief seem to be unavailable.
- Mental exhaustion result in low self-esteem and develops negative attitudes towards life and job. People tend to feel inadequate and incompetent and they often dislike their colleagues, their co-workers or their clients.

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## NOTES

- There is evidence to suggest that individuals who exercise and so strengthen their endurance and cardiovascular system, are much less likely to suffer from certain types of stress-related illnesses.
- Biofeedback is a methodology designed to alter undesirable physiological responses through psychological strategies.

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### 10.11 KEY WORDS

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- **Team:** It is a group of people with a full set of complementary skills required to complete a task, job, or project.
- **Strategy:** It is a plan of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim.
- **Stress:** It is a state of mental or emotional strain or tension resulting from adverse or demanding circumstances.

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### 10.12 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. Write a brief note on the General Adaptation Syndrome.
2. Discuss the consequences of job stress. How does it impact performance?
3. What is job burnout? Describe.
4. Describe the organizational strategies used to cope with stress.

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Give a detailed description of the various types of responses.
2. What causes stress? What are the basic forms of stress? Elucidate.
3. Explain the organizational sources of stress in detail.
4. How do interpersonal relationships and personal factors lead to stress? Analyse.
5. How can one cope with stress using individual strategies?

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### 10.13 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume I*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

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**BLOCK - IV**  
**LIFE AND WORKERS**

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**NOTES**

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**UNIT 11 MALADJUSTED WORKER**

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**Structure**

- 11.0 Introduction
- 11.1 Objectives
- 11.2 Meaning and Causes of Maladjustment
- 11.3 Readjustment
- 11.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 11.5 Summary
- 11.6 Key Words
- 11.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 11.8 Further Readings

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**11.0 INTRODUCTION**

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The ‘inability to react successfully and satisfactory to the demand of one’s environment’ is called maladjustment. It is a term used in psychology and can be refer to a wide range of biological, social and psychological conditions.

Maladjustment can be of two kinds, both intrinsic or extrinsic. By definition, intrinsic maladjustment refers to the differences between the needs, motivations and evaluations of an individual, with the actual reward gain through experiences. Whereas, extrinsic maladjustment is when an individual’s behavior does not meet the cultural or social expectation of the society. The two prominent effects of maladjustment are an individual’s development and the ability to maintain a positive interpersonal relationship with others. In most cases, maladjustment develops during early stages of childhood, when a child is in the process of learning methods to solve problem that occurs in interpersonal relationship in their social network.

A number of factors contribute as the causes of maladjustment, such as family environment, personal factors and school-related factors and so on and so forth. No intervention in the lives of individuals who are maladjusted can cause negative effects later on in their lives.

This units explains the meaning and causes of maladjustment in a workplace.

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**11.1 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Explain the meaning of maladjustment

- Discuss the causes of maladjustment
- Describe the concept of readjustment

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### 11.2 MEANING AND CAUSES OF MALADJUSTMENT

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If employees are maladjusted, they can have a significant negative impact on a workplace. The noticeable effects are that these employees often have a very low morale and perform tasks too improperly and slowly. Their performance is also impacted due to their high levels of stress, and simultaneously they suffer strenuous relationships with colleagues and managers.

A number of factors are responsible for worker maladjustment, these are as given below:

#### **Inadequate Training**

Employees may never feel completely at ease in work and may feel uncomfortable in the company due to inadequate initial training. As a result of poor training, the employee may commit mistakes that could jeopardize his standing with the company. This failure further leads to frustration and stress, as well as a negative attitude toward co-workers and supervisors. For experienced employees, inadequate training on new policies or processes can make it difficult for them to adjust to organizational change.

#### **Cultural Issues**

Each organization, irrespective of its size, has a unique culture. This difference in culture can make it difficult for a worker to adjust, especially if he comes from a considerably different work culture. There can be a number of things that can make such employees uncomfortable, such as the company's dress code, methods of communication or simply how employees treat or interact with one another. The employee's inability to feel connected can lead to poor performance.

#### **Poor Job Match**

Employees if doing a job, they are not meant for, can result in maladjustment. This can happen in a number of ways. An employee who is transferred to a position offering fewer responsibilities may feel that her new role is demeaning and may have difficulty adapting. In contrast, other employees may be promoted to a position for which they are poorly prepared, a concept referred to as the "Peter Principle." Workers who find themselves overwhelmed by a new role may quickly become frustrated and may fail to adequately adjust without proper mentoring.

## High Expectations

Employees who view the demands placed upon them by supervisors as too lofty or unreasonable may become maladjusted. They may be required to work long hours to meet the demands, which can create high levels of stress and eventually lead to burnout, as well as negatively impact their family lives. These workers may also begin to resent colleagues they perceive as shouldering less of the burden, especially if they feel the colleagues are receiving preferential treatment from management.

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### 11.3 READJUSTMENT

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The term “adjustment” originates from the biological term “adaptation”. Biologists used the term “adaptation” strictly for the physical demands of the environment. However, psychologists use the term “adjustment” for different conditions of social or inter-personal relations existing in the society.

The demands and pressures of social environment forced upon the individual makes him react in a certain manner, this reaction is called adjustment. The demand to which the individual has to react may be external or internal.

Psychologists have viewed adjustment from two important perspectives:

- adjustment as an achievement”, and
- “adjustment as a process”

#### Adjustment as achievement

How efficiently an individual can perform his duties under different circumstances is called ‘adjustment as achievement’.

If we perceive adjustment as achievement, we have to set criteria to judge the quality of adjustment. Psychologists developed four criteria to judge the adequacy of adjustment.

These are as follows:

- Work efficiency
- Social acceptance
- Physical health, and
- Psychological comfort

‘Adjustment as a process’ lays emphasis on the process by which an individual adjusts to his external environment. According to teachers, this is of great importance. The interaction with the external environment in which students live is responsible for how the students adjust. Most often, students always try to adjust to it. Piaget has studied the adjustive process from different angles.

**NOTES**

**Check Your Progress**

1. State one factor responsible for worker maladjustment?
2. What does 'adjustment as a process' emphasize on?

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**11.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. One factor responsible for worker maladjustment is inadequate training.
  2. 'Adjustment as a process' lays emphasis on the process by which an individual adjusts to his external environment.
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**11.5 SUMMARY**

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- If employees are maladjusted, they can have a significant negative impact on a workplace.
- The noticeable affects are that these employees often have a very low morale and perform tasks too improperly and slowly.
- Their performance is also impacted due to their high levels of stress, and simultaneously they suffer strenuous relationships with colleagues and managers.
- Employees may never feel completely at ease in work and may feel uncomfortable in the company due to inadequate initial training.
- As a result of poor training, the employee may commit mistakes that could jeopardize his standing with the company.
- This failure further leads to frustration and stress, as well as a negative attitude toward co-workers and supervisors.
- Each organization, irrespective of its size, has a unique culture. This difference in culture can make it difficult for a worker to adjust, especially if he comes from a considerably different work culture.
- There can be a number of things that can make such employees uncomfortable, such as the company's dress code, methods of communication or simply how employees treat or interact with one another.
- Employees if doing a job, they are not meant for, can result in maladjustment.
- This can happen in a number of ways. An employee who is transferred to a position offering fewer responsibilities may feel that her new role is demeaning and may have difficulty adapting.

- In contrast, other employees may be promoted to a position for which they are poorly prepared, a concept referred to as the “Peter Principle.”
- Employees who view the demands placed upon them by supervisors as too lofty or unreasonable may become maladjusted.
- They may be required to work long hours to meet the demands, which can create high levels of stress and eventually lead to burnout, as well as negatively impact their family lives.
- The term “adjustment” originates from the biological term “adaptation”.
- Biologists used the term “adaptation” strictly for the physical demands of the environment.
- However, psychologists use the term “adjustment” for different conditions of social or inter-personal relations existing in the society.
- ‘Adjustment as a process’ lays emphasis on the process by which an individual adjusts to his external environment.

## NOTES

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### 11.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Adjustment:** It is the process of adapting or becoming used to a new situation.
- **Biologists:** It is an expert in or student of the branch of science concerning living organisms.
- **Psychologists:** It refers to someone who studies the human mind and human emotions and behaviour, and how different situations have an effect on people

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### 11.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. What do you understand by adjustment?
2. How does a maladjusted employee impact the work environment?

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the factors responsible for maladjustment in detail.
2. Psychologists have viewed adjustment from two important perspective. Explain.

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## 11.8 FURTHER READINGS

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### NOTES

Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.

Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.

Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume 1*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

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## UNIT 12 COUNSELLING

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### Structure

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Counselling: Meaning, Significance, Types and Process
- 12.3 Employee Health, Safety and Security
- 12.4 Industrial Accidents: Accident Proneness and Prevention
- 12.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 12.6 Summary
- 12.7 Key Words
- 12.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 12.9 Further Readings

### NOTES

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### 12.0 INTRODUCTION

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Often times, we all find ourselves playing the role of a counsellor to family, friends and colleagues without actually much understanding the concept of counselling or what the role of the professional counsellor involves. The way a professional counsellor deals with a situation may be completely different to how a layman may give out counselling in an informal manner.

A professional counsellor is a highly trained individual who is able to use a different range of counselling approaches with their clients. Professional counselling calls for a relationship of trust. It is paramount to successful counselling that the counsellor maintains confidentiality of his/her client at all times. The only exception may be when they are required by law to disclose information if they believe that there is a risk to life.

This unit discusses the most important factor in an organization, that is, its ability to provide professional counselling to look after the mental well-being of the employee which may otherwise be at risk due to high stress levels in workplace and home. The unit also discusses industrial accidents at length.

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### 12.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Describe the meaning and significance of counselling
- Explain the types and process of counselling
- Analyse employee health, safety and security
- Discuss industrial accidents



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## 12.2 COUNSELLING: MEANING, SIGNIFICANCE, TYPES AND PROCESS

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### NOTES

It is imperative that an organization takes utmost care and steps to provide a healthy work atmosphere for its employees. Workplace counselling is usually short-term, and it provides employee support intervention. There is an independent, specialist resource for people working across all sectors and in all working environments. Providing all employees access to a free, confidential, workplace counselling facility is viewed as part of an employer's duty for the welfare of its employees.

The counselling process is about giving the employees an opportunity to freely talk about the issues that trouble them. The counsellors allow the employees to help them find their own solutions to problems or develop better ways to manage issues.

It is not about giving advice, but about providing a non-judgmental, empathic and accessible means to allow an employee to find a solution that can be implemented.

Workplace counsellors are skilled professionals and have a specialist viewpoint and skillset, as they essentially have two clients – the employee that they are counselling and the organisation. Workplace counsellors have a crucial understanding of the environment to which the employees will be returning and are known to the context in which the employees work. The choice of the approach used by the counsellor usually matters less than the quality of the counsellor-client relationship, with trust and openness helping to maximise success.

As workplace counselling is short term, practitioners are commonly “integrative”, meaning they have trained in a core therapeutic approach and built other disciplines into this. Counsellors may be person-centred or have skills in cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), transitional analysis, gestalt therapy, solution-focused therapy, or one of several other disciplines.

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## 12.3 EMPLOYEE HEALTH, SAFETY AND SECURITY

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Since, employees spend a significant part of their lives in their work place, it is an employer's duty to protect their health, safety and welfare. Employers must be considered towards both physical and mental well-being of its employees. This means making sure that workers and others are protected from anything that may cause harm, effectively controlling any risks to injury or health that could arise in the workplace. Employers have duties under health and safety law to assess risks in the workplace. Addressing all risks that might cause harm in the workplace and an effective risk assessment is imperative.

