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M.A. Semester-II
Subject: Public Administration
Paper-IV Organisational Psychology

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INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Dear Students,

We accord you a hearty welcome on your joining the M.A. course in Public Administration in University School of Open Learning, Panjab University, Chandigarh. We are sure you are quite happy to find this opportunity for continuing your pursuit of higher education. The concept of Correspondence teaching involves the provision opportunities to those who, due to certain reasons, could not continue their formal education and, thus, enable them to make of use their potential capabilities.

The study of Public Administration as a separate discipline gained importance and greater significance in the modern civilized society. The success or failure of the activities of the state depends upon the proper execution of national plans and programmes. No plan, howsoever good it may be, can be successful without clean, efficient and impartial administration. With the concept of a welfare-state, the functions of the modern government have increased manifold. Now the state does not concern itself with the maintenance of law and order and revenue collection only but it has also to look after the all-round development of the people. Public Administration stabilizes the social structure and preserves human culture by setting social conflicts and by creating social unity and harmony. It not only maintains and preserves the civilized social life, but also functions as a great instrument of social change and improvement. It acts as dynamic force in the realization of the objectives of the state policy into practice.

Keeping in view the importance of this subject, and the scientific and technological development in Public Administration, USOL provides opportunities for regular instructions to the students who for some reason are not able to join regular colleges in a formal system.

The lecture scripts would be reaching you at regular intervals or you may collect these personally from USOL. Every care is taken to make the reading material simple, perceptible and useful. The academic year is divided into two semesters. Each semester has one paper which is divided into 4 units. You will find our instructional programme more involving, interesting and instructive in comparison with the conventional and formal methods. USOL makes arrangements for personal contact programme for six days in every semester at Chandigarh. This will supplement your lecture scripts.

The faculty members concerned are always at your disposal. If you feel any difficulty or problem, you can contact them personally or through correspondence. However, it is suggested that you may refer all academic enquiries to Swinder Singh Coordinator Public Administration, USOL, PU, Chandigarh. The Syllabus is attached herewith.

With all good wishes.

Department of Public Administration

PAPER-IV
Organisational Psychology

INSTRUCTIONS FOR PAPER-SETTERS AND CANDIDATES

➤ The Maximum Marks for the paper will be 100. The question paper will be of 80 marks and internal assessment of 20 marks. Time allowed will be 3 Hours. For private students, who have not been assessed for the internal assessment, the marks secured by them in the paper will be proportionately increased in lieu of the internal assessment.

The Paper-Setter must put a note in question paper in this regard.

➤ The candidate shall attempt 5 questions in all (one compulsory and one each from four units). The compulsory question shall comprise of 15 short-answer type questions, covering the whole syllabus, to be answered in 25-30 words each, out of which the candidate would be required to attempt any 10. Each question will carry 2 marks. Rest of the paper shall contain 4 units, each unit having two questions, out of which the candidate would be expected to attempt one. Each question from the units will carry 15 marks.

Objectives of the Paper: The paper will make the students familiar with the basic concepts of Organisational Psychology. Functional aspects of Organizational Psychology like human relations, employment, attitudes, groups, personality and work stress would be taught to the students. Course material will be supplemented by activities like role play, case study discussions and interaction with experts. Public speaking, critical thinking, group work, presentation skills will be developed during these activities.

UNIT-I

Organisational and Industrial Psychology: Concept, Nature and Scope

Leadership: Concept; Theories – Trait; Situational; Behavioural

Employee Needs: Concept, Hierarchy of Needs and Need Satisfaction

UNIT-II

Attitude: Concept, Nature and Significance

Industrial Morale: Concept, Nature and Determinants

Motivation of Industrial Employees: Concept and Determinants

UNIT-III

Personality: Concept, Significance and Types

Job Satisfaction: Concept, Significance and Determinants

Groups: Concept, Types and Inter-Group Relations

UNIT-IV

Fatigue: Concept, Causes and Remedies

Monotony and Boredom: Concept, Causes and Effects

Work Stress and its Management

Essential Readings

- Buchanan, David A. (Ed.) (2016). *Organizational Behaviour* (9th edition). U.K.: Boffin
- Cooper, Cary L. (Ed.) (2000). *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Linking Theory with Practice*. USA: John Wiley and Sons
- Luthans, Fred. (2010). *Organizational Behavior*. New York: McGraw-Hill Education
- Norman, R. F. Maier. (1970). *Psychology in Industry*. Oxford and IBH.
- Stephan P. Robbins, Seema Sanghi, Timothy Judge. (2009). *Organizational Behaviour: Concepts, Controversies and Applications*. New Delhi: Pearson 5th Edition.

Further Readings

- Brown, J.A.C. (1954). *The Social Psychology of Industry*. U.K.: Penguin.
- Ganguli, H.C. (1983). *Structure and Process of Organization*. Mumbai: Asia Publishing House.
- Katz and Kahn. (1979). *Social Psychology of Organizations*. USA: Wiley.
- McShane, Steven, Lattimore (2015); *Organisational Behaviour*, 5th edition; New York: McGraw-Hill
- Schein, Edgar. (1988). *Organizational Psychology*. USA: Prentice Hall.
- Zedeck, Sheldon (2006). *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Part of the APA Handbooks in Psychology Series and APA Reference Books Collection). USA: APA.

ORGANISATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY: CONCEPT, NATURE AND SCOPE

Structure

- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Introduction
- 1.3 Historical Development of Industrial Psychology
- 1.4 Meaning of Industrial Psychology
- 1.5 Nature and Concept of Industrial Psychology
- 1.6 Characteristics of Industrial Psychology
- 1.7 Scope of Industrial Policy
- 1.8 Importance of Industrial Psychology
- 1.9 Role of an Industrial Psychologist
- 1.6 Glossary
- 1.10 Summary
- 1.12 References
- 1.5 Further Readings
- 1.14 Model Questions

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you will be able to understand:

- Concept and Nature of industrial psychology
- Scope of industrial psychology
- Importance of industrial psychology

1.2 INTRODUCTION

Industrial psychology is in great need today. The reason being that after the industrial revolution in the west industrializing countries like India also need to develop their industries on the modern lines. If the workers and trade unions are involved in the industrial process and have developed a work culture the size of production is bound to increase and the profits are going to be high. The managers of industry are required to be the best judge of the psychology of the labour and are required to act in the best interests of the industry.

In industry, psychology is practiced mainly by line and staff managers, but also by psychologists employed as staff members themselves or more frequently staff advisors.

There is hardly a phase in the daily life of the man or woman associated with modern industry that is not in some way related to the study of psychology. This is not surprising since psychology deals with the study of human behavior. And human behavior is of essential importance in every

industrial activity in the production and consumption of goods as well as in the rendering of services. Industrial psychology is interested not only in the man at work in the factory but in the salesman on the road and the girl at work in the office. It is the study of people whose work is selling insurance, laying bricks, supervising the people producing goods or directing the activities of the large corporation. The man who drives to work is guided by green and white road signs because psychologists have discovered that these colors are easily seen. As he listens to the advertising jingle on the radio, he is probably not aware that its quality, good or bad, has been influenced by a psychologist employed by the advertising agency.

1.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Bryan and Harter (1897) published a first paper describing the study and application of psychology to work activities (Morse code telegraphic) coined the term "industrial psychology" by mistake.

During the First and Second World War when various industrial organizations and plants faced a number of problems related to production, efficiency and individual employees, the help of industrial psychologist are in great demand. At this stage, industrial psychology received a special status. Although it began in America in 1901 and England soon after. The first book, "The Psychology of Industrial Efficiency", written by Hugo Munsterberg in 1913 was dealing with various problems faced by the industries and analysis of such problem from the psychological point of view.

During the war years, the Fatigue Research Board was organized in Great Britain to discover the problems connected with working hours, condition or work. problems associated with fatigue and monotony/boredom, accident and safety measures and other work related matters.

In 1925, social psychology or industry entered into the arena of industrial psychology therefore, interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships, theories of motivations, importance of communication and other associated areas were investigated.

In 1917, Journal of applied psychology made its appearance and at the same time it introduced as a subject of applied psychology. The classical studies, started in 1927 by the famous Hawthorne group, contributed to the development of industrial psychology in a major way. Their finding ultimately changed the trends and approach of industrial psychology from economic to social, from the work-oriented attitude to a workers-oriented attitude.

During the Second World War, the applied psychology research unit of the Medical Research Council of Great Britain carried out several researches and investigations to solve many industrial and organizational problems.

American Association of Applied Psychology, 1937 was the first association for industrial psychology.

Major organization after the Second World War divided into two parts.

Human factor society, it was associated with the American group of applied psychology with interest in human engineering problem. Ergonomics society, it was British counterpart of human factor. Society occupational psychology and ergonomics are two journals.

Considerable attention was focussed on various human relations and social problems of industry during the later part or 1940's and in the 1950's. Problems related to supervision. group dynamics. Leadership, employees interaction with others, employees attitude, morale, job satisfaction, communication process and others.

In the beginning of the 1960's organizational psychology began to enter the area of industrial psychology and as such, special emphasis was given to the organizational inputs in the industrial situation.

The psychologists who have made valuable contributions to the development of industrial psychology are Walter, Dill and Scout. The industrial psychology division of American Psychological Association was established in 1945 and gave professional recognition to industrial psychology.

Though industrial psychology was a neglected branch or applied psychology in India. After the second World War and particularly after establishment of various universities, centres and institutes in India, research in industrial psychology has been accelerated after 1950's.

In 1970's, the division of industrial psychology was renamed as the division of industrial and organizational psychology. An eminent industrial and organizational psychologist of India Professor DurganandSinha (1971) has made a valuable survey of the important topics of research in industrial psychology in India.

1.4 MEANING OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Blum and Naylor (1968) define Industrial Psychology as "the application or extension of psychological facts and principles to the problems concerning human beings, operating within the context of business and industry".

Industrial psychology is both a science (with an emphasis on research) and a profession (with an emphasis on the application of knowledge and insight to practical problems).

Industrial psychology is the branch of applied psychology that is concerned with efficient management of an industrial labor force and especially with problems encountered by workers in a mechanized environment.

Industrial psychology, currently known as industrial-organizational psychology or I-O psychology, is defined by the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) as "the scientific study of the workplace." As a type of applied psychology, I-O psychology assists organizations in selecting personnel with a focus toward how to maximize human capital.

1.5 NATURE AND CONCEPT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Industrial psychology helps one understand the nature of the industrial world and the impact of industrialization on behaviour. Numerous problems of adjustment are faced by people at work. As students of industrial psychology, our aim is to discover those variables which affect:

(a) Industrial productivity

(b) Fulfilment of workers within the industrial organization.

Production, in modern industrial system, is the result of the joint efforts of all the factors of production. There are five factors of production, i.e., land, labour, capital, organization and entrepreneur. Labour, unlike other factors of production, is an active factor and controls all other factors of production, co-ordinates them to get the maximum output at minimum cost. The modern theory emphasizes the best use of this human factor of production to achieve the greater industrial productivity. Industrial productivity depends mainly on the overall productivity of the industry in spite of the high quality material and modern machines in labour-force is inactive or inefficient. This approach of human relation in industry has been developed in recent years and human approach to labour has been regarded as a man at work approach and therefore, is influenced and controlled by other social and physical factors.

His complete personality is influenced by fears, frustrations, needs, motivations, attitudes, stress-related etc.

Industrial Psychology, in brief, is concerned with the scientific structuring of organizations and of work to improve the productivity and quality of life of people at work.

Traditionally, Industrial psychologists have focused on understanding individual behavior and experience in organizational settings. Also, they formally address the impact on work of environmental factors such as labor markets, economic conditions, and governmental regulations. Industrial psychologists have contributed to the design and development of team-based organizations and have developed strategies for designing organizational structures for work that are flexible enough to ride through turbulent environment times.

1.6 CHARACTERISTIC OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

- **Systematic study**—Industrial psychology is the systematic study of human behaviour concerned with collecting the information regarding human behaviour at work. What are the different factors which affect the work of an individual either they are personal or related to working conditions.
- **Research**—Industrial psychology is not concerned with administration. They are the part of the research. Whatever information gathered from the work should be implemented and the personnel administration is the application of such research.
- **Functional/Applied**—It is concerned with the application of information about human behaviour to the various problems of industrial human life.
- **Human engineering**—It studies the varied methods of performing manual operations for the better utilization and the least waste of effort through human engineering.

1.7 SCOPE OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

- **Scientific selection of workers'**—Industrial psychology offers a whole arrangement of tests such as systematic depth interviews and psychological tests of intelligence, aptitude, skills, abilities and interest the personnel characteristic etc. By these tests candidates are measured and properly selected and placed on the job.
- **Proper division of work**—One of the scopes of industrial psychology is the work should be properly divided according to the abilities, skills and aptitude of the workers so they may feel comfortable and satisfied. It may also lead higher production.
- **Minimizing the wastage of human efforts**—Industrial psychology tries to minimize the wastage of human power. It studies psychological factors causing fatigue or accident and give feasible suggestions to prevent them. The techniques of motivation and morale are used for this purpose.
- **Promoting labour welfare**—It promotes the welfare of the labour by introducing adequate working environment through which job satisfaction, work efficiency increases and also state the provisions of higher incentives.
- **Enhancement of human relations**—Human relations are the relation among individuals in an organization and the group behaviour that emerge from their relations. Most of problems arise in the industries are connected to human relation. If workers' feel ease with the surrounding then automatically they get motivated and productivity will be higher. Industrial psychology has made

significant contribution in framing the techniques of leadership, worker participation, communication etc.

- Developing industrial relations—Industrial psychology studies the attitude of the employer and employees. Individuals differ from each others in their thoughts, thinking, behaviour and other parameters. Therefore, different measures may be adopted in solving the problem relating to each individual like transfers, promotions, grievances etc. This helps in developing industrial relationship among workers' and management.
- Increase production—It helps in attaining the major objective of the organization that to get the best output from the existing resources. The production is automatically increased if proper selection is made, the work will be properly distributed, accident prevention and safety measures suggested. This will improve and promote individual as well as industrial relations.

American Psychologist Association, Division of Industrial Psychology, *The psychologist industry*, Washington, D.C., 1959 cited seven major areas which comprised the content area of industrial psychology. These were:

- (1) Selection and testing.
- (2) Management development.
- (3) Counseling.
- (4) Employee motivation.
- (5) Human engineering.
- (6) Marketing research.
- (7) Public relations research.

Briefly, following are the areas within the broader field of industrial psychology:

1. **Employment Psychology** includes:

- (a) Employee selection
- (b) Employee placement
- (c) Periodic appraisal of the performance of hired employees.
- (d) Personnel training
- (e) Job analysis

2. **Managerial Psychology** includes study of the work environment - physical as well as psychological.

In reference to the physical environment, scientific management has a role to play. It involves motion study, time study, improvement in work methods, reduction of fatigue and accidents.

The Hawthorne studies are a classic example of the importance of a conducive psychological environment, group dynamics motivation and influence.

3. **Engineering psychology(or Human Engineering)** includes the design of equipment for more effective human use.

4. **Consumer psychology and advertising:** In addition to the production of goods their distribution of utmost importance.

1.8 IMPORTANCE OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

There are a number of ways you can use psychology to improve your work performance, to build the job-related skills that will help your career, to give you a competitive edge. Many people think

of psychology as a set of theories and skills to be used by counselors and therapists who deal with mental problems. Abnormal behavior and mental disorders are, in fact, major concerns for some people who have studied psychology. But there are many applications of psychological findings outside of counseling. One of the oldest specialties in applied psychology has nothing to do with therapy and abnormality. This specialty is the psychology of work behavior.

Consider the following case. After graduation, you will very likely devote more time and energy to work and your career than you will to most other aspects of your life. During the 40 to 50 years you will spend in the workplace, you will encounter psychological issues of all kinds. For example, as you move into positions of greater responsibility, you will be expected to know how to assess people for promotion, how to determine training needs and how to make decisions affecting the success of your organization. In a world where conflict and miscommunication are common, you will need to develop skills as a sensitive yet effective manager.

Because of the high demand for industrial psychologists, the field has become one of the most lucrative within psychology. Those trained in industrial psychology can find work in a variety of fields ranging from research to the upper echelons of corporations. Specific tasks involve solving problems with employees on a broad scale with their work affecting every level of an organization.

Research

Industrial psychologists apply the scientific method to solve problems in the workplace. This involves tasks such as testing a new method of completing tasks at select locations to compare the outcomes of each technique.

Hiring

As a result of research, industrial psychologists determine what qualities and skills to search for in potential employees. While they rarely participate in the interview process, industrial psychologists may design interview materials and strategies.

Designing Tests

Industrial psychologists are frequently tasked with creating standardized tests to answer questions about employees and their work. This involves an in depth analysis of each question with complex statistical programs.

Applying Tests

Because of the complexity of some tests, industrial psychologists choose appropriate tests, conduct tests and interpret their results. After procuring/constructing a test, the psychologist can determine the best course of action to remedy a problem.

Changes based on Research

After conducting extensive research and testing an industrial psychologist can propose changes to a business and its way of operating with solid statistical support.

1.9 ROLE OF AN INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGIST

Industry, at the present time, provides a good field in which to study the wants and needs of human beings. What does the psychologist in industry do? An answer to this question, of course, depends upon the size of the industrial organization, upon what the organization does, and upon the attitude of any given management toward psychology. There is hardly a nationally known corporation that does not employ the services of psychologists. Many smaller companies work with psychologists on a part-time consulting basis.

The psychologist working in industry does far more than give tests, a job popularly believed to be his activity. True he has designed the tests and has validated them to see if they are accurately predicting what they are supposed to. But in the main the psychologist in industry has turned the testing program over to others. He is now advising the industrial relations department on the company's pending contract negotiations with the union, or he is designing a study to determine the buying habits of a suburban housewife as she walks through her local supermarket. In one hour, the industrial psychologist may be discussing the psychology of learning with the company's training director, in the next hour, he may be participating in a conference on a morale survey to be conducted in an out-of-town plant.

The Psychologist's Staff Position

The industrial psychologist usually holds a staff position, largely advisory, which enables him to apply his talents wherever they are needed. He helps to improve safety programs and he works with engineers on the human aspects of equipment design. He assists the office of public relations in its interactions with consumers and with the community in-which the company operates. He engages in the varied programs dealing with the mental health of the worker and he assists management in finding ways to reduce absenteeism. The industrial psychologist may draw up a plan for the executive development of the newly hired college graduate on one day and discuss the problems of aging employees the next. From personnel selection to training, from supervision to job evaluation, from career planning to labor relations, the industrial psychologist moves in a wide and ever-varying scene.

Problems and Objectives

The final objective of industrial psychology must be that of the company in which the psychologist is employed. This objective will be principally one of profit, hence productivity and efficiency are important.

Because productivity of people has often been found to depend on morale, good morale is a primary objective. Because high morale is not always found with high productivity, it must be made clear that high productivity and high morale are separate objectives. High morale necessarily means good mental health, consequently this is another way of stating a fundamental objective-mental health. Thus the objectives of industrial psychology are productivity, morale and mental health.

Self-Assessment Exercise

- 1. Define Industrial Psychology.**
- 2. What is the importance of industrial psychology?**

1.10 GLOSSARY

Industrial Psychology: It helps in applying psychological principles for solving practical problems encountered in work settings.

Scope of Industrial Psychology: It is same as the scope of personnel management that is the entire process of management's dealings with people at work.

Production: Production, in modern industrial system, is the result of the joint efforts of all the factors of production. There are five factors of production, i.e., land, labour, capital, organization and entrepreneur.

Labour: Labour, unlike other factors of production, is an active factor and controls all other factors of production, co-ordinates them to get the maximum output at minimum cost.

1.6 SUMMARY

Industrial psychology studies people at work in modern industries and business. It is the study to a major degree of the principles and practices of human relations. Industrial and organizational psychology focuses to varying degrees on the psychology of the workforce, customer and consumer including issues such as the psychology of recruitment, selecting employees from an applicant pool which overall includes training, performance appraisal, job satisfaction, work behavior, stress at work and management. In industry, psychology is practiced mainly by line and staff managers but also by psychologists employed as staff members themselves or more frequently staff advisors. The scope of industrial psychology is same as the scope of personnel management, that is, the entire process of management's dealings with people at work. The psychologist working in industry does far more than give tests, a job popularly believed to be his activity. There are multiple objectives and ways for increasing people's ability to meet their life's needs through work, including: Designing the job, Placing people in jobs and Creating and using sound reward and Recognition systems.

1.12 REFERENCES

- Hugh J. Arnold, Daniel C. Feldman (1986), *Organizational Behaviour*, McGraw Hill International.
Milton L. Blum, James C. Naylor, *Industrial Psychology*, CBS.
Dr. Varma and Agrawal, *Organizational Behaviour*, Forward Book Depot, 1991.
Stephen P. Robbins, *Organizational Behaviour*, Prentice-Hall India, Easter Economy Edition, 2005.

1.5 FURTHER READINGS

- Thomas Willard and Harrell, *Industrial Behaviour*, Oxford & IBH Publishing Co., 1967.
Duane Schultz and Sydney Ellen Schultz, *Psychology & Work Today*, Pearson Education, Low-price Edition, 8th Edition, 2002.
R.S. Dwivedi, *Human Relations & Organizational Behaviour*, Oxford & IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd., 3rd Edition, 1989.

1.14 MODEL QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term industrial psychology? Discuss the nature and scope of industrial psychology.
2. "Industrial Psychology as a field has become important in today's world". Justify the statement.

Suggested Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Blum and Naylor (1968) define Industrial Psychology as "the application or extension of psychological facts and principles to the problems concerning human beings, operating within the context of business and industry".
2. Industrial psychology is an important tool to improve work performance, to enhance the job-related skills that further helps in career building and to give a competitive edge.

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Leadership: Concept; Theories- Trait; Situational; Behavioural

Structure

Objectives

- 2.1 Introduction**
- 2.2 Concept**
- 2.3 Characteristics of Leadership**
- 2.4 Functions of Leadership**
- 2.5 Qualities of Leadership**
- 2.6 Effective Leadership and Influencing Process**
- 2.7 Types of Leaders**
- 2.8 Theories of Leadership**
- 2.9 Glossary**
- 2.10 References**
- 2.11 Further Readings**
- 2.12 Model Questions**

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading the lesson you will be able to

1. Understand the meaning, nature and functions of Leadership.
2. Describe Leadership Styles and Patterns.
3. Understand about various Leadership Theories.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Defining leadership is a recent academic activity, though the phenomenon of leadership has been ever present in human relations. Stogdill reminds us that the word “leader” has origins back to the 1300s and the word “leadership” dates back to the 1800s. He reviewed over 3,000 studies directly related to leadership and suggested that there are almost as “many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Stogdill, 1974, p. 7). Bennis and Nanus(1985) found 350 definitions from thousands of studies. Rost (1991) found 221 definitions in 587 books and articles written from 1900 to 1990.

These reviews of leadership studies and definitions have certainly not closed the book on leadership research. In fact, many researchers lament the progress (or lack of progress) made in understanding and defining leadership. Bennis and Nanus (1985) conclude that “[n]ever have so many labored so long to say so little” (p. 4). Rost (1991) is even more indicting when he comments that “these attempts to define leadership have been confusing, varied, disorganized, idiosyncratic, muddled, and, according to conventional wisdom, quite unrewarding” (p. 99). Yet

these researchers, and many others, continue their work studying, defining, identifying, and developing leadership.

2.2 Concept

Understanding the meaning of leadership is highly important towards testing and analyzing the related theories (Avolio& Gardner, 2005). According to Yukl and Fleet (1992), leadership is necessary to shape the goals, coordinate the efforts, motivate the employees, and monitor the performance. Subsequently, it can be perceived differently if reviewed from different perspectives, especially from regional, religious, cultural, political and economic angles (AlSarhi, Salleh, Mohamed &Amini, 2014). Richardson (2000), as well explained that we can achieve a better understanding about groups and communities by looking at their leaders. Moreover, leadership consists of the efforts of one member of an organization with respect to other members to help them achieve their goals. Leaders try to guide firms and their people to build their future because this is their responsibility to find new paths in changing organizations and be persistent in pursuing the chosen direction (Won-joo&Mulhern, 2009). Therefore, we often observe and study leaders since we know that having effective leadership is essential for our future career success. Academic leadership, as a special type of general leadership in higher education, refers to leadership in academic settings or institutions (Sathye, 2004). The study of leadership in higher education is important not just for institutional effectiveness, but because higher education plays a significant role in shaping the leadership in large societies (Astin&Astin, 2000).

Despite the fact that leadership doesn't have a one-size-fits-all definition, its study could provide such a valuable insight for future research. Subsequently, learning about the exercise of leadership could also serve as a lens through which social situations can be observed (Astin&Astin, 2000). Many researchers have investigated the notion of leadership across various disciplines (e.g., psychology, sociology political science, and economics) and from numerous theoretical perspectives (e.g., trait, behavioral, contingency, relational, information-processing, transactional, transformational, charismatic, and shared). (Day &Antonakis, 2012). Nye (2008) proposed three elements for leadership: leaders, followers, and context. This study mainly concentrates on clarifying the reason for followers to follow someone lies in their need for meaning and belonging to a group in order to get the work done. Some people may think that leadership means to influence others in order to complete a particular task, and thus it gives the ability to transform and influence people and institutions (Astin&Astin, 2000). For example, Northouse (2010) defines leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 3). Similarly, Yukl (2010) provides the definitions of leadership as “...a process whereby intentional influence is exerted over other people to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization” (p. 21). Consequently, leadership can be understood as both an influential process and a specialized role held by an individual (Tafvelin, 2013).

2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP

An analysis of the definitions stated above shows and reveals the following features of leadership.

- (i) Leadership is a personal quality.
- (ii) Leadership emerges in a group situation.
- (iii) It exists only with followers.
- (iv) Leadership is influencing process.
- (v) It exists for realization of goals.

- (vi) Leadership style changes under different situations.
- (vii) Leadership refers to behaviour in directing or guiding human resources in an organization.

2.4 FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

A leader, whether formal or informal, is required to undertake several functions in relation to his group.

- (1) To knit the groups into a cohesive, disciplined and working unit.
- (2) To give a sense of direction to his group members to develop and utilize their efforts towards meaningful ends.
- (3) To interact with, inspire group members to perform well.
- (4) To create the required environment and design the needed infrastructural facilities in which group member can work effectively towards group goals and derive satisfaction.
- (5) To provide support to his group by understanding their values, needs and expectation and helping them to achieve them as far as possible.
- (2) To resolve conflict in the group and make the group adjust to changes so as to survive and achieve group goals.

David Bowers and Stanley Seashore :Classify the above functions into four categories.

- (a) Support:-** It is a behaviour of leader which extends support to his group by understanding their value and needs.
- (b) Emphasis on Goals:-**It is a behaviour of leader which helps in achieving the group goals with excellence.
- (c) Facilitation of Work:-**It is behaviour of leader which facilitate work by providing proper work environment.
- (d) Facilitation of Interaction:-**It is a behaviour of leader which inspires group members to interact.

In other words, functions of a leader can be summed up as under :

- (1) He formulates objectives for his group.
- (2) He gives orders that will be obeyed.
- (3) He maintains discipline.
- (4) He maintains communication in the organization.
- (5) He listens to subordinates and responds to their needs.
- (2) He take important decision for the group.
- (7) He maintains unity and cohesiveness in the organization.
- (8) He sees that the group achieves its goals.
- (9) He represents the group to the outside world.

2.5 QUALITIES OF LEADERSHIP

Search for self and self-identity, urge for self-culture and self-development, and question for self-actualization and self-realization have been the eternal questions influencing the course of humanity and human history since time immemorial. Ancient scriptures, whether oriental or in the west, and modern scientific enquiries have frequently referred to the twin goals of human life: fullest growth of physical, mental and sensory faculties on the one hand; and fullest development

of ethical, moral and spiritual values on the other. One of the basic criteria of human growth has been development of a balanced personality, involving physical, intellectual, emotional, moral, social and temporal aspects of life. Blending of science with spiritually; material with moral goals; individual with social values; qualities of head with heart; joys with sorrow; knowledge with truly; thought with action; immediate with proximate considerations; and success with failure are sing qua non of a wholesome life and a fully blossomed personality.

The urge to attain achievable heights and recognition in ones area of activity, profession, vocation or occupation is the driving force behind all attempts of personal and social self-development inward and outward, visible or invisible, direct or indirect which leads to refinements of ones personality traits and leadership qualities. In a developing country like India, personality development is a challenge and an opportunity, which needs proper planning, execution, monitoring and feedback.

Now let us see what are essential qualities of leadership. Broadly a good leader is expected to have the following qualities:

1. Self Confidence

A good leader must have confidence based on self-knowledge. This will enable him to win confidence of others.

2. Ability to Communicate

He should have the ability to communicate instructions and views to others.

3. Integrity

Leadership functions best when it is founded on sincerity, honesty and integrity. It is more than just plain honesty. It implies moral foundness and up-rightness. Integrity is that straight forward virtue which makes a man high minded, gives him high aspirations and high ideas, "to thine own self be true," should be his main motto.

4. Intelligence

A leader should have a higher intelligence than his followers, but not too much higher.

5. Ability to Inspire

A leader should have enough ability to exert-influence upon his followers.

2. Courage

A leader must have moral courage to do things which he believes to be right. He must have the boldness to take decision and to stand by them.

7. Flexibility of Mind

In the fast moving socio-economic changes that are taking place it is highly desirable that a leader should have flexibility of mind. He should be bold enough to change his mind when circumstances change.

8. Good Judgement

A good leader must have wisdom to look ahead into the future and ability to make good judgement.

2.6 EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP AND INFLUENCING PROCESS

Leadership is a process where one person influences others in a given situation. In the functioning of a leader, the ability to guide, direct and extract obedience from others is achieved by influencing them through his authority. Authority allows a leader to use power is ability to exercise influence. The relationship between authority and influence can only be understood if we understand different kinds of power.

Following are different kinds of power :-

- (1) **Legal Power** - It is a formal power which arises out of position.
- (2) **Competency Power** - Competency of person acts as a power when authority originate from knowledge. He can led other to trust his judgement and decisions.
- (3) **Reward Power** - It refers to power to give promotions, leaves, work allocation, monetary benefits etc. This power can increase the legal power to great extent.
- (4) **Power to Punish** - Punishment like dismissal, demotion, low rating etc. help in changing the behaviour of group members and accepting the directions of a leader.
- (5) **Power to Attract** - The power of attraction help subordinates to identify themselves with the leader and get influenced by the leader.

A manager who is a formal leader having legal power by virtue of his position in an organisation influence on other to accomplish the goals. An informal leader chosen by the group can have influence on other as defined by the concept of leadership itself. However a combination of formal and informal leader can leave long lasting influence on the members and is a type of ideal leadership.

Management is getting things done through others. The effectiveness of a manager as leader is critical for organisational survival and success. So effective leadership is essential for business.

There are Three Views

- (1) Effective leadership requires certain basic qualities among person who assume the role of leaders. There are necessary but not sufficient.
- (2) There is no ideal leadership style or behaviour generally applicable for all situations. Leadership effectiveness can be secured or enhanced by tailoring the style to the demands of each situation.
- (3) Third view is that effectiveness is a function of interaction of leader, followers and situation. Leadership effectiveness depends on ability of leader to adopt different behavioural styles to match different situations. There is no best style for all situations.

Effectiveness is different from successfulness of a leader. Leaders are successful but ineffective when they have a short run influence over the behaviour of others. They can be successful and effective it they have long term influence. For this they must understand their own abilities and their impact on others.

Leadership attempts to have effect on the behaviour of another. The response to this attempt may or may not be successful. Manager is to get the work done with and through people. The success of a manager is measured by the productivity or output of the group they lead.

For instance, a manager influence his subordinate to do a job by virtue of his position or coercive power he has. He will get the job done and be successful. Subordinate might have complete the job as it shall fetch rewards for him. Whereas style of leader may not compatible with subordinate's expectation. The influence may be short term. As leadership is an influencing

process, he must exercise such influence through personal power one must not be forced to perform his work but be persuaded to complete his job. Ultimately, goals of the organisation are to be achieved through a leader or manager by changing and controlling the behaviour of people in the organisation. For this one has to influence others in way which lasts over a long period of time and make them self directed and self controlled.

John French and Bertram have discussed a five fold frame work of power in terms of influence, which is as under:

(a) Coercive power, (b) reward power, (c) legitimate power, (d) expert power, (e) referent power.

Coercive power relies on fear and is based on the expectation of the subordinate that punishment is given for not agreeing with superior's actions and beliefs. Reward power sees that rewards are granted for compliance with superior's actions and wishes. Legitimate power is derived from the superior's position in the organization. Expert power comes from an individual's possessing some special skill, knowledge or expertise and referent power is based on identification of a follower with a leader who is admired and held in high esteem by the follower. The first three bases such as coercive, reward and legitimate can be termed as organizational factors and other two (expert and referent) as individual factors.

The extent of interaction for good leadership to exist depends upon (a) what is to be achieved, (b) behaviour of the people associated, (c) the knowledge and ideas that each one can contribute toward solving a problem, (d) permissiveness of the general environment. If the functions are of routine nature and take place with some degree of regularity, little interaction is required on the other side, if the issue calls for new ideas, is of a changing nature and affects seriously the leader and many members of the group, the need for interaction is great. There are three elements involved in leadership the leader with his or her characteristic including motivations, perceptions and resources relevant to the attainment of the group's goal the followers, with their characteristic including motivations, perceptions, and relevant resources; and the situation involving functions to be fulfilled desired goals and other conditions.

Leadership involves a transaction between the leader and the followers :

Traditional view of leadership considers leader as a primary factor. He or she was the one who exercised influence over the others. However, this view point omits essential point of the transaction which occurs between the person in the role of a leader and the followers.

In the transactional view, the leader is considered to be an influence source, who directs communications to followers to which they may react in various ways. The leader attempts to take account of the expectations, of the followers and they in turn evaluate the leader with respect to his or her responses to the needs with group. Leadership therefore, cannot be considered independently of the followers and the nature of the transactions involved within a particular group. Thus leadership involves a two way influence relationship, influence from the leader to followers is reciprocated by demands made upon the leader. The integrity of the relationship depends upon some yielding to influence on both sides.

There is not as sharp distinction between leaders and followers as sometimes appears, it is commonly assumed that a major distinction exists between those who lead and those who follow and that being one means not being the other. But this simple view denies reality. All leaders, some of the time and in varying degrees are followers and followers are not forever east in none-leader roles. They may and often to become leaders. The attributes required of a leader in a particular time and place are not confined only to those who are leaders. The idea that only some

members of a group have so called "Leadership qualities" and that they stand out as leaders has limited plausibility. It does not mean that followers are just passive group called "non-leaders" even if some of them may never lead. In organizations for instance, there is an expectation that active follower ship will be exhibited throughout the hierarchy. Being an effective follower is considered desirable in some who is a leader. There is no doubt that to show leadership quality is important in becoming a leader, superiors probably take notice of good followership qualities first, but, even than there are never the less very real distinctions made between leaders and followers. A major difference is being more central in the influence network.

Leaders are likely to attempt to direct activities of others and to have their own influence accepted more. Hemphill called this characteristic "initiation of structure" which means organizing action to get things done. It is not a sole activity, however, very much depends upon the cooperative support of followers : -

2.7 TYPES OF LEADERS AND CATEGORIES OF LEADERSHIP

There are many ways in which individuals can influence others although some roles and activities are more conducive to influence than others indeed, any action in which an individual contributions to group goals in a way that is significantly different from other members can be considered as a kind of leadership. Almost any typology that applies to a given role or position will be deficient with sense that is behaviour category runs the risk of including too much or too little of the relevant activities performed. It is important to keep in mind that many of the categories overlap, and that the activities of a given leader will put him into several, if most, of these categories at one time or another :-

The various types of leaders are as under :-

1. The Administrator
2. The Bureaucrat
3. The Policy Maker
4. The Expert
5. The Ideologist
2. The Charismatic leader
7. The political Leader
8. The symbolic Leader

The Administrator

The term administrator cover large number of activities that is to say planning, coordinating, managing, directing and organizing. Administrators are people who are to get the things done. They occupy key positions in organization or groups that have been set up to achieve the desired goals that is to say producing goods or providing services.

The administrator's two main tasks are to direct the maintenance of organizational process and to carry out the organization's policies. Administration may also include policy making although many writers see policy making as a separate from administration maintaining that the two functions call for separate skills and generally are called out by separate individuals and groups. The attempt to maintain administration and policy making as separate functions usually results in an uneasy balance of power between administration and policy makers, with administrators having the initial advantages, but, with policy making groups having the final say and possessing a veto power.

Bureaucrat

This term applies to those individuals who occupy position to the intermediate and lower levels of administrative hierarchy in an organization, who perform more or less more specialized duties in directing and supervising organizational process. Whatever the power the bureaucratic leader may possess derives from the structure of the organization and the formalized regulations that

prescribe define and limit his roles and functions. Organizations that have existed over a period of time are likely to develop structure with a high degree of flexibility and durability. The Roman Empire, for example, is said to have been able to withstand the debilitating effects of decades of misrule by incompetent emperors, some of them merely adventures and opportunists, by virtue of a strong bureaucracy that carried on the business of the Empire, in suite of what was going on at the top levels.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1) Give two types of leader.
- 2) Give two qualities of leader

The Policy Makers

The policy maker may also be an administrator; he is less likely to be a bureaucrat; although even lesser bureaucrats may at times make policy by the way they carry out their duties, in large organizations, policy makers are likely to be members of boards of directors or legislators. The administrator generally serves as the chief consultant to bodies of policy makers and, when policy has been formulated carries it out. The policy maker is often a covert leader that is, he may expert influence without revealing himself. "The man behind the throne is common phrase to describe this kind of leader.

The Expert

The expert generally works in a consultant capacity to policy makers and administrators. He is specialist in some field of information that is of value of the organization leaders. He may participate in the formulating of policy and in planning, but, his role is generally that of a commentator, critic, and special resource person.

The first three types of leaders described are what is termed "Line". They are charged with the responsibility of formulating objectives and or carrying tern out. The expert is "staff", because he bears no direct responsibility for the result that obtain as a result of the efforts of line personnel. Medical specialists, personnel managers, industrial psychologists, and public relations officers are all "staff" in a manufacturing organization, whereas foreman, superintendent, production managers, and salesmen are all "line".

The ideologist

Like the expert, the ideologist, is a specialist, but, he is specialist in ideas and beliefs, rather than in some technical field. The ideologist is concerned with the basic theories that are implied by various forms of social behaviour, Saint Augustine, Luther, Galleo, Mohammed, Karl Marx, and Theodore Herzl are examples of highly influential ideologist whose teachings have altered the lives of millions.

The Charismatic leader

Charisma is Greek term means a favour or a gift granted by God that enables the recipient to have some special power with respect to this fellow men the ability to heal or to perform miracles; for example. The term was introduced into social science by Marx Weber (1947), who applied it to leaders with strong emotional appeal. When this is coupled with an ideology, as it was with some diverse individuals as Luther Mohammad. St. Francis, Adolf Hitler, the combination can be very attractive, particularly for the dissatisfied. Yesterday's charismatic leaders were likely to be

religious; today's are likely to be political. The difference, however, may be largely superficial, because the charismatic political leader of today is able to imbue his followers with a zeal that goes beyond mere politics and is, in the final analysis, built largely on unquestioning faith in his miraculous powers, Eric Hoffer (1951) called the followers of charismatic leaders "true believers", and made the point that their blind faith is based on a belief in their own worthlessness and inadequacy. It is only through identifying with a "movement" and a super leader, he said, that they are able to gain a sense of selfhood and personal adequacy.

The political Leader

The political leader embodies something of most of the leader types we have discussed so far. He is a policy maker, is often an ideologist, and must have at least a touch of charisma in order to be elected. Although he operates within an organization or a government he often functions like an entrepreneur or independent trader. Politicians achieve goals for themselves, their friends, and the people who elect them by elaborate systems of bargaining and favour trading. Non-politicians are disturbed by this practice whenever they learn of it. There is no doubt that politicians have used these methods to further their own ends, but, the fact remains that negotiation and compromise are necessary in any problem solving situation involving the interest of multiples of groups and individuals. No one can have his own way all the time, and political arrangements are needed to ensure a more or less equitable sharing of benefits and rewards. And so political arrangements are made.

The Symbolic Leader

An important dimension of a leader's role is his ability not only to represent and speak for his group, but, also to represent his group symbolically. For instance an ambassador from India is treated with respect because he represents or stands for the people of India. In a manner of speaking he is Indian in that country where he has a high degree of ritual value. Relations between groups of people like nations, take place between symbolic leaders interacting in a very formal ritualistic way, that is, in ways that have been prescribed by custom and precedent. Although such ritual is often criticized as being empty or meaningless, "it appears to provide a necessary channel for communication and interaction.

The Parent Figure

The first leaders with whom we become acquainted are our parents. There is a tendency, particularly during the childhood and adolescence for us to regard all authority figures in some what the same way we regard our own parents. This tendency may even longer, throughout life, with the result that leaders and other persons in authority, often take on certain parental characteristics. Leaders' roles, further more, often resemble those of parents they reward, punish, admonish, child encourage, direct, and so forth. These are all part of the role traditionally assigned to parents. These are two main types of parental leaders. One is the dominating, forbidding, punishing, demanding, authoritarian leader-the so called father figure". The other is nourishing, sheltering, understanding, supportive reassuring leader-the "Mother figure". Most leaders irrespective of their sex represent a combination of these two types. They are reflected in the leadership styles terms "structure initiation" and "consideration".

Broadly leadership can be classified as (1) Dictatorial leadership, (2) Autocrat leadership, (3) Laissez faire or Free rein leadership and (4) Democratic leadership.

Dictatorial Leadership

This is a type of leadership in which followers do the work out of fear. In such a leadership, the subordinates do what they are told. Here the main concept is; "There is not to make reply, there is not to reason why, there is but to do or die". The dictatorial leader who is frequently called negative leader hold over the heads of his subordinates the threat of penalties and punishments, such as discharge, demotion poor ratings that may prevent promotions and wage increases, and so on. As a temporary measure such leadership gets result, but in the long run it fails as it leads dis-satisfaction of the followers.

Autocratic leadership

Autocratic leadership differs from dictatorial leadership in as much as the former motivates his subordinates by providing the need satisfaction if the subordinates do what they are told to do. But such a leader maintains complete authority and centralizes all power and decision making in himself. Such a leader does not permit subordinates to participate in the decision-making process and tolerates no deviation from what he has told his followers to do. In this types of leadership subordinates tend to be very much dependent on the leader and are not even aware of the goals mission. The leader makes decision that he considers to be in the best interest of his subordinates. In other word, the leader super-imposes his wishes on them in the name of decision that benefit them. This type of leadership also gets results. But it suffers from the serious disadvantage that it can be as good as the leadership also gets results. But if suffers from the serious disadvantage that if can be as good as the leader and if the leader is weak and inefficient the followers will also be weak and inefficient.

Laissez-Faire of Free-Rein Leadership

This is a type of leadership in which the leader avoids contacts with the followers or subordinates and allows them to set their own goals and make their own decision. In this way considerable authority is delegated to the subordinates. Such a leader does not direct; it is, in fact, incapable of commanding. He makes hardly any contribution to overall effort. Such a leadership often results in disorganisation or chaos because it permits different individuals to proceed in different directions. This approach can, however, work if the subordinates are highly intelligence and duty conscious. This use of free-rein approach is limited to very special circumstances and has not been recommended for general adoption in all leadership situations.

Democratic Leader

A democratic leader is one who formulates his policies through group discussion. This leadership concept is based on decentralization in authority and decision making. A democratic leader encourages the followers to function as a social unit and makes full use of the talents an abilities of the member of the group. "He is the conductor of an orchestra rather than one-man band, and realizes that his job is to Co-ordinate the willing work of his employees." Such a leader considers the needs and preferences of his subordinates and treats them with dignity and kindness. Such a leader is frequently referred to as "employee-oriented" as opposed to "work oriented or task-oriented."

The basic characteristics of a democratic leader are :

- (1) He formulates his policies in group discussion.
- (2) He issues orders only after consultation with the group.
- (3) He permits his subordinates to make important decision in the area of their functioning.
- (4) He permits his subordinates to participate in decision which affect them.

- (5) He explains the reasons behind his orders and keeps his group informed of future plan.
- (2) He encourages the followers to function as a social unit.

Measures For Developing Leadership Ability

The abilities of leadership cannot only be inherited but can also be acquired various measures and methods hand made it possible to acquire such abilities. Following are few methods.

- (i) Leadership training and job rotation.
- (ii) Exposure to organisational problems.
- (iii) Autonomy and freedom to evolve own method of doing work.
- (iv) Opportunity to interact with subordinates.
- (v) Setting challenging and real goals through participation.

LEADERS VS. MANAGER

People, who have authority are not necessarily leaders. All leaders have authority; but all authorities are not leaders. Leaders derive their authority from group. Managers have a legitimate right to act authoritatively, because they have an official position in an organisation that carries with it specific kinds of authority over others. Leaders, on the other hand, do not necessarily have legitimacy in their role as leaders. They act and exercise power regardless of the formal structure within an organisation. A revolutionary is an extreme example of a leader, who acts with power, but without the legitimate right or formal authority to do so. Management of leadership can occur together, and naturally, that is the most desirable situation.

The distinguishing difference between a leader and an authority figure is that the group chooses the leader. It is well accepted in management thinking today that leadership has to be earned, it can not be conferred like managership.

The leader simulates, motivates and inspires the group to follow willingly, even eagerly. The authority pushes and drives his men, who yield and obey because they fear the consequences of disobedience. Coercion is not leadership.

Leadership demands that our managements should be able to set an example to the workers, if they wish to be accepted as leaders. They must not preach what they cannot practice an army officer must first face bullets himself before he can expect his soldiers to face them. If management wants the workers to be disciplined, it must set the pace. If managers want workers to be honest, they must establish their credentials first. Corruption flows downwards. When people at lower levels see that those occupying high positions conspire and leave no stone unturned to acquire wealth by any means, they lose faith in the leadership.

2.8 THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

1. The Trait Approach

The earliest studies of leadership were based largely on attempt to identify the traits that leaders actually possessed. Starting with the "great man" theory that leaders are born not made a belief dating back to the ancient Greeks and Romans, inquiries were made to identify the physical, mental and personality traits of leaders. Even in recent years such studies have been made. Stogdill found that the various researches identified five physical traits related to leadership ability

(such as energy, appearance and height) four intelligence and six task related characteristics (such as achievement drive, persistence and initiative and social characteristics (such as cooperativeness, interpersonal skills and administrative ability).

Criticism

The criticism has been that (1) Study of leadership not has been very fruitful approach to explaining leadership, (2) Not all leaders possess all traits, (3) Non-leaders may possess most or all of them, (4) This approach does not provide guide as to how much of any trait a person should have, (5) There is no uniformity of identified traits or any significant correlations of traits with actual instances of leadership, (2) Those traits for all practical purpose describe nothing, (7) Studies have failed to produce one personality traits or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate between leaders and non leaders.

From the above criticism it does not mean that this theory does not have any significance at all. Some studies have indicated a significant correlation between certain traits and leadership effectiveness. Stogdil found that there was a definite correlation between the traits of intelligence, scholarship, dependability, responsibility, social, participation, and social economic status of leaders, Meith Davis, found that leaders too have high intelligence, board social interests and maturity, strong motivation to accomplish and great respect for and interest in people, it is generally felt that inspite of significant correlation between certain traits and leadership, effectiveness, these correlations are not persuasive and most of these traits are really patterns of behavior

2. Situational Theory

This approach to the explanation of leadership suggests that there must be enough flexibility in the leadership to adjust to different situations. Leadership is multidimensional. In this theory, leadership is made up of four variable; the leader, the followers, the organization, and the social, economic and political influences. While all are important, much attention is directed to the organization and the social, economic and political environment. However, adjustments to the leader and to the followers also are subject to much analysis. A common problem for which this theory can be helpful, is determining whether applicants for a leadership of job are competent. Are they, for example, available because the particular situation of their former position did not permit them to lead even though they tried to adjust to it ? It contrast do their former positions indicate an inability to lead, as such ?

Research on adaptive leadership suggests that there is a type of leadership that is most appropriate in different situation in studies by Fieldler, three dimensions were used to measure the leader's effectiveness, including (1) the degree of confidence the followers have for their leader, (2) the degree to which the follower's job either are routine or are ill structured, and (3) the degree of power inherent in the leadership position, the interaction of these three dimensions determine whether "controlling, active and strutting" (CAS) leadership, or "permissive, passive, and considerate" (PPC) leadership will probably be the most effective. It appears that CAS leadership is the best in setting that are either very favourable or very unfavourable in term of leader's power, structured task, and group support. In contrast for intermediate setting, PPC leadership appears preferable. This is, the permissive leader obtains optimum group performance is situation where the task are reasonable structured and leader must by diploma-the leader's power and the group's

support are of an average amount, neither favourable nor highly unfavourable. Further, Fiedler recommends that situation be made more congruent with the leader's mode of operation, since leadership style of the leader is quite difficult to change'.

3. Supportive theory

The leader creates a work environment which promotes the desire by each followers to perform to the best of one's ability, cooperative with others, and develop one's skills and abilities, suggestions about how better to do the work, what improvements in working conditions can be made, and what new ideas should be tried out are encouraged. The leader gives general managerial overseeing and encourages subordinates to use their creativity and initiative in handling the details of their jobs. Decision making by the leader includes consideration for the follower's opinions and recommendations which they aggressively seek.

The supportive theory is also termed as "participative theory." This follows due to the leader encouraging followers to participate concerning decisions to be made. Others call it "democratic theory of leadership" and while it does have democratic aspects, it neither implies rule by the majority or by vote. On the other hand, in the supportive theory the leader considers subordinates as social equals and has respect for their knowledge and ideas.

On the plus side, proponents of the supportive theory claim the practice of helping the followers and treating each as an individual with human dignity and rights makes for a cooperative, productive, and satisfied employee. The leader wins acceptance and the enlightened mode of operation prevails. Further, unilateral authority is rejected, and unwarranted special privileges are minimized. In contrast, there are opponents to the supportive theory. The object on the grounds that group influence on decision-making leads to confusion, a great waste of time and "watered-down" decision. Further, they state that individual rights and dignity are entirely possible without sharing in what amounts to managerial activities by non-management members. Also, it is claimed the theory violates traditional tenants of private enterprise where the owner or an authorized agent is endowed solely with the decision making process.

4. Sociology Theory

In this Theory leadership is viewed as made up of work efforts that (1) facilitate the activities of followers and (2) strive to reconcile and organizational conflicts between followers. The leader establishes goals with participation by the followers in the final decision making. Goal identification given direction that followers often require. They know what performances, beliefs, and behaviours are expected of them. But the efforts to accomplish the goal influence the interactions among the followers sometimes to the degree that disruptive conflict within or between groups exists. Under such conditions the leader is expected to take corrective measures, exercise leadership influence and reinstate harmony and co-operative efforts among the followers.

From the practical view point, a leader does attempt to facilitate the activities of followers, but in some cases goals are spent by others and, further, one may find conflict resolution almost beyond one's power to influence. Again, the particulars situation, the individual differences of group members, and the competency of the leader are the underlying causes.

5. Psychological Theory

Perhaps better identified as the psychological over view, this approach to leadership advocates that the major function of a leader to develop the best motivation system. The leader stimulates subordinates to contribute to organizational objectives as well as to satisfy their own personal goals. Leadership that motivates gives considerable attention to the subordinate's attributes such

as recognition, emotional security, and opportunity in keeping with one's desires and needs. The satisfaction of these needs in a manner that adds organization to be more successful represents with at the psychological theory leader must perform.

This theory of leadership is quite broad and general. The techniques for motivating are many and success is usually associated with applying the correct technique for the particular individual circumstances. There is no one best consistent motivational plan that a leader can follow.

6. Personal Behaviour Theory

Leadership can be studied on the bases of the personal qualities or behaviour patterns of leaders. This approach emphasizes what that leader does in leading. An important contribution of this theory is that a leader neither behaves the same nor takes identical actions for every situation faces. One is flexible to a degree, because one feels one must be to take the most appropriate action for handling particular problem. This suggests a leadership continuum whereby the leader's actions and amount of authority used are related to the decision making freedom or participation available to the subordinates.

7. Autocratic Theory

Leadership as envisioned under this theory features commands, enforcements, and somewhat arbitrary actions in the leader's relationships with subordinates. The leader tends to be work centered; closely supervises to ensure that designated work is performed and utilizes measurements of production to help in this effort. The formal organization structure is respected at all times for which economic security as steady employment, promotions along prescribed paths, and status symbols to denote relative formal ranks are granted. Orders and directives are employed, but, frequently an explanation or reason for them is not given. However, under the autocratic theory, the leader is not viewed as an inflexible autocrat always making decisions without regard to human values but, the preponderance of one's leadership behaviour tends to have these characteristics.

The autocratic leader use commands generally supported by sanction of which discipline is among the most important. Discipline may either bring about the giving of rewards or the establishing of a system of penalties, as for example, giving a pay increase or high productivity or penalizing for exercise defects in the quality of the product. Enforcement by the autocratic leader depends on power to reward or punish. The belief prevails that most human work is better in a climate where the acceptance of a prescribed habit of obedience exists. Accordingly both the contentment and the productivity of an employee are aided when the employee knows where one stands and what is expected a modus operandi helped by the sanction of discipline.

8. Fred Fielder's Model

Fielder developed situational model of leadership in the form of a "contingency theory of leadership". According to him, effective leadership is matter of match between personality of a leader and situation in which the functions.

He described two types of leaders on the basis of his personality.

- (i) Task Oriented Leader.
- (ii) Human Relation Oriented Leader.

He described three type of situational factors and variables on which style depends.

viz.

- (a) Leader-member relation which may be good or poor.

- (b) Task structure which may be high or low.
- (c) Position power which may be strong or weak.

According to him task oriented leaders tend to be very effective in extreme situations (highly favourable or highly unfavourable). On the other hand, Human Relation oriented leaders perform well in a moderate situations. According to his theory, situation is subject to change and can be modified. A highly unfavourable situation can be made favourable by restructuring and redefining tasks, by strengthening position power of leader and by improving relations with members. So to conclude, leadership is neither purely a matter of qualities nor situation but it is a result of an interaction between the two.

9. Normative Theory

Vroom explains the rules regarding what leader should do and how he should behave in a particular decision-making situations. Here leader is effective if his decision are timely and acceptable. There are three styles of decision making leader:

1. Automatic
2. Consultative
3. Participative

The leader is to adopt a style depending on decision situation viz., degree of importance, possession of information, nature of problem, importance and probability of acceptance etc. Theory is prescriptive and based on rule for making decision. Theory is silent on the decision making situations like uncertainty, urgency etc.

10. Path-Goal Theory

Developed by Robert Hose in 1971 and it states that leader shows a path to achieve goals and provides rewards for achieving them i.e. he tells path to reward. Such leader help people to achieve goals by clarifying paths. Path here refers to ways and means to achieve rewards or goals. Here leader understand needs of people and behave in way to achieve goal and satisfy their needs by providing rewards. Leader understands characteristics of group member and environment situations and match the behaviour accordingly. Here leader's behaviour is based on situation and characteristics of members According to this theory a leader may be

- (a) Directive Leader
- (b) Supportive Leader
- (c) Participative Leader
- (d) Achievement oriented Leader

2.9 GLOSSARY

- Decentralization- transfer of authority from higher to lower level envisioned to visualize future possibility

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2.11 FURTHER READINGS

- NewstormDaris K. (2010) OrganisationalBehaviour N.Y. Mcgraw Hill
- A.G Jagpo and Victor H. Vroom.1977.*Hierarchical Level and leadership style in Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* No.18.
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2.12 MODEL QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the meaning, features and functions of Leadership
2. Critically discuss the various theories of Leadership.

SUGGESTIVE ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1) The Administrator, The Ideologist
- 2) Intelligence, Self-confidence

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Employee Needs: Concept, Hierarchy of Needs and Needs Satisfaction

Objectives

- 3.1 Introduction**
- 3.2 Nature of Employee Needs**
- 3.3 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory**
- 3.4 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y**
- 3.5 The Motivation Hygiene Theory**
- 3.6 Contemporary Theories relating to Employee Needs**
- 3.7 Requirement of some special system relating to employee needs**
- 3.8 Summary**
- 3.9 Glossary**
- 3.10 References**
- 3.11 Further Readings**
- 3.12 Model Questions**

3.0 Objectives

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

1. Appreciate the significance of employee needs
2. Enlist the various kinds of employee needs
3. Explain the various theories relating to needs
4. Elaborate the measures towards needs satisfaction

3.1 Introduction

In the business and industrial organizations optimum utilization of various resources is the key to the organizational success. In this regard employees' efficiency and their sincere contribution towards the achievement of goals matters a lot. The managers strive hard to get maximum out of the human resource. At the same time in various cases, there is a problem of employees' turnover and absenteeism regardless of the nature and size of the organization or the organizational policies. Various studies have indicated a direct relationship between employee turnover or absenteeism and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is generally defined as a perceived relation

between employee needs and expectations and what one perceives it as offering. This has led to become a matter of primary concern for employers to pay attention on identifying and satisfying employee needs. In this lesson we'll focus on various kinds of employee needs and some well-known theories in this regard.

3.2 Nature of Employee Needs

Before examining some important theories on employee needs and their satisfaction, we must analyze some of the basic needs of employees. Here we need to understand that people join organizations with some motives in mind or in other words we require an answer to the question that why people work in organizations? or what they want from work? Here we must understand that these motives vary from one society to another. Various factors play important role in this regard. Broadly the employee needs vary in developed countries from those in developing countries. It is mainly the level of economic development of the country, the nature and size of population, government policies, etc. which play important role in this regard.

Other than the earning of basic livelihood, most employees look for a number of other motives or try to satisfy their needs. It may mainly include: job security, job satisfaction, respect from coworkers and seniors, a congenial work place, social interactions and participation, learning for future growth, a respectable career, and appreciation and rewards.

In modern organizations the leaders take in account most of these employees needs or motives which help them towards organizational stability and growth. A research work by Daniel Pink indicates towards understanding employee needs:

- Baseline rewards that are sufficient and fair
- A congenial working atmosphere
- Freedom to make choices – autonomy
- Opportunities to pursue mastery – learn and excel
- Perform duties that align with a higher purpose

Employees are humans and as such they generally want to contribute their best work, and they need to believe their work matters in order to do so. They need to be empowered and enabled to get the work done. They need their contributions appreciated, and their ideas and opinions respected.