It is the duty of the employer to give you authentic and complete information about the risks in the workplace and how you are protected. The employer must also instruct and train you on how to deal with the risks.

Employers must consult employees on health and safety issues. Consultation must be either direct or through a safety representative that is either elected by the workforce or appointed by a trade union.

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### 12.4 INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS: ACCIDENT PRONENESS AND PREVENTION

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Amidst 1970 and 1990, approximately 180 severe industrial accidents did take place worldwide, which led to the release of different types of chemical compounds in the environment.

These so called accidents were caused mainly by fire, the explosions and the collisions during transport and killed nearly 8,000 people, injuring more than 20,000 and leading to hundreds of the evacuations involving a massive number of people.

The severe industrial accidents are now becoming very common. During the period 1974–78, five major accidents took place (accidents that resulted in at least hundreds of deaths, 400 people rendered injured and thirty five thousand people being evacuated). During 1984 – 88, there occurred sixteen major accidents.

As long as the strict safeguards and safety standards do not get implemented, secondly, as long as the industrial installations are made near the densely populated centers, the serious consequences as a result of some major accidents probably do get increase, especially in the developing countries.

A massive explosion that took place at the site of liquefied petroleum gas storage facility in San Juanico, the neighbourhood of the Mexico City in November 1984, it killed 450 people, injured 4,258 and displaced about 31000 people. This blast illustrated the wobbly nature of that city where the seventeen million people live cheek in jaw with a huge variety of the potentially dangerous installations. The Bhopal gas tragedy is the other example, majority of the Bhopal gas victims used to live in the squatter settlements in the vicinity of the plant where this accident occurred.

In an attempt to make the communities aware about the industrial hazards and to help and support them develop an emergency response plan, in 1988 United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) launched the *Awareness and the Preparedness for Emergencies at the Local Level* (APELL) programme. The programme helps the countries by way of dissemination of the information, training, and the assistance in case of emergency. The ILO (international labor organization) has issued the code of practice for providing guidance in setting up

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the administrative, the legal and the technical system for controlling the major hazardous installations. The Basal accident has proved that that industrial accidents might have harmful the transboundary impact. This has provoked the Economic Commission of Europe to start working on the formulation of regional convention on transboundary impact of industrial accident.

Many administrative as well as the technical steps too have been taken. The example is the European Economic Community's directives on major hazards of certain kind of industrial activities (the 'Seveso' directive). This directive obliges the manufacturers within the Community for identifying the potential risky areas in the process of manufacture and also to take all the necessary measures for preventing the major accidents and also to limit their consequences—should they occur—for the man and environment.

The three chemical accidents that made headline news (1970 – 1990)

### 1. Seveso

**On the 10th of July 1976**, an explosion took place at ICMESA chemical factory in north Italian town of the Seveso releasing a cloud of the chemicals in the atmosphere which contaminated all the surrounding area.

These chemicals had two kgs of dioxin, which is a potentially toxic compound. The reason for the accident is said to be some 'runaway reaction' inside the reactor that produced the sodium trichlorophenate, which is the main product.

Though there were no casualties, still 200 people did suffer minor injuries. Most of the victims were the domestic animals. The contamination of land affected about thirty seven thousand people.

The restrictions were then imposed on the area of eighteen hundred hectares for a period of six years. The area which was worst affected covered one hundred and ten hectares.

The estimated direct cost of an accident was approximately US\$ 250 million.

### 2. The Bhopal Gas Tragedy

**On the 2nd – 3rd of December, 1984**, a sudden release of nearly thirty tons of methyl isocyanate (MIC) happened at the Union Carbide pesticide plant in Bhopal, India. It was a result of some poor safety management practice, poor early warning system and lack of community preparedness.

This incident led to the death of more than two thousand and eight hundred people who lived in and around the vicinity and it caused respiratory and eye damage to say over twenty thousand people. At least two hundred thousand people had fled Bhopal within a week of the accident.

The estimates of the damage done vary extensively between US\$350 million to as high as US\$3 billion.

### 3. Basel

**On 1 November 1986**, fire broke out at a storehouse named Sandoz situated near Basel, in Switzerland. The storehouse had about one thousand three hundred tons of no less than 90 different types of chemicals.

Most of these chemicals had been destroyed in that fire, but still huge quantities were also introduced in the atmosphere, in the Rhine River through the runoff of fire-fighting water (about 10 000 to 15 000 cubic meters'), and also into the soil there and the groundwater at that site. The accurate mass of the chemicals that entered the Rhine river had been estimated to be somewhere between the thirteen and the thirty tons.

As a consequence, after the accident, biota in the Rhine river was badly damaged for about several hundred kilometres. The most strongly and badly affected were benthic organisms and eels. They were totally eradicated for nearly a distance of approximately four hundred kms (an estimated two hundred and twenty tons of the eels were killed). There were many compounds detected in the sediments of river Rhine after this accident.

#### **Classification of Industrial Accidents**

Let us see how industrial accidents can be classified:

#### **According to the type of the accident**

This kind of classification identifies the kind of event which resulted directly in the injury. It means the manner or mode in which an object or a substance that causes injury comes in contact with an injured person.

1. The fall of a person
2. The fall of person from the heights (say trees, buildings, scaffolds, ladders, machines or vehicles) and in the depths (like in wells, ditches, excavations, holes in the ground)
3. The fall of person on the same level
4. Getting struck by the falling objects
5. The slides and the cave-ins (the earth, rocks, stones and the snow)
6. The collapse of the buildings, the walls, scaffolds, ladders and the piles of goods
7. Getting struck by falling objects while handling
8. Getting struck by the falling objects, not elsewhere classified
9. The stepping on, striking against or getting struck by the objects excluding the falling objects
10. Stepping up on the objects
11. Striking against the stationary objects (except the impact due to previous fall)

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12. Striking against the objects in motion
13. Getting struck by the moving objects (this may include the flying fragments and the particles) excluding the falling objects
14. Being caught in or between the objects
15. Getting caught in an object
16. Getting caught between a stationary object and the moving one
17. Getting caught between the moving objects (except flying or the falling objects)
18. During overexertion or the strenuous movements
19. The overexertion while lifting objects
20. Overexertion while pushing or pulling the objects
21. Overexertion while handling or throwing the objects
22. The strenuous movements
23. The exposure to or getting in contact with extreme temperatures
24. The exposure to heat (atmospheric or environmental)
25. The exposure to extreme cold (atmospheric or environmental)
26. Coming in contact with the hot substances or objects
27. Coming in contact with highly cold substances or the objects
28. The exposure to or establishing contact with an electric current
29. The exposure to or a contact with the harmful substances or harmful radiations
30. The contact by inhalation, ingestion or the absorption of the harmful substances
31. The exposure to the ionizing radiations
32. The exposure to the radiations other than the ionizing ones
33. The other types of accidents, not classified elsewhere, including the accidents not classified due to lack of sufficient data available
34. The other types of accidents, not elsewhere classified
35. The accidents not classified due to lack of the sufficient data

**Causes of Industrial Accidents**

Industrial accidents are caused by several factors as are the kinds of industrial accidents. The broader category of these accidents covers anything from the small cuts and bruises to the massive disaster which affects a large part of the population of people. Nearly one hundred and twenty million industrial accidents occur at the work place all over the world every year. Approximately two hundred and ten thousand of such accidents prove to be fatal. The industries with a very high rate of accidents are the mining industries, the construction, the transportation and the

agricultural industries. The accidents related to the construction account for say fifteen percent of all the accidents and thirty per cent of the entire fatalities in an industrial work environment.

The causes of the industrial accidents can be classified into two broad categories: unsafe conditions and unsafe acts. The so called causes of the industrial accidents that relate to the hazardous conditions include the inadequate workspace lighting, excessive noise, slippery or the unsafe flooring, extreme temperature exposure, the inadequate protection while working with the machinery or some hazardous material, the unstable structures, the electrical problems, the machine malfunction or its failure, etc. The causes for the industrial accidents involving unsafe acts include the actions or the failures to act in such a way that would result in injury. This could be the outcome of an employee negligence but the employers, the organizations and the product manufacturers are also liable for these causes of the industrial accidents.

Such causes of the industrial accidents can take place in the industrial environment in and around the workplace. The external causes of the industrial accidents include fires, chemical spills, toxic gas emission or radiation. The causes of industrial accidents in these cases might include organizational errors, human factors, abnormal operational conditions, natural forces, software or component failures, and outside interference. Internal causes of industrial accidents can involve equipment or other work related tangibles, harmful materials, toxic chemicals, and human error.

There are several ways by which a worker can be injured in the work environment. Injuries that result from the causes of industrial accidents can include any one or combination of the following occurrences: falls, being struck by objects in motion, slides and cave ins, structure collapse, being trapped in or by an object, overexertion or strenuous physical actions, exposure to temperature extremes, electrical accidents, radiation exposure, and the inhalation, ingestion, or absorption of harmful substances. These industrial accidents can result in a number of injuries including superficial injury, fractures, sprains and strains, amputation, concussion, internal injury, poisoning, infection and death.

The causes of industrial accidents are numerous. There are several cases where employee negligence is a factor in industrial accidents. There are cases where an employer can be held liable for worker injuries if they had knowledge of unsafe conditions and failed to act in order to prevent injury. Injured workers may also be able to seek compensation for their injuries from the makers of faulty or dangerous industrial products. Victims of industrial accidents greatly benefit from consulting a personal injury lawyer who can advise them of their rights and options in a case.

## NOTES

## Human Carelessness

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One important cause of industrial accidents is human carelessness. Human carelessness can occur in the sharp end, example, the act of an operator and at the blunt end, example, insufficient operational procedures. One goal of human factors should be to reduce the number of human carelessness at both the sharp and blunt ends. The systematic consideration of human carelessness in systems designs can lead to improved safety, and indeed improved productivity in many cases. Human error is, however, complex, and can benefit from a systems perspective. Dekker outlines the separation between the ‘old view’ and the ‘new view’ on human carelessness [Dekker 2002]. The old view considers human carelessness as the cause of most accidents, and that systems are safe, but must be protected against unreliable humans. The new view considers human carelessness as a symptom of deeper system trouble and that humans must create safety by operating systems with different goals. Thus, the view on human carelessness depends on their definition. According to [Cox and Tait 1998], a systems definition of error offered by L. V. Rigby in 1970 has usefully placed this definition into a working context and termed human error as ‘any one set of human actions that exceed some limit of acceptability’. Human error is more than operator actions, and a broader system view on human error will be discussed in this part.

One has to determine the variability of human behaviour and the acceptance limits for variation which hold for the work situation to characterize human “errors” [Leplat and Rasmussen 1984]. There is no universally agreed definition of error, but it involves some kind of deviation [Reason 2008]. Error as a generic term is ‘...all those occasions in which a planned sequence of mental or physical activities fails to achieve its intended outcome, and when these failures cannot be attributed to the intervention of some change agency’ [Reason 1990]. “Human error is usually defined as any deviation from the performance of a specified or prescribed sequence of actions’ [Leveson 2004]. As Leveson and Rasmussen points out, the core of human error is that an action does not produce the intended result. This corresponds to a more generic definition of human error/mistake provided in IEC 61508: “human action or inaction that can produce an unintended result” [IEC 61508-4 2002]. The IEC 61508 definition makes an important point in specifying the inclusion of inaction. (Both Rasmussen and Leveson have obviously included that aspect as well in their work). An Australian standard for reporting rail occurrences, ON-S1) defines *human failure* as “any breach of an operational safe working procedure due to human factor(s)” [ATSB 2004]. This definition excludes system failure, i.e. failures due to a mechanical or electronic device or component, or deficiency in an approved safe working procedure. Understanding human error requires a broad and systematic view, which includes organizational and technical factors and the interaction between the factors, e.g. like the MTO approach. There are also challenges related to the human error data sources in terms of data validation, compatibility, integration and

harmonization [Grabowski, You et al. 2009]. There have been a number of studies focusing on human error.