Herman Miller, on the basis of his team's long research concluded six core needs that all people, regardless of gender, ethnicity, socio-economic status, etc. have. These include:

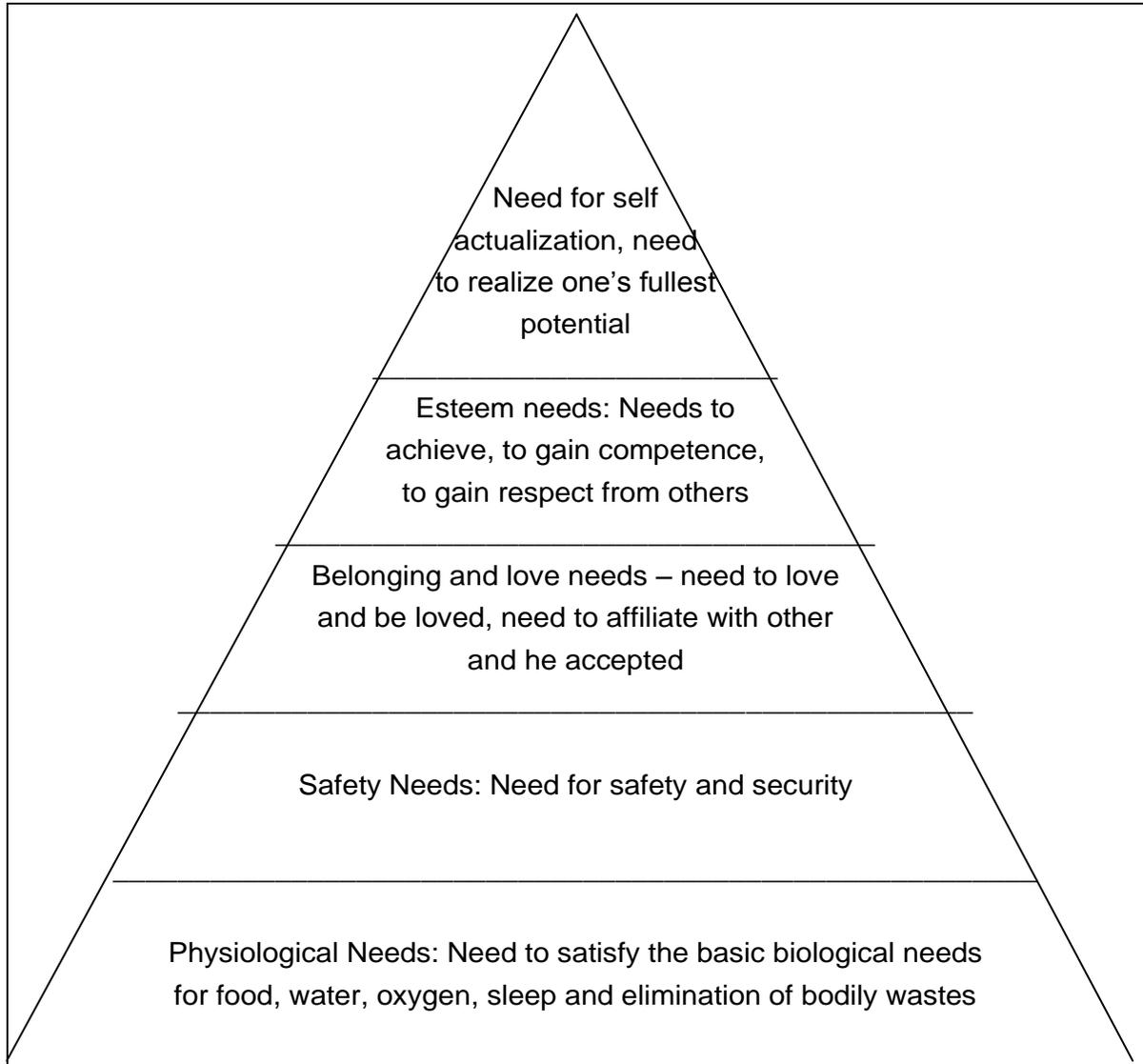
- SECURITY- We desire health, safety, familiarity, and competence
- STATUS- We seek recognition of our contributions
- ACHIEVEMENT- We strive for excellence and take pride in our accomplishments
- AUTONOMY- We seek freedom in our actions and decisions
- PURPOSE-We want to make a meaningful difference
- BELONGING- We want a meaningful connection to others

As noted earlier, a number of theories have provided an excellent base towards comprehending the basic human needs and particularly those of the work force. In the following sections we'll look into the basic postulates of these theories.

3.3 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Abraham Maslow was a psychologist who proposed a theory of human motivation for understanding behavior based primarily upon a hierarchy of five need categories. He recognized that

Figure 3.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



there were factors other than one's needs (for example, culture) that were determinants of behavior. However, he focused his theoretical attention on specifying people's internal needs. Maslow labelled the five hierarchical categories as physiological needs, safety and security needs, love (social) needs, esteem needs and the need for self-actualization.

Humans have a variety of needs or motives. Clearly, some needs are more critical to sustaining life than others. We could live without self-esteem, but obviously we could not live long without air to breathe, water to drink, or food to eat.

Abraham Maslow (1970) proposed a 'hierarchy of needs' to account for the range of human motivation. He placed physiological needs such as food and water at the base of the hierarchy, stating that these needs must be adequately satisfied before higher ones can be considered.

If our physiological needs (for water, food, sleep, sex and shelter) are adequately met, then the motives at the next higher level (the safety and security needs) will come into play. When these needs are satisfied, we climb another level to satisfy our needs to belong, and to love and be loved. Maslow believed that failure to meet the belonging and love needs deprives individuals of acceptance, affection and intimacy and is the most prominent factor in human adjustment problems. Still higher in the hierarchy are the needs for self-esteem and the esteem of others. These needs involve our sense of worth and competence, our need to achieve and be recognized for it, and our need to be respected.

At the top of Maslow's hierarchy is the need for self-actualization the need to actualize or realize our full potential. People may reach self-actualization through achievement in virtually any area of life's work. But the surest path of self-actualization is one in which a person finds significant and consistent ways to serve and contribute to the well being of humankind.

Maslow conceptually derived the five need categories from the early thoughts of William James and John Dewey, coupled with the psychodynamic thinking of Sigmund Freud and Alfred Adler. One distinguishing feature of Maslow's need hierarchy is the following progression hypothesis. Although some later research has challenged some of Maslow's assumptions, the theory insists that only ungratified needs motivate behavior. Further, it is the lowest level of ungratified needs that motivate behavior. As a lower level of need is met, a person progresses to the next higher level of need as a source, of motivation. Hence, people progress up the hierarchy as they successively gratify each level of need. Some possible work-related means of fulfilling the various needs in the hierarchy are shown in figure below:

Table 3.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Potential Means of Fulfillment at Work

Potential Means of Fulfillment at work		
Need Hierarchy	Self-Actualization Needs	Challenging projects, opportunities for innovation and creativity, training
	Esteem Needs	Important projects, recognition, prestigious office location
	Belongingness Needs	Good co-workers, peers, superiors, customers
	Safety Needs	Job security; benefits, like life insurance; safety regulations
	Physiological Needs	Basic pay, work space, heat, water, company cafeteria

Maslow recognized that a need might not have to be completely fulfilled before we start directing out attention to the next level in the hierarchy. At the same time, he argued that once we have essentially fulfilled a need, that need ceases to be a motivator and we begin to feel tension to fulfil needs at the next level. While Maslow's hierarchy has stimulated thinking about the various needs that individuals have, it has some serious shortcomings. Research suggests that needs may cluster into two or three categories rather than five. Also, the, hierarchy of needs may not be the same far everyone. For instance, entrepreneurs frequently pursue. their dreams for years despite

the relative deprivation of lower level needs. Finally, individuals often seem to work on satisfying several needs at once, even though some needs may be more important than others at a given point of time.

3.4 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

One important organizational implication of the hierarchy of needs concerns the philosophies and techniques that have a bearing on how to manage people at work. Douglas McGregor, taking a cue from Maslow's need-based theory, grouped the physiological and safety needs as "lower-order" needs and the social, esteem and self-actualization needs as "upper-order" needs; McGregor proposed two alternative sets of assumptions about people at work, based upon which set of needs were the active motivators. He labelled these sets of assumptions — one basically negative as — Theory X and the other basically positive — as Theory Y. After viewing the way in which managers dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mould his or her behavior toward subordinates according to these assumptions.

The Table 3.2 below lists the assumptions that McGregor makes about people, resolving them in his now famous theory X and theory Y

Theory X	Theory Y
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People are by nature indolent. That is, they work as little as possible. • People lack ambition, dislike responsibility and prefer to be led. • People are inherently and indifferent to organizational needs. • People are by nature resistant to change • People are gullible and not very bright, the ready dupes of the charlatan and the demagogue. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People are not by nature passive or resistant to organizational needs. They have become so as a result of experience in organizations. • The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, and the readiness to direct behavior toward organizational goals are all present in people. Management does not put them there. It is a responsibility of management to make it possible for people to recognize and develop these human characteristics for themselves. • The essential task of management is to arrange conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives.

Source:D.M McGregor, "The Human Side of Enterprise", Management Review. 'November 1957: Page 22-28. 88.92.

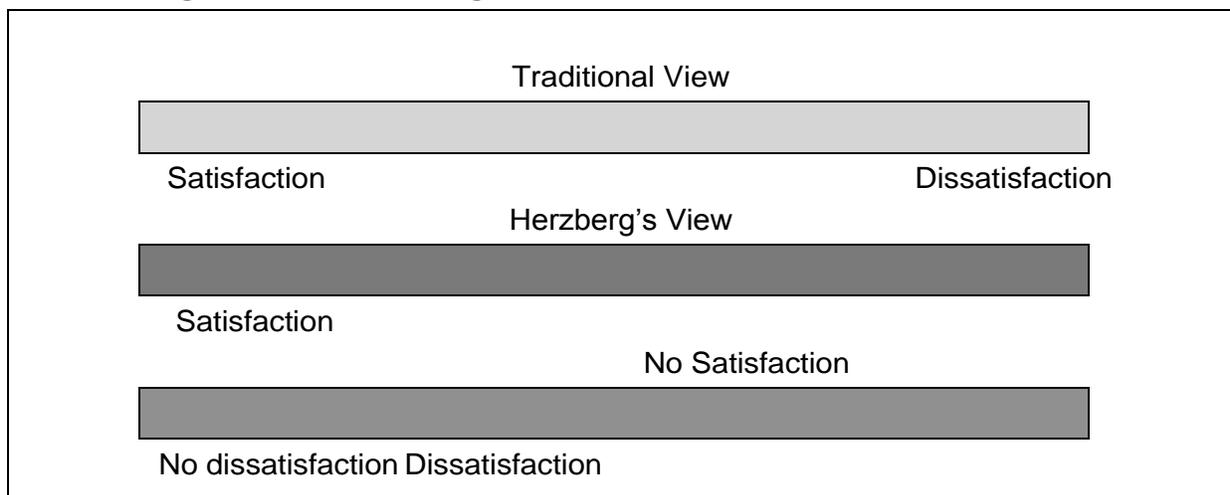
According to McGregor, people should be treated differently according to whether they are motivated by lower-order or higher order needs; Specifically, McGregor believed that Theory X assumptions are appropriate for employees motivated by lower-order needs. Theory Y assumptions, in contrast, are appropriate for employees motivated by higher-order needs, and Theory X assumptions are then inappropriate. In addition, McGregor believed that in the 1950s when he was writing, the majority of American workers had satisfied their lower-order needs and were therefore motivated by higher-order needs. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as

participative decision-making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations as approaches that would maximize employee's job motivation. Unfortunately, no evidence confirms that either set of assumptions is valid or that accepting Theory Y assumptions and altering one's actions accordingly will lead to more motivated workers.

3.5 The Motivation-hygiene Theory, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Fredrick Herzberg departed from the need hierarchy approach and examined the experiences that satisfied or dissatisfied people's needs at work. This needs theory became known as the 'two-factor theory'. Herzberg's original study included 200 engineers and accountants in Western Pennsylvania during the 1950s. Prior to that time, it was common for those researching work motivation to view the concept of job satisfaction as one-dimensional, that is, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were viewed as opposite ends of the same continuum. This meant that something that caused job satisfaction, would cause job dissatisfaction if it were removed; similarly, something that caused job dissatisfaction, if removed, would result, in job satisfaction. Based upon unstructured interviews with 200 engineers and accountants, Herzberg concluded that this view of job satisfaction was incorrect, and that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were actually conceptually different factors caused by different phenomena in the work environment. These two views of job satisfaction are shown in figure below

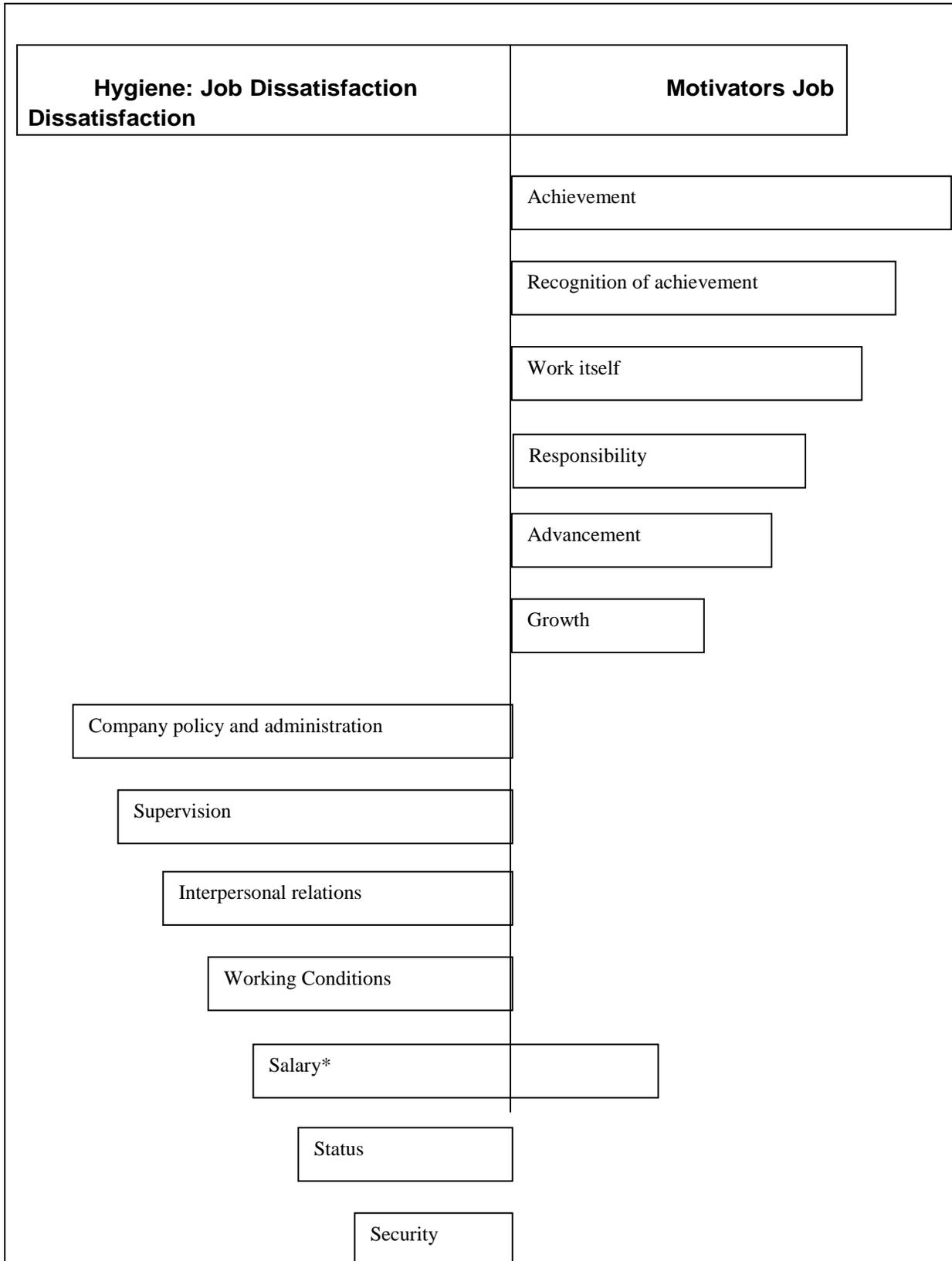
Figure 3.2: Contrasting Views of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction



Source: Stephen P Robbins "Organization. Behavior — Concepts, Controversies, Applications" (seventh Edition) 1996 page 217.

Work conditions related to satisfaction of the need for psychological growth were labelled motivation factors. Work conditions related to dissatisfaction caused by discomfort or pain was labelled 'hygiene factors'. Each set of factors relate to one aspect of what Herzberg identified as the human-being's dual nature regarding the work environment Thus, motivation factors relate to job satisfaction, and hygiene factors relate to job dissatisfaction. These two independent factors are depicted in the figure.

Figure 3.3: Hygiene and Motivating Factors



*** Because of its ubiquitous nature, salary commonly showed up as a motivator as well as hygiene. Although primarily a hygiene factor, it also often takes on some of the properties of a motivator, with dynamics similar to those of recognition for achievement.**

Source: Frederick Herzberg, *The Managerial Choice: To Be Efficient is to be Human* — Salt Lake City: Olympus. 1982.

Motivation Factors

According to Herzberg, building motivation factors into a job produces job satisfaction. This process is known as job enrichment. In the original research, the motivation factors were identified as responsibility, achievement, recognition, advancement and the work itself. These factors relate to the content of the job and what the employee actually does on the job. When these factors are present, they lead to superior performance and effort on the part of job incumbents. Motivation factors lead to positive mental health and challenge people to grow, contribute to the work environment, and invest themselves in the organization. The motivation factors are the most important of the two sets of factors, because they directly affect a person's motivational drive to do a good job. When they are absent, the person will be de-motivated to perform well and achieve excellence.

Hygiene Factors

Job dissatisfaction occurs when the hygiene factors are either not present or not sufficient. In the original research, the hygiene factors were company policy and administration, technical supervision, interpersonal relations with one's supervisor and working conditions, salary and status. These factors relate to the context of the job and may be considered support factors. They do not directly affect a person's motivation to work but influence the extent of the person's discontent. These factors cannot stimulate psychological growth or human development. Excellent hygiene factors result in employees' being not dissatisfied and contribute to the absence of complaints about these contextual considerations.

Criticisms of the Two-factor Theory

The motivation-hygiene-theory is not without its detractors. Criticisms have been made of Herzberg's two-factor theory. R.J House and L.A. Wigdor mention the following:

1. The procedure that Herzberg used is limited by its methodology. When things are going well, people tend to take credit themselves. Contrarily, they blame failure on the external environment.
2. The reliability of Herzberg's methodology is questioned. Since raters have to make interpretations, it is possible they may contaminate the findings by interpreting one response in one manner while treating another similar response differently.
3. The theory, to the degree it is valid, provides an explanation of job satisfaction. It is not really a theory of motivation.
4. No overall measure of satisfaction was utilized, in other words, a person may dislike part of his or her job, yet still think the job is acceptable.
5. The theory is inconsistent with previous research. The motivation-hygiene theory ignores situational variables.

6. Herzberg assumes a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. But the research methodology he used looked only at satisfaction, not at productivity. To make such research relevant, one must, assume a high relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

Regardless of criticisms, Herzberg's theory has been widely read and most managers a familiar with his recommendations. The two-factor theory has important implications for job enrichment and the design of work.

3.6 Contemporary Theories relating to Employee Needs

The theories discussed above are well known but have not held up well under close examination. Therefore, a number of authorities on the subject have come up with their version of the theories of motivation. These contemporary theories have one thing in common: each has a reasonable degree of valid supporting documentation.

These theories are called contemporary theories not necessarily because they were developed recently, but because they represent the current state of the art in explaining employee motivation.

1. Alderfer's ERG Theory

Because of the criticisms of Maslow's 'hierarchy of needs' theory, motivation researcher Clayton Alderfer of Yale University has reworked Maslow's hierarchy of needs to align it more closely with empirical research. His revised need hierarchy is labelled ERC Theory. The name stems from combining Maslow's five needs into three need levels: existence, relatedness and growth.

i. Existence Needs: include the various forms of material and physiological desires, such as food and water, as well as work-related forms such as pay, fringe benefits and physical working conditions.

ii. Relatedness needs: address our relationships significant others, such as families, friendship groups, work groups and professional groups. They deal with our need to be accepted by others, achieve mutual understanding on matters that are important to us and exercise some influence over those with whom we interact on an ongoing basis.

iii. Growths needs: impel creativity and innovation, along with the desire to have a productive impact on our surroundings.

ERG need levels differ in terms of concreteness, that is, the degree to which their presence or absence can be verified. The existence need level is the most concrete, relating to issues such as our rate of pay and the pleasantness of our work surroundings. The growth need level is the least concrete, involving more nebulous issues such as our level of creativity the degree to which our capabilities are growing relative to our capacity and the long-term impact of our efforts on our organization. According to ERG theory, we generally tend to concentrate first on our most concrete requirements. As existence needs are resolved, we have more energy available for concentrating on relatedness needs, which offer a potential source of support that can help us in satisfying growth needs. Thus, ERG theory incorporates a satisfaction-progression principle similar to that of Maslow in that satisfaction of one level of need encourages concern with the next level.

Besides substituting three needs for five, how does Alderfer's? ERG Theory differ from Maslow's? The ERG Theory differs from the hierarchy of needs theory in three significant ways.

i. Although the general notion of a hierarchy is retained, Alderfer's theory argues that we can be concerned with more than one need category at the same time. Needs at lower levels are not necessarily fairly well satisfied before we concern ourselves with other needs, although

satisfaction of lower-level needs can be helpful In allowing us to devote our attention to higher-level needs.

ii. ERG of theory is more flexible in acknowledging that some individuals' needs may occur in a somewhat different order than that posited by the, ERG framework,

iii. ERG theory incorporates a frustration-regression principle. This principle states that if we are continually frustrated in our attempts to satisfy a higher-level need, we may cease to be concerned about that need. Instead, we may regress to exhibiting greater concern for a lower level need that is more concrete and seemingly more within our grasp.

In summary, ERG theory argues — like Maslow — that satisfied lower order needs lead to the desire to satisfy higher order needs; but multiple needs can be operating as motivators at the same time, and frustration in attempting to satisfy a higher level need can result in regression to a lower level need. Both Maslow's hierarchy theory' and ERG theory are extremely difficult to test because they involve measuring and tracking an individual's changing needs and fulfillment levels over time. So far, the limited research on ERG theory has generally been supportive. If ERG theory is correct in predicting that individuals attempt to fulfil multiple needs at the same time, then motivating individuals is likely to require offering a variety of means for need fulfillment. Because of the frustration-regression aspect of ERG theory, managers need to be particularly concerned with providing opportunities to satisfy growth needs, lest employees cease to be interested in them.

2. McClelland's Theory of Needs

While the hierarchy of needs theory and ERG theory view certain needs as an inherent part of our makeup, psychologist David C McClelland offers a different perspective, 'acquired-needs' theory, which argues that our needs are acquired or learned on the basis of our life experience. Although such needs tend to be a product of a variety of conditions to which we are exposed, sometimes even a specific event can profoundly influence our desires.

In the late 1930s, Murray developed the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). Twenty pictures were shown to subjects who were asked to make up a dramatic story about each one. Based on the results, Murray argued that about twenty basic human needs that motivated behavior could be identified. Beginning in the 1950s, for more than three decades, McClelland and his associates researched three of these needs extensively—power, affiliation, and achievement. He measures these needs using the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), which involves having test takers write stories about pictures that are purposely, ambiguous. The stories are then scored according to the achievement affiliation and power themes that they contain, the assumption being that individuals write about themes that are important to them. McClelland believes that each person possesses all three needs, but people differ in the degree to which the various motives dominate their behavior. The motives are described as:

i. Need for power (nPow): The individual exhibiting this need as the dominant one derives satisfaction from his or her ability to control others. Actual achievement of desired goals is of secondary importance to the, high nPow individual; instead the means by which goals are achieved (the exercise of power) are of primary importance. Individuals with a high nPow derive satisfaction from being in positions of influence and control. Organizations' that foster the power motive tend to attract individuals with a high need for power (for example military organization).

ii. Need for affiliation (nAff): Individuals exhibiting this need as a dominant motive derive satisfaction from social and interpersonal activities. There is a need to form strong interpersonal ties and to "get close" to people psychologically. If asked to choose between working at a task with

those who are technically competent and those who are their friends, high nAff individuals will chose their friends.

iii. Need for achievement (nAch): Individuals high in nAch derive satisfaction from reaching goals. The feeling of successful task accomplishment is important to the high achiever. High achievers prefer immediate feedback on their performance and they generally undertake tasks of moderate difficulty rather than those that are either very easy or very difficult. They also prefer to work independently so that successful task performance (or failure) can be related to their own efforts rather than the efforts of someone else.

McClelland has analyzed various needs in terms of their relationship to managerial effectiveness. He originally thought that individuals with a high need for achievement would make the best managers. His subsequent work suggests that, to the contrary, high-nAch individuals tend to concentrate on their own individual achievements rather than on the development and achievements of others. As a result, high-nAch individuals often make good entrepreneurs because initial success frequently depends largely on individual achievement. They may not, however, make good managers in situations that require working with a number of others and waiting to learn the results of their efforts. Similarly, individuals with a personal-power orientation run into difficulties as managers because they often attempt to use the efforts of others for their own personal benefit.

McClelland's work suggests that individuals with a high institutional-power need make the best managers because they are oriented toward coordinating the efforts of others to achieve long-term o goals. Thus, the need profile of successful managers, at least in competitive environments, appear to include

- A moderate-to-high need for institutional power.
- A moderate need for achievement to facilitate individual contributions early in one's career and a desire for the organization to maintain a competitive edge as one move to higher levels, and
- At least a minimum need for affiliation to provide sufficient sensitivity for influencing others.

The most distinctive element of the achievement motivation theory is the claim by McClelland that the need can be learned (or unlearned). McClelland has reported numerous instances in which individuals with a low initial need to achieve were sub to as of classroom experiences that resulted in an increased need to achieve. This type of training exposes individuals to tasks involving the achievement of goals and gradually makes the situations more challenging as the individuals increase their ability to handle the tasks. Again, a development program may be undertaken to reduce the need to achieve, to bring it more in line with the other two needs. So, while the need to achieve has received the greatest publicity, McClelland's theory is actually concerned with matching an individual motivation patterns to the organizations in which he is working.

Criticisms of McClelland's Theory: The following are the three major criticisms:

- i. The use of a projective technique such as, TAT to determine basic needs has been questioned. While projective techniques have many advantages over structured questionnaires, the interpretation of subjective comments is at best an art, and at worst an the bias of the researcher, not the subject. Because of this criticism, it is useful to use different techniques to measure McClelland's three needs.
- ii. The argument that the need for achievement can be taught to adults conflicts with the large body of psychological literature that argues that the acquisition of motives normally occurs in childhood and is very difficult to change, once it has been established.

iii. McClelland's proposal has been questioned on grounds of performance. While it may be feasible to teach the need to achieve under carefully controlled conditions, it may be only a temporarily induced feeling rather than a permanent change in behavior.

On balance, McClelland's work seems to have numerous practical applications, at least in the economic realm. It would appear that the current problem is to concentrate on the development of an environment that will support the desired need, be it affiliation, power, or achievement, or to change the need to fit the environment. In many respects, however, McClelland's work holds promise for work motivation.

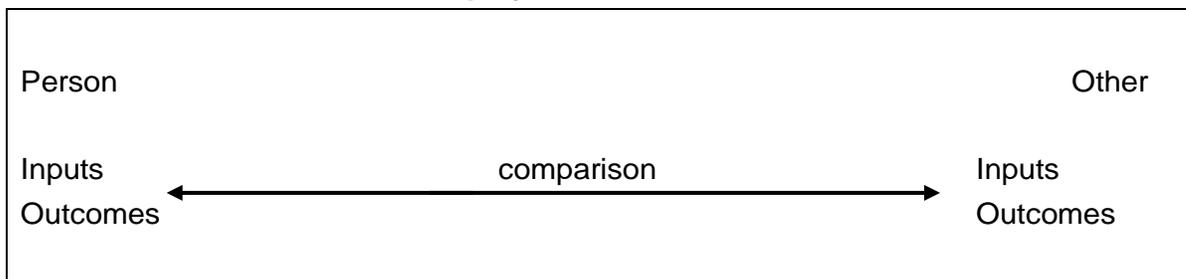
3. Adam's Equity Theory

As the name implies, this theory is based on the assumption that individuals are motivated by their desire to be equitably treated in their work relationships. When employees work for an organization, they basically exchange their services for pay and other benefits. Equity theory proposes that individuals attempt to reduce any inequity they may feel as a result of this exchange relationship.

Adam's Theory of Equity is one of the popular social exchange theories and is perhaps the most rigorously development statement of how individuals evaluate social exchange relationships. Basically, the theory points out that people are motivated to maintain fair relationships with others and will try to rectify unfair relationships by making them fair. This theory is based on two assumptions about human behavior:

- i. Individuals make contributions (inputs) for which they expect certain outcomes (rewards). Inputs include such things as the person's past training and experience, special knowledge, personal characteristics, etc. Outcomes include pay recognition, promotion, prestige, fringe benefits, etc.
- ii. Individuals decide whether or not a particular exchange is satisfactory, by comparing their inputs and outcomes to those of others in the form of a ratio. Equity exists when an individual concludes that his/her own outcome/input ratio is equal to that of others.