Human error is interesting from intention, action, outcome and context [Reason 2008]. Human error can be divided into the basic error types; slips, lapses, and mistakes [Reason 1990]. In addition, violations are regarded as human errors. Slips and lapses are classified as unintended actions, while mistakes and violations are classified as intended actions. The former is related to attention and memory, while the latter is related to rule-based mistakes, knowledge-based mistakes, and different forms of violations. This error classification is closely related to Rasmussen's levels of human decision; skill-based, rule-based, and knowledge-based [Rasmussen and Lind 1982].

In order to avoid adverse effects arising from human errors it is necessary to understand why and how they occur. A first essential step toward ameliorating potential adverse effects of human error within any organization is to understand it [Glendon, Clarke et al. 2006]. A list of factors contributing to human errors, including inadequate information, lack of understanding, inadequate design, lapses of attention, mistaken actions, misinterpretations, mistaken priorities, and wilfulness, is provided in [Stranks 2006]. To identify what types of errors occur and where they happen, it is necessary to undertake the following steps in risk management [Glendon, Clarke et al. 2006]:

1. Identify errors
2. Assess any risks that they might pose
3. If necessary, take steps to control the behaviour that gives rise to errors
4. Monitor any control measures taken

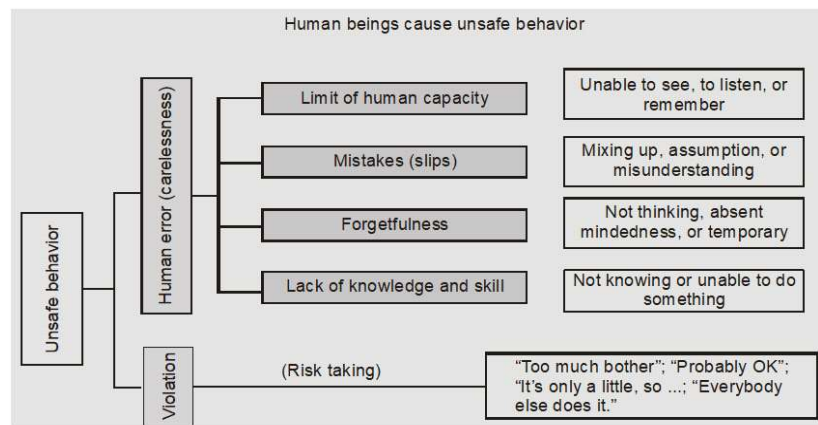
The most common cause of accidents or industrial accidents is often attributed to human error such as operational error, judgmental error, and job-related error, all of which are caused by human characteristics. Most of these errors are said to be associated with psychological factors affecting human behavior. The mechanism of the occurrence of industrial accidents shows that unsafe situations, i.e., machinery failure or deficiency of work method, account for 80% of the total accidents. Work is always accompanied by issues related to human error, and unsafe behavior accounts for about 90% of all accidents, including those caused by inexperienced and unskilled workers.

Human behavioral characteristics, such as mistakes and carelessness, are called 'human characteristics', and errors caused by human characteristics are called 'human errors'.

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**Figure 12.1** Human Errors

Economic costs were enough to generate corps of experts and social leaders who believed that humans could prevent accidents, and they launched the safety movement. They were joined by many well-meaning people who were appalled by the personal as well as economic costs of the mismatch between humans and machines. But for the most part, the problem of injuries and damage remained little recognized.

Then psychologists noticed that a large percentage of industrial accidents were coming from just a few employees, and the search for accident prone people who could be moved or protected or fired was launched. These psychologists and a number of alert supervisors found that they could use individuals' accident records to identify accident repeaters and so lower accident rates. Eventually, statisticians cast doubt on the idea of accident proneness as an enduring personal trait. Meanwhile all of society was affected by an insurance model of thinking. In that model, only groups, not individuals, became the objects of concern. At the most, accident prone people became part of a "risk group."

### Heinrich's Method of Injury Prevention

Heinrich (1959) is credited with documenting the first scientific method of injury prevention and the effects of accidental injury causation. It is reported that his studies involved 75,000 insurance accident report cases of the 1930 era. His study produced figures to indicate that 88 per cent of the investigated accidents were caused by unsafe acts, 10 per cent due to unsafe conditions and 2 per cent as unpreventable. Heinrich suggests that in the majority of cases the worker's individual characteristics and behaviour were the root cause to most accidents. An individual's personal traits or mindsets being either inherited or acquired will predispose him to an increased risk taking i.e., recklessness, stubbornness, avariciousness, etc., and predispose a concept of subjective judgment.

Heinrich demonstrated his theory as being similar to five dominoes placed end-on-end. Knocking over one domino leads to the toppling of each domino in turn.

The dominos are as follows:

- Ancestry
- Social environment
- Fault of person /unsafe act or condition
- Accident
- Injury

Heinrich hypothesized that factors in an injury-accident could be altered by removing one thus breaking the knock-down sequence. Essentially to prevent 'loss', remove the unsafe act or the unsafe condition. Taylor (2001)

Relative to the task, judgement by management must be made to a persons' skill level to undertake the task, the provision and understanding of the rules and procedures in order to perform the task, and the supply of general information to the functions surrounding task/s. Attention should altogether focus on human errors as Heinrich apportioned a 10 per cent factor to unsafe place/conditions whereas 88 per cent is unsafe acts.

Modifying or removing the unsafe person's attitude, management can change the characteristics and encourage such workers to be safe. Safety behaviour modification programs (as opposed to attitude programs) would be directly led by personnel concerned with worker safety, commencing with immediate supervisors with demonstrated support from senior line managers through initiatives such as policy implementation.

Thereby Heinrich theorized that accident/injury cause can be reduced by modifying human error, given the basis that some worker traits are careless or carefree. The critical summation is that the actors have the ability to choose between safe and unsafe acts or behaviour and management has the ability to identify the types of human characteristics and developed work systems and procedures to accommodate them all.

### **Accident Proneness**

The term accident proneness was coined by psychological research workers in 1926. Since then its concept—that certain individuals are always more likely than others to sustain accidents, even though exposed to equal risk—has been questioned but seldom seriously challenged.

This article describes much of the work and theory on which this concept is based, details the difficulties encountered in obtaining valid information and the interpretative errors that can arise from the examination of imperfect data, and explains why accident proneness became so readily accepted as an explanation of the facts.

A recent hypothesis of accident causation, namely that a person's accident liability may vary from time to time, is outlined, and the respective abilities of this

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and of accident proneness to accord with data from the more reliable literature are examined.

Accident proneness theory maintains that some workers are more liable to be involved in accidents. This theory is not generally accepted and researchers have not been able to prove the existence of 'accident proneness'. However, there are reasons for high risks of workplace accidents and why some occupational groupings are more likely to be involved in accidents.

People who work night shifts are more prone to accidents because their reactions and concentration decline at night. Even employees who have been working less than 2 years at their place of work are more liable to have accidents than employees with more experience. Understanding the causes of accidents and establishing a safety management system (risk assessment) could help to prevent accidents at work.

The following may be the two of better known definitions of the accident proneness, the first is an original formal statement of concept, whereas, the second one is a more recent formulation. 'An accident proneness can be said as personal idiosyncrasy of a relative permanence predisposing an individual to higher rate of accidents' (Farmer & Chambers, 1926, p. 3).

'The accident proneness means that even on exposure to similar conditions certain people are likely to experience more accidents than the others, or that the people differ fundamentally with respect to their innate propensity for the accidents' (Shaw & Sichel, 1971, p. 14).

### **Critical requirement of the concept of accident proneness**

It is difficult to specify, for, as Cameron (1975) has emphasized, there are several strikingly different versions of this theory. What most of these versions have in common is as follows:

- The accident proneness is a personality trait or a syndrome. Most of the proponents regard it as unitary trait.
- The accident proneness is very innate or is inherent.
- The accident proneness is stable across the time.
- Accident proneness trait 'causes' the workers to be involved in the accidents.
- The workers with an accident proneness trait are involved in the repeated accidents.

Hundreds of studies have been conducted and published till date on accident proneness. On evaluating the research, it is quite clear that key criteria is not supported. The first one, the determinants of the accidents, have been multiple, with only a specific part attributable to the personality. Second one, the number of the personality traits, some being unrelated to each other, are associated with the accidents. The third one, people very rarely, if ever, consistently have the repeated accidents throughout the span of their lives (Haddon, Suchman, & Klein, 1964; Hale & Hale, 1972).

Certain personality traits have been strongly related to an occurrence of the accidents. Rather than searching the underlying accident proneness trait, the focus normally shifted to a description of how the accident-prone individuals are any different from the ones without the proneness.

### **The introversion – extroversion and the accidents**

A bipolar personality dimension of the introversion – extroversion (hereafter, I-E) as proposed by Eysenck (1947) had been investigated in connection with the accidents much more than any other personality dimension. Introversion – extroversion is in continuum with the introversion and is defined as ‘the person’s preference for attending to his inner world of an experience, with emphasis on the reflective, and introspective thinking’. Extroversion, on the other hand, refers to the ‘preference for attending to outer world of the objective events with the emphasis on an active involvement in an environment’. An introvert may be described as a person who is silent, intellectual, organized and also emotionally controlled. On the contrary, an extrovert is a person who is sociable, lively, novelty-seeking, carefree and emotionally expressive.

Eysenck (1962, 1965, 1970) and Keehn (1961) have proposed that the higher accident rate is associated more with an extrovert than with an introvert. This could be expected because of the extrovert’s ‘lower level of vigilance’ (Eysenck, 1962). In other words, though an extrovert is actively involved with an environment. On the contrary, an introvert places much greater value on being in complete control of his interactions with the world. Therefore, an introvert tends to be much more ‘vigilant’ or careful while doing things.

### **Aggression and accidents**

An aggression may be defined as a broad characteristic and thus ranges from hostility of social argument to assault and battery. A common factor underlying this particular range of behaviour is most likely a tendency to give vent to anger and some frustration to a particular degree. Most studies have shown that the aggression appears to be a part of the constellation of the traits which are consistently related with the accidents and the injuries (Shaw & Sichel, 1971). In the attitude study on the accident-incurring drivers, Goldstein and Mosel (1956) had discovered that one of their distinguishing characteristics was an aggressive attitude toward the others.

Many studies have proved that higher level of a general aggression as measured by the interviews and the personality tests have correlated highly with an occurrence of the traffic accidents.

### **General social maladjustment and accidents**

The social maladjustment is a general category of the behaviours and also the personality characteristics which have generally been found in combination with the other, which have been constantly associated with the higher accident rates.

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They include the following—the sociopathic attitudes and the past behaviour, delinquency and law breaking, marital/familial strife, disregard for other people, immaturity emphasis upon exaggerated masculinity (for males), hostility and anger, irresponsibility, superficial social relationships, self-centeredness, problem drinking and authority problems.