The figure:3.4 below shows the basic equity model.



4. Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Victor H Vroom's theory of rewards and expectancy may also be related to employee needs although it focuses on personal perceptions. His theory is founded on the basic notions that people desire certain outcomes of behavior, which may be thought of as rewards or consequences of behavior, and that they believe there is a relationship between the efforts they put forth, the performance they achieve, and the outcomes they receive. In its simplest form, expectancy theory says that a person's motivation to behave in a certain way is determined by

- i. Outcomes the person sees as desirable, and
- ii. The person's belief that these desired outcomes can be attained.

The key constructs in the expectancy theory of motivation are:

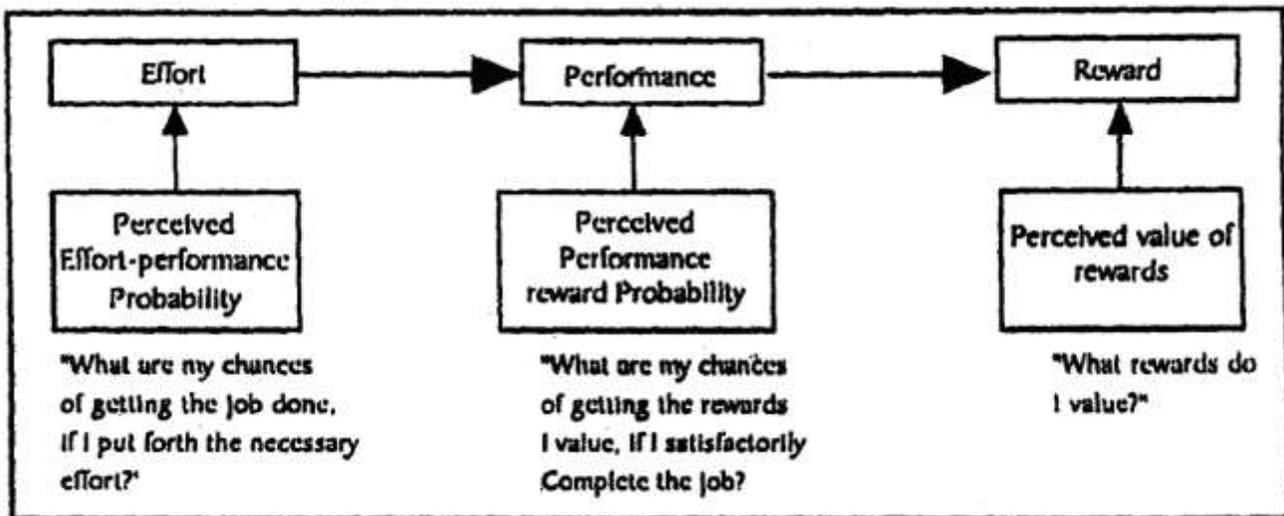
i. Valence: Valence is the value or importance one places on a particular reward. The valence of an outcome is positive when the individual desires it and negative when he or she wishes to avoid it; valences are therefore scaled over a wide range of positive and negative values.

ii. Expectancy: Expectancy is the belief that effort leads to performance, for example, “If I try harder, I can do better”. Expectancy refers to the perceived relationship between a given level of effort and a given level of performance. People attach various expectancies to an outcome. Competent and secure individuals tend to perceive expectancy more positively than incompetent and pessimistic individuals.

iii. Instrumentally: Instrumentality is the belief that performance is related to the rewards. For example, “If I perform better, I will get more pay”. Instrumentality ranges from -1 to $+1$ (belief that one desired outcome is attainable only without the other) through 0 (belief that there is no relationship between the two outcomes) to $+1$ (belief that the first outcome is necessary and sufficient for the second outcome to occur).

A model for the expectancy theory notions of effort, performance and rewards is depicted in the figure below:

Figure 3.5: An Expectancy Model for Motivation



Source: Debra L Nelson and James Campbell Quick ‘Organizational Behavior Foundations, Realities and Challenges’ (Second edition) West Publishing Company Minneapolis (1997) Page 149.

A person’s motivation increases along with his or her belief that effort leads to performance and that performance leads to rewards, assuming that person wants the rewards. This is the third key idea within the expectancy theory of motivation. It is the idea that the valence, or value, that people place on various rewards varies. One person prefers salary to benefits, whereas another, person prefers just the reverse. All people do not place the same value on each reward.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Write three basic points each of theory X and theory Y.
2. Enlist the needs identified by Maslow.
3. Explain the term 'valence' and 'expectancy'.
4. Highlight the features of the need achievement theory

As noted in the beginning, managers in various organizations face the challenges of reducing the absenteeism and employee turnover. In fact, numerous research studies have shown that generally the employees leave their jobs due to the following main reasons:

1. Boredom
2. Inadequate salary and benefits
3. Limited opportunities for advancement
4. Lack of recognition
5. Unhappy with management and the way they manage

On the bases of these five reasons, Dave Furguson has identified the following eleven employee needs which needs to be addressed by the managers:

1. Reward
2. Vision
3. Resources
4. Loyalty
5. Connection
6. Teamwork
7. Value
8. Growth
9. Self-Development
10. Strengths
11. Purpose

3.7 REQUIREMENTS OF A SOUND SYSTEM TO SATISFY EMPLOYEE NEEDS

It is very difficult for an average manager to sort through all the different measures and models to satisfy employee needs in widely differing situations. There should be a sound system to take up the employee desires and needs to make them put forth their best efforts. A sound system should have the following essential features.

1. A sound system should satisfy the needs and objectives of both organization and employees.
2. It's application may change with the changes in the situation.
3. Jobs should be designed in such a way as to provide challenge and variety.

4. Managers should recruit the active co-operation of subordinates in improving the organization's output. Subordinates should be made to realize that they are stakeholders in the organization.
5. The needs satisfaction system should satisfy the different needs of employees and it should be directly related to the efforts of the employers.
6. The measures should be simple so that it is easily understood by the workers.

Several factors influence human behavior. There are numerous and needs which can act as good motivators moving people to work and getting things done through them as per the plan. People respond to physiological needs, social needs and egoistic needs. Human needs and desires are the door ways through which the manager channelizes his motivation efforts. There are three types of motivational programs to improve a person's behavior towards his Job. These are:-

1. Pay incentive plans,
2. Job enrichment and
3. Management by objectives.

There are four important factors governing employee response to the measures towards needs satisfaction

- The intensity or urge of the Drive.
- Past Experience — can he rely upon the promises given by the boss.
- Amount of Reward — The quantity and quality of the reward can Influence, the amount of extra effort put forth by the employee.
- Time Relationship of Response to Reward — Long range promises are less effective than immediate fulfilment.

Some issues in needs satisfaction may be identified here. For instance, various groups of employees provide specific challenges in terms of need fulfilment. Some of them are explained below:

1. *The Diversified Work Force:* Not everyone is motivated by money. The needs of women, physically disabled and other diverse groups are not the same. If you are going to maximize your employees' motivation, you have got to understand and respond to this diversity. This can be done in the following ways:

- (i) We should be ready to design work schedules, compensation plans, benefits, and physical work settings, etc. to reflect the employees' varied needs.
- (ii) Allowing employees who are going for further training to colleges to vary their work schedule.
- (iii) Offering employees facilities like childcare flexible work hours and job sharing for employees with family responsibilities.
- (iv) For employees coming from other states/countries, providing them flexible leave possibilities to enable them to go home for extensive periods.

2. *The Temporary Workers:* Temporary workers may be having the similar needs as others are having but their needs may be may be fulfilled in different ways:

- (i) When there is a system whereby permanent employees are selected from a pool of temporary employees, the latter will often work hard in hopes of becoming permanent.

- (ii) The ability of a temporary employee to find a new job is largely dependent on his or her skills. Therefore, temporary employees may be provided the opportunity for training.
- (iii) When temporary employees work alongside permanent employees who earn more pay for doing the same job, they are likely to be demotivated. Separating such employees might help to lessen this problem.

3. The Professionals: Professionals have a strong and long-term commitment to their field of expertise. Their loyalty is more often to their profession than to their employer. These professionals receive a great deal of intrinsic satisfaction from their work. Their needs generally vary and they may be motivated in the following ways:

- (i) Their loyalty is towards their profession. To keep current in their fields, they need to regularly update their knowledge. Therefore, providing them opportunities for training and development is one sure way of motivating them. Reward them with educational opportunities — staging workshops, attending conferences — that allow them to keep current in their field.
- (ii) The chief reward of a professional is the job itself. They prefer challenging jobs. Therefore, provide them with ongoing challenging projects.
- (iii) Professionals want others to think what they are working on is important. Therefore, ask questions and engage in other actions that demonstrate to them you are sincerely interested in what they are doing.

3.8 SUMMARY

Every individual carry some or the other desires and the individual needs vary from person to person. What motivates one person may not motivate another. Most successful managers have learned to understand the concept and theories relating to human needs and desires and are able to use their understanding to achieve higher standards of subordinate work performance. Motivation is the process of channeling a person's inner drives so that he wants to accomplish the goals of the organization. Motivation concern itself with the will to work. However, the best results can be achieved only after satisfying the individual needs of the employees. If the needs of employees are addressed in a sincere manner, they feel that the enterprise belongs to them and the interest of the enterprise is their interests. Also, they need to have a feeling that the organization has a worthwhile purpose and they need to have an understanding that their tasks contribute towards the achievement of that purpose.

3.9 GLOSSARY

Motivation: It is the ability to change behavior. It is a drive that compels one to act because human behavior is directed toward some goal.

Hygiene factors: These are factors that do not motivate if present, but, if absent result in demotivation, e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits.

Valence: The degree of attraction or aversion that an individual feel toward a specific object or event.

Instrumentality: This is the belief that performance is related to the rewards.

Expectancy theory: It suggests that individuals' expectations about their ability to accomplish something will affect their success in accomplishing it.

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3.12 MODEL QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the significance of understanding employee needs and various measures to satisfy them.
2. What do you understand by employee needs? Analyze the major theories relating to employee needs.

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ATTITUDES: CONCEPT, NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives**
- 4.1 Introductions**
- 4.2 Concept of Attitudes**
- 4.3 Nature of attitudes**
- 4.4 Significance of Attitudes**
- 4.5 Components of Attitudes**
- 4.6 Functions of Attitudes**
- 4.7 Sources of Attitudes**
- 4.8 Types of Attitudes**
- 4.9 Dimensions of Attitudes**
- 4.10 Summary**
- 4.11 References**
- 4.12 Further readings**
- 4.13 Model questions**

4.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, you will be able to:

1. Know the concept and nature of attitude
2. Learn about the significance of Attitudes
3. Understand components ,functions and sources of Attitudes
4. Learn about types and dimensions of Attitudes

4.1 Introduction

Attitudes are individuals' general affective, cognitive and intentional responses toward objects, other people, themselves, or social issues. Attitudes are evaluative statements - either favorable or unfavorable - concerning objects, people or events. They reflect how one feels about something. As individuals, we respond favorably or unfavorably towards many things: co-workers, bosses, our own appearances etc. The importance of attitudes lies in their link to behavior. When an employee says, "I like my job" he or she is expressing their attitude about work.

4.2 Concept of Attitudes

The term attitude is a French term that originated from the Italian word 'Attitudine' and from the Late Latin aptitude and aptitude (American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 2000; Vanes, 2001). An Internet search for the term attitude resulted in sites such as the following: multiple motivational resources, clothing and apparel lines, a wilderness survival site, a New Zealand site for teenage depression, a gay life style magazine(produced in the United Kingdom), a Website maintenance company, music sites, and a site with humor for adoptive mothers. These are a few examples of instances where the term attitudes used as a proper noun (a name of something) and, therefore, does not result in definitions. The term attitudes most often defined as a noun. Some of the definitions of attitudes are:

1. "A settled opinion" and "behaviour reflecting" (Abate, 1999, p. 44).
2. "Behaviour based on conscious or unconscious mental views developed through cumulative experience" (Vanes, 2001, p. 189).
3. "An enduring, learned predisposition to behave in a consistent way toward a given class of objects, or a persistent mental and/or neural state of readiness to react to a certain class of objects, not as they are but as they are conceived to be" (Dark, 2005).

An attitude is also a cognitive element; it always remains inside a person. Everyone's psychological world is limited and thus everyone has a limited number of attitudes. In business organization, employees have attitudes relating to world environment, job security etc. The individual's attitudes towards these factors are indicative of his apathy or enthusiasm towards the activities and objectives of the organization.

Attitude is defined as a more or less stable set of predisposition of opinion, interest or purpose involving expectancy of ascertain kind of experience and readiness with an appropriate response. Attitudes are also known as "frames of reference". They provide the background against which facts and events are viewed. It becomes necessary to know the attitudes of members of an organization because they have to perceive specific aspects like pay, hours-of work, promotion etc., of their job life in the wider context of their generalised attitudes.

4.3 Nature of Attitudes

- (i) An attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some objects in a favorable or an unfavorable manner.
- (ii) The most pervasive phenomenon is "attitude". People at work place have attitudes about lots of topics that are related to them. These attitudes are firmly embedded in a complex psychological structure of beliefs.
- (iii) Attitudes are different from values. Values are the ideals, whereas attitudes are narrow, they are our feelings, thoughts and behavioral tendencies toward a specific object or situation.
- (iv) Attitude is a predisposition to respond to a certain set of facts.
- (v) Attitudes are evaluative statements - either favorable unfavorable concerning the objects, people or events.

An attitude is "a mental state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a specific influence upon a person's response to people, objects and situation with which it is related". Attitudes thus state one's predispositions towards given aspects of world. They also provide an emotional basis of one's interpersonal relations and identification with others. Managers in work

organizations need; to know and understand employee's attitudes in order to manage effectively. Attitudes do influence behavior of people and their performance in organizations.

4.4 Significance of Attitudes

The three determinants of attitude importance for which there is now compelling empirical support are (a) the degree to which the attitude object impinges on one's material self-interest, (b) identification with reference groups or individuals who deem the attitude important, and (c) the relevance of the attitude or attitude object for one's personal values. The three determinants of attitude importance for which there is now compelling empirical support are (a) the degree to which the attitude object impinges on one's material self-interest, (b) identification with reference groups or individuals who deem the attitude important, and (c) the relevance of the attitude or attitude object for one's personal values. The three determinants of attitude importance for which there is now compelling empirical support are (a) the degree to which the attitude object impinges on one's material self-interest, (b) identification with reference groups or individuals who deem the attitude important, and (c) the relevance of the attitude or attitude object for one's personal values. The three determinants of attitude importance for which there is now compelling empirical support are (a) the degree to which the attitude object impinges on one's material self-interest, (b) identification with reference groups or individuals who deem the attitude important, and (c) the relevance of the attitude or attitude object for one's personal values. The three determinants of attitude importance for which there is now compelling empirical support are (a) the degree to which the attitude object impinges on one's material self-interest, (b) identification with reference groups or individuals who deem the attitude important, and (c) the relevance of the attitude or attitude object for one's personal values.

There are three determinants of the importance of attitude: (a) the degree to which the attitude object impinges on one's material self-interest, (b) identification with reference groups or individuals who deem the attitude important, and (c) the relevance of the attitude or attitude object for one's personal values.

1. Self-interest

An attitude may be important because a person perceives it to be linked to his or her material self-interest. That is the reason people attach importance to an attitude when they feel that their rights, privileges, outcomes, or lifestyle or could be directly affected by an attitude or attitude object (Boninget al., 1995a) for example, a woman asserts a great deal of importance to access to birth control because it provides her personally protection from unwanted pregnancies.

2. Social identification

The second reason that an attitude may be important to a person is because he or she identifies with another individual or with a social group for woman attitude has psychological significance. In the above example, a woman mentions that the reason access to birth control is important to her is because it is an important issue for teenage girls, a population she cares about and works with. Although not a member of this group herself, she identifies with those individuals whose interests are at stake, and her concern for their well-being has caused her to attach personal importance to the issue.

Finally, an attitude may be personally important to an individual if he or she believes that the attitude is related to his or her core values. These

3. Value Relevance

An attitude may be personally important to an individual if he or she believes that the attitude is related to his or her core values. These include ethical or moral values, ideological values, social values, aesthetic values, and others. The above quote illustrates how value relevance can affect the importance a person attaches to an attitude. The author perceives her values of 'personal choice, freedom, and privacy' to be at the heart of the issue of access to birth control, and she supports access because it is consistent with basic values she endorses.

4. Self-esteem maintenance

Pelham (1991) has proposed that people may attach importance to their attitudes in service of self enhancement, increasing the importance attached to attitudes that reflect positively on the self and decreasing the importance attached to attitudes that do not reflect positively on the self. For example, in order to maintain a positive self-view, a person who is an excellent swimmer may attach high levels of importance to her attitudes about swimming, and relatively little importance to her attitudes about those sports at which she does not excel. Additional research on the implications of self-enhancement motives and cognitive dissonance processes on attitude importance is warranted.

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Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Define attitudes.
2. What is the nature of attitudes?
3. What is the importance of self-interest in determining attitudes?

4.5 Components of Attitudes

The three components of attitudes are:

1. Cognitive component;
2. Affective component; and
3. Behavioral component.

1. Cognitive Component

This component includes the beliefs an individual has about a certain person, object, or situation. The belief that "discrimination is wrong" is a value statement. Such an opinion is the cognitive component of an attitude. Learned beliefs, such as "you need to work on hours to get ahead in this job", lead to attitudes that have an impact on behavior in the workplace. The cognition component of an attitude reflects a person's perceptions or beliefs. Cognitive elements are evaluative beliefs and are measured by attitude scales or by asking about thoughts. The statement "I believe

Japanese workers are industrious,” reflect the cognitive component of an attitude. The cognitive component sets the stage for the more critical part of attitude - its affective component.

2. Affective Component

This component refers to the person's feelings that result from his or her beliefs about a person, object or situation. A person who believes hard work earns promotions may feel anger or frustration when he or she works hard but is not promoted. The affective component becomes stronger as an individual has more frequent and direct experience with a focal object, person or situation. Affect is the emotional component of an attitude. It refers to an individual's feeling about something or someone. Statements such as “I like this” or “I prefer that” reflect the affective component of an attitude. Affect is measured by physiological indicators such as galvanic skin response (changes in electrical resistance of skin which indicate emotional arousal) and blood pressure. These indicators show changes in emotions by measuring physiological arousal. If an individual is trying to hide his or her feelings, this might be shown by a change in arousal.

3. Behavioral Component

This component refers to the individual's behavior that occurs as a result of his or her feeling about the focal person, object or situation. An individual may complain, request a transfer, or be less productive because he or she feels dissatisfied with work. The behavioral component of an attitude refers to an intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something. For example, our attitudes towards women in management may be inferred from an observation of the way we behave toward a female supervisor. We may be supportive, passive or hostile depending on our attitude. The behavioral component of an attitude is measured by observing behavior or by asking a person about behavior or intentions.

Table 3.8: Three Components of Attitude

	Component	Measured by
A.	Affect	Physiological indicators Verbal Statements about Feelings
B.	Behavioral intentions	Observed Behavior Verbal Statements about Intentions
C.	Cognition '	Attitude scales Verbal Statements about Beliefs

Source: M.J Rosenberg and C.I. Hovland “Cognitive. Affective and Behavioral Components or Attitude”, in Attitude organization and Change (New Haven: Yale University Press) 1960.

Viewing attitudes as made up of three components - cognition, affect and behavior - is helpful toward understanding their complexity and the potential relationship between attitude and behavior. The object of an attitude is represented as a prototype in a person's memory. Then an individual uses an attitude as a scheme for evaluating an object. The person may assess the object as good or bad, positive or negative, favoured or not; then the person determines the strategy to take toward it. The accessibility of an attitude, or ease with which it is activated, affects its implementation. Personal experience with the object and the repeated expression of the attitude increases its accessibility. In this way, attitude-related information helps process complex information.

4.6 Functions of Attitude

Attitudes are known to serve at least four important functions in an organization setting.

(i) **Attitudes Determine Meaning:** Much of what is seen in the environment and in other people's behavior is determined by attitudes. If one has a overall favourable attitude towards a person, one tends to judge his activities as "good" or "superior". On the other hand, negative attitudes or prejudices generally prompt disagreement with the individual concerned or failure to appreciate the good work done by him.

(ii) **Attitudes Reconcile Contradictions:** It is not uncommon to come across people who hold contradictory opinions. With the proper attitude as a background, intelligent people can reconcile or rationalise the same actions, which to others are obvious contradictions. For example when a worker takes a little rest a superior considers it "idling".

(iii) **Attitudes Organise Facts:** As already seen, objective events can be differently perceived by different people because of different attitudes. Meanings can be concocted and falsely communicated to others by changing the attitudes of the recipients towards wider social issues.

(iv) **Attitudes Select Facts:** From the plethora of environmental facts and stimuli, one tends to select those, which are in consonance with one's cherished beliefs and attitudes. Attitudes, thus, act as a screen or filter.

4.7 Sources of Attitudes

Attitudes are acquired from parents, teachers, and peer group members. We model our attitudes after those we admire, respect or fear. We observe how family and friends behave, and we shape our attitudes and behavior to align with theirs. People also imitate the attitudes of popular individuals and those they admire and respect. Attitudes are an integral part of the world of work. It is important for managers to understand the antecedents to attitudes as well as their consequences. Managers also need to understand the different components of attitudes, how attitudes are formed, and the major attitudes that affect work behavior and how to use persuasion to change attitudes.

4.8 Types of Attitudes

A person can have thousands of attitudes, but most of the research in OB has been concerned with three attitudes: Job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment.

1. **Job Satisfaction:** Satisfaction results when a job fulfils or facilitates the attainment of individual values and standards and dissatisfaction occurs when the job is seen as blocking such attainment. This attitude has received extensive attention by researchers and practitioners because it was at one time believed to be the cause of improved job performance. The term "job satisfaction" refers to an individual's general attitude toward his or her job. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes toward the job; a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds negative attitudes about the job. Now, because of managers' concern for creating both a humane and high performance workplace, researchers continue to search for definite answers about the causes and consequences of job satisfaction.

2. **Job Involvement:** Job involvement is the degree to which a person identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it and considers his or her performance important to self-worth. Employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do. High levels of job involvement have been found to be related to fewer absences and lower resignation rates.

3. **Organizational Commitment :** Organizational commitment is the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain

membership in the organization. High organizational commitment means identifying with one's employing organization.

4.9 Dimensions of Attitudes

Attitudes are learned. Individuals acquire attitudes from several sources but the point to be stressed is that the attitudes are acquired but not inherited. Our responses to people and issues evolve over time. Two major influences on attitudes are direct experience and social learning.

1. Direct Experience : Attitudes can develop from a personally rewarding or punishing experience with an object. Direct experience with an object or person is a powerful influence on attitudes. Research has shown that attitudes that are derived from direct experience are stronger, are held more confidently and are more resistant to change than are attitudes formed through indirect experience. One reason that attitudes derived from direct experience are so powerful is because of their availability. This means that the attitudes are easily accessed and are active in our cognitive processes. When attitudes are available we can call them quickly into consciousness, Attitudes that are not learned from direct experience are not as available, and therefore we do not recall them easily.

(a) Classical Conditioning : One of the basic processes underlying attitude formation can be explained on the basis of learning principles. People develop associations between various objects and the emotional reactions that accompany them.

(b) Operant Conditioning : Attitudes that are reinforced, either verbally or non-verbally, tends to be maintained. Conversely, a person who states an attitude that elicits ridicule from others may modify or abandon the attitude.

(c) Vicarious Learning : In which a person learns something through the observance of others can also account for attitude development particularly when the individual has no direct experience with the object about which the attitude is held. It is through vicarious learning processes that children pick up the prejudices of their parents.

2. Social Learning : In social learning, the family, peer groups and culture shape an individual's attitudes in an indirect manner. Substantial social learning occurs through modelling, in which individuals acquire attitudes by merely observing others. For an individual to learn from observing a model, four processes must take place.

- (i) The learner must focus attention on the model.
- (ii) The learner must retain what was observed from the model.
- (iii) Behavioral reproduction must occur that is, the learner must practice the behavior.
- (iv) The learner must be motivated to learn from the model.

Social learning can take place through the following ways:

(a) The Family : A person may learn attitudes through imitation of parents. If parents have a positive attitude towards an object and the child admires his parents, he is likely to adopt a similar attitude, even without being told about the object, and even without having direct experience. Children also learn to adopt certain attitudes by the reinforcement they are given by their parents when they display behaviors that reflect an appropriate attitude.

(b) Peer Groups : Peer pressure moulds attitudes through group acceptance of individuals who express popular attitudes and through sanctions, such as exclusion from the group, placed on individuals who espouse (promote) unpopular attitudes.

(c) **Modeling** : Substantial social learning occurs through modeling, in which individuals acquire attitudes by merely observing others. The observer overhears other individuals expressing an opinion or watches them engaging in a behavior that reflects an attitude, and the observer adopts this attitude.

4.10 Summary

Attitudes are an integral part of the of work. It is important for managers to understand the antecedents to attitudes as well as their consequences. Managers also need to understand the different components of attitudes, how attitudes are formed, and the major attitudes that affect work behavior and how to use persuasion to change attitudes.

4.11 References

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4.12 Further Readings

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4.13 Model Questions

1. Discuss the concept and nature and attitudes.
2. Discuss the significance of attitudes.
3. Explain how attitudes are significant for an organization?

Suggestive answers to self-assessment exercise

1. "Behaviour based on conscious or unconscious mental views developed through cumulative experience" (Venes, 2001, p. 189).
2. Nature of attitudes
 - a. An attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some objects in a favourable or an unfavourable manner.
 - b. The most pervasive phenomenon is "attitude". People at work place have attitudes about lots of topics that are related to them. These attitudes are firmly embedded in a complex psychological structure of beliefs.

3. Self-interest

An attitude may be important because a person perceives it to be linked to his or her material self-interest. That is the reason people attach importance to an attitude when they feel that their rights, privileges, outcomes, or lifestyle or could be directly affected by an attitude or attitude object (Boninget al., 1995a) for example, a woman asserts a great deal of importance to access to birth control because it provides her personally protection from unwanted pregnancies.

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INDUSTRIAL MORALE: CONCEPT, NATURE AND DETERMINANTS

Structure

- 5.1 Objectives
- 5.2 Introduction
- 5.3 Concept
- 5.4 Nature of Morale
- 5.5 Determinants of Morale
- 5.6 Methods to increase Morale
- 5.7 Summary
- 5.8 Glossary
- 5.9 References
- 5.11 Further Readings
- 5.12 Model Questions

5.1 OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you will be able to understand:

- The concept and nature of morale
- The determinants of morale
- The methods to increase morale

5.2 INTRODUCTION

Human resources are the most important asset in an organization. They are connected with organizational facets and functionalities, and give meaning to its performances by achieving organizational goals. Therefore, the extent of employees' feelings is referred to as their morale. Employee morale refers to an attitude of satisfaction with a desire to continue and strive for attaining the objectives of an organization. Morale is purely blended with emotions. It is an attitude of an employee towards their jobs, superior and their organization. It is not a static thing, but it changes depending on working conditions, superior employee, colleagues, and compensation and so on. Morale symbolizes a composite of feeling, attitude, and emotion that contribute to a general feeling of satisfaction. It is a state of mind and spirit affecting willingness to work which in turn affects individual and organization objectives. It describes the overall group satisfaction. Morale may range from very high to very low. High morale is evident from the positive feelings of employees such as enthusiasm, desire to obey orders, willingness to co-operate with, etc. Poor or low morale becomes obvious from the negative feelings of employees such as dissatisfaction, discouragement, or dislike of the job. Employee morale is the concept and cases the rapidly increasing severe competition and employee attrition levels across various industries globally have made business take care of their employees as never before to boost their morale and enthusiasm in order to

retain them. Companies they have accomplished wonders in terms on innovation, superior talent, good quality products, increased productivity and soaring revenues. Building and sustaining morale in an organization is concerned with raising a strong business through its positive - minded people who always forward to going to work every day. Producing better products and services and creating an environment that attracts talented workforce to emerge as 'employee of choice'. An organization interest in knowing what the employee expect from their leaders their work the places and implementing those desire needs and expectation create an infinite energy interest and zeal among the workforce.

5.3 CONCEPT

Industrial morale is an employee's attitude toward his or her job, employer, and colleagues. Employee morale as the psychological state with respect to satisfaction, confidence and resolve; the attitude of an individual or group of employees, resulting in courage, devotion and discipline; level of fulfillment one has with intrinsic work aspects, such as variety and challenge, feedback and learning, and space to grow and extrinsic circumstances of employment such as fair and adequate pay, job security, and health and safety. A high morale means the employee is satisfied with the job, puts in effort, is creative, takes initiative, is committed to the organization and focuses on achieving organizational goals rather than personal goals. Low morale leads to high skiving, high turnover, unsolved complaints and strikes, thereby encumbering firm's performance. According to the business dictionary morale is defined as the depiction of emotions, satisfaction, and overall attitude towards a workplace. Productivity is directly related to morale. Happy employees have high morale while dissatisfied and unhappy employees have low morale. Linz, et., al. measured employee morale, using job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover rates, complaints and employee strikes as a proxy. High morale contributes to high levels of productivity, high returns to stakeholders, and employee loyalty. Low morale may cause high absenteeism and turnover. Respect, involvement, appreciation, adequate compensation, promotions, a pleasant work environment, and a positive organizational

According to Dalton T McFarland, morale is basically a group phenomenon that describes the level of favorable or unfavorable attitude of employees collectively to all aspect of their work the job the company, their tasks working conditions fellow workers superior and so on. According to classical approach, the satisfaction of basic needs is the symbol of Morale. According to Robert M. Guion "Morale is defined as the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction stemming from total job satisfaction". According to Psychological approach Morale is psychological concept i.e., state of mind. According to JuriousFillipo "Morale is a mental condition or attitude of individual and groups which determines their willingness to cooperate". According to Social approach, some experts stated that Morale is a social phenomenon. According to Davis "Morale can be defined as the attitudes of individual and groups towards their work environment and towards voluntary cooperation to the full extent of their ability in the best interest at the organization".