In the related study of industrial workers, Wong and Hobbs (1949) have concluded that a similar list of the factors differentiated the brewery workers with a poor accident record from the ones with no accidents.

In the light of the characterological nature of social maladjustment, the authors have concluded that the 'accident tendency was a lifelong characteristic, and also it appears to invade all the aspects of life'.

The two best studies in this field were conducted on the automobile drivers by McGuire (1956b, 1972). The two groups containing the sixty-seven drivers were matched carefully on the basis of age, driving experience, number of miles driven, educational background and marital status. There was one group which was composed of the drivers with at least one accident during the past three months, whereas the drivers in another group were without any traffic accidents at any given time. The many personality tests which have been given described the persons met with the accidents as being less mature, experiencing a negative attitude towards the laws and authority, and usually having poor social adjustment. In the follow up study, McGuire (1972) replicated the so mentioned findings. In addition to this, he found the people who had met with the accidents to be much more traditionally 'masculine', frequently express their hostile feelings, having chaotic family relationship and prefer non personal contact with others.

### **Neurosis and the accidents**

Eysenck's proposal that extroversion is associated with the accidents was accompanied by a hypothesis that the neuroticism is correlated with the accident occurrences (Eysenck, 1970). The others have echoed the same belief in this regard (McFarland, 1957; Tillman & Hobbs, 1949). A neurosis is distinctive from the social maladjustment by virtue of a subjective emotional distress experienced by an individual with a neurotic condition. This kind of distress is normally accompanied by the lower self-esteem and lower confidence. In contrast to the neurotic characteristics, these social maladjustment traits are normally much more troubling to the other people than to an afflicted individual.

A connection between the accidents and the neurosis is fairly evident if an intervening variable of "an attention to the task" is inserted.

Contrary to the psychoanalytic thinking where the accidents are unconsciously willed as the self-punishment by a neurotic person, then it is likely that the neurotic condition causes the person's attention to be diverted from a task being carried out to a person's unpleasant physical or the psychic symptoms. For instance, an anxious person strives hard to control his internal anxiety and his panic, giving

lesser attention to details of a safe performance. A depressed person may be preoccupied with his own internal world of the ruminations and not with exigencies of an external world.

The research investigating the neurotic aspects of a behaviour and its effect in relation to the accidents has either focused on specific neurotic symptoms like the anxiety, depression, or the psychosomatic tendency, or has assessed an overall degree of neurosis in a person. Many studies have related general neurosis variable to the accidents. On the whole, the research is contradictory and also confusing. Many studies have found that the drivers with the accidents were found to be more neurotic than the drivers without accidents.

On the whole, the current state of the research suggests that the impulsivity is a human trait constantly associated with the accidents.

### **Risk taking and accidents**

It is common belief that several people who meet with accidents do so as they take much greater risk than the people who do not meet with accidents very often.

Though, validity of this particular conclusion is difficult to test. One such study that made an attempt to test the belief was done by thew Evans and Wasielewski (1982). They observed 2,576 (two thousand five hundred and seventy six) drivers' rush-hour driving behaviour and further rated each and every driver to a degree of the risk exhibited (for example-the tailgating, speeding, the dangerous lane changes or the passes). Using the license plate numbers, the record of accidents involvement and the moving violations were obtained for every driver. The authors had discovered that those drivers exhibiting a risky behaviour also had considerably greater number of the accidents and the tickets than the "safe" drivers.

### **Conclusions from the personality-the accident research**

The earlier sections have made a review of the research investigating a relationship between the personality related variables and the accident occurrences.

The conclusions appearing to be quite well established are such as -

1. There is sufficient evidence that the locus of control is associated with the accidents, specifically that the external orientation is related with a higher accident rate.
2. An extroversion has strongly been associated with the high accident rates.
3. An aggression had been repeatedly and in strongly related with the accidents.
4. There is an overwhelming evidence that the social maladjustment is not related to the accidents only, however, it is probably a basic factor in causing the accidents.

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5. There seems to be some relationship between the general neurosis and the accidents.
6. The specific neurotic conditions like the anxiety and depression have said to be associated with the accidents in the fewer studies done on such topics.
7. There is constant and a moderately stronger evidence to link the impulsivity with the accident occurrences.
8. The research seems to be too sparse to make any conclusions about the risk taking and accidents.

### **Physical Factors**

There are dangers in every workplace, especially those devoted to technology, machinery, and potentially hazardous material. Employers and their management teams must understand the regulations that provide for facility safety. The successful implementation of these legal standards is required for the profitable and legitimate management of any business. The physical hazards of a workplace address the environmental and the occupational danger on factory floor and in an office as well. Such dangers have been related to the machines, respiratory system, the circulatory system, the confined spaces, the chemicals, the personnel, the cumulative trauma, environmental issues, the electricity, noise, fire and the explosion, and also the risk of falling.

**Physical hazards** are one of the most common and are present in most of the workplaces at some time or the other. These include the unsafe conditions that may lead to an injury, illness and even the death.

These are normally the easiest to spot but, unfortunately, very often overlooked due to the familiarity (there are always the cords which keep running across the aisles), the lack of knowledge (they aren't viewed as hazards), a resistance to spending time or the money to make the necessary improvement or simply the delay in introducing changes to remove hazards (waiting for tomorrow or the time when "we're not so busy").

Not a single out of this is an acceptable reason for the workers to get exposed to such physical hazards.

The examples of the physical hazards include the following:

- The electrical hazards: like the frayed cords, the missing ground pins, an improper wiring
- The unguarded machinery and the moving machinery parts: the guards removed or the moving parts which the worker can touch accidentally.
- A constant louder noise
- The higher exposure to the sunlight/the ultraviolet rays, heat or the cold
- Working from the heights, including the ladders, the scaffolds, the roofs, or for that matter any raised working area

- Working with the mobile equipment like the fork lifts (operation of the fork lifts and the similar mobile equipment at a workplace needs significant additional training and an experience)
- The spills on floors or the tripping hazards, like the blocked aisle or the cords running across a floor.

### **Physical hazards**

1. Recognition
2. Evaluation and the control

#### **I. Recognition of physical hazards**

There is much more to the laboratory safety than protecting oneself from the chemical hazards. The physical hazards are one of the most common hazards in the labs and in any of the work place. The physical hazards are often associated with the release of a stored energy, that is, the energy stored in some pressure or a vacuum vessel, the electrical energy or energy in any moving mechanical part.

These physical hazards include but they are not limited to the following:

- Compressed gases
- Electrical
- Vacuum operations
- Machinery equipment
- Glassware
- Distillations/extractions
- Centrifuges
- Oil and sand baths

#### **2. Evaluation of physical hazards: Examples**

##### **A. The Compressed gases**

Following safety precautions must be taken for all the types of cylinder usage.

- Make sure that the contents are marked on a cylinder; one should never use the cylinder paint color as an indicator.
- The storage areas should be well ventilated.
- The main cylinder valves should be kept closed when not in use.
- A valve-protection cap must always be kept until the cylinder is ready to use.
- The cylinders should always be transported by using suitable hand truck with tie-down chain; NEVER roll, pull the cylinders, or even drag the cylinders.

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- One should always double chain the compressed gas cylinders separately to a wall so as to prevent the fall.
- Wear an appropriate personal protective equipment (PPE), like the safety goggles, face shield, the gloves and the steel-toed safety shoes, as important.
- The “EMPTY” or “MT” cylinders should be carefully marked and should be kept separately from the full ones.
- Always use the pressure-reducing regulators.
- Install the shut-off valves and the check valves. Assure that the flashback arrestor is used for all the flammable gases.
- The grease or oil on oxygen regulators should not be allowed.
- Storing the flammables and the oxidizers separately by at least twenty feet or separated by wall.
- Always wear the safety glasses while handling tubing on the compressed gases.

**The gas cabinets:** The gas cabinets offer an added protection from the toxic, flammable and the corrosive gases by enclosing these cylinder(s) in a cabinet, that is equipped with the exhaust system located on the top of a cabinet.

1. Must have the perforated plate floor air inlet to make sure that there is a complete air distribution throughout a cabinet.
2. Must have smooth top-to-stack transition on the top of a cabinet exhaust area to prevent the possible air channelling.
  - (i) Cryogenic liquids and the solids
    - Avoid the skin contact, and the clothing like the knitted mitts which can trap the spilled liquid. Use only the well-insulated gloves especially designed for handling of the super cold materials.
    - One must stay alert for condensation and the displacement of oxygen from the air.
    - Should use in some well-ventilated area.
    - Use of an eye protection.
    - One should not use the standard “thermos” bottles. Use the high quality “doers” wrapped in a cloth backed tape, like the duct tape, for containing the flying pieces in case of an explosion.
  - (ii) Highly toxic gases (that is the fluorine, Ethylene Oxide (ETO), and the arsine)
    - Should always be handled in some well-ventilated area like, inside the chemical fume hood or a gas cabinet.
    - If a leak is detected, the cylinder should be left inside a fume hood, the sash should be closed, the area should be evacuated immediately, and reported to the EH&S office.

- No attempt should be made to move the any leaking cylinder.
- (iii) Corrosive gases
- Should be stored for the very short possible period before it's use, preferably not more than six months.
  - The storage area must be as dry as possible.
  - Should not be stored near the instruments or the devices that are sensitive to corrosion.
- (iv) Acetylene
- The acetylene forms an explosive compound with the copper, silver, and the mercury.
  - Avoid the contact with the metals or their salts.
  - Should never exceed pressure limit indicated by a warning red line of the acetylene pressure gauge.
  - Must ensure that the outlet line of a cylinder is well protected with flash arrestor.
  - Should never use a cylinder that had been stored in a non-upright position until and unless it remains in the upright position for a minimum of thirty minutes.

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### B. Vacuum operations

The operation involving the evacuated system where exists higher pressure on an outside rather than inside. such operations should be regarded as having the implosion hazard, which leads to the flying glass, spattered chemicals and the possible fire.

- Always wear an eye and a face protection (which is the face shields and the safety goggles).
- Check all the glass vessels and equipment for the visible defects and make sure that those are specifically designed for these operations.
- Using the glassware specifically designed with the heavy walls.
  - (i) The vacuum desiccators should be used.
    - Must be enclosed in shield or wrapped in a friction tape (i.e. vinyl electrical tape).
    - If and whenever possible, make use of the plastic desiccators (i.e. polycarbonate).
  - (ii) The vacuum pumps should be used.
    - Making use of some cold trap in order to protect pump oil from being contaminated with the volatile substances.
    - An output of each and every pump must be vented to the exhaust hood.

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**C. Electrical safety**

The shock injuries are mainly caused due to the flow of an electric current (amperage), and not because of the voltage (that means 60/100 of an ampere, sufficient to light up an ordinary Christmas tree light, can kill if passes through chest).

Electrical hazards exist in almost every workplace. It is not only high voltage that causes electrocution – the smallest mistake can be fatal.

People can be electrocuted by coming into contact with overhead wires, carrying out maintenance work on live electrical circuits, working with damaged electrical equipment, extension cords, plugs or sockets.

Familiar appliances like toasters and microwave ovens also cause a significant number of electrical burns.

A work safe study found that, with the exception of deaths caused by overhead power-lines, many electrocutions could have been prevented with the use of residual current devices (RCD).

Safety regulations require employers to fit RCDs to minimize the risk of electric shock. All electrical installations must meet Australian Standards.

Most of the people are well aware of the electrical hazards generally. It is quite worth pointing that out, though, the laboratory environment amplifies these hazards to some extent: voltage in some of the laboratory apparatus is frequently higher than the one normally encountered (though the familiar one hundred and fifteen volts may be lethal with good ground and the wet hands).

The metal desk tops, the fume hoods and the fixtures provide the body grounds; the water lines and the spills may furnish the conduction paths. So always disconnect an apparatus from an electric supply before the tinkering; the use insulating gloves and the insulated tools wherever appropriate. In some of the electrical equipment, make sure to discharge all capacitors before starting work on an apparatus. The purpose of interlocks, fuses, or the circuit breakers designed for protecting the supply lines, the equipment, and the people should not get defeated. “One hand in a pocket” is quite good an insurance when an electric shock is any probability, and must be stuck to rigidly while throwing the open-type switches, removing the leads from the terminal boards, pulling the plug leads from the distribution board, operating the line-power rheostats, etc.

Always make sure that the hands are well dried. The **Ground** exposed parts of all the electrical apparatus wherever it is possible. Beware of the single-pole the double-throw switches that can leave part of the apparatus at an AC potential with respect to the ground when it is switched off. According to present electrical codes, only the three prong plugs where a third prong is used for the grounding are legal. Make sure that the power cords, the insulators, and the ground connections are in proper condition, and the fuses used have an appropriate rating. Avoid the temporary wiring. Be extremely careful with the electrical apparatus

which might be wet, especially **heating mantles** and the devices with an exposed conductors.

Following precautions should be taken to avoid accidents:

- Grounding should be provided for all electrical equipment, machinery, portable tools, extension cords and other electrical systems; it provides a safe path for electricity to the ground so that the leakage of current in circuits or equipment is prevented.
- At least a three-foot clearance should be maintained around electrical switches.
- All electrical equipment should necessarily have Underwriters Laboratory (UL) approval.
- All equipment should be periodically inspected for defects or damage.
- All equipment should be maintained in proper operating condition; it is to be ensured that necessary repairs are carried out.
- It should be ensured that all electrical equipment have been de-energized before inspecting or making repairs.
- Circuits and wiring should not be overloaded.
- It should be ensured that there are no worn, frayed, abraded, corroded or otherwise damaged cords.
- Cords should not be yanked to disconnect them; all cords should be kept away from heat, oil and sharp edges.
- It should be ensured that live parts of electrical equipment operating at 50 volts or more have protection against accidental contact.
- Ground-fault circuit interrupters (GFCIs), designed to shut off electrical power within as little as 1/40 of a second, should be used in high-risk areas, such as wet locations.

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### D. Machinery equipment

Machinery equipment include rotating equipment or apparatus that can trap clothing, hair, or body parts; vacuum pumps, centrifuges, mechanical stirrers and rotary evaporators; and hazardous grinding, drilling and cutting equipment in shops.

The following measures should be taken for the protection and maintenance of machinery equipment:

- You should not use equipment unless you know how to use it properly.
- You should not remove guards or safety interlocks devices.
- You should use the appropriate personal protective devices, such as glasses, gloves, goggles or face shield.
- While reviewing machinery and equipment for possible mechanical hazards, you need to consider the following:

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- o People can have access to machinery and equipment with moving parts.
- o Machinery and equipment that can eject objects, such as parts, components, products or waste items, and can hit a person with sufficient force can be dangerous.
- o Machinery and equipment with moving parts that can reach people such as booms or mechanical appendages (arms) need to be handled carefully.
- o Mobile machinery and equipment, such as forklifts, pallet jacks, earth moving equipment, being operated in areas where people may gain access, need special care.

Harmful emissions, contained fluids or gas under pressure, chemicals and chemical by-products, electricity and noise, etc. are non-mechanical hazards associated with machinery and equipment. They can cause grave injury if not properly controlled. While you are reviewing machinery and equipment for possible non-mechanical hazards, you should keep in mind how machines and equipment can affect the area (environment) around them.

**E. Centrifuges**

Mechanical failure, i.e., broken drive shafts, faulty bearings, disintegrated rotors, etc. may create aerosols and cause hazardous fragments move at a greater velocity.

The high-speed rotor in a simple centrifuge remains under the large stress due to the centrifugal force. In a well-designed and properly operated centrifuge, the stress is well below that needed for rupturing rotor. The misuse of this particular apparatus may lead to a rotor being more vulnerable to the rupture at any given stress. Further, the stress may be significantly increased by the *vibrations arising from an imbalance*.

When a rotor ruptures, the fragments turn very hazardous. The high-speed projectiles similar to the bullets or the shrapnel, may sometimes rip through steel outer jacket, through partitions between the rooms and then through the human flesh. The high-speed centrifuge should necessarily have an adequate barrier against a possibility. A lid of a centrifuge needs to be closed when centrifuge is in the operation.

It is not just enough to provide an adequate barrier against the bursting. It is equally important to guard against the imbalance, which is one of the main causes of a rotor failure. Each of the centrifuge tube comprising a sample needs to be balanced out with some similar object. You need to be careful that the imbalance has not occurred while running due to the differential evaporation of the solvent. This usually takes place when two liquids of the different vapour pressure are diametrically opposite or when some concentrated solution is initially balanced with the same weight of a pure solvent. It is better to balance each of the samples with the other identical thing.

When a centrifuge is in operation, especially when it's approaching the operating speed, you have to be vigilant about the unusual noises or some other evidence of an excessive vibration. You should immediately turn it off if something should arise. You should not try to stop the centrifuge by any mechanical means. Also, you should refrain from putting the hands into a centrifuge unless rotor is completely stationary.

The most common causes of accidents in sugar manufacturing facilities are trips and falls due to slippery floors, stairs and elevated platforms; the incorrect use of equipment, such as packaging and transport equipment; contact with sharp edges on process equipment, such as replacing worn beet slicing knives in the slicing machines; accidents involving conveyor belts; and explosions, such as those during sugar drying and storing and from gas fuels storage and boilers.

### **Safety against centrifuge hazards**

#### (i) The general safety procedures

- Before the centrifuging, you should inspect the tubes for some crack, inspect an inside of a trunnion cup for the rough walls caused by an erosion of the adhering matter, and then carefully remove the bits of a glass from rubber cushion.
- You should use the screw caps or the cap that fits over a rim outside centrifuge tube as they are much safer than the plug-in closures.
- You should never use an aluminium foil to cap the centrifuge tubes with the infectious material since these often become detached or get ruptured during the centrifuging.
- When the centrifuging takes place in the well-ventilated glove box, you should ensure that the glove panel is in position with all the ports of the glove fully covered. You should remember that the centrifuge during operation leads to reverse air currents which may start escape of agents from the open cabinet.
- For flammable or hazardous materials, you should keep the centrifuge under negative pressure for appropriating the exhaust system.

#### (ii) Safety measures when a centrifuge is used with the bio-hazardous materials

- When a centrifuge is being used with the bio-hazardous material, it should be ensured that it is filled and opened only in the biological safety cabinet.
- When centrifuging of bio-hazardous materials is required to be performed out of a containment cabinet, you should use a sealed safety bucket or tube.
- When the safety bucket or tube is filled and sealed, you should consider it as contaminated and hence it needs to be wiped with a cloth well soaked in the disinfectant. (You need to be careful here as some

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

disinfectants are corrosive to the centrifuge rotors or buckets. They are to be rinsed with water after suitable contact time has passed.)

- While re-suspending sediment after centrifuging, you should make efforts for minimizing the amount of the aerosol generated by making use of the swirling or rotary motion rather than shaking.
- You should avoid pouring of centrifuge tubes. If it is essential, you should wipe the outer rim with a good disinfectant. Otherwise, contagious fluid will offshoot as aerosol.
- You should avoid filling of the tube up to the point the outer rim becomes wet with the culture.

(iii) Low-speed or small, portable centrifuges (the centrifuges do not have aerosol tight chambers)

- Before the bucket is removed for the centrifuging, outer bucket must be decontaminated.
- Bucket must be opened only in the biological safety cabinet.
- Small centrifuge can be positioned in the biological safety cabinet.

(iv) High- speed centrifuges (where chamber is coupled to the vacuum pump)

- The filter should be placed between the chamber and the pump.
- A log record should be kept for use by each rotor and instrument.
- In order to prevent the corrosion or any other damage, you should carry out frequent inspections, suitable cleaning and appropriate drying of rotors.
- The rubber 'O' rings and the tube closures should be inspected for corrosion and it should be coated with the lubricant as recommended by the manufacturer.

(v) Continuous flow centrifuges and zonal centrifuges

Continuous flow centrifuges allow continuous producing of the product while a centrifuge operates at a full speed, while zonal centrifuges separate the product according to its density or its buoyancy under the centrifugal force. Such centrifuges should be enclosed in a specially designed well ventilated safety cabinet.

The conditions leading to the production of the aerosols during the zonal centrifuging are as follows:

- Leaking rotor seals because of damage of the seals, inadequate assembly or over-pressurization
- Drops of the culture in then chamber or on the rotor
- Snagging of the tube or the tubing connections
- Disassembly or the decontamination

## F. Radiation hazards

Besides radioactivity, injurious radiation in the laboratory can be studied under the four main headings: X-ray, ultraviolet, laser and radio-frequency radiation.

- (i) *X-rays*: Chemists use X-rays mainly in crystallographic diffraction work. Such work should be performed only by well-trained persons, or under the immediate and responsible supervision of such persons. An X-ray generator and diffraction equipment should be shielded with 2 mm of lead so as to prevent the escape of any direct radiation into the room from either of them or the junction between them, preventing the scattering of radiation arising from the junction. Every diffraction experiment needs to be examined with a counter-type survey meter and you should ensure that the radiation level at all points around the apparatus is no more than 10 millirem/hour, and preferably less.

The allowed occupational dosage of whole-body X-radiation is 300 mrem/week (but no more than 5000/year); hands or forearms are allowed several times that output.

**Caution:** While exiting the window, the intensity of the X-ray may be up to 104 rem or 107mrem/min. Local exposures of more than 1000 rem may lead to grave skin burns; much smaller exposures can possibly result in eye cataracts. A one-time exposure of 500 rem of penetrating X-rays of the whole body is generally grave. However, the primary element of X-rays used in diffraction pierces just a few millimetres into the body.

A dangerous hazard with some X-ray units is back-conduction of a gassy rectifier circuit. Such a hazard can lead to radiation of *twice* the nominal maximum energy of the beam from the X-ray tube. It has a greater penetrating power. So, it is needed to provide adequate shielding of the transformer-rectifier unit (3 mm of lead), ensure good periodic maintenance and undertake routine monitoring of the radiation background. Walls, ceilings and floors cannot ensure dependable isolation from crystallographic X-rays. At least 13 cm-solid concrete is required for providing adequate protection. Wooden doors and plasterboard partitions are not of much significance as far as protection from X-rays is concerned.

All those entering inside the X-ray room need to have the film badges mounted at the proper positions to detect the escaping radiations. Before an X-ray unit is turned on, it should be ensured that all the X-ray ports are sufficiently covered. Before leaving the X-ray room, you have to ensure that the mechanical malfunction of a diffraction camera would not result in any radiation hazards. A pregnant woman should avoid the exposure to X-rays, especially during the initial period of her pregnancy, since the foetus is very susceptible to the injuries due to X-rays.