5.4 Nature of Morale:

Generally, the term 'morale' is used to explain an overall 'climate' prevailing among the members of a group. It is not an absolute concept which can convey a specific meaning, the work 'morale' by itself does not convey favorable or unfavorable meaning. It has to be qualified with the degree, as high morale or low morale in this way it is relative concept and we can refer to the levels of morale.

Thus morale is the level of enthusiasm and willingness with which the members contribute their efforts towards the organization objectives. If the enthusiasm and willingness to work of a group is high, we will say morale is high and vice versa.

We cannot say that there is morale or no morale among the members of an organization. Therefore, morale has to be qualified like the word health. Just as good health is essential for an individual, high morale is essential for an organization. Morale is dynamic in nature. Managers cannot establish high morale once and then forget about it for several years. High morale is to be created and maintained by continuous efforts.

Morale shows the attitudes of the workers. High morale represents an attitude of satisfaction with desire to continue in and willingness to strive for the objectives of the group. It is manifestation of direct and indirect satisfaction, sense of contentment and need fulfillment through work. Morale is an individual and group phenomenon. In the later case, high morale is reflected in good group work and team spirit. Under conditions of high morale workers have few grievances, frustrations and complaints as they are clear about the objectives- individual and organizational, and their relationship with others in the organization.

5.5 Determinants of Morale

There are number of determinants of Morale, which are as follows-

1. Objectives of the Organisation—Employees are highly motivated and their morale is higher if their individual goals and objectives are in tune with organisational goals and objectives. The commonness of purpose will result in high morale. Employees want to be a part of the organisation which has a worthwhile purpose in which they can believe.
2. Organisational Design—Organisation structure has an impact on the quality of labour relations, particularly on the level of morale. Large organisations tend to lengthen their channels of vertical communication and to increase the difficulty of upward communication. Therefore the morale tends to be lower. Against this, flat structure increases level of morale.
3. Personal factors—Personal factors relating to age, training, education, and intelligence of the employees, time spent by them on the job and interest in work taken by them, affect the morale of the employees. For example, if an employee is not imparted proper training he will have low morale.
4. Rewards—Employees expect adequate compensation for their services rendered to the organisation. Good system of wages, salaries, promotions and other incentives keep the morale of employees high.
The worker's perception of past rewards and future opportunities for rewards affect their morale to a substantial extent. If the workers regard the rewards as fair and satisfactory, their morale will tend to be higher than if the perception is in the opposite direction. Moreover, if the rewards and opportunities for the future tend to be bleak, morale will tend to be low as compared to the situation where the worker perceives opportunities for satisfaction and for attainment in the rewards that lie ahead in the future.
5. Good leadership and supervision—The nature of supervision can better tell the attitudes of employees because a supervisor is in direct contact with the employees and can have better influence on the activities of the employees. There should be impartial, helpful and capable team of supervisors and managers and their sympathetic attitude towards employees will increase the morale of employees.
6. Work environment—The building and its appearance, the condition of machine tools available at work place, provisions for safety, medical aid and repairs to machinery etc. —all have an impact on the workers' morale.
7. Compatibility with fellow employees—Man, being a social animal, finds his work more satisfying if he feels that he has the acceptance and companionship of his fellow workers. If he has confidence in his fellow workers and faith in their loyalty, his morale will be high.

8. Job satisfaction—If the job gives an employees an opportunity to prove his talents, and grow personality, he will certainly like it and he will have high morale. The level of satisfaction, a worker derives from his job is another determinant of morale. If the job factors and the satisfaction they bring is perceived to be favourable by the employee morale will tend to be higher than if there factors seem to be unfavourable. The job factors include the factors such as opportunities for promotions, job security, steadiness of employment, opportunities to learn the job and to use his own ideas, pay working conditions, recognition, cooperativeness of co-workers, group relationship etc.
9. Opportunity to share profit—One of the requirements of high morale is the possibility and opportunity of progress in any concern. All workers should be given an opportunity of the progress and earn high wages without any discrimination.

Other determinants of Morale

The employee morale is a very complex phenomenon and is influenced by many factors. Different authors like McFarland. Bradshaw and Krugman.

Roach and Apple white name given different criterion for the determination of morale.

1. The Organization:

The first factor affecting the employee morale is the organization itself. The organization influences the worker's attitudes to their jobs. The public reputation of an organization may build up for better or worse, their attitudes towards it.

2. The Nature of Work:

The nature of the work, the worker is expected to perform also affects his attitude towards the job as well as his morale. If the employee is expected to perform routine or specialized jobs, he will feel bored and alienated. Repetition of the same task again and again makes the working situation worse for the employees. Another factor is the large impersonal organizational structure. Sometimes, if the employee feels that he is just a cog in the machine instead of a person, his morale will become very low. Lack of understanding of organizational goals may also affect the morale. Another factor which causes low morale is the assembly line operations moving at a constant speed.

3. The Level of Supervision:

The level of supervision received by an employer has a tremendous influence on his morale. High rate of employee turnover indicates that the leadership is ineffective. On the other hand, if employees are given freedom to do the job, their morale will be high. Nobody likes to be supervised all the time.

4. Concept of Self:

What is the employee's concept of himself? The answer to this question influences the attitudes of the employees to the organizational enuronment. How an employee perceives himself, is a very important question. The morale of persons who have lots of self-confidence or who enjoy good mental and physical health is generally high as compared to those who lack self-confidence or suffer from poor physical or mental health.

5. The Employee's Age:

Studies have reported that age and morale are directly related. Other things being equal, elder employees seem to have higher morale. This is because of the reason that perhaps younger workers are more dissatisfied with higher expectations than their elders. The older employees have more stability which comes with maturity, a serious attitude towards job. More reliability, less

absenteeism, proven steady work habits, a sense of responsibility and loyalty and less tendency to be distracted by outside interest as influences.

6. The Employee's Educational Level:

Studies have concluded an inverse relationship in the educational level of the employee and his morale. Higher the educational level lower will be the job satisfaction and vice versa. The higher he thinks he should be the more dissatisfied he will be.

7. The Employee's Occupational Level:

The occupational level of the employee also influences his level of morale. The higher up in organisational hierarchy an employee is higher will be his morale. The morale of the people who are lower in the levels of hierarchy is generally low because they compare their own attainments with those of others.

8. The Off the Job Activities of the Employee:

The relationship of an employer with his family and work group influences his behaviour and attitude while he is on the job. His off the job activities e.g. whether his family life is happy or not, whether he has excessive drinking habits etc. The influences and pressures of a formal and informal group have a significant effect on the morale of workers.

5.6 METHODS OF INCREASING EMPLOYEES MORALE

Milton J. Blum suggests four methods to increase employees' morale such as Expert method, Industrial spy approach method, Industrial counselor method and Employees problem approach methods. An organization may adopt various ways to measure the morale of employees in order to find a solution to increase overall morale of employees, which in turn increases productivity.

The following are the methods of increasing morale of employees:

1. Expert Approach method:

The basic feature of this approach is the use of an expert in making a spot survey. He tours the plant, talks to the key people and writes a report to the management in which he gives advice about the measures to boost the morale.

2. Industrial Spy Approach method:

Under this method, an expert whose true identity is unknown to the employees is given a job in a plant under the guise of a worker. He should mingle with the fellow workers and thus acquire intimate knowledge of the group and its complaints. Then his findings are passed on to the top management. This approach is an age old method. However, this method, is now primarily of historical interest only.

3. Industrial Counselor Method:

Under this method, an industrial counselor is appointed in the personnel department. He acts as a communication channel between employees, listen their problems and pass on the information to the management. He is also helpful in promoting group co-operation.

4. Employees Problem Approach method:

It is considered as the most promising method in the process of increasing the morale. This approach is basically a form of role playing. Under this method, a group meeting is called and pressing problems are presented to the employees by the discussion leader. The group leader must be well trained in the art of conducting democratic meetings. He should encourage free and frank discussion and should also assure that their views will be considered by the management. When the group reaches a decision, it will be conveyed to the top management.

These four methods of increasing employees morale differ in terms of the degree to which they have been used by industry. However, the employees problem method is widely used than the other three methods. Since this method attempts to put democracy to work, this deserves serious consideration.

Along with these methods other ways of boosting morale are:

5. Flexible Working Plans

Those employees that have flexible working plans in place work better due to a sense of control over their own lives and careers. By giving workers options, employers are telling them that they are valued and this is reflected in the bigger investment that an employee will make in work and the company.

In IT, the 'talent shortage' has been a point of discussion for some time now, but The 2020 Workplace points out that this is set to bleed into other industries in the years to come. Employers will have to work harder to attract top talent and those that offer flexible working and a good working culture with healthy morale will be the ones that win out.

6. Engaged Employees

According to the research company, Gallup, **engaged employees** are committed, love their job and care about what happens to the company they work for. This ultimately leads to higher levels of performance, and as Gallup explains, "better customer engagement, higher productivity, better retention, fewer accidents, and 21% higher profitability". Whilst in years gone by the power has been firmly in the hands of the employer, this is no longer the case and companies have to work harder to gain and retain top talent.

This is not something that's related to money either, it's down to how happy and challenged an employee is and how healthy the workplace culture is. Engagement to some extent has to occur naturally too; there can be no demanding that employees engage by managers, no looking over their shoulder to check what workers are doing, this is highly counterproductive.

7. Leadership and management

This means that for some companies, it will be necessary to look differently at how they tackle leadership and what types of leaders are in the enterprise. According to **Ivey Business Journal**, there are ten key 'C' words that managers should bear in mind when approaching how they deal with employees, these are:

1. **Connect** – good relationships between managers and employees are vital to engagement. Those workers that clash with management as they feel undervalued will never work at their top capacity for the company.
2. **Career** – Workers want to feel like they have the chance to advance their career and want challenging and meaningful work that can help them achieve this. It's up to the leader not only to find work that challenges employs, but to also instil the confidence in the employee that they can achieve.
3. **Clarity** – Leaders need to have vision and this must be communicated to the employee, who wants to know that he's working for a progressive company and wants to fully understand its goals.
4. **Convey** – Good leaders put in place processes and procedures that allow workers to achieve goals. It's not enough to provide feedback, there must be some facilitation behind driving employees to master tasks and then constructive and encouraging feedback should be given.

5. **Congratulate** – Too many companies are quick to criticize when things go wrong and unwilling to give praise where it's due. This fosters a negative working culture as everyone needs encouragement and is the sign of a bad leader.
6. **Contribute** – Employees that understand how their work is contributing to the overall company strategy perform better than those who don't. This means that managers have to communicate why a workers job is important and show them proven results.
7. **Control** – workers like to have control over their own lives, as mentioned earlier on, and this can be achieved by flexible working and consulting them over issues that are relevant to their job. The ability for an employee to voice his ideas and opinions is important to this feeling of control.
8. **Collaborate** – this is something that is seeing a huge rise in popularity within all departments of the enterprise. Team work strengthens relationships with both leaders and colleagues, leading to a happier, more engaged and productive workplace.
9. **Credibility** – People want to be proud of what they do and they want to know that they are working for an ethical and high-performing company.
10. **Confidence** – In order to be proud of the company, an employee has to have confidence in his leaders and the company itself. Scandal, be it of a personal or corporate nature, really tend to damage employee (and consumer) confidence.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Define Industrial Morale.
2. Write two determinants of Morale.
3. Write methods to boost Morale.

5.7 SUMMARY

Industrial morale refers to the general outlook and attitude of employees with regards to their job and the work environment. It is that feeling of satisfaction, fulfillment, and confidence that employees have that their career goals are being met in some way. Boosting employee morale increases productivity because people who feel appreciated and fulfilled at work develop the ownership spirit and remain committed to their job. When morale is high, employees tend to stay focused on the mission, taking the initiative to meet or exceed stated goals.

5.8 GLOSSARY

Enthusiasm: intense and eager enjoyment, interest, or approval

Willingness: the quality or state of being prepared to do something; readiness.

Productivity: the effectiveness of productive effort, especially in industry, as measured in terms of the rate of output per unit of input.

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5.11 MODEL QUESTIONS

1. Define Industrial Morale. Discuss the Nature and Determinants of Industrial Morale.
2. What is morale? How can employee morale be boosted?

Suggested Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise

1. According to Jurious Fillipo "Morale is a mental condition or attitude of individual and groups which determines their willingness to cooperate".
2. Two determinants
 - a. Objectives of the Organisation—Employees are highly motivated and their morale is higher if their individual goals and objectives are in tune with organisational goals and objectives. The commonness of purpose will result in high morale. Employees want to be a part of the organisation which has a worthwhile purpose in which they can believe.
 - b. Organisational Design—Organisation structure has an impact on the quality of labour relations, particularly on the level of morale. Large organisations tend to lengthen their channels of vertical communication and to increase the difficulty of upward communication. Therefore the morale tends to be lower. Against this, flat structure increases level of morale.
3. Two ways to boost Morale
 - c. **Connect** – good relationships between managers and employees are vital to engagement. Those workers that clash with management as they feel undervalued will never work at their top capacity for the company.
 - d. **Career** – Workers want to feel like they have the chance to advance their career and want challenging and meaningful work that can help them achieve this. It's up to the leader not only to find work that challenges employs, but to also instil the confidence in the employee that they can achieve.

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MOTIVATION OF INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYEES: CONCEPT AND DETERMINANTS

Structure

- 6.1 Objectives
- 6.2 Introduction
- 6.3 Concept and Meaning of Motivation
- 6.4 Features of Motivation
- 6.5 Importance of Motivation
- 6.6 Determinants of Motivation
- 6.7 Types of Motives
- 6.8 Applications in Industry
- 6.9 Improving employee motivation
- 6.10 Summary
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- 6.12 References
- 6.5 Further Readings
- 6.14 Model Questions

6.1 OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you will be able to understand:

- the meaning, nature and importance of motivation
- Various motives and the motivational skills
- The financial and non-financial aspects of motivation

6.2 INTRODUCTION

One of the important duties of the modern manager is to get things done through people. He has to bring employees into contact with the organisation in such a way that the objectives of both groups are achieved. He must be interested in the people, the work, and the achievement of assigned objectives. To be effective, he must balance his concerns for people and work. In other words, he must know how to utilise human as well as non-human resources while translating goals into action. So, it must be recognised by the manager that individuals, not organisations, create excellence. Recognising the importance of the human element in the production process, Peter F.

Drucker, had remarked that 'man, of all the resources available to man, can grow and develop'. The problem of establishing the right climate to maximise employee motivation and commitment is still with us. Only good leaders are able to meet such challenges head-on and emerge as winners in the present-day competitive environment. In the present and the following lesson, a detailed account of these two vital aspects of management; motivation and leadership is provided.

6.3 CONCEPT AND MEANING OF MOTIVATION

Dr. John B. Miner defines motivation as, “motivation is largely an emotional performance, and human behaviour drives almost entirely from the interaction of positive and negative states, including those actually experienced. We act and talk as we do largely because we expect that we will achieve certain events and conditions which will provoke pleasant emotions within us.”

A simple definition of *motivation* is the ability to change behaviour. It is a drive that compels one to act because human behaviour is directed toward some goal. Motivation is intrinsic (internal); it comes from within based on personal interests, desires, and need for fulfillment. However, extrinsic (external) factors such as rewards, praise, and promotions also influence motivation. Motivation is the need or desire that causes a person to act; to have initiative, spirit or be enterprising.

Motivation has been defined as: the psychological process that gives behaviour purpose and direction. A predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific, unmet needs. An internal drive to satisfy an unsatisfied need. Motivation is operationally defined as the inner force that drives individuals to accomplish personal and organizational goals. The processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction and persistence of effort towards attaining a goal. People who are committed to achieving organizational objectives generally outperform those who are not committed. Those who are intrinsically rewarded by accomplishments in the workplace are satisfied with their jobs and are individuals with high self-esteem. Therefore, an important part of management is to help make work more satisfying and rewarding for employees and to keep employee motivation consistent with organizational objectives. With the diversity of contemporary workplaces, this is a complex task. Many factors, including the influences of different cultures, affect what people value and what is rewarding to them.

From a manager's perspective, it is important to understand what prompts people, what influences them, and why they persist in particular actions. Quick (1985) presented these four underlying principles that are important to understanding motivation:

1. People have reasons for everything they do.
2. Whatever people choose as a goal is something they believe is good for them.
3. The goal people choose must be seen as attainable.
4. The conditions under which the work is done can affect its value to the employee and his or her perceptions of attainability or success.

6.4 FEATURES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is the set of forces that cause people to behave in certain ways. As rightly pointed out by Griffin, on any given day, an employee may choose to work as hard as possible at a job, to work just hard enough to avoid a reprimand, or to do as little as possible. The goal for the manager is to maximise the occurrence of the first outcome and minimise the occurrence of the last one. In this sense, motivation is the work that a manager performs to inspire, encourage and impel people to take required action. According to Scott 'motivation is a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish desired goals'. The process of motivation is characterised by the following:

1. **Motivation is an internal feeling:** Motivation points to energetic forces within individuals that drive them to behave in certain ways and, to environmental forces that trigger these drives.
2. **Motivation produces goal-directed behaviour:** Motivation has got a profound influence on human behaviour, it harnesses human energy to organisational requirements. There is the notion of goal orientation on the part of individuals, their behaviour is directed towards something.
3. **Motivation contains systems orientation:** It considers those forces in individuals and in their surrounding environments that feed back to the individuals either to reinforce the intensity of their drive and the direction of this energy or to dissuade them from their cause of action and redirect their efforts.
4. **Motivation can be either positive or negative:** Positive motivation or the carrot approach, offers something precious to the person in the form of additional pay, incentives, praise etc., for satisfactory performance. Negative motivation or stick approach emphasises penalties while controlling performance (reprimands, threat of demotion).
5. **Motivation means bargaining:** Behaviour is what people do. Motivation is why they do it. Barnard explained motivation in the form of 'inducements-contribution' theory. It focuses on workers and organisations endeavouring to find what payouts (inducements) to workers in exchange for what degree of cooperation (contributions) from workers will be satisfactory to both parties. The problem of motivation then becomes one of arriving at compensation to workers that will coax them the output that is required.
6. **Motivation is a complete process:** Five reasons can be provided in support of this statement:
 - (a) First, motive is a hypothetical construct. It cannot be seen. Often, we observe individuals putting a great deal of overtime. We cannot definitely state whether they are doing it because of additional income they receive or simply because they enjoy their work.
 - (b) Individual may have a host of needs that are continuously changing, and, sometimes, in conflict with each other. As a result, it becomes exceedingly difficult to observe or measure motivation with certainty.
 - (c) People satisfy their needs in many different ways. A salesman may work hard to earn money; a second salesman may be spurred by his achievement motive and so on. By simply observing sales persons in action, it is not easy to differentiate between these groups.
 - (d) Promoting an employee to a new and more challenging task may intensify the drive to work harder in anticipation of the next promotion. Thus, gratification of a particular need may gradually lead to an increase in its intensity.
 - (e) Finally, goal directed behaviour does not always lead to need satisfaction.
7. **Motivation is different from job satisfaction:** Motivation is the drive to satisfy a want or goal. It is concerned with goal-directed behaviour. Satisfaction refers to the contentment experiences when a want is satisfied. The term 'satisfaction, is used to analyse outcomes already experienced by an employee'. Satisfaction is a consequence of rewards and punishments associated with past experience.

6.5 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

The success of an organisation, ultimately, depends on how effectively managers are able to motivate their subordinates. In the words of Alien, 'poorly motivated people can nullify the

soundest organisation'. The following points bring out the importance of motivation in modern organisations:

1. **Productive use of resources:** Modern organisations work through physical, financial and human resources. The utilisation of physical and financial resources depends on the willingness of people to work. Motivation enables people to convert physical and financial resources into useful products. It helps management to get the best out of human as well as non-human resources.
2. **Increased efficiency and output:** Motivation enables people to work enthusiastically. As we all know, performance is a product of not merely ability to do a task but the willingness to do the same with zeal and enthusiasm. Motivation bridges the gap between the ability to work and the willingness to perform wholeheartedly to thereby increase the overall efficiency and output. This, ultimately, helps in reducing the cost of operations.
3. **Achievement of goals:** Motivation causes goal-directed behaviour. It helps people to move in a desired direction and earn rewards. In organisations where managers try to understand the needs of employees and institute appropriate incentive systems, accomplishment of goals is fairly easy. If people are not properly motivated, no useful purpose can be served by planning, organising and staffing functions.
4. **Development of friendly relationships:** Motivation brings employees closer to the organisation. The needs of employees are met through attractive rewards, promotional opportunities, etc. Employees begin to take more interest in organisational work. Their morale would improve. They begin to think that the enterprise belongs to them and there is no difference between the interests of the enterprise and their own interests. This helps in developing cordial relations between management and workers.
5. **Stability in workforce:** Attractive motivational schemes satisfy the need of employees. As a result, their commitment to organisational work increases. Employees do their tasks loyally and enthusiastically. They are not tempted to leave the organisation. This means reduced employee turnover. Further, satisfaction on the job means reduced absenteeism. Employees attend to their work regularly and sincerely so as to earn rewards. The organisation benefits because it is able to maintain a stable workforce. The skill and competence of employees continue to be available to the organisation. This enhances the image of the firm and helps it to secure the services of competent people.

6.6 DETERMINANTS OF MOTIVATION

Traditionally, it is believed that employees are motivated by the opportunity to make as much money as possible and will act rationally to maximise their earnings. The assumption is that money, because of what it can buy, is the most important motivator of all people. If this is so, why do some employees oppose the introduction of piece rate plans and others refuse to take overtime? Obviously, in place of the above monistic approach (man motivated by money alone), a pluralistic explanation is required. According to the pluralistic approach, man works to fulfil a variety of needs. Three types of forces generally influence human behaviour: (i) forces operating within the individual, (ii) forces operating within the organisation, and (iii) forces operating in the environment.

1. **Individual:** Human needs are, both numerous and complex. Some of these needs cannot be described and identified, because people hide their real needs under the cover of socially accepted behaviour. Further, each person is different and a variety of items may prove to be motivating, depending upon the needs of the individual, the situation the individual is in, and what

rewards the individual expects for the work done. It is the duty of the manager to match individual needs and expectations to the type of rewards available in the job setting.

2. **Organisation:** The climate in the organisation must be conducive to human performance. Climate plays an important part in determining worker's motivation. The organisation climate is determined by a number of variables such as its leadership style, autonomy enjoyed by members, growth prospects, emotional support from members, reward structure, etc.

3. **Environment:** A worker does not live in two separate worlds, one inside the factory and the other outside of it. The troubles and pleasures of off-the-job life cannot be put aside when reporting for work in the morning, nor can factory matters be dropped when returning home after work. On-the-job experiences and off-the-job experiences are inextricably interwoven and cannot be separated into water-tight compartments. Culture, norms, customs, images and attributes accorded by society to particular jobs, professions and occupations and the worker's home life - all play a strong motivational role. An individual may prefer to do the job of an officer (because it has social status and gives lot of power) rather than serve as a college teacher (power-less position). In other words, factors such as social status and social acceptance play an important role in shaping the motivations of people.

Table 6.1: Variables affecting Motivation in Organisational Setting

Individual Characteristics	Job Characteristics	Work Characteristics	Situation
<i>Interests Attitudes</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Towards self • Towards job • Towards aspects of work situation <i>Needs</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Security • Social • Achievement 	<i>Intrinsic Reward</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Degree of autonomy • Degree of variety in tasks 	<i>Immediate Work Environment</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peers • Supervisors <i>Organisation Actions</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reward practices • Organisational culture 	

Source: Layman W. Porter and R.E. Miles: Motivation and Management

6.7 TYPES OF MOTIVES

There are two types of motives - Primary and Secondary. Primary motives are called physiological or basic needs, as they are necessary for survival of any organism-human, animal or plants. They are caused by the needs of our bodies. The main primary motives are hunger, thirst, avoidance of pain, need for air and sleep, elimination of wastes, regulation of body temperature and sex. All these are unlearned motives inborn in the organism.

Primary Motives/Physiological Motives

Primary motives are essential for survival. They must be satisfied first before you can take up any other activity. Primary motives come to action when the physiological balance of the body is upset. This balance is called homeostasis.

Hunger Drive: When food supply of the body has been exhausted, certain biochemical changes take place which gives hunger pain. The hunger must be satisfied in order to help the body to return to a physiological balance or homeostasis.

Thirst Drive: In it the tissues of the body lose fluid when fluids have not been taken in. As a result, the mucous membranes of the throat become dry and cause sensation of thirst.

Respiratory Drive: It is the drive for air and oxygen. One cannot survive of long without a regular supply of air or oxygen. If oxygen is not supplied even for a short time, it is possible to experience brain damage, loss of memory and control over one's body.

Sleep Drive: It usually occurs at regular intervals for each person. When the body continues activities without rest or sleep for a long time, it is possible to experience confusion, inability to pay attention, droopy eyelids, staring, muscle tremors and increased sensitivity to pain. The body temperature and metabolism drop enough during sleep, saving up energy.

Drive for elimination of wastes when the bladder or intestines become distended with waste material, they cause pressure and discomfort. The person becomes restless until the waste materials are disposed of and pressure relieved.

Sex Drive: It is considered a biological drive since it is dependent on physiological conditions. Unlike hunger and thirst, sex is not essential for the survival of the individual but it is necessary for the survival of the species. The initial drive to sex activity comes from nervous tensions within the body set up by sex hormones. Its expression is subject to moral codes and civil law. We have to sublimate this sex drive by engaging ourselves with art and painting, creative writing, dramatics, etc.

Maternal Drive: It is physiological motive. Maternal behavior is instinctive in nature. It is unlearned. Physiological drive causes maternal behavior. Maternal drive is caused by prolactin, a hormone secreted by the pituitary gland.

Secondary/Psychological Motives

Psychological motives may not be as immediate or physical, yet they influence behavior at an early stage. An individual is not merely a food-seeking living system. He desires and actively strives for association, for belonging to various individuals and groups. These motives are neither inborn to him nor are they related directly to his survival. These motives originate from the training which he acquires from different social settings i.e., family school, peers, clubs etc. psychological motives, unlike physiological motives, are largely learnt and vary from culture to culture. The psychological motives include love and belongingness, self esteem, self actualization, achievement motives, affiliation motives, aggression motives, power motives, curiosity motives.

6.8 APPLICATIONS IN INDUSTRY

Motivation is one of the important functions of the management without which organizational objectives are difficult to achieve. It is one of the methods of inducing man on the job to get the work done effectively and to have the best results out of minimum efforts. E. F. L. Brech has explained the importance of motivation in the following words: "The problem of motivation is the key to management actions and in its executive form; it is among chief tasks of the general manager. We may safely lie it down that the tone of an organization is the reflection of the motivation from the top." Administrative actions lose its points unless the members of the organization are willing to contribute their efforts for the fulfilment of their assigned tasks. Motivation is necessary for the better performance.

1. **Utilization of Human Resources:** Motivation induces men to work and it results in increased production and productivity because men try to put their efforts to produce and productivity because men try to put their efforts to produce more and more for the benefits of the organization and thus their efficiency increases. Moreover the inherent qualities of workers are developed by employing different techniques in the interest of the organization so that they are able to use the methods, systems and technology effectively.
2. **Best Utilization of Other Resources:** All other resources except human resource can produce no results unless the men try to put them in action. Men should be motivated to carry out plans, policies and programmes laid down by the organization by utilization of resources is not possible to their fullest extent unless the men is induced to contribute their efforts towards attaining the organization goals.
3. **Willingness to Work:** The function of motivation influences the willingness of people to work and willingness comes from within. It may be possible that a man has a capacity to work and he is physically, mentally and technically fit for work but he may not be willing to work. Motivation concerns to create a need and desire on the part of the workman to present his better performance.
4. **Building of Good Labor Relations:** All the members of the staff concentrate their efforts to achieve the objectives of the organization and carry out the plans in accordance with the policies and programmes laid down by the organization if the management introduces motivational plans. Both parties-laborers and management have got benefited by such plans. On the one hand, efficiency and wages of operating force increase and on the other hand productivity of the organization increases due to consolidated efforts of the motivated people and the labor problems such as absenteeism, labor turnover, indiscipline, grievances, etc. are considerably reduced. Thus motivation helps build good labor relations.
5. **Basis of Cooperation:** In zeal to produce more the members work as a team to pull the weight effectively, to get their loyalty to the group and to the organization, to carryout properly the activities allocated and generally to play an efficient part in achieving the goals in which the organization has undertaken. Thus motivation is the basis of cooperation to get the best results out of the efforts of the men on the job.
6. **Improvement upon Skill and Knowledge:** All the members will try to be as efficient as possible and to improve upon their skill and knowledge so that they may be able to contribute to the progress of the organization as much as possible because they know that they, in turn, will get what have been promised and ultimately they will be able to satisfy their personal as well as social needs.