## NOTES



## NOTES

- (ii) *Ultraviolet radiation*: The ultraviolet radiation may lead to skin burns. It is particularly very harmful for the eye, especially the cornea and the lens of the eye. The eyeglasses offer little protection; special goggles are required. Shielding the experiments requires the utmost attention so as to prevent an escape from some direct beam or some considerable amount of the scattered radiation.
- (iii) *Laser radiation*: The laser radiation is very hazardous for the eyes (particularly retina) owing to the elevated energy content in a laser beam. Since the beam is coherent and parallel, it could be focused for providing high local intensities. The sufficient shielding is required. The eyeglasses offer a very little protection from the lasers emitted within the visible range. Such glasses that can block the light of frequency emitted by the laser are helpful. Simply because the glasses contain dark tint does not mean that they can block the light of a specific frequency.
- (iv) *Radio-frequency radiation*: The radio-frequency radiation may get absorbed deep inside the human tissues. Injuries to the eye may also be produced by flashing of tubes, extremely bright sparks and the arcs.
- (v) *Strong magnetic fields*: High-field magnets have powerful and stray magnetic field which may be potentially dangerous for the wearers of the pacemakers. Strong magnetic fields can be felt in the rooms that are immediately above or below a magnet. Besides, the users of such instruments need to keep in their mind that the magnetic strips present on the credit cards and information that is stored on the floppy disks may be totally erased by the stray fields. Such fields can adversely affect even the 'anti-magnetic' watches and the quartz watches.

### Check Your Progress

1. Who are integrative counsellors ?
2. What does the Awareness and the Preparedness for Emergencies at the Local Level (APELL) programme do?
3. What happened on the 10th of July 1976?
4. When did the Bhopal Gas Tragedy took place?

## 12.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Integrative counsellors are those that have trained in a core therapeutic approach and built other disciplines into this.
2. The programme helps the countries by way of dissemination of the information, training, and the assistance in case of emergency.

3. On the 10th of July 1976, an explosion took place at ICMESA chemical factory in north Italian town of the Seveso releasing a cloud of the chemicals in the atmosphere which contaminated all the surrounding area.
4. The Bhopal Gas Tragedy took place on the 2nd – 3rd of December 1984.

**NOTES**


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**12.6 SUMMARY**


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- It is imperative that an organization takes utmost care and steps to provide a healthy work atmosphere for its employees.
- Workplace counselling is usually short-term, and it provides employee support intervention.
- The counselling process is about giving the employees an opportunity to freely talk about the issues that trouble them. The counsellors allow the employees to help them find their own solutions to problems or develop better ways to manage issues.
- Workplace counsellors are skilled professionals and have a specialist viewpoint and skillset, as they essentially have two clients – the employee that they are counselling and the organisation.
- Workplace counsellors have a crucial understanding of the environment to which the employees will be returning and are known to the context in which the employees work.
- Since, employees spend a significant part of their lives in their work place, it is an employer's duty to protect their health, safety and welfare. Employers must be considered towards both physical and mental well-being of its employees.
- Amidst 1970 and 1990, approximately 180 severe industrial accidents did take place worldwide, which led to the release of different types of chemical compounds in the environment.
- In an attempt to make the communities aware about the industrial hazards and to help and support them develop an emergency response plan, in 1988 United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) launched the *Awareness and the Preparedness for Emergencies at the Local Level* (APELL) programme.
- The programme helps the countries by way of dissemination of the information, training, and the assistance in case of emergency.
- The ILO (international labor organization) has issued the code of practice for providing guidance in setting up the administrative, the legal and the technical system for controlling the major hazardous installations.
- On the 2nd – 3rd of December 1984, a sudden release of nearly thirty tons of methyl isocyanate (MIC) happened at the Union Carbide pesticide plant

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- in Bhopal, India. It was a result of some poor safety management practice, poor early warning system and lack of community preparedness.
- On 1 November 1986, fire broke out at a storehouse named Sandoz situated near Basel, in Switzerland. The storehouse had about one thousand three hundred tons of no less than 90 different types of chemicals.
  - Industrial accidents are caused by several factors as are the kinds of industrial accidents.
  - The broader category of these accidents covers anything from the small cuts and bruises to the massive disaster which affects a large part of the population of people.
  - The external causes of the industrial accidents include fires, chemical spills, toxic gas emission or radiation.
  - The causes of industrial accidents in these cases might include organizational errors, human factors, abnormal operational conditions, natural forces, software or component failures, and outside interference.
  - One important cause of industrial accidents is human carelessness. Human carelessness can occur in the sharp end, example, the act of an operator and at the blunt end, example, insufficient operational procedures.
  - One has to determine the variability of human behaviour and the acceptance limits for variation which hold for the work situation to characterize human “errors” [Leplat and Rasmussen 1984].
  - Human error can be divided into the basic error types; slips, lapses, and mistakes [Reason 1990]. In addition, violations are regarded as human errors. Slips and lapses are classified as unintended actions, while mistakes and violations are classified as intended actions.
  - Heinrich (1959) is credited with documenting the first scientific method of injury prevention and the effects of accidental injury causation.
  - Heinrich suggests that in the majority of cases the worker’s individual characteristics and behaviour were the root cause to most accidents.
  - The term accident proneness was coined by psychological research workers in 1926.
  - Accident proneness theory maintains that some workers are more liable to be involved in accidents. This theory is not generally accepted, and researchers have not been able to prove the existence of ‘accident proneness’.
  - Physical hazards are one of the most common and are present in most of the workplaces at some time or the other. These include the unsafe conditions that may lead to an injury, illness and even the death.
  - A work safe study found that, with the exception of deaths caused by overhead power-lines, many electrocutions could have been prevented with the use of residual current devices (RCD).

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## 12.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Hazards:** A hazard is an agent which has the potential to cause harm to a vulnerable target.
- **Neurosis:** It is a relatively mild mental illness that is not caused by organic disease, involving symptoms of stress (depression, anxiety, obsessive behaviour, hypochondria) but not a radical loss of touch with reality.
- **Ancestry:** It means one's family or ethnic descent, the origin or background of something.

## NOTES

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## 12.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. What is the meaning and process of counselling in workplace?
2. Write a short note on employee health, safety and security.
3. What does accident proneness mean?
4. Write a note on neurosis and accidents.
5. What is risk taking?
6. Discuss vacuum operations.

### Long Answer Questions

1. What are industrial accidents? How are they caused?
2. Write a detailed explanation of the three chemical accidents that made headline news between 1970 and 1990.
3. Classify and explain industrial accidents.
4. Explain Heinrich's method of injury prevention.
5. What are the potential physical hazards in a workplace?
6. What are the programmes developed by UN and other organizations to address and curb industrial accidents?

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## 12.9 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume I*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

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## UNIT 13 LIFE

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### NOTES

#### Structure

- 13.0 Introduction
- 13.1 Objectives
- 13.2 Meaning and Importance of Quality of Work Life
- 13.3 Factors Affecting Quality of Work Life
- 13.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 13.5 Summary
- 13.6 Key Words
- 13.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 13.8 Further Readings

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### 13.0 INTRODUCTION

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One of the most important concept that all adults struggle with is the work–life balance. It is the term used to describe the balance between the various aspects of life of an individual and the time allocated for work. Work-life balance does not necessarily mean an equal balance between the two. To allocate equal number of hours to work and personal life is unrealistic and often not achievable in real time. Life is more fluid, and dynamic based on current situation at hand. One’s understanding of work-life balance will vary over time, and in fact it may change on a daily basis. The right balance for you today will probably be different for you tomorrow. This balance is dictated by priorities at the hand of individual which change with time.

This unit explains the meaning and importance of quality of work-life balance and the factors affecting it.

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### 13.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss meaning and importance of quality of work-life balance
- Describe the factors affecting quality of work life

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### 13.2 MEANING AND IMPORTANCE OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

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There are many definitions of “Quality”. Dedhia Navin, S. (1998) stated that “quality is about behaving in a way that reflects on individuals and organization understanding of the fundamental inter-connectedness of structure, process and outcome”. There are many aspects of quality and they fall into categories such as consumer view

point of quality, producer view point of quality, personnel, behavioural quality, quality practices, reliability, education, training, team work, communication and other such topics are always included in 'quality' discussion. Quality is the totality of the features and characteristics of a product, service or a person that bear on its or his ability to satisfy stated or implied needs.

Walton. R.E, (1973) conducted extensive research on QWL. He can be considered as a major contributor to the concept of productivity and human resources. He devised an eight point criteria to measure the 'Quality of Working Life'. The categories are: (i) adequate and fair compensation, (ii) safe and healthy working environment, (iii) opportunity to develop human capabilities, (iv) growth and security, (v) Social integration, (vi) constitutionalism, (vii) total life space and (viii) social relevance. According Lippitt, G.L. (1978) the term QWL broadly referring to the degree to which work provides an opportunity for an individual to satisfy a wide variety of personal needs to survive with some security, to interact with others, to have a sense of personal usefulness, to be recognized for achievement and to have an opportunity to improve one's skills and knowledge.

Nadler, D. A. and Lawler, E.E. (1983) defined QWL as an individual's perception of and attitudes towards, his or her work and the total working environment. In simple words, QWL can be defined as an individual's evaluative reactions to satisfaction with his/her work and the total working environment. Beukema, L. Groningen et al. (1987) expressed that QWL is defined as the degree to which employees are able to shape their jobs actively, in accordance with their options, interests and needs. It is the degree of power an organization gives to its employees to design their work. Havlovic, S.J. Scobel, D.N et al. (1991) expressed that the QWL include job security, better reward systems, higher pay, opportunity for growth, and participative groups among others. Knox, S. and J. A. Irving (1997) stated that the QWL practices and policies of the QWL determine the organization environment, and organization development and interventions operationalise the constructs. Individual employee's perceptions concerning strengths and weaknesses in the total work environment and what is or is not desirable in the workplace are other foci for research. Gilgeous, (1998) 27 says that the Quality of life could be defined as an individual's satisfaction with his or her life dimensions comparing with his or her ideal life. Evaluation of the quality of life depends on individual's value system and on the cultural environment where he lives. Lau, Wong, Chan and Law (2001), it describes that QWL is the favorable working environment that support and promote satisfaction by providing employees with rewards, job security and career growth opportunities.

Hagerty, M. R., et al. (2001) state that the QWL implies the quality of a person's whole life, not just a separate component. Hanna Sutela (2006) opines that the Quality of work life is evaluation about four categories, namely, physical work environment, psychic and social factors in the work environment, health and stress symptoms, labour market position, and family background variables.

## NOTES

Elisaveta, S. (2006) is of opinion that the QWL has the correlative relationship between quality of work life and satisfaction with definite job attributes in regard to job contents and work environment

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### 13.3 FACTORS AFFECTING QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

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#### Quality of Work life (QWL)

QWL is most conventionally defined as those perceived important personal needs, which an individual tries to satisfy by working in an organization. Its conceptual foundations, though laid by a host of behavioural scientists, were in reality advocated by Chris Argyris (1975) in his famous work on personality and organization. The Socio-Technical Systems Theory, pioneered by Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, London during 1960s is considered as an important QWL construct. Basic conceptual criteria for QWL incorporate growth and security as important personal needs of an individual. The possibility of furthering one's career within the organization, has, therefore, been identified as one of the important criteria for QWL. Although, common QWL strategists lay emphasis more on job redesign, formation of autonomous work groups and worker participation in management, there exist wide differences among the pioneers in these areas as to what should be construed as QWL factors. The process of QWL can be explained with the help of the following criteria:

- Adequate and fair compensation
- Safe and healthy working conditions
- Immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities
- Future opportunity for continued growth and security
- Social integration in the work organization
- Work and total life space
- Social relevance of working life

From studies carried out, both in India and abroad, it is evident that the essence of QWL is the opportunity for employees, at all levels, to have substantial influence over their work environment. This is a result of their participation in the decision-making process relating to their work, thereby enhancing their self-esteem and the overall satisfaction from their work. Hence, QWL calls for an open style of management, i.e., sharing of information and genuinely encouraging the efforts relating to the improvement of the organization. This makes it amply clear that QWL is, in fact, an important managerial activity to develop the employees of an organization. The success of TQM programmes largely depend on appropriate HRD interventions like emphasis on continuous training and developmental activities, encouraging participation in management through small group forums,

increasing employees' motivation, looking after the career development of employees, employee empowerment, infusing attitudinal changes at the top (like accepting a flatter organization structure, following a democratic approach, becoming receptive to changes on a continuous basis, supporting group performance, etc.).

## NOTES

### Check Your Progress

1. Define quality.
2. Name one major contributor to the concept of productivity and human resources.
3. How did Walton. R.E. measure the 'Quality of Working Life'?

## 13.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Dedhia Navin, S. (1998) stated that "quality is about behaving in a way that reflects on individuals and organization understanding of the fundamental inter-connectedness of structure, process and outcome".
2. Walton. R.E. is a major contributor to the concept of productivity and human resources.
3. Walton. R.E. devised an eight-point criterion to measure the 'Quality of Working Life'.

## 13.5 SUMMARY

- Dedhia Navin, S. (1998) stated that "quality is about behaving in a way that reflects on individuals and organization understanding of the fundamental inter-connectedness of structure, process and outcome".
- There are many aspects of quality and they fall into categories such as consumer view point of quality, producer view point of quality, personnel, behavioural quality, quality practices, reliability, education, training, team work, communication and other such topics are always included in 'quality' discussion.
- Quality is the totality of the features and characteristics of a product, service or a person that bear on its or his ability to satisfy stated or implied needs.
- Walton. R.E, (1973) conducted extensive research on QWL. He can be considered as a major contributor to the concept of productivity and human resources.
- He devised an eight-point criterion to measure the 'Quality of Working Life'.



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- The categories are: (i) adequate and fair compensation, (ii) safe and healthy working environment, (iii) opportunity to develop human capabilities, (iv) growth and security, (v) Social integration, (vi) constitutionalism, (vii) total life space and (viii) social relevance.
- Nadler, D. A. and Lawler, E.E. (1983) defined QWL as an individual's perception of and attitudes towards, his or her work and the total working environment.
- In simple words, QWL can be defined as an individual's evaluative reactions to satisfaction with his/her work and the total working environment.
- Hagerty, M. R., et al. (2001) state that the QWL implies the quality of a person's whole life, not just a separate component.
- Elisaveta, S. (2006) is of opinion that the QWL has the correlative relationship between quality of work life and satisfaction with definite job attributes in regard to job contents and work environment.
- QWL is most conventionally defined as those perceived important personal needs, which an individual tries to satisfy by working in an organization.
- Its conceptual foundations, though laid by a host of behavioural scientists, were in reality advocated by Chris Argyris (1975) in his famous work on personality and organization.
- The Socio-Technical Systems Theory, pioneered by Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, London during 1960s is considered as an important QWL construct.
- From studies carried out, both in India and abroad, it is evident that the essence of QWL is the opportunity for employees, at all levels, to have substantial influence over their work environment.
- This is a result of their participation in the decision-making process relating to their work, thereby enhancing their self-esteem and the overall satisfaction from their work.

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### 13.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Balance:** It is a situation in which different elements are equal or in the correct proportions.
- **Integration:** It is to mix with and join society or a group of people, often changing to suit their way of life, habits, and customs.

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## 13.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. Define work-life balance as given by various authors.
2. Is work-life balance important? Elucidate.

### Long Answer Questions

1. What constitutes work-life balance? Why is it important?
2. Explain Quality of Work life (QWL) and its process.

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## 13.8 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Randall, Ray, John Arnold, Fiona Patterson and Ivan Robertson. 2016. *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace*. London: Pearson.
- Sharma, Ram Nath and S.S. Chandra. 2004. *Advanced Industrial Psychology, Volume 1*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors.

### NOTES

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## UNIT 14 WORK MOTIVATION

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### NOTES

#### Structure

- 14.0 Introduction
- 14.1 Objectives
- 14.2 Attitude of Working Culture and Behaviourism and Psychological Health
- 14.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 14.4 Summary
- 14.5 Key Words
- 14.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 14.7 Further Readings

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### 14.0 INTRODUCTION

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The word ‘motivation’ has been derived from the word ‘motive’, which means any idea, need or emotion. This could be conscious or subconscious. Motivation cannot be classified as a personal trait as it is a result of the interaction between the individual and the circumstances.

Motivation is the persistent behaviour and the internal driving force directed towards a particular goal. Motivation is an important tool that managers can use to build confidence in the work force. It is the psychological process that directs people’s choices regarding the type and intensity of their behavior.

One common misunderstanding that managers have is that motivation only means working hard. Due to this, managers often believe that only productive workers are motivated. However, psychologists define motivation as a general process that influences virtually all behavior. Work motivation theories describe the psychological processes that affect people’s choices regarding their work-related behaviors. These theories provide managerial guidelines for increasing worker productivity and maintain efficient working.

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### 14.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss attitude of working culture and behaviourism and psychological health
- Explain the meaning of job design
- Describe the concept of motivation at work

## 14.2 ATTITUDE OF WORKING CULTURE AND BEHAVIOURISM AND PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH

### NOTES

A job is a set of tasks performed by one person. The scientific management approach advocated by Frederick W. Taylor provided a methodology to structure highly specialized jobs, which simplified hiring, training, and supervising people with the requisite capabilities. Scientific management provided orderliness to the work of organization (Wrenge and Perroni 1974). In keeping with the principles of scientific management, job design has historically involved analysing a complex task, then breaking it down into specific subtasks. One or more of these specific subtasks or jobs are then combined into departmental work units, where managers oversee the work of employees (Hammer 1990).

Two important dimensions used for describing all types of jobs are task scope and depth. *Task scope* describes the horizontal characteristics of the job or the degree of variety in the activities a person is expected to perform. A job narrow in scope has few activities. A typist's job will only require him to type the material that has been assigned to him, whereas the job of a computer operator would entail a lot more than just typing the content.

*Task depth* addresses how much vertical responsibility or individual accountability is expected in a job. Depth increases when the employee is given more responsibility to schedule the sequence of work, to initiate self-control if activities or output begin to get out of balance, to identify and solve problems as they occur or to originate innovative ways of improving the process or the output.

Different dimensions of the job affect the attitude of workers, their willingness to perform, the productivity and reliability of their work output, and the corresponding side effects such as accidents, absenteeism, and job stress.

Job design draws heavily on motivation theory. Certain aspects of job design which affect the motivation level of employees in organization include the following:

- Job rotation
- Job enlargement
- Job enrichment
- Job characteristics model

### Job Rotation

The process of job rotation involves moving workers in a systematic way from one job to another in order to provide more interesting and satisfying work. The assumption laid by the supporters of this approach is that by helping the employee move across a wide variety of tasks, it helps in the development of large array of job skills, thereby providing the organization with greater flexibility.

## NOTES

The critiques of this model propose that the process of shifting employees from one job to another only enhances the monotony of work and nothing else. It does not bring about any value addition to the skill set of employees as they are not learning anything new in the process. Those who propose the concept of job specialization would also argue that job rotation may adversely affect efficiency as one is not taking full advantage of the proficiency that evolves from specializing in one job.

### **Job Enlargement**

The process of job enlargement, also known as horizontal loading of the job, aims to expand the worker's job to include the tasks which were previously performed by other workers. The rationale provided is that this reduces the monotony and boredom of performing the earlier, narrowly defined job and increases variety and interest because of increased number of tasks to be performed. However, this approach has often failed to live up to its anticipated expectations as it was found that enlarged jobs were no more than a collection of simple routine tasks (Campion and McClelland 1993).

### **Job Enrichment**

As a result of the inability of the process of job rotation and job enlargement to generate interest in the tasks to be performed, a more effective approach to deal with the problems of job design called job enrichment was generated. This concept was an outgrowth of Herzberg's dual factor theory of motivation (discussed earlier) and was also referred to as vertical loading of the job. According to Herzberg, if factors such as sense of achievement, responsibility, and recognition, which are also known as motivators are added to the task in hand, it tends to enhance the positive job-related experiences. The process of job enrichment accounts for adding more variety of tasks to be performed in addition to granting the worker more control over the job.

Herzberg (1968, 1974) suggested the process of enriching the job by adding the following to the job:

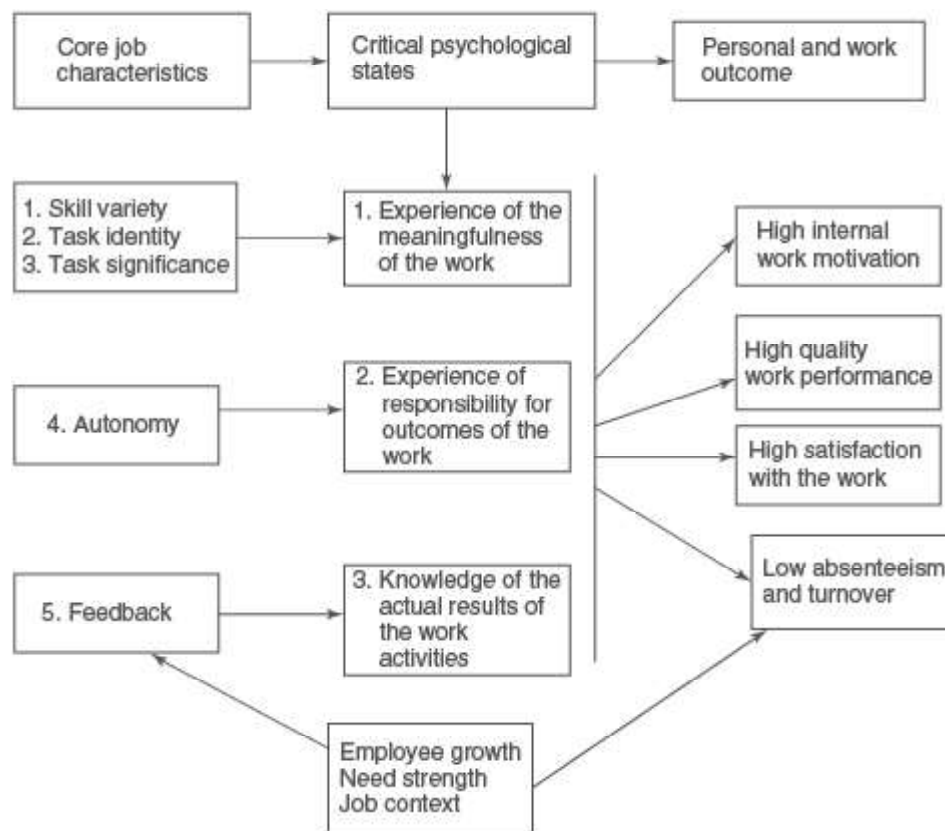
- *Accountability*: The person performing the job should remain accountable or responsible for the job.
- *Achievement*: The task should provide a person with a feeling that it is worthwhile to achieve the goal.
- *Control over resources*: The individual should have control over the resources to be utilized for the purpose of accomplishing the objectives.
- *Feedback*: There should be continuous inflow of clear feedback to the individual about performance.
- *Workplace*: The individual should be able to decide the pace and techniques to be used at the workplace while performing tasks.