Self-Assessment Exercise-I

1. Define Motivation.
2. Write two determinants of Motivation.

6.9 IMPROVING EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

1. **Create a positive environment:** Promote a workplace atmosphere that makes all workers' feel worthwhile and important. Don't play favourites with your staff. Keep office doors open and let folks know they can always approach you with questions or concerns. A happy workplace is a productive workplace.

2. **Put people on the right path:** Most workers' are looking for advancement opportunities within their own factory. Work with each of them to develop a career growth plan that takes into consideration both their current skills and future goals. If workers' become excited about what's down the road, they will become more engaged in their present work.
3. **Educate the masses:** Help workers' to improve their skills by providing on-the-job training or in-house career development. Allow them to attend workshops and seminars related to the industry. Encourage them to attend adult education classes paid for by the company. Workers' will feel you are investing in them, and this will translate into an improved job performance.
4. **Provide incentives:** Offer people incentives to perform well, either with something small like a gift certificate or something more substantial such as a performance-based bonus or salary increase. Give out "Employee of the Month" awards. Such tokens of appreciation will go far in motivating employees.
5. **Acknowledge contributions:** You can make a huge difference in employee morale simply by taking the time to recognize each worker's contributions and accomplishments, large or small. Be generous with praise.
6. **Honour your promises:** Getting people to give their all requires following through on promises. If you tell an employee that he or she will be considered for a bonus if numbers improve or productivity increases, you'd better put your money where your mouth is. Failure to follow through on promises will result in a loss of trust not only that person's trust, but the trust of every employee that hears the story.
7. **Provide career coaching:** Help workers' reach the next level professionally by providing on-site coaching. Bring in professionals to provide one-on-one counselling, which can help people learn how to overcome personal or professional obstacles on their career paths.
8. **Match tasks to talents:** You can improve employee motivation by improving employee confidence. Assign individuals with tasks you know they will enjoy or will be particularly good at. An employee who is successful at one thing will have the self-confidence to tackle other projects with renewed energy and excitement.

6.9.1 FINANCIAL AND NON-FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF MOTIVATION

Financial Aspects

In reality, despite the views of Herzberg that monetary methods of motivation have little value, firms still use money as a major incentive. There are a variety of payment systems that a business could use to motivate its employees:

Wages and Salaries: Wages are normally paid per hour worked and workers receive money at the end of the week. Overtime is paid for any additional hours worked during the week. However salaries are annual (based on a year's work) and are paid at the end of each month.

Piece-rate: Piece-rate is paying a worker per item they produce in a certain period of time. It was recommended by the motivation theorist Taylor and had close links with working on production lines. It increases speed of work and therefore productivity but at times workers do not concentrate on quality of work as emphasis on speed of work.

Fringe Benefits: These are often known as 'perks' and are items an employee receives in addition to their normal wage or salary e.g. company car, private health insurance, free meals.

Performance-related pay: This is paid to those employees who meet certain targets. The targets are often evaluated and reviewed in regular appraisals with managers. It is system that is being

increasingly used in businesses in the UK. It reduces the amount of time spent on industrial relations (negotiations with trade unions) It does not promote teamwork and can lead to workers feeling they are treated unfairly if colleagues are awarded more.

Profit sharing: This is a system whereby employees receive a proportion of the company's profits. This means staff are in the same position as shareholders. The workers are more likely to accept changes to their working practices if they can see that it may decrease costs and so increase profit.

Share ownership: This is a common incentive for senior managers who are given shares in the company rather than a straightforward bonus or membership of a profit sharing scheme. It means that some staff are also shareholders.

Non-financial Aspects

Incentives which cannot be offered in terms of money are known as non-monetary/non-financial incentives. Often money alone is not sufficient to satisfy higher order needs, such as status, recognition, realisation of one's potential, etc. People working at higher levels do not always work for money. They expect a challenging job, interesting work that grants them enough power to control environments, work that allows them to use their talents fully. Over the years, organisations have developed a variety of incentives to meet the higher order needs of people working in organisations. These are discussed in Table 6.3 broadly under three categories.

Table 6.3: Non-financial Incentives

Individual Incentives	Group Incentives	Organisational Incentives
<p>1. Status: It is the ranking of positions, rights and duties in the organisation. Research indicated the fact that middle and higher level employees prefer scalations in status to increments in pay.</p> <p>2. Promotion: It is the vertical movement of a person in the organisation. Promotions are accompanied by increased responsibilities, enhanced prestige and power, usually. Since promotions depend on good performance, most employees try to attain these if the organisation provides the opportunities.</p> <p>3. Responsibility: People want to handle responsible and challenging jobs. If the job is responsible, it satisfies people in more than one way.</p>	<p>1. Social Importance of Work: People want jobs with high social status. They are prepared to accept such jobs, even when the pay is comparatively less. High status jobs enhance the social status of an individual in the society. E.g., preferring to work in a foreign bank rather than in a good private financial institution.</p> <p>2. Team Spirit: People prefer to work in well-knit groups. Those organisations that encourage their employees to do the jobs in a cooperative manner, attract people automatically. When team spirit is encouraged among employees, they will put in their maximum in the service of the organisation.</p> <p>3. Healthy Competition:</p>	<p>1. Participation: People prefer organisations that offer them good opportunities to participate in the decision making process. Participation enables people to offer valuable suggestions and concrete ideas and see that these are actually translated into action.</p> <p>2. Sound Human Relations: A positive work climate where people are treated as human beings is an important reward. It permits people to work with enthusiasm and spirit and contribute their best.</p> <p>3. Morale: Morale refers to the atmosphere created by the attitudes of the members of an organisation. Poor morale is an organisational malady. The warning signals to be</p>

<p>4. Recognition of work: Managers can motivate people by using this in three ways: show appreciation when an individual does an outstanding job; compliment individuals in front of others; compliment individuals when the incident is still fresh in their mind. Recognition and appreciation will have a 'tonic' effect on the psychology of employees.</p> <p>5. Interesting work: Jobs that are varied, pleasant and enjoyable motivate people thoroughly. Such jobs allow people to satisfy their natural instincts. Work in such cases becomes as natural as play or recreation and stimulates people to reach greater heights.</p> <p>6. Job Security: People want secure jobs. They want to be sure about their future income and job continuity. For the same reason, people prefer government jobs to private jobs, where the security is good but not the income.</p>	<p>Promoting healthy competition among employees through carefully chosen reward schemes spurs people to work harder.</p>	<p>noted here are in the form of absenteeism, tardiness, high turnover, strikes and sabotage, lack of pride in work, etc.</p> <p>4. Communication and Discipline: Proper communication and good disciplinary procedures enable people to work with confidence and along the prescribed routes. The behaviour is consistent with goals and the chances of meeting the goals are high.</p>
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Self-Assessment Exercise-II

1. Write two ways to improve motivation of employees.
2. Write two motives.

6.10 SUMMARY

Motivation is the work that a manager performs to inspire, encourage and impel people to accomplish desired goals. Properly motivated employees can produce excellent results by putting facilities to good use.

In order to motivate employees, managers have to recognise individual differences, match people to jobs, link rewards to performance and see that rewards match the efforts put in by employees.

Apart from money, non-financial incentives such as status, promotion, responsible jobs, interesting work, job security, recognition, etc., also play an important role in motivating people.

6.11 GLOSSARY

Motivation: Set of forces that cause people to behave in certain ways.

Satisfaction: It is a consequence of rewards and punishments associated with past experience.

Job Enrichment: The process of building motivation factors into a job that produces job satisfaction.

Positive Reinforcement: It involves providing a pleasant, rewarding consequence to encourage that behaviour.

Negative Reinforcement: It involves providing a noxious stimulus so that an individual will engage in the desired behaviour in order to stop the noxious stimuli.

6.12 REFERENCES

- V.S.P. Rao and V. Hari Krishna, *Management: Text and Cases*, Excel Books, New Delhi.
- Barry Silverstein, *Motivating Employees: Bringing Out the Best in Your People*, Collins Business.

6.5 FURTHER READINGS

- Anne Bruce and James S. Pepitone, *Motivating Employees*, McGraw-Hill.

6.14 MODEL QUESTIONS

1. "Motivation is one of the more complex topics in industrial psychology". Discuss.
2. Define Motivation. Discuss the determinants of motivation. Suggest measures to improve motivation.

Suggested Answers to self-assessment exercise-I

1. Dr. John B. Miner defines motivation as, "motivation is largely an emotional performance, and human behaviour drives almost entirely from the interaction of positive and negative states, including those actually experienced. We act and talk as we do largely because we expect that we will achieve certain events and conditions which will provoke pleasant emotions within us."

2. **Individual:** Human needs are, both numerous and complex. Some of these needs cannot be described and identified, because people hide their real needs under the cover of socially accepted behaviour. Further, each person is different and a variety of items may prove to be motivating, depending upon the needs of the individual, the situation the individual is in, and what rewards the individual expects for the work done. It is the duty of the manager to match individual needs and expectations to the type of rewards available in the job setting.

Organisation: The climate in the organisation must be conducive to human performance. Climate plays an important part in determining worker's motivation. The organisation climate is determined by a number of variables such as its leadership style, autonomy enjoyed by members, growth prospects, emotional support from members, reward structure, etc.

Suggested Answers to self-assessment exercise-II

1. **Provide incentives:** Offer people incentives to perform well, either with something small like a gift certificate or something more substantial such as a performance-based bonus or salary

increase. Give out "Employee of the Month" awards. Such tokens of appreciation will go far in motivating employees.

Acknowledge contributions: You can make a huge difference in employee morale simply by taking the time to recognize each worker's contributions and accomplishments, large or small. Be generous with praise.

2. There are two types of motives - Primary and Secondary.

Primary Motives: Primary motives are called physiological or basic needs, as they are necessary for survival of any organism-human, animal or plants. They are caused by the needs of our bodies. The main primary motives are hunger, thirst, avoidance of pain, need for air and sleep, elimination of wastes, regulation of body temperature and sex. All these are unlearned motives inborn in the organism.

Secondary/Psychological Motives: Psychological motives may not be as immediate or physical, yet they influence behavior at an early stage. An individual is not merely a food-seeking living system. He desires and actively strives for association, for belonging to various individuals and groups. These motives are neither inborn to him nor are they related directly to his survival. These motives originate from the training which he acquires from different social settings i.e., family school, peers, clubs etc. psychological motives, unlike physiological motives, are largely learnt and vary from culture to culture. The psychological motives include love and belongingness, self-esteem, self-actualization, achievement motives, affiliation motives, aggression motives, power motives, curiosity motives.

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PERSONALITY: CONCEPT, SIGNIFICANCE AND TYPES

Structure

7.0 Objectives

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Concept

7.3 Characteristics of Personality

7.4 Significance of Personality

7.5 Determinants of Personality

7.6 Types of personality

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7.8 Personality Traits

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7.0 Objectives

After reading this lesson you will be able to:-

1. Explain the concept and significance of Personality and its behavioural aspects.
2. Analyse that personality is a set of behaviours, cognitions and emotional patterns that evolve from biological and environmental factors
3. Personality essentially deals with the variations in thought and differentiates one person from another
4. Make an assessment that personality traits influence organization behaviour

7.1 Introduction

What an individual sees in his childhood days and most importantly his growing days form his personality. How an individual is raised plays an important role in shaping his personality. Personality is nothing but the aggregate conglomeration of memories and incidents in an individual's entire life span. Environmental factors, family background, financial conditions, genetic factors, situations and circumstances also contribute to an individual's personality. Hence, how we

behave in our day to day lives reflects our personality. The way an individual behaves depends on his family background, upbringing, social status and so on. An individual with a troubled childhood would not open up easily. He would always hesitate to open his heart in front of others. Some kind of fear would always be there within him. An individual who never had any major problems in life would be an extrovert and would never have issues interacting and socializing with others. One really cannot blame an individual for not being an extrovert. It is crucial to check his background or past life. It is quite possible that as a child, he was not allowed to go out of his home, play and freak out with friends. These individuals start believing that their home is their only world and they are not safe outside. Such a mindset soon becomes their personality.

Personality development helps to develop an impressive personality and makes a person stand apart from the rest. Personality development also plays an essential role in improving one's communication skills. Individuals ought to master the art of expressing their thoughts and feelings in the most desired way. Personality development makes you a confident individual who is appreciated and respected wherever he goes.

7.2 Concept of Personality

Personality is defined as the characteristic sets of behaviours, cognitions and emotional patterns that evolve from biological and environmental factors. While there is no generally agreed upon definition of personality, most theories focus on motivation and psychological interactions with one's environment. Trait based personality theories, such as those defined by Raymond Cattell, define personality as the traits that predict a person's behaviour. On the other hand, more behaviourally based approaches define personality through learning and habits. Nevertheless, most theories view personality as relatively stable. Hence, personality is a pattern of stable state and characteristic of an individual that influences his behaviour toward the achievement of the goals. Each individual has a unique way of protecting these states.

The term 'personality' has been derived from the Latin term 'persona' which means to 'speak through'. The Latin word denotes the masks worn by actors in ancient Greece and Rome. Therefore a very common meaning if the term personality is the role which the person (actor) displays to the public.

Personality is very frequently used word but still there is no consensus about its meaning. A few definitions of personality are given as:

According to Gordon Allport, "Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment."

According to Floyd I. Ruch, "Personality includes external appearance and behaviour, inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force and the particular pattern or organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer."

According to Fred Luthans, "Personality means how a person affects others and how he understands and views himself as well as the pattern of inner and outer measurable traits and the person-situation interaction."

According to Salvatore Maddi, "Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment."

In psychology, personality is interpreted in different ways by different theorists. For example Carl Rogers views personality in terms of self, an organized, permanent, subjectively perceived entity which is at the heart of all our experiences. Freud describes the structure of personality as

composed of three elements the Id, ego and super ego. In addition the social learning aspects of personality are also emphasized by some theorists.

Taking all the aspects together, personality represents the sum total of several attributes which manifest themselves in an individual, the ability of the individual to organize and integrate all the qualities so as to give meaning to life, and the uniqueness of the situation which influences behavior of an individual.

7.3 Characteristics of Personality

Some of the basic characteristics of personality are:

1. **Consistency.** There is generally a recognizable order and regularity to behaviours. Generally, people act in the same ways or similar ways in a variety of situations.
2. **Psychological and physiological.** Personality is a psychological construct, but research suggests that it is also influenced by biological processes and needs.
3. **Impact behaviours and actions.** Personality does not just influence how we move and respond in our environment, it also causes us to act in certain ways.
4. **Multiple expressions.** Personality is displayed in more than just behaviour. It can also be seen in our thoughts, feelings, close relationships and other social interactions.

7.4 Significance of Personality

Personality is defined as the personal qualities and characteristics of an individual. Personality is how we interact with others.

1. **Personality is a sum of characteristics of an individual**

Personality is a sum of characteristics of an individual which makes him different from the others. It is our personality which makes us unique and helps us stand apart from the crowd.

2. **Personality plays an essential role not only in an individual's professional but also personal lives**

Personality plays an essential role not only in an individual's professional but also personal lives. It makes an individual disciplined, punctual and an asset for his/her organization. An in-disciplined individual finds it difficult to survive in the long run. Personality development teaches you to respect not only your Boss and fellow workers but also family members, friends, neighbours, relatives and so on. Never make fun of anyone at the workplace. Avoid criticizing and making fun of your fellow workers.

3. Personality grooms an individual and helps him make a mark of his own Individuals need to have a style of their own for others to follow them. Do not blindly copy others. You need to set an example for people around. Personality development not only makes you look good and presentable but also helps you face the world with a smile.

1. **Personality goes a long way in reducing stress and conflicts**

It encourages individuals to look at the brighter sides of life. Face even the worst situations with a smile. Trust me, flashing your trillion dollar smile will not only melt half of your problems but also evaporate your stress and worries. There is no point cribbing over minor issues and problems.

2. **Personality helps to develop a positive attitude in life**

An individual with a negative attitude finds a problem in every situation. Rather than cribbing and criticizing people around, analyze the whole situation and try to find an appropriate solution for the

same. Remember, if there is a problem, there has to be a solution as well. Never lose your cool. It would make the situation worse.

3. Personality development help you differentiate between your personal as well as professional life

One should never carry his/her attitude or personal grudges to work. Office is not a place where you can be rude to others just because you had a fight with your friend last night. Personality development sessions help you differentiate between your personal as well as professional life. It is really essential to keep a balance between both the lives to lead a peaceful and stress free life.

4. Personality helps an individual to inculcate positive qualities

Personality helps an individual to inculcate positive qualities like punctuality, flexible attitude, willingness to learn, friendly nature, eagerness to help others and so on. Never hesitate to share information with others. Always reach office on time. Some people have a tendency to work till late. Late sittings not only increase your stress levels but also spoil your personal life. Sitting till late at the office indicates that an individual is extremely poor in time management skills.

Personality also influences what we think, our beliefs, values and expectations. What we think about others depends on our personality.

7.5 Determinants of Personality

Following are the factors which help in determining one's personality:

1. Heredity

Heredity refers to factors that are determined once an individual is born. An individual's physique, attractiveness, body type, complexion, body weight depend on his/her parents biological makeup.

2. Environment

The environment to which an individual is subjected to during his growing years plays an important role in determining his/her personality. The varied cultures in which we are brought up and our family backgrounds have a crucial role in shaping our personalities.

3. Situation

An individual's personality also changes with current circumstances and situations. An individual would behave in a different way when he has enough savings with him and his behavior would automatically change when he is bankrupt.

7.6 Personality Types

Personality development refers to enhancing an individual's personality for him to stand apart from the rest and make a mark of own. An individual with a pleasing personality is respected and appreciated by all.

Alfred Adler's Personality Types

Alfred Adler was an Austrian medical doctor, psychotherapist, and founder of the school of individual psychology. His emphasis on the importance of feelings of inferiority- the inferiority complex(an inferiority complex consists of feelings of not measuring up to standards, a doubt and uncertainty about oneself, and a lack of self-esteem. It is often subconscious and is thought to drive afflicted individuals to overcompensate, resulting either in spectacular achievement or extremely asocial behavior. In modern literature, the preferred terminology is "lack of covert self-esteem) is recognized as an isolating element which plays a key role in personality

development. Alfred Adler considered a human being as an individual whole, therefore he called his psychology "Individual Psychology" (Orgler 1976).

Adler gave four types of personality. Adler noted that his four types looked very much like the four types proposed by the ancient Greeks. They, too, noticed that some people are always sad, others always angry, and so on. But they attributed these temperaments (from the same root as temperature) to the relative presence of four bodily fluids called humors.

While Adler did not spend a lot of time on neurosis, he did identify a small handful of personality "types" that he distinguished based on the different levels of energy he felt they manifested. These types to Adler were by no means absolutes, it should be noted; Adler, the devout individualist, saw them only as heuristic devices (useful fictions).

1. Ruling Type

The first type is the ruling type. These people are characterized early on by a tendency to be generally aggressive and dominant over others, possessing an intense energy that overwhelms anything or anybody who gets in their way. These people are not always bullies or sadists, however; some turn the energy inward and harm themselves, such as is the case with alcoholics, drug addicts, and those who commit suicide.

2. Leaning Type

The second type is the leaning type. Individuals of this type are sensitive, and while they may put a shell up around themselves to protect themselves, they end up relying on others to carry them through life's challenges. They lack energy, in essence, and depend on the energy of others. They are also prone to phobias, anxieties, obsessions and compulsions, general anxiety, dissociation, etc.

3. Avoiding Type

The third type is the avoiding type. People of this type have such low energy they recoil within themselves to conserve it, avoiding life as a whole, and other people in particular. In extreme cases, these people develop psychosis—the end result of entirely retreating into one's self.

4. Socially Useful Type

Adler also believed in a fourth type: the socially useful type. People of this type are basically healthy individuals, possessed of adequate, but not overbearing, social interest and energy. They are able to give to others effectively as they are not so consumed by a sense of inferiority that they cannot look properly outside of themselves.

Other personality types

1. **The Duty Fulfiller** - Such individuals take their roles and responsibilities seriously and perform whatever tasks are assigned to them. Duty fulfillers are serious individuals and believe in honesty and a peaceful living. They never do anything which is not good for themselves, their job, families or for the society. Such individuals are actually good and responsible citizens who abide by the legal system and can't even dream of breaking the law. People with such a personality type are extremely hard working and often find it difficult to say NO to others, eventually becoming overburdened at the end of the day. Such individuals adopt an organized approach towards work and are extremely loyal and faithful. They also show a strong inclination towards creativity and aesthetics.

2. **The Mechanic** - As the name suggests such individuals are inclined towards machinery like aeroplane, motorcycling, cars, races and so on. They are interested to know why and how certain things function. Theories do not interest them. You would not be able to convince them

unless and until they see the practical application themselves. Such individuals are extremely adventurous and have a strong power of logical reasoning.

3. **The Nurturer** - Nurturers are individuals with a large heart. For them, the happiness of others is more important than their own interests. Such individuals actually live for others. They do not look at the darker sides of life and believe in extracting the best out of people around. They have a positive approach in life and want to believe only the best of people.

4. **The Artist** - Artists have an eye for natural beauty and creativity. Rather than worrying about future, they believe in living for the moment. Such individuals are extremely cool headed and do not get into unnecessary fights and troubles. They do not blindly copy others and aspire to create a style of their own.

5. **The Protector** - You would find such a personality type in very few people, making it a very rare personality type. Protectors are systematic individuals who want the best system to get things done. They often think irrationally. They are pessimists who find a problem in every situation. Such individuals do not trust others and only believe in themselves.

6. **The Idealist** - Such people have strong set of values and ethics. They find happiness in helping others. They consider themselves lucky if they get an opportunity to help others.

7. **The Scientist** - Such individuals believe in careful and strategic planning. They are good observers who believe in constantly gathering information and upgrade their existing knowledge. Scientists are extremely intelligent people who have a very sharp analytical mind.

8. **The Doer** - Individuals with such a personality type are the ones who believe in quick actions and immediate results. They enjoy taking risks in life and fulfill tasks assigned to them in the shortest span possible.

9. **The Guardian** - Such individuals are perfectionists who ensure that everything everywhere is going on smoothly. They are mature individuals who have a clear set of standards.

10. **The Performer** - Performers strive hard to grab attention of others and love being the centre of attention. They are fun loving individuals who enjoy fun and excitement in life.

11. **The Inspirer** - Inspirers are talented individuals and often act as a role model for others. They have great people skills.

12. **The Giver** - Individuals with "The Giver" personality type enjoy the company of others and do not prefer staying alone.

13. **The Executive** - Such individuals are born to lead and make very good leaders. They love taking charge and are good decision makers.

7.7 Theories of Personality

1. Jung theory

It emphasises personality types that have been made by the Myers-Briggs type indicators (a personality inventory) which measures the following pairs of Jungian inspired psychological dimensions.

- (a) Sensing-Intuiting
- (b) Thinking-Feeling
- (c) Extroversion-Introversion
- (d) Judging-Perceiving

Each of the above four pairs of dimensions reflects two different personality characteristics that offer a picture as to how individuals respond to the world around them. The attempt to match each psychological dimension from all pairs with each psychological dimensions in all other pairs would

result in too many different combinations of personality types for productive study. According to Jung, Personality is based in predisposing pattern borrowed by individual from his ancestors. The selected Jungian personality types are shown below:-

Thinking(T)	Feeling(F)
Sensing(S) Sensing-Thinking(ST)	Sensing-Felling(SF)
Intuiting(N)Intuiting-Thinking(NT)	Intuiting-Feeling(NF)

Summary of Characteristics of Selected Jungain Personality Types

Sensing-Thinking (ST)

- (a) Rational in decision making
- (b) Makes decisions following an “objective” orientation
- (c) Risk Avoider
- (d) Short time horizon in making decisions
- (e) Sensing-Feeling (SF)
- (f) Empirical viewpoint
- (g) Shares risk with others
- (h) Propelled by personal values rather than logic
- (i) Likely to consider other when making a decision
- (j) Short time horizon in making decisions
- (k) Intuiting- Felling (NT)
- (l) Takes a broad view of personal situation or world
- (m) Weighs options mentally
- (n) Willing to take risk or to be speculative in decisions
- (o) Imagines a wider range of options in making a decisions
- (p) Long-time horizons in making decisions
- (q) Intuiting- Feeling (NF)
- (r) Takes a broad view of personal situation or world
- (s) Least price sensitive
- (t) Highly “people-Oriented”- likely to consider others’ views
- (u) Makes decisions following a subjective orientation
- (v) Indefinite time horizon in making decisions

2. Trait Theory

The orientation of Trait theory is primarily quantitative or empirical, it focuses on the measurement of personality in terms of specific psychological characteristics, called traits. A trait is defined as “any distinguishing relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another.” Accordingly, trait theorists are concerned with the construction of personality tests that pinpoint individual differences in terms of specific traits.

4. Sigmund Freud’s Psychoanalytic theory of Personality Development

According to Freud’s psychoanalytic theory of personality development, there are two basic factors which drive an individual and help in shaping his/her personality. These two basic drivers are love and aggression which have a direct impact on what an individual does and thinks. According to Freud, love and aggression have a direct control on our minds and thoughts.

Freud referred to Love and Aggression as “Eros” and “Thanatos” respectively. “Eros” refers to intimate and passionate love between two partners. It is often defined as a kind of madness which one experiences for his/her partner. “Thanatos” was a figure in Greek mythology, though he never really existed as a person. Thanatos symbolizes death. Freud believed that Eros represents an

individual's instinct to survive. Eros refers to an individual's determination to live, where sex is the major driving force. Thanatos on the other hand represents aggression which ultimately leads to death. An individual's behavior towards others, attitude, characteristics, mind-set make his personality. Personality development is defined as a process of enhancing one's personality. Personality development sessions guide an individual as to how he/she can develop his/her personality.

Broadly there are five parameters which describe an individual's personality. These five dimensions are also called as "Big Five" Factors, and the model is referred to as Five Factor Model also abbreviated as FFM.

The Five Factor Model was initially proposed by Costa & McCrae in the year 1992 and often describes the relation between an individual's personality and various behaviours.

7.8 Personality Traits

Following are five personality traits of an individual:

1. Openness to experience

Individuals with openness to experience are generally very active, have a tremendous inclination towards creativity and aesthetics and listen to their heart i.e. follow their inner feelings. Such individuals are generally open to new learnings, skill sets and experiences. People who score high on openness are quite broadminded and modern in their outlook as compared to individuals who score low on the same parameter. Such individuals are conservative, reluctant to changes and have a traditional approach in life.

2. Conscientiousness

As the name suggests, individuals with a Conscientiousness personality trait listen to their conscience and act accordingly. Such individuals are extremely cautious and self-disciplined. They never perform any task in haste but think twice before acting. People with this personality trait are generally methodical and tend to become perfectionists in the long run. People who score high on conscientiousness are proactive, goal oriented and self-disciplined. They strive hard to accomplish goals and objectives within the stipulated time frame. Individuals who score less are little laid back and are not much goal oriented.

3. Extraversion and Introversion

Carl Jung popularized both the terms - "Extraversion" and "Introversion".

Extraversion:

Extraversion refers to a state where individuals show more concern towards what is happening outside. Such individuals love interacting with people around and are generally talkative. They do not like spending time alone but love being the centre of attraction of parties and social gatherings. Such individuals love going out, partying, meeting people and often get bored when they are all by themselves. They admire the company of others and hate staying alone.

Introversion:

Introversion, on the other hand refers to a state when an individual is concerned only with his own life and nothing else. Such individuals do not bother about others and are seldom interested in what is happening around. They prefer staying back at home rather than going out and spending

time with friends. Such individuals speak less and enjoy their own company. You would never find them in meetings, clubs, parties or social get-togethers. They generally do not have many friends and tend to rely on few trusted ones.

4. **Agreeableness**

Agreeableness is a personality trait which teaches individuals to be adjusting in almost all situations. Such individuals do not crib and face changes with a smile. They accommodate themselves to all situations and are friendly and kind hearted. People who score high on agreeableness are ready to help others and flash their trillion dollar smile whenever a problem arises. Individuals who score low on agreeableness on the other hand find difficulties in adjusting with others and are little unfriendly.

5. **Neuroticism**

Neuroticism is a trait where individuals are prone to negative thoughts such as anxiety, anger, envy, guilt and so on. Such individuals are often in a state of depression and do not how to enjoy life. They always look at the negative sides of life and find extremely difficult to cope up with stress.

Personality refers to an individual's way of interacting with people around; his behaviour towards others, attitude, thought process and way of perceiving things. It is the personality of an individual which makes him/her unique and stand apart from the rest.

The 'Big Five' personality traits

Although a number of popular models of personality traits continue to influence contemporary research (Jung, 1971, Kirton and De Ciantis, 1986), the Five Factor Model (the 'Big Five') proposed by McCrae and Costa Jr (1999) is the most widely used and recognized model today (Rossberger, 2014). It builds upon the 35 bipolar clusters of terms related to personality traits developed by Cattell (1943) and the classic Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) by adding an important fifth personality trait, namely neuroticism or emotional stability, which is a core domain predictive of depression and anxiety disorders. A brief description of the Big Five traits is provided below (Rossberger, 2014):

1. **Extraversion:** extent to which individuals engage with the external world and experience enthusiasm and other positive emotions.
2. **Agreeableness:** extent to which individuals value cooperation and social harmony, honesty, decency, and trustworthiness. Agreeable individuals also tend to have an optimistic view of human nature.
3. **Conscientiousness:** extent to which individuals value planning, possess the quality of persistence, and are achievement-oriented.
4. **Neuroticism:** extent to which individuals experience negative feelings and their tendency to emotionally overreact.
5. **Openness to Experience:** extent to which individuals exhibit intellectual curiosity, self-awareness, and individualism/non-conformance.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Define Personality.
2. What are the two types of Personality?
3. Explain 'Inferiority Complex'.
4. Give four personality traits.