There are mixed reports about the success of job enrichment as an approach to job design. There are reports of early success of the programme at AT&T in the United States and ICI in United Kingdom, but there are reports which suggest that many organizations found the approach to be too costly to implement and that it did not live up to the expectations (Griffin 1982).

## NOTES

### The Job Characteristics Model

One of the integrated theories of job design developed by Hackman and his colleagues (1976) helps managers understand and build into the workplace conditions that will inspire people to turn in high-quality performances. The model provided by them termed as the Job Characteristic model (Figure 14.1), identifies five core job dimensions that produce three psychological states. Employees who experience these psychological states tend to have higher level of internal work motivation (motivation from the work itself), job satisfaction (particularly, satisfaction with the work itself), high quality work performance, and lowered rate of absenteeism and turnover ultimately leading to work effectiveness.



*Fig. 14.1 The Job Characteristics Model*

**Core job dimensions:** These are the underlying characteristics of a job that relate to a person's involvement, motivation, performance, and satisfaction (Hackman and Lawler 1971). These dimensions include autonomy, the degree of control one

## NOTES

has over the job; task variety, the degree to which the job requires performing multiple tasks; task identity, the extent to which a person has a whole task to complete; feedback, the information available about progress and results of personal efforts; and task significance, the degree to which the task is important for the incumbent. If a job possesses these dimensions, a self-motivated individual has a sense of satisfaction from the job.

**Psychological States:** The above-mentioned five job dimensions affect the motivation and satisfaction of employees by generating three psychological states (John et al. 1992):

- *Experienced meaningfulness*—this occurs when an individual perceives the work as worthwhile or in tune with personal values (influenced by skill variety, task identity, and task significance).
- *Experienced responsibility*—it is realized when a person feels personally accountable for the outcomes of his efforts (influenced by autonomy).
- *Knowledge of results*—it is experienced when an individual can determine on a fairly regular basis whether the performance outcomes of his work are satisfactory (influenced by feedback dimension).

Employee growth-need strength is an indicator of the degree to which individuals' value complex, challenging work. Employees with low-growth need strength develop a favourable impression of the improvement in their jobs but it may not be as high as for employees with high-growth need strength.

### **Techniques to Enhance Jobs Through Redesign**

Four techniques which can be used to enhance jobs through redesign, thereby leading to improved motivation and satisfaction are discussed here:

#### **Combine tasks**

This technique is also called job enlargement, where to improve skill variety, task identity, and interdependence, tasks that have become overly specialized and fragmented over time are combined. The tasks could be combined in a way where one individual performs the entire task or by establishing teams in which members periodically switch tasks. The tasks which now no longer add value or have become redundant need to be eliminated.

#### **Load jobs vertically**

Employees are empowered by giving them responsibility for planning, executing, and adjusting work activities. A manager can give autonomy to the staff members to schedule their own work, decide on work methods, take care of the problems, and supervise others. This improves the facet of autonomy and, therefore, adds to motivation and satisfaction.

**Open feedback channels**

Employees should be able to receive all possible feedback about the factors that affect their work. Managers should be able to develop systems where this becomes feasible. The best sources of feedback are the job itself, peers, and computerized databases.

**Form natural work teams**

Regardless of the work flow sequence, bringing people together as a team enhances identification with the whole task and creates a sense of shared responsibility.

**Obstacles in Job Design**

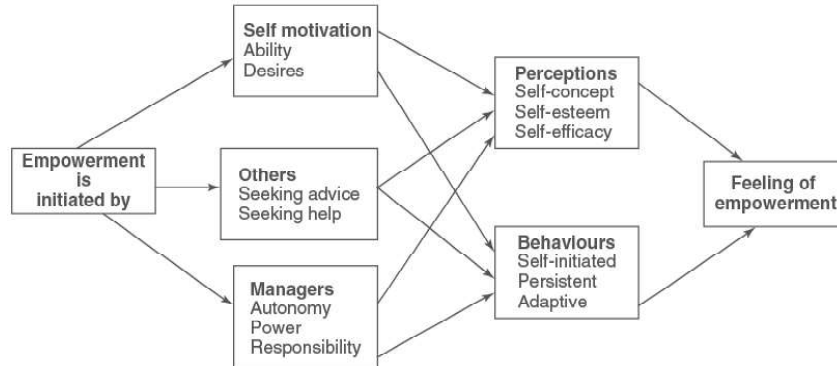
In spite of all the potential benefits, job design is not easy to implement. Employees sometimes have a distorted view of the perceived job characteristics as stated by the scholars because of their own attitudes (Wong et al. 1998). Job design interventions also face resistance to change. Supervisors fear that they may have to change their roles and fear job insecurity.

Other related problems pertain to specialization of jobs. These may improve work efficiency but performance may fall if specialization reduces employee motivation. Job enrichment may increase recruiting and training costs, whereas specialization may increase payroll costs if companies provide discontent pay to entice people to boring jobs (Durham 1977).

**Motivation by Empowerment**

Many individuals today have learnt to be self-motivated and self-empowered—seizing opportunities to make their work more meaningful and more willing to make choices, experiment, and have an impact on the organization.

Empowerment describes conditions that enable people to feel competent and in control, energized to take initiatives, and persist at meaningful tasks (Conger and Kanungo 1988). Empowerment can come from self, peers or a manager. Empowerment attempts to bring about positive self-esteem, self-efficacy, and task-directed behaviours (Figure 14.2).



*Fig. 14.2 Motivation by Empowerment*

**NOTES**



**NOTES**

**Self-initiated empowerment**

People who are intrinsically motivated usually initiate personal efforts to expand the nature of their jobs and power. They are entrepreneurs who are willing to take chances and work actively. They like to improve organizational processes and products by adding value to the tasks assigned to them.

**Empowerment by others**

Colleagues and co-workers have an impact on individuals. One feels empowered in a group when one is respected and treated as a professional. Individuals are empowered when peers seek their advice, confide in them, and include them in their projects from which they can learn and initiate contacts with others.

**Empowerment by managers**

The behaviour of the manager is the most important source of empowerment. The empowering manager gives power and autonomy to his subordinates and enables them to be self-motivated. Information is shared with subordinates. One of the major empowering factors today is the role of information technology and systems that allow employees to have access to all the desirable information. Managers who deliberately work towards empowering employees give them the licence to pursue their vision, to champion projects, and to improve practices consistent with organizational missions and goals. The manager who treats his subordinates as partners and shares responsibilities with them is likely to get the best from them (Cohen and Bradford 1984).

The initiation of empowerment leads to changes in self and task-related behaviours. Self-concept is the way you think about yourself or how you see yourself in a role. Self-esteem is how you generally feel about your own worthiness, and self-efficacy is an individual's self-perceived ability to perform a certain type of task. The feeling of self-efficacy is important because it influences performance and a sense of personal well-being (Bandura 1977). On the basis of these states being provoked, the individual displays a self-initiated task behaviour and persistence in trying to achieve the objectives with adaptability and flexibility.

**Outcome of Empowerment**

The empowered person undergoes two types of personal changes. One of them is motivation enhancement and the other is manifestation of active problem-solving behaviour. Empowered individuals are more energized and committed to a goal. They experience self-efficacy and a feeling of positive self-being. The empowered person is more flexible in behaviour, tries alternative paths when one is blocked and eagerly initiates new tasks and adds complexity to the current ones (Thomas and Velthouse 1990).

Expectancy motivation comes into play in empowerment whenever a person raises questions about himself and the task at hands. Managers help bring about

empowerment when they encourage their people to diminish such bureaucratic thoughts as “It’s not my responsibility” or “It’s beyond my control” or the classic “It wasn’t invented here”.

### Check Your Progress

1. Define job.
2. What is task scope?
3. What does the process of job rotation involve?
4. What is the most important source of empowerment?

### NOTES

## 14.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. A job is a set of tasks performed by one person.
2. Task scope describes the horizontal characteristics of the job or the degree of variety in the activities a person is expected to perform.
3. The process of job rotation involves moving workers in a systematic way from one job to another in order to provide more interesting and satisfying work.
4. The behaviour of the manager is the most important source of empowerment.

## 14.4 SUMMARY

- A job is a set of tasks performed by one person.
- The scientific management approach advocated by Frederick W. Taylor provided a methodology to structure highly specialized jobs, which simplified hiring, training, and supervising people with the requisite capabilities.
- In keeping with the principles of scientific management, job design has historically involved analysing a complex task, then breaking it down into specific subtasks.
- Two important dimensions used for describing all types of jobs are task scope and depth. *Task scope* describes the horizontal characteristics of the job or the degree of variety in the activities a person is expected to perform.
- *Task depth* addresses how much vertical responsibility or individual accountability is expected in a job.
- Depth increases when the employee is given more responsibility to schedule the sequence of work, to initiate self-control if activities or output begin to get out of balance, to identify and solve problems as they occur or to originate innovative ways of improving the process or the output.

## NOTES

- Job design draws heavily on motivation theory.
- The process of job rotation involves moving workers in a systematic way from one job to another in order to provide more interesting and satisfying work.
- The critiques of this model propose that the process of shifting employees from one job to another only enhances the monotony of work and nothing else.
- The process of job enlargement, also known as horizontal loading of the job, aims to expand the worker's job to include the tasks which were previously performed by other workers.
- As a result of the inability of the process of job rotation and job enlargement to generate interest in the tasks to be performed, a more effective approach to deal with the problems of job design called job enrichment was generated.
- This concept was an outgrowth of Herzberg's dual factor theory of motivation (discussed earlier) and was also referred as vertical loading of the job.
- One of the integrated theories of job design developed by Hackman and his colleagues (1976) helps managers understand and build into the workplace conditions that will inspire people to turn in high-quality performances.
- Employee growth-need strength is an indicator of the degree to which individuals' value complex, challenging work.
- Employees with low-growth need strength develop a favourable impression of the improvement in their jobs but it may not be as high as for employees with high-growth need strength.
- Combine tasks: This technique is also called job enlargement, where to improve skill variety, task identity, and interdependence, tasks that have become overly specialized and fragmented over time are combined.
- Job design interventions also face resistance to change. Supervisors fear that they may have to change their roles and fear job insecurity.
- Empowerment describes conditions that enable people to feel competent and in control, energized to take initiatives, and persist at meaningful tasks (Conger and Kanungo 1988). Empowerment can come from self, peers or a manager.
- Empowerment attempts to bring about positive self-esteem, self-efficacy, and task-directed behaviours.
- The behaviour of the manager is the most important source of empowerment. The empowering manager gives power and autonomy to his subordinates and enables them to be self-motivated. Information is shared with subordinates.

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## 14.5 KEY WORDS

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- **Empowerment:** It means to give someone official authority or the freedom to do something.
- **Technique:** It is a way of carrying out a particular task, especially the execution or performance of an artistic work or a scientific procedure.
- **Job Design:** It means outlining the task, duties, responsibilities, qualifications, methods and relationships required to perform the given set of a job.

## NOTES

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## 14.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on job enrichment.
2. Discuss the Job Characteristics Model.
3. What are the core job dimensions?

### Long Answer Questions

1. Give a detailed description of job design and related concepts.
2. Describe the techniques to enhance jobs through redesign as mentioned in this unit.
3. Elucidate how employee are motivated through empowerment.

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## 14.7 FURTHER READINGS

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- Ghosh, P.K. 1980. *Industrial Psychology*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
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