7.9 Personality disorders

Personality disorders refer to certain abnormalities in the behavior of individuals. Any form of disability in an individual which inhibits him from doing certain tasks which a normal person can easily do refers to a disorder. Personality disorders lead to some form of abnormality or disturbance in an individual's personality. Personality disorders are conditions where an individual fails to behave in the desired manner and his thought process and mind-set are not in lines with the society's norms and expectations. Individuals with some kind of personality disorder fail miserably in relationships, personal as well as professional lives.

Personality disorders can arise due to genetic factors (hereditary factors), environmental problems, cultural issues and so on. Individuals with a troubled childhood are more prone to personality disorders. Individuals with a history of physical or sexual abuse often show signs of personality disorders. An individual can show signs of personality disorders from childhood which might become critical as he grows. Signs and symptoms of personality disorders vary from individual to individual.

7.10 Conclusion

Personality is one of the major psychological factors affecting the human behavior. Personality is a very commonly used word. This word is generally used whenever we talk about a person's job prospects, achievements, marriage and other similar occasions. Here we are considering the concept of personality in a very narrow sense as it implies a person's smartness, charm, dress sense, popularity, physical attractiveness, way of speaking etc. But to understand and predict the individual behavior in an organization, this narrow view of the term personality is not enough; we will have to look at the aggregate whole that is greater than the sum of parts.

7.11 Glossary

Symptoms: a physical or mental feature which is regarded as indicating a condition of disease

Mindset: the established set of attitudes held by someone

Disorder: an illness of the mind or body

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7.14 Model questions

1. Discuss the concept and significance of Personality.
2. Define Personality. What are the various types of Personality and personality traits?
3. Write an essay on Personality.
4. Evaluate the significance of personality.

Suggestive answers to Self-Assessment Exercise

1. According to Floyd L. Ruch, "Personality includes external appearance and behaviour, inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force and the particular pattern or organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer."

2. Two types of personality:

a) **Avoiding Type**

The third type is the avoiding type. People of this type have such low energy they recoil within themselves to conserve it, avoiding life as a whole, and other people in particular. In extreme cases, these people develop psychosis—the end result of entirely retreating into one's self.

b) **Socially Useful Type**

Adler also believed in a fourth type: the socially useful type. People of this type are basically healthy individuals, possessed of adequate, but not overbearing, social interest and energy. They are able to give to others effectively as they are not so consumed by a sense of inferiority that they cannot look properly outside of themselves.

3. An inferiority complex consists of feelings of not measuring up to standards, a doubt and uncertainty about oneself, and a lack of self-esteem. It is often subconscious and is thought to drive afflicted individuals to overcompensate, resulting either in spectacular achievement or extremely asocial behavior. In modern literature, the preferred terminology is "lack of covert self-esteem"

4. Four personality traits

a. **Extraversion:** extent to which individuals engage with the external world and experience enthusiasm and other positive emotions.

b. **Agreeableness:** extent to which individuals value cooperation and social harmony, honesty, decency, and trustworthiness. Agreeable individuals also tend to have an optimistic view of human nature.

-S-

JOB SATISFACTION: CONCEPT, SIGNIFICANCE AND DETERMINANTS

STRUCTURE

- 8.0 Objectives**
- 8.1 Introduction**
- 8.2 Concept of job satisfaction**
- 8.3 Significance of job satisfaction**
- 8.4 Determinants of job satisfaction**
- 8.5 Causes of job dissatisfaction**
- 8.7 Effects of low job satisfaction**
- 8.8 Advantages of higher job satisfaction**
- 8.9 Strategies to improve job satisfaction**
- 8.10 Assessment**
- 8.11 Conclusion**
- 8.12 Glossary**
- 8.13 References**
- 8.14 Further Readings**
- 8.15 Model questions**

8.0 Objectives

After reading this lesson you will be able to:

1. Know about The conceptual framework and significance of job satisfaction in an organization.
2. Learn about the determinants of job dissatisfaction.
3. Understand the causes and effects of job dissatisfaction.
4. Suggest remedies to improve job dissatisfaction.

8.1 Introduction

Job satisfaction is an individual's general attitude towards his job. It is an important component of organizational behaviour and a significant part of the employer and employee relationship. Job satisfaction may be defined as the extent to which an employee feels motivated, content

&satisfied with his job. Job satisfaction happens when an employee feels there is a possibility of having job stability, career growth and a comfortable work life balance.

8.2 Concept of Job Satisfaction

Superior-subordinate communication is an imperative influence on job satisfaction in the workplace. The way in which subordinates observe a supervisor's behavior can positively or negatively influence job satisfaction. Communication behavior such as facial expression, eye contact, vocal expression, and body movement is fundamental to the superior-subordinate relationship (Teven, p. 156). Nonverbal messages play a central role in interpersonal interactions with respect to impression formation, deception, attraction, social influence, and emotional Nonverbal immediacy from the supervisor helps to increase interpersonal involvement with their subordinates impacting job satisfaction. The manner in which supervisors communicate with their subordinates non-verbally may be more important than the verbal content (Teven, p. 156) Individuals who dislike and think negatively about their supervisor are less willing to communicate or have motivation to work whereas individuals who like and think positively of their supervisor are more likely to communicate and are satisfied with their job and work environment. A supervisor who uses nonverbal immediacy, friendliness, and open communication lines is more likely to receive positive feedback and high job satisfaction from a subordinate. Conversely, a supervisor who is antisocial, unfriendly, and unwilling to communicate will naturally receive negative feedback and create low job satisfaction in their subordinates in the workplace.

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory (also known as motivator-hygiene theory) attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. This theory states that "satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors – motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. An employee's motivation to work is continually related to job satisfaction of a subordinate. Motivation can be seen as an inner force that drives individuals to attain personal and organizational goals (Hoskinson, Porter, & Wrench, p. 133). Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction, for example achievement in work, recognition, promotion opportunities. These motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job, or the work carried out. Hygiene factors include aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions."

Herzberg's model has stimulated much research. In the 1970s, researchers were unable to reliably empirically prove the model however, with Hackman & Oldham suggesting that Herzberg's original formulation of the model may have been a methodological artefact. However, emerging studies have a new-found interest in the theory, particularly among employees in the public sector and among certain professions such as nurses (Holmberg., 2016).

The theory has been criticized because it does not consider individual differences, conversely predicting all employees will react in an identical manner to changes in motivating/hygiene factors. The model has also been criticised in that it does not specify how motivating/hygiene factors are to be measured. Most studies use a quantitative approach by for example using validated instruments such as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967) There are also studies that have utilized a qualitative methodology such as by means of individual interviews (Holmberg et al., 2017).

Job satisfaction may be defined in many different ways.

E. A. Locke describe job satisfaction as, "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values"

According to P. E. Spector, "Job satisfaction is the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs".

De Nobile defined job satisfaction as “the extent to which a staff member has favorable or positive feelings about work or the work environment.”

Ivancevich et al. defined job satisfaction as “the feeling and perception of a worker regarding his/her work and how he or she feels well in an organization”.

Davis, Newstrom, and Dessler describe job satisfaction as “a set of favorable or unfavorable feelings for the employees to perceive their work and that determine the possibility of a major disposition to achieve higher performance”.

According to S.P. Robbins, “Job satisfaction refers to an individual’s general attitude toward his or her job.”

8.3 Significance of Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction is very important for the executives in the organization. Job Satisfaction gives an indication to the management of the general levels of satisfaction in an organization. This is done with special reference to particular subjects such as employee services and particular groups of employees. Job satisfaction can also be seen within the broader context of the range of issues which affect an individual's experience of work, or their quality of working life. Job satisfaction can be understood in terms of its relationships with other key factors, such as general well-being, stress at work, control at work, home-work interface, and working conditions.

Some believe it is simply how content an individual is with his or her job, in other words, whether or not they like the job or individual aspects or facets of jobs, such as nature of work or supervision. Job satisfaction depends on several different factors such as satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, fringe benefits, job security, relationship with co-workers and supervisors, etc.

The significance of job satisfaction is as follows:-

1. Work Environment

A good work environment has an undeviating impact on the productivity of its personnel. Job satisfaction reduces sick leave, lowers turnover rates and increases efficiency. Work environment also includes the physical aspects which help in raising morale of the people working in the organization.

2. Appreciation

Appreciation is a primary need of human behaviour. Employees respond to appreciation expressed through recognition of their good work because it confirms their work is valued by others. Praise and recognition are crucial aspects of all types of organizations.

3. Pay

Job satisfaction is positively influenced by wage increase. People adapt to their new wage level over time, so a higher salary becomes the new reference point for future comparisons

4. Age

It has been observed that as people age and get promoted to higher pay and incentives, job satisfaction tends to increase. However, it was also found that that job satisfaction declined over time in research related to job tenure **Promotion**

Promotion refers to upward movement in current job leading to greater authority responsibilities, higher status and better salary. Employees who believe that promotion is possible in the near future tend to have higher job satisfaction and their intention to quit their job is low (Kosteas 2011).

5. **Feeling of Belongingness**

A Sense of "belongingness" at work indicates that there is a strategic relationship between a worker's competency, effort, commitment, passion & his / her work outcomes, commendations and rewards. The positive experience motivates the worker to continue striving for the best that leads to his / her job satisfaction.

6. **Initiation and Leadership**

Leadership style is important for motivating employees and increasing their satisfaction level. The study found that transformational leadership style has a positive effect on job satisfaction, whereas transactional leadership style has an insignificant effect on job satisfaction.

7. **Safety and Security**

Job satisfaction levels increase when an employee feels secure in his job. An employee with job security is able to visualize his future at the organization, making him feel valued and satisfied with his current position.

8. **Responsibilities**

Job satisfaction is a very important attribute which is frequently measured by organizations achievement, recognition, the *work* itself, *responsibility*, advancement, and growth. An absence of *job satisfaction* can lead to poor motivation, stress, absenteeism, and high labor turnover.

9. **Personal Interest and Hobbies**

People who pursue their hobbies and interest as their career, gain the highest level of satisfaction in whatever they do at their workplace. This is because their job is not a job for them, but a way of getting closer to their interest and making money.

10. **Respect from Co-Workers**

Respect in the workplace from co-workers boosts *job satisfaction* among individuals.

11. **Relationship with Supervisors**

It is indisputable that a cordial *supervisor-employee relationship* builds the *employee's* morale which increases his productivity at work, especially, when his efforts are recognized and rewarded. Thus, job satisfaction is achieved at both organizational and personal levels.

12. **Feedback.**

Receiving feedback from a supervisor has been found to increase employee's morale and satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Research shows that supervisory feedback is an important analyst of job satisfaction.

13. **Flexibility**

Supervisors are the voice of the organization; they translate the culture of the organization to employees. They are also the gatekeepers to flexibility. Research also shows that flexibility can also improve employee's engagement and job satisfaction and reduce stress.

14. **Nature of Work**

Job satisfaction or employee satisfaction is a measure of workers' contentedness with their job, whether or not they like the job or individual aspects or facets of jobs, such as nature of work or supervision or cognitions about the job.

8.4 Determinants of Job Satisfaction

There are many factors which determine Job Satisfaction. These are discussed below:-

1. **Supervision**

The first important determinant of job satisfaction is supervision. The employee centered leadership style enhances job satisfaction as the leader looks after subordinates carefully. Trow and Sanford have found that "authoritarian subordinates are likely to be more satisfied under supervision of high status, and strong, hard-nosed leaders."

2. **Nature of job**

Job Satisfaction is concerned with the aptitude of the employee. If the employee is given a work for which he has no aptitude, the job will provide no attraction to him and it is likely that he will feel dissatisfied.

3. **Specialization**

Specialization leads to greater efficiency in general but at the same time it lowers the job satisfaction in some people.

4. **Working conditions**

Job Satisfaction is also related to working conditions in the organization. The work will be more attractive if the working conditions are good in the organization. Good working conditions involve such facilities as proper light, comfortable temperature etc.

5. **Work group**

The work group exerts an influence on the satisfaction of the employees at workplaces. In a study by Richards and Dobryns, it was found that morale of group in an insurance company was significantly lowered by a physical change which restricted the opportunity of their members for social interactions.

6. **Educational level**

There may be found a negative correlation between the level of education of employees and their satisfaction. It is true that people with higher educational levels have a tendency to set higher expectations from their jobs. Dissatisfaction will be more if educated people are employed in lower rungs.

7. **Occupational level**

Job Satisfaction offers excellent opportunities for the expression of needs for power and autonomy. Job Satisfaction offers task diversity and job enrichment.

8. **Experience**

The experience an employee receives from various components of the work environment will influence his/her attitude towards them. Suppose a job is monotonous and not exciting, then the employee is likely to get dissatisfied with it. There are many organizations which invest a large sum in making it more interesting and challenging so that it actively engage the employees and their satisfaction level would be high.

9. **Association**

Association plays a dominant role in job satisfaction, in the sense that if the current job of the employee is similar to the one he has done in the past, then he may derive satisfaction level of his previous job to the present one.

10. **Social Learning**

In an organization, people work in groups and interact with them regularly, either formally or informally, which has a great impact on the level of their satisfaction. Employees whose job is similar communicate with one another and tend to develop the same feelings for job elements like the work itself, pay, working conditions, rules, supervisor, manager, etc. Suppose if someone says that *This job is tedious and unchallenging*, everyone in the group agrees to it and develop similar attitude.

11. **Hereditary**

Genetic predisposition is important in the context of job satisfaction in people. According to research, about 30 percent of the job satisfaction is based on the heredity components.

12. **Challenges**

These are performance, absenteeism, and turnover. The relationship between satisfaction and performance is one of the chief concerns of management, and at one time the two were assumed to be positively related.

8.5 Causes of Job Dissatisfaction

Job dissatisfaction refers to unfavorable working conditions and feeling stressed when things do not happen according to the one as perceived by the employee. There may exist many factors which may result in job dissatisfaction. Some of them are poor working conditions, overwork, low levels of pay, no scope of promotion or career advancement and lack of recognition.

1. **Underpaid**

One of the primary reasons for job dissatisfaction is underpayment among employees which generally results in low productivity. Not being paid what one is worth is called being underpaid.

2. **Limited Career Growth**

If there is limited professional growth and if the job offered has no room to establish, improve and build on their professional skills, it will most likely result in a dissatisfied and stressed behavior of the employee.

3. **Lack of Interest**

A lack of interest in the work is a major cause of dissatisfaction which could be due to monotonous work which causes boredom and little incentive to concern themselves with workplace productivity. Or workers may feel unfulfilled in their jobs.

4. **Poor Management**

Poor management reduces productivity, increases stress and may convince employees to look for another job. The organizational consequences of low job satisfaction include reduced productivity, more time lost due to employee absence, and a poisonous morale within the organization. High job satisfaction contributes to increased creativity and productivity and more efficient operations.

5. **Unsupportive Boss**

Managers who disengage from their employees and focus only on results without providing inspiration, motivation or support are often unaware that they may be a major cause of job dissatisfaction.

6. **Lack of Meaningful Work**

But meaningful work was actually better than job satisfaction at predicting absenteeism; people who found their work more meaningful were less likely to miss work than people who merely reported being satisfied with their jobs. Meaningful work was also correlated with life satisfaction and less depression.

7. **Career advancement**

To maintain a good employee performance, a suitable reward system is needed. Career advancement and monetary rewards have a significant impact on employee performance and job satisfaction. The increase in monetary rewards has affected positively on the employee performance and job satisfaction.

8. **Work and Life Balance**

Many organizations feel the need of work life balance which leads to retention of valuable work force, reduce work family conflict, and reduce employee stress, job satisfaction and better life

balance. Strong and supportive organizational culture increase employee intent to remain in the organization.

8.6 Effects of Low Job Satisfaction

Job dissatisfaction produces low morale among workers and low morale at work is highly undesirable. Employees are not happy with their jobs, several areas of their work are affected and their behavior can also affect other employee. The following are the effects of Job Satisfaction:

1. High Employee Turnover Rates

Job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover intention and low turnover has been shown to increase organizational productivity and performance. This study finds that job satisfaction is inversely associated with turnover intention and that organizational culture moderates the magnitude of this relationship.

2. Lack of Productivity

Productive operations are good for employee morale, creating a sense of accomplishment and pride. Productivity also helps to avert the consequences of a badly run workplace: If your employees finish their workload in a satisfying time frame, they are less likely to feel burned out and frustrated.

3. Customer Retention

Satisfied employees are likely to assist customer with a more pleasant demeanor and a higher level of customer service. Conversely, low employee satisfaction and overall low employee morale can negatively effect company operations greatly causing dissatisfied customers and hurt profitability.

4. Low Profit

The value of the product is based on customer perception. According to Guide Star Research, part of the perception of value by the clients is the satisfaction and dedication of the employees.

Customers see employee satisfaction as a commitment by the company to general quality.

If the employees are not satisfied with their jobs, then they cannot give a better service to the customers and it will lead to a lower level of profit to the organization.

5. Job Stress

When employees are not happy with their jobs, they are much more likely to experience and report stress on the job. Workers who are satisfied or happy at work are much less likely to report feeling stressed out by their job.

This is basic human nature — if a person is not doing something he/she enjoys, chances are he/she is going to feel dissatisfied and even little things will make him/her feel stressed out and unhappy.

Job dissatisfaction produces low morale among workers and low morale at work is highly undesirable.

If employees have the feeling that their occupations are meaningless and boring, they will have a negative attitude which will definitely lead to a decline in productivity.

8.7 Advantages of higher job satisfaction

Research has concluded that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and performance of the employees. There are two basic views of satisfaction and performance, and they are inverted to one another.

One believes that satisfaction leads to performance, while the other believes performance leads to satisfaction.

In effect, we are saying if someone is happy with their job they will perform better, but to be satisfied, they have to perform in their job to get that satisfaction.

Higher Job Satisfaction gives;

1. Higher productivity.
2. Less employee turnover.
3. Reduce absenteeism.
4. Reduces the level of unionization.
5. Reduces the number of accidents.
6. It helps to create a better working environment.
7. Improving customer satisfaction.
8. Faster and sustainable Growth.

High job satisfaction may lead to improving productivity, decreased turnover, and improve attendance, reduce accidents, less job stress and less unionization.

If employees feel that their jobs are fun and interesting, they will be more willing to give extra effort to work.

Thus **job satisfaction benefits the whole organization.**

8.8 Strategies to improve job satisfaction

1. To be Realistic with the Expectations

Job satisfaction is the most determinant element of individual well-being because of its significant role in people's lives. Job satisfaction is so important to everyone; however, it is not realistic to believe that everyone has it.

2. Recognize Good Work

Keeping workers happy helps strengthen a company in many ways, including. Retaining workers helps create a better environment, and makes it easier to recruit quality talent and make it easier to recruit quality talent and save money. The bottom line: satisfied employees are typically much less likely to leave.

3. Focus On Longer Term

Employees wish to feel respected and trusted, work in a safe environment, with good remuneration, and appropriately opportunities to advance in career. When any company finds ways to focus on these important factors, it can certainly satisfy its employees and help to build a stronger, more stable and profitable future.

4. Keep Communication Constant

Communication plays a crucial role in employees satisfaction. Most of the problems arise when employees are not happy with their bosses. On top of it, rather than discussing the issue face to face with their immediate reporting bosses, they prefer to badmouth them behind their backs.

5. Care About Employee Well-Being

Workplace wellbeing relates to all aspects of working life, from the quality and safety of the physical environment, to how workers feel about their work, their working environment, the climate at work and work organization. Workers well-being is a key factor in determining an organization's long-term effectiveness.

6. Offer Opportunities for Learning

The main objective of the research was to find the satisfaction level of employees in the organization. Employee satisfaction is essential to the success of any business. The important factors that are to be considered in the job satisfaction of employees are salary, promotion, working condition,

7. **Give Frequent Feedback**

Feedback is critical to improving performance. Not only is it important for managers to provide feedback to employees regularly, but employees should offer their managers periodic feedback as well. Doing so helps everyone improve and succeed in their job performance.

8. **Measure Engagement Frequently**

The easiest way to measure job satisfaction is to conduct a survey asking workers how satisfied they are with their jobs. However, a person can be highly satisfied with one aspect of his job, such as the pay and benefits, yet dissatisfied with another aspect, such as his relationship with coworkers and supervisors.

9. **Less Focus on Perks**

If it's just a physically difficult job or time consuming or needs a lot of manual intervention it may not automatically deserve a higher salary. It's a known fact that the lower cadre employees always earn less even though they work way more than their supervisors.

10. **Foster Relationships**

At Work Trust, teamwork, communication and respect are keys to effective working relationships. Develop positive relationships with the individuals you interact with at work to make your job more enjoyable and productive. These connections could also serve as future references or contacts in your career.

11. **Provide A Clear Career Path**

The organizational consequences of low job satisfaction include reduced productivity, more time lost due to employee absence, and a poisonous morale within the organization. High job satisfaction contributes to increased creativity and productivity and more efficient operations.

12. **Empower Employees**

It leads to greater job satisfaction, motivation, increased productivity and reduces the costs. It also leads to creativity and innovation since the employees have the authority to act on their own. There is increased efficiency in employees because of increased ownership in their work.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Define Job Satisfaction.
2. What are the two determinants of Job Satisfaction?
3. What are the two causes of Job Dissatisfaction?
4. Give two strategies to improve job satisfaction?

8.9 Conclusion

It may be concluded that job satisfaction measures vary in the extent to which they measure feelings about the job or cognitions about the job. This could be the job in general or their attitudes towards specific aspects of it, such as their colleagues, pay or working conditions. In addition, the extent to which work outcomes meet or exceed expectations may determine the level of job satisfaction. However, it is not only about how much an employee enjoys work. Actually, it is a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction: Intrinsic job satisfaction is when workers consider only the kind of work they do, the tasks that make up the job. Extrinsic job satisfaction is when workers consider the conditions of work, such as their pay, coworkers, and supervisor. To sum up, we can say that job satisfaction describes how content an individual is with his or her job and also implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well, and being suitably rewarded for one's efforts.

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8.12 Model Questions

1. Define Job Satisfaction. What are the determinants of Job Satisfaction?
2. Discuss the concept and significance of Job Satisfaction.
3. What is job satisfaction? Evaluate the causes and effects of Job Satisfaction.
4. Discuss the significance and strategies to improve job satisfaction.

Suggested answers to Self-Assessment Exercise

1. E. A. Locke describe job satisfaction as, “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values”

2. Two determinants of Job Satisfaction

1. Supervision

The first important determinant of job satisfaction is supervision. The employee centered leadership style enhances job satisfaction as the leader looks after subordinates carefully. Trow and Sanford have found that “authoritarian subordinates are likely to be more satisfied under supervision of high status, and strong, hard-nosed leaders.”

2. Nature of job

Job Satisfaction is concerned with the aptitude of the employee. If the employee is given a work for which he has no aptitude, the job will provide no attraction to him and it is likely that he will feel dissatisfied.

3. Two causes of job dissatisfaction

a) Underpaid

One of the primary reasons for job dissatisfaction is underpayment among employees which generally results in low productivity. Not being paid what one is worth is called being underpaid.

b) Limited Career Growth

If there is limited professional growth and if the job offered has no room to establish, improve and build on their professional skills, it will most likely result in a dissatisfied and stressed behavior of the employee.

4. Strategies to improve job satisfaction

a) To be Realistic with the Expectations

Job satisfaction is the most determinant element of individual well-being because of its significant role in people's lives. Job satisfaction is so important to everyone; however, it is not realistic to believe that everyone has it.

b) Recognize Good Work

Keeping workers happy helps strengthen a company in many ways, including. Retaining workers helps create a better environment, and makes it easier to recruit quality talent and make it easier to recruit quality talent and save money. The bottom line: satisfied employees are typically much less likely to leave.

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GROUPS: CONCEPT, TYPES AND INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Structure

- 9.0 Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Concept of Groups
- 9.3 Reasons for Forming Groups
- 9.4 Characteristics of Groups
- 9.5 Types of Groups
- 9.6 Inter-Group Relations
- 9.7 Summary
- 9.8 Glossary
- 9.9 References
- 9.10 Suggested Readings
- 9.11 Model Questions

9.0 Objectives

After studying this lesson, you will be able to:

1. understand the meaning and concept of groups.
2. know the reasons why people in the organizations form groups.
3. Understand important characteristics and types of groups.
4. Learn the different nature of inter-group relations

9.1 Introduction

From the moment of birth of a human being, he becomes part of a family, can be called a group, a unit of social organisation. It is in this group, the child learns group norms, social values and do's and don'ts of the society through interaction. No individual has any existence apart from his group. From birth till death he is a member of some group or other and his behaviour is constantly influenced by the group to which he belongs at that time. Family as a primary group exerts vast influence on the process of socialization and growth and modification of personality. Subsequently, secondary groups like neighbourhood, school, playground, peers, playmates and various clubs and organisations influence the growth of the individual and determine his behaviour, action and performance as a whole in the society. Thus, the topic of group has a place in the heart of social psychology.

Groups are formed informally or formally for fulfilment of power, prestige, recognition, satisfaction of social needs like friendship, approval, affiliation, security etc. Groups also help in the development of special gifted abilities like art, music, painting, dramatics etc. Groups also fulfil

many of our individual and personal needs. The sense of cooperation, competition, sacrifice, give and take etc. is developed in a group situation.

9.2 Concept of Groups

The term group is used in different senses at different situations. But in general, the term is used for four kinds of contexts: (1) where a number of persons are sitting, talking or walking together it may be called a group. Here physical nearness or proximity with or without any common motivation is emphasized like persons travelling in the bus, train or aeroplane.(2) Individuals may be classified to a particular group when they may not have any relationship with each other, but they have a common characteristics like tax evaders or black marketers, social workers, politicians, academicians etc.(3) Members of a particular organisation are said to belong to a group when the group has a definite Structure and members have loyalty and a sense of belongingness to the said group.(4) Persons may be classified into a group when they gather together to fulfil a common purpose, common goal or common motive. Such a group disintegrates after the common motive is fulfilled, like when people form a puja committee to observe Ganesh Puja or Saraswati Puja or Laxmi Puja.

“A group is a social unit which consists of a number of individuals who stand in role and status relationship to one another stabilized in some degree at the time and who possess a set of value or norms of their own regulating their behaviour at least in matter of consequence to the group.”

(Sherif and Sherif, 1969)

“Groups consist of two or more persons engaged in social interaction who have some stable structure relationship with one another, are interdependent, share common goals and perceive that they are in fact part of a group.” Thus when two or more individuals gather together to serve a common purpose or common motive it is called a group". **(Baron and Byrne, 1988)**

"A group consists of two or more persons who share norms about certain things with one another and whose social roles are clearly interlocking. Thus a group must interact with each other to share certain common values and thirdly these persons must have a common social purpose or role to function and to bind each other". **(Newcomb)**

9.3 Reasons for Forming Groups

Group formation has certain objectives. The purpose behind group formation may be task achievement, problem-solving, proximity or other socio-psychological requirements. Group formation is based on activities, interactions and sentiments. The various reasons for the formation of group are as follows:

1. Companionship:

The need for relationship with other people is one of the strongest and most constant of human drives. Relationships give an individual, who earlier felt lonely and miserable, recognition and his work life pleasant and comfortable. Many research studies have indicated that the employees who have no opportunity for social contacts find their work unsatisfying and this lack of satisfaction often reflects itself in low productivity and high rate of absenteeism and turnover.

2. Identity:

We try to understand ourselves through the behaviour of others towards us. If others praise us, we feel we are great. Groups provide many others who will laugh, praise or admire us. Workers get more identified in small groups and so small groups tend to enjoy high morale as compared to large groups.

3. Information:

The informal group to which a member belongs is a source of communication or information to him. A piece of information available to one member will nearly reach all the members in a short span of time. An individual comes to know about what is happening in an organisation even if he has been on leave or is otherwise away.

The group may develop a special code or language for speedy communication. The groups help reduce many of the psychological barriers to communication. Sometimes the group will amend, amplify and interpret the news, once it is released. Thus, each person gets a larger, more detailed and meaningful but at times, a distorted and erroneous picture of what is going on in the organisation.

4. Security:

Perhaps, the strongest reason for group formation is the people's need for security. By joining a group, a person can reduce his insecurity; he feels stronger, has lesser self doubts and is more resistant to threats. A person always derives reassurance from interacting with others and being part of a group. The group protects its members from the arbitrary policies and orders of the formal organisations and provides a psychological buffer between the individual and the organisation. This often explains the concept of unions.

5. Esteem:

Membership in a prestigious group is a source of enhanced self esteem. The members will feel good about themselves by virtue of the group's power, prestige and social standing. They will get opportunities for recognition and praise that are not available outside the group.

6. Sense of Belongingness:

It is an emotional need for friendship, love, affection and affiliation. Most people have strong 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 time of difficulty. The concept of family and friends fulfill this need. When people are new to an organisation, they are eager to find friends with which they can check their perception of new and uncertain environment.

7. Outlet for Frustrations:

An individual may be faced with several problems relating to his family life and work life. At times, he feels tremendous stress in life and gets frustrated. If he shares his feelings and anxieties with someone, his tension is released to a great extent. The social relations provide an important outlet for frustration. Informal groups serve as safety valves and help release frustrations, thus avoiding any mental or physical breakdown of the individual. Organisations which don't have the informal groups sometimes rely on the expensive system of employee counselling in which outsiders hear employees' problems and advise them accordingly.

8. Perpetuation of Cultural Values:

Common cultural background brings people together and is a strong cementing force. People, sharing a common culture, are able to maintain their cultural identity and even propagate their culture. A group with a particular cultural value often takes up activities which help perpetuate those values. This, even gives, psychological satisfaction to members.

9. Generation of New Ideas:

Informal groups are a breeding ground for new ideas as they provide a supportive environment in which the members can engage themselves in creative thinking. Quality circles in Japan are an important example in this regard. Under quality circles, workers meet periodically and discuss problems relating to quality and come out with new ideas to solve the problems.

10. Self Evaluation:

Groups help the members in evaluating themselves as against others. By employing any yard stick, an individual can judge himself against other members of the group. This will help him in having a realistic self assessment and encourage him to acquire the plus point of others or inculcate a competitive spirit. The group also provides acceptable ways of compensating for an individual's deficiencies.

11. Job Satisfaction:

Many jobs which appear superficially dull and routine are made interesting by the group and spontaneity is encouraged and protected by the group. Certain jobs can be done by the isolated workers, but working as a group often results in higher motivation to the workers.

12. Power:

Membership of group offers power to members in at least two ways:

- (i) There are sayings such as “united we stand, divided we fall” and “unity is strength.” Workers enjoy much greater power collectively than they do as individuals.
- (ii) Leadership of a group enables an individual to exercise power over group members even if he does not enjoy a formal position of authority in the organisation.

9.4 Characteristics of Groups

A group can be defined as two or more interacting and interdependent individuals who come together to achieve particular objectives. In our daily life group has been a central part. We belong to many different groups in our daily lives like family, friends, schools, offices, etc. There are certain features or characteristics of a group which are as follows:

1. Collection of two or more people:

Groups are the collection of two or more people. Groups are composed of two or more persons in a social interaction. One plus one makes a group and groups form an organization. A single person cannot form a group as it at least requires two people for group formation.

2.Common goal or interest:

They meet together to satisfy some common motive or common purpose say to collect money for flood affected persons, or national defence fund. The common motive may be biogenic or sociogenic.

3.Interaction and Interdependent:

Just being in the same place at the same time is not enough. They must be involved in some sort of social interaction with one another or at least possess the potential for such interaction. The members must be interdependent in some manner. Group members have reciprocal influence on each other. Each member influences and is influenced by others in the group.

4. Leadership:

Every group has a formal leader elected by group members and an informal leader “who engages in leadership activities but whose right to do so has not been formally recognised by the organisation or group.” However, informal leaders are also elected by them. Informal leader is “a person who engages in leadership activities but whose right to do so has not been formally recognised by the organisation or group.”Two basic roles performed by leaders are Task role and Group building and maintenance role.

In task role, leader influences the group members to conform to organisational standards and in maintenance role, he fulfills their social needs of interaction and influence. If formal leader cannot fulfill these roles, informal leader supplements his functions and carries out both the roles. This is because informal leader has referent and expert power over group members. Informal leaders,

thus, have strong forces of influence on group activities. They can promote organisational efficiency far beyond the corrective range of formal leaders.

5. Specific Role:

Each individual in group performs a specific role which influences and enhances future expectations of group members from each other. Role is the part that each individual plays in helping the group achieve the group goals. While some members of the group help other members achieve the formal goals, others provide social and emotional support to them. Role structure is “the set of defined roles and inter-relationships among those roles that the group or team members define and accept.”

6. Norms:

Every group has group norms. “Norm is a standard of behaviour that the group accepts and expects of its members. It represents standards of work to promote group activity.” Group norms maintain predictable standards of work, promote teamwork and defend individual and group interests. Group members who violate the norms are counseled by other group members. This ensures conformity to group norms.

6. Cohesiveness:

Cohesion is the power to stick together. Group cohesiveness is the power of the group to remain attached to each other. It maintains stability in its structure through group cohesiveness. Members of the group like each other, develop a sense of identification and remain attached to each other. This increases cohesiveness of the group. A highly cohesive group has greater influence on group members and increased adherence to the group norms.

8. Status:

Status is the degree of worth and respects that other members of the group accord individual group members. Status may arise from the person’s job or behavior in the group. Often, a group member’s status is linked to the person’s position in the organization. Someone near the top of the organizations hierarchy has a higher status. Status may also be based on age, gender, education level, seniority, race or other characteristics.

The status of group members can enhance effectiveness if the high-status members have the most to contribute to the group’s objectives. However, if status causes a person to have influence beyond his or her ability to contribute to group goals, the group’s effectiveness will suffer.

9. Tasks: The productivity and satisfaction of group members also depend on the kinds of tasks the group carries out. Major ways to describe group tasks are in terms of type and performance requirements.

(i) Task Type: The type of task carried out by a group is defined by the major kinds of activity involved. Tasks may be classified as follows:

- Production tasks: Tasks requiring the group to produce and present ideas, images or arrangements.
- Discussion tasks: tasks requiring the group to evaluate issues and
- Problem-solving tasks: Tasks requiring the group to decide on a course of action for resolving a particular problem.

Self-Assessment Exercise-I

1. Define Groups.
2. What are the two important characteristics of groups?

9.5 Types of Groups

Within many organisations different groups are formed at different levels, formal groups, informal groups, primary groups and secondary groups. Some groups maybe deliberately formed, some groups are formed through an informal setting. Below we discuss briefly four forms of groups which are found within a company.

The type or kind a group is determined by its structure:

(i) Primary and Secondary Groups:

Family is a primary group. Immediately after birth the baby comes in contact with the members of the family which is a unit of a group organisation. The baby's first social life starts in the family itself and because of mutual interaction and direct contact with family members he is socialized by them and made typical member of a group. Upto the age of 5 by and large, the child grows in this primary group.

When the child enters the school, he comes in contact with the teachers, class mates, playmates and neighbours of the external environment and interacts with them. In the process of interaction the various psychological processes of his personality grow and transform.

Family as a primary group fulfils the primary needs of a child like food, sleep, personal care and love. During the school hours and during play hours these secondary groups influence and shape the characteristics of his personality and socialization. The remaining period of the day is spent in the family. The primary and secondary groups have no doubt their own norms, but these norms should not contradict each other at any cost and at any stage.

While, when a large number of people get together (who do not normally get together) it is called a secondary group. Secondary group members do not get the opportunity to get to know each other as well as primary group members because the interaction with each other is less than in a primary group. When a secondary group is formed, individuals usually have their own agenda and goals. The relationship they form is not long term and social interaction within a secondary group is likely to be low.

(ii) Formal and Informal Groups:

In the formal group the role status of every member is defined like the role of the President, Prime Minister, Chief Minister, Governor of a State, Secretary and President of an organisation, function of the members of the executive committees and the formal groups are more or less permanent. Each and every person in the formal group has to function as per his position and norm and as per the guideline determined for him. Each individual member has a particular status and role relationship with which he interacts with others.

A formal group may have a number of informal groups within it. Informal groups are established by individuals who decide they want to interact with each other. Informal groups usually do not have a specific purpose; often the group forms because the group members regularly happen to be in the same location or because they enjoy each other's company. For example people may form a group because they sit close together in an office or live together in a house

A person who is a member of a formal group can also be member of one or more informal groups. An informal group does not have a definite norm, rules and regulations, there is more freedom in the informal group than its counterpart and one can develop his own role congenial to himself. While a seminar may be formal organization, A picnic party, or a tea party is an informal organization. Small friendship groups, play groups, gangs and cliques are informal groups. When some people develop friendship and the friends as a group meet in a club or village panchayat

room or in a members' house and chat, gossip, and play for some time, it is called an informal groups. It is relatively transitory.

(iii) In-groups and Out groups:

Anybody who goes against the group norms, values and standards of the group, groups goals and stands against fulfillment of common motivation is seen as an "outgroup". On the other hand members of the group who voluntarily go by the group norm and function for the cohesiveness and unity of the group, who like their group and have love, respect for it are said to be the members of the "in-group".

Further when two different groups are competing with each other for the solution of some common problems and fulfillment of some common goal, one becomes the outgroup to the other. The example of two competing cricket teams, football teams, cinema producers, yatra parties who are rivals and compete with each other develop in group and outgroup feeling.

(iv) Autocratic and Democratic Group:

A dictatorial group is characterized by the autocratic style of functioning of the leader. Thus in dictatorial group each member knows the other indirectly only through the leader. Members have no direct connection with each other but only through the leader.

In democratic group the individual member has more responsibility and more scope for active participation in the functions of the group. In such a group every member is allotted some responsibility, some power, for which he feels great and involved. Different members know each other directly as the group members have link with each other.

(v) Membership and Reference Groups:

It is not possible on the part of a person to be members of several groups. A person may be a member of one group, but through his contact with another group he may relate himself with it. This is called a reference group. Employees have reference groups inside or outside the organization where they work. For most people, the family is the most important reference groups. Other important reference groups typically include co-workers, friends, and members of the person's religious organization.

Those groups to which a person actually belongs informally or formally is designated as his membership group. Ordinarily his attitudes, identifications and subsequently his diverse and specific reactions are regulated and determined by such membership groups. . In a membership group, each member would be expected to contribute to the group's well being and would enjoy the benefit arising from the group member's friendship.

9.6 Inter-Group Relations

Intergroup relations involve the feelings, evaluations, beliefs, and behaviors that groups and their members have toward another group and its members. Negative intergroup relations typically involve prejudice (negative feelings and evaluations), stereotypes (beliefs about groups and their members), and discrimination (unfair treatment). However, intergroup bias does not necessarily require negative orientations. Bias may reflect unusually favorable attitudes and beliefs about members of one's own group and preferential treatment toward them.

The nature of intergroup relations is determined by psychological processes associated with social categorization, by the personalities and motivations of group members, and by the functional relationship between the groups. These processes apply to a wide range of groups, including work teams, divisions within an organization, companies, and countries.

1. Social Categorization and Intergroup Relations

Social categorization involves identifying people primarily on the basis of overt similarities and presumed group membership. Because group membership is critical to human functioning and

survival, the tendency to categorize people as members of different groups is fundamental to social perception. This social categorization process, however, involves more than distinguishing people by group membership. The recognition of different group memberships initiates a number of biases that influence intergroup relations in systematic ways. Social identity theory and, more recently, self-categorization theory address the fundamental processes associated with social categorization.

2. Individual Differences and Intergroup Relations

In addition to differences in the strength of group identity, individual differences in personality and values can influence the nature of intergroup relations. The personality variable of authoritarianism has historically received substantial attention with respect to intergroup attitudes and relations. Research in the 1950s concluded that the authoritarian personality, which is rooted in unhealthy family dynamics, is associated with unusual respect for authority and hierarchy, as well as strong distinctions between the in-group and out-group. Recent research has found that people high on right-wing authoritarianism have negative attitudes toward members of a number of other groups, particularly when the groups are perceived to violate society's morals and standards.

Social dominance theory, an alternative perspective, assumes that people who are strongly identified with high-status groups and who see intergroup relations in terms of group competition will be especially prejudiced and discriminatory toward out-groups. People high in social dominance orientation, an individual difference measure, believe that group hierarchies are inevitable and desirable, see the world as involving competition between groups, pursue activities and professions that tend to enhance intergroup hierarchy, and exhibit bias toward a range of other groups.

3. Functional Interdependence and Intergroup Relations

Social categorization and individual differences approach to understand intergroup relations focus on how the motivations and orientations of people, independent of the actual relationship between groups, can produce negative intergroup relations, other psychological and sociological perspectives emphasize that the nature of intergroup relations is shaped substantially by the functional relationship between the groups. Specifically, cooperation between groups, particularly when it has successful consequences, fosters positive intergroup relations; competition between groups, whether for material resources or intangible qualities such as status, promotes prejudice and discrimination.

However, more harmonious intergroup relations were created when the groups worked together to attain super ordinate goals (objectives that both groups desired but that could be achieved only jointly through cooperation) and their combined efforts were successful.

4. Intergroup Contact and Intergroup Relations

For more than 50 years, the contact hypothesis has represented psychologists' most popular and effective strategy for promoting harmonious intergroup relations. This hypothesis proposes that simple contact between groups is not sufficient to improve intergroup relations. For contact between groups to reduce bias successfully, the contact must involve equal status between the groups, cooperative (rather than competitive) intergroup interaction, opportunities for personal acquaintance between the members, especially with those whose personal characteristics do not support stereotypic expectations, and supportive norms by authorities within and outside the contact situation. These conditions of intergroup contact are prominent elements of specific strategies for improving inter-group relations, such as cooperative learning and jigsaw classroom interventions, in which students are interdependent on one another in problem-solving exercises.

Intergroup contact can also influence how people conceive of the groups and how the members are socially categorized. Close and personalized interaction between members of different groups can induce people to think of others more in terms of their personal identity than as members of another group, thereby weakening the in-group-out-group distinction. Cooperative, equal-status interaction between groups can induce people to reconceive of themselves primarily as one common group, which can redirect the forces of in-group favoritism to improve attitudes toward others previously seen only in terms of their out-group membership. Moreover, developing a common group identity does not require people to abandon their separate group identities entirely. Retaining original group identities, but in a context that emphasizes cooperation (e.g., art students and science students working together on a task that requires both types of skills) or within a complementary common identity (accountants and marketers within the same company), can reduce threat to original group identity while creating more positive intergroup relations.

Therefore, intergroup relations are determined critically by how people socially categorize others, by perceptions shaped by personal needs and values, and by the actual functional nature of the relationship between groups. These processes typically operate in concert. In part because the mere categorization of people into groups is sufficient to initiate intergroup bias, research in this area has typically focused on how to reduce intergroup bias and conflict. Nevertheless, the principles of social categorization, social identity, contact, superordinate goals, and functional interdependence may be applied initially in intergroup contexts to promote positive and constructive intergroup relations. Under these conditions, the unique contributions of the different groups can be recognized and appreciated, and the efforts of the members of the different groups can be coordinated to achieve mutually desirable goals.

Self-Assessment Exercise-II

1. Name two types of Groups.
2. What do you mean by inter-group relations?

9.7 Summary

The term group is defined as more than two employees who have an ongoing relationship in which they interact and influence one another's behavior and performance. The behavior of individuals in groups is something more than the sum total of each acting in his or her own way. When individuals are in groups, they act differently than they do when they are alone. Formal and informal groups are formed in organizations for different reasons. The way in which a particular group develops depends in part on such variables as the frequency with which group members interact and personal characteristics of group members. It is therefore important for us to understand in an orderly manner how groups help managers change human behavior in different organizational situations.

9.8 Glossary

Group: A collection of individuals interacting with one another so that each person influences and is influenced by each other person to some degree.

Formal groups: A formal group is set up by the organization to carry out work in support of the organization's goals.

Informal groups: An informal group is a group of people casually acquainted with each other for their own personal fulfillment because they have some common characteristics and concerns (interests/hobbies/friendship).

Autocratic: taking no account of other people's wishes or opinions;

Reference: the use of a source of information in order to ascertain something.

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9.11 Model Questions

1. Define groups. Explain the different types of groups.
2. What are the reasons for forming groups? Explain interpersonal group relations in organizational psychology.

Suggestive answers to Self-Assessment Exercise-I

1. Groups consist of two or more persons engaged in social interaction who have some stable structure relationship with one another, are interdependent, share common goals and perceive that they are in fact part of a group. Thus when two or more individuals gather together to serve a common purpose or common motive it is called a group. Groups are formed because it gives security, status, affiliation, self-esteem, power and goal achievement. Group formation helps in improving the performance, cooperation and satisfaction of employees.
2. The important characteristics of groups are as follows:

3. Each person in a group has a role, or a pattern of expected behaviours associated with a certain position in the group.
4. The standards that a work group uses to evaluate the behaviour of its members are its norms of behaviour.

Suggestive answers to Self-Assessment Exercise-II

1. (i) Primary and Secondary Groups:

Family is a primary group. Immediately after birth the baby comes in contact with the members of the family which is a unit of a group organisation. Family as a primary group fulfils the primary needs of a child like food, sleep, personal care and love.

While, when a large number of people get together (who do not normally get together) it is called a secondary group. Secondary group members do not get the opportunity to get to know each other as well as primary group members because the interaction with each other is less than in a primary group.

(ii) Formal and Informal Groups:

In the formal group the role status of every member is defined like the role of the President, Prime Minister, Chief Minister, Governor of a State, Secretary and President of an organisation, function of the members of the executive committees and the formal groups are more or less permanent. Each and every person in the formal group has to function as per his position and norm and as per the guideline determined for him. Each individual member has a particular status and role relationship with which he interacts with others.

A formal group may have a number of informal groups within it. Informal groups are established by individuals who decide they want to interact with each other. Informal groups usually do not have a specific purpose; often the group forms because the group members regularly happen to be in the same location or because they enjoy each other's company. For example people may form a group because they sit close together in an office or live together in a house

2. Intergroup relations refer to relations between two or more groups and their respective members. Whenever individuals belonging to one group interact, collectively or individually, with another group or its members in terms of their group identifications we have an instance of intergroup behavior.

-S-

FATIGUE: CONCEPT, CAUSES AND REMEDIES

Structure

- 10.0 Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Concept of Fatigue
- 10.3 Nature of Fatigue
- 10.4 Causes of Fatigue
- 10.5 Conditions that Lead to Fatigue
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10.0 Objectives

1. After reading this lesson you will be able to:
2. know the concept, nature and causes of fatigue.
3. understand the conditions that lead to fatigue and symptoms of fatigue.
4. learn the measurement of fatigue through physical, chemical, physiological and mental tests.
5. understand various remedies to overcome the problem of fatigue.

10.1 Introduction

Fatigue is an important phenomenon in industrial psychology because it creates many problems including stress, weakness, tiredness, exhaustion and of course decreases in productivity. Employees recognize fatigue as a feeling of tiredness or pain; regard it as intrinsically unpleasant and undesirable. Fatigue is considered an internal precondition for unsafe acts because it negatively affects the human operator's internal state.

Human capacity to work is limited. Every work requires care, attention and concentration. A person cannot work continuously for longer periods. The work output will be more in the morning and it goes on decreasing with passage of time as a worker will feel tired, mentally and physically, in the evening. The decrease in efficiency of working due to longer working periods is known as fatigue. It is not an overstatement to say that a great chunk of industrial mishaps are caused by fatigued

workers who no longer function in their optimal and natural capacity. Several cases of accidents have taken place in workplaces because the worker was fatigued. Whether it is about plane crashes, train running off the rail, vehicular accidents, machines related mishaps or people falling from high heights; these are accidents that fatigue can induce.

For this and many more other reasons, industrial fatigue needs investigation, be it from the physiological, psychological and nervous point of view. Depending on the strength, stamina and preparation of individual, fatigue is manifested at different rates in different individual. It may be difficult to completely eliminate fatigue, but efforts at minimizing its occurrence can be made.

10.2 Concept of Fatigue

Fatigue of workers is a complex phenomenon resulting from various factors in technically innovated modern industries, and it appears as a feeling of exhaustion, lowering of physiological functions, breakdown of autonomic nervous balance, and decrease in work efficiency. On the other hand industrial fatigue is caused by excessive workload, remarkable alteration in working posture and diurnal and nocturnal rhythms in daily life.

Fatigue is a work place hazard and can be associated with safety and health of the worker. It affects the health and safety of both the employee and his/her colleagues. The term “fatigue” had a widespread usage in occupational medicine. Fatigue is a complex phenomenon that can be attributed to many factors. Therefore, it is difficult to find a comprehensive definition with universally agreement for it. Also, there are other terms such as drowsiness and sleepiness that often used in literature interchangeably instead of fatigue. One of them is an aspect of fatigue, and then it is easier to define them compared with fatigue. The first step in the approach to the fatigue complains is to distinguish between sleepiness and fatigue. Distinguishing between them can be difficult even for expert clinician, but multiple sleep latency testing can be helpful.

It is noticeable that sleepiness and fatigue can exist in the same time as a consequence of sleep deprivation in workers. Sleepiness reflects the neurobiological need to sleep that induces sleep drives of an individual to fall asleep. After working at night or a night without sleep, we have higher levels of sleepiness. While after forceful physical exercise during the day time we have fatigue, but we cannot sleep easily. Fatigue usually refers to impairment in task performance. Also, fatigue has a psychological aspect that means not having enough energy to do work and experience subject reluctance to continue a task.

Thus, a fatigue person receives a signal from his body that the ongoing activity either physical activity or mental activity should be ended. It is necessary to mention that there are difference between sleepiness and fatigue in terms of definition and causes, but the effects of both of them could be same. Essentially, their effects include a decrease in capacity for doing mental and physical performances.

There are many different definition of fatigue, but generally fatigue is: A state of feeling tired, weary, or sleepy that results from prolonged mental and physical work, extended periods of anxiety, exposure to harsh environment, or loss of sleep. Fatigue is a result of prolonged mental or physical exertion; it can affect people's performance and impair their mental alertness, which leads to dangerous errors.

Fatigue is defined as "the inability to function at the desired level due to incomplete recovery from the demands of prior work and other activities". Acute fatigue can occur when there is inadequate time to rest and recover from a work period. Cumulative (chronic) fatigue on the other hands occurs when there is insufficient recovery from acute fatigue over time. Recovery from fatigue, i.e. restoration of function (particularly of cognitive function), requires sufficient good quality sleep.**(Gander, 2011).**

Chronic fatigue is "an overwhelming sustained sense of exhaustion and decreased capacity for physical and mental work at the usual level".(Venes, 2009.)

"Fatigue is the transitory period between awake and asleep; if fatigue goes uninterrupted, it can lead to sleep".(Lal and Craig, 2001).

Fatigue is both a physical and mental state, defining fatigue as "a biological drive for recuperative rest". (Williamson, 2011)

10.3 Nature of Fatigue

Fatigue is related to the mental status of person. One person may not be tired even after long hours of work whereas the other person may feel fatigued or tired even after few hours of work. Some persons may feel fresh after a Shorty relaxation during working periods while others may not regain energy "even after longer rests." A number of factors such as aptitude, interest, nature of job, work environment or working conditions etc., influence the mind of persons on jobs.

Fatigue can precisely be explained as follows:

1. It leads to loss of efficiency.
2. It results in more or less complete loss of responsiveness of tissue.
3. It may be termed as the reduced capacity of work resulting from work itself.
4. It is considered as state of 'lack of interest' in not only work but in other activities too.

10.4 Types of Fatigue

Fatigue may be of the following types:

1. Physical fatigue:

Physical fatigue is caused either by continuous work for long periods or the nature of work like the work may be heavy and requiring lot of physical excursion. The physical capacities of workers are limited and they may feel tired after a continuous work for longer periods.

2. Mental fatigue:

A worker utilizes his brain for doing a job for a longer period. The doing of same work again and again will result in mental fatigue of the worker.

3. Nervous fatigue:

When work needs the use of mental and physical capabilities for a continuous period, it will result in nervous fatigue.

4. Industrial fatigue:

When a worker continues to work the job for longer periods, his efficiency and productivity will result in nervous fatigue.

Fatigue and Monotony

Fatigue and monotony both involve disinterest in work. However, there are differences between these two in following respects:

- (1) Fatigue is the state of tiredness of the muscles, brain or nerves due to sustained activity and the person who is tired desires rest for regaining the vitality and energy. Monotony, on the other hand, does not necessarily reflect tiredness of muscle. It only indicates that the individual finds it difficult to continue concentration on the task on account of situations or lack of interest.
- (2) All individuals are not bored or feel tired and suffer from fatigue.
- (3) Changing the conditions of work like permitting, taking or moving away from work bench etc. may reduce or even eliminate monotony or boredom but these may not ward off fatigue for long.
- (4) Monotony can be removed by changing the nature of the job but tiredness or fatigue cannot be removed. It can only be removed by rests.
- (5) Fatigue generally refers to the physical tiredness while monotony is concerned with the tiredness of mind. Tiredness does not mean disinterest in the work.

10.4 Causes of Fatigue

Fatigue may be caused due to the following reasons:

- **Long Working Hours:** Long working hour also gives support to industrial fatigue. Long working hours can lead to stress or mental ill health, decreased production, rate of accident also increases. The remedy for avoiding fatigue is simple to regulate the laws regarding working hour.
- **Unsatisfactory Work Environment:** Industrial fatigue may be occurring by unfavourable or unsatisfactory work environment. Unsatisfactory or unfavourable work environment include improper facility of illumination, ventilation, humidity, tempera- tureand problem of noise. All these factors lead to headache, eye strain and sometime irritation and weakness. For minimizing these influences on the work, employers must take care of the factory layout.
- **Inadequate rest periods:** Inadequate rest periods also cause of industrial fatigue. Most of the studies suggest that frequent short rest intervals look like to be more effective than a few longer ones. Too long rest intervals may create disturbance and also workers loses the continuity of the work or gets out of the mood for it. The solution for this problem is to introduce rest periods in between working hours should be depending upon the nature of the work.
- **Faulty Design of Machines:** When machine are designed only taking consideration of work not worker who perform the task on that machine. Not stress on the comfort and ease to perform the task then it leads to a problem like workers' do unnecessary work and also it leads to extra expenditure of energy or effort. This comes out in the form of fatigue. To remove unnecessary fatigue, machines should be constructed (improving the design of machine) in such a way that workers would feel comfortable while doing work. One of the best method to minimize fatigue from bad design of machine by practicing time and motion study where wrong, unnecessary and useless movements should be avoided and productivity automatically increases.
- **Physical and Mental Health Disturbance:** Physical and mental health also causes the fatigue in workplace. In the case of a physically weak worker there is quick onset of fatigue compared to healthy worker. Emotional disturbance in work place as well as outside the work place, lack of adjustment with surrounding, domestic problem and many more may consume a lot of energy which cause fatigue as a result of mental illness. Therefore, employer provides free medical facilities and also ensures that their workers are aware about the health problems and remedy for the same. For overcome the mental illness workers should be given proper counselling and guidance for a healthy and tension free mental life.

The wide range of causes that can trigger fatigue include:

- Undiagnosed medical conditions
- Unhealthy lifestyle choices
- Workplace issues
- Emotional concerns and stress.

Fatigue can be caused by a number of factors working in combination.

10.5 Environmental Conditions affecting Fatigue

Common workplace issues that can cause fatigue include:

Shift work:The human body is designed to sleep during the night. This pattern is set by a small part of the brain known as the circadian clock. A shift worker confuses their circadian clock by working when their body is programmed to be asleep. Sleeping during the day is usually difficult, because the person's brain chemicals (neurotransmitters) are naturally set to 'wakefulness' mode.

Poor workplace practices: Can add to a person's level of fatigue. These may include long work hours, hard physical labour, irregular working hours (such as rotating shifts), stressful work environment (such as excessive noise or temperature extremes), boredom, working alone with

little or no interaction with others, or fixed concentration on a repetitive task. Bad designs of machines are another cause.

Workplace stress: Can be caused by a wide range of factors including job dissatisfaction, heavy workload, conflicts with bosses or colleagues, bullying, constant change, or threats to job security.

Burnout: Can be described as striving too hard in one area of life while neglecting everything else. 'Workaholics', for example, put all their energies into their career, which puts their family life, social life and personal interests out of balance.

Unemployment: Financial pressures, feelings of failure or guilt, and the emotional exhaustion of prolonged job hunting can lead to stress, anxiety, depression and fatigue.

To conclude, adverse conditions within the physical work environment require an effort to concentrate on the part of the industrial worker. In the case of loud continuous noise, for instance, production may not suffer but effort increases. Production suffers in the event of temperature being too low or too high, when humidity is too high and when illumination is inadequate. Similarly, inadequate work space may also cause fatigue.

10.6 Symptoms of Fatigue

There are numerous physical and psychological causes of fatigue. Some of the common causes are an allergy that leads to hay fever or asthma, anemia (including iron deficiency anemia), depression or grief, persistent pain, sleep disorders such as ongoing insomnia, obstructive sleep apnea, or narcolepsy, under active thyroid or overactive thyroid, use of alcohol or illegal drugs like cocaine, especially with regular use. Fatigue can also accompany many diseases such as Addison's disease, anorexia or other eating disorders Arthritis, including juvenile rheumatoid arthritis, autoimmune diseases such as lupus Cancer, chronic liver or kidney disease, congestive heart failure, diabetes, infection, parasitic infections, AIDS, tuberculosis, and mononucleosis, Malnutrition. It has been documented by doctors that some medicines may also cause drowsiness or fatigue, including antihistamines for allergies, blood pressure medicines, sleeping pills, steroids, and diuretics.

Recognizing Signs of Fatigue

Common signs and symptoms are:

- sleepiness
- irritability (more than usual)
- less conversational, or less clear in communication
- reduced attention span, more easily distracted
- slower reactions, clumsiness, poorer hand-eye coordination, reduced manual skills
- slower thinking
- reduced short-term memory, forgetful
- inability to handle large amounts of information under time pressure, losing 'the big picture'
- less creative problem solving
- cutting corners to get the job finished
- poor judgment of distance, speed or time
- increased risk-taking
- uncontrolled sleep (microsleeps)

Self-Assessment Exercise-I

3. Define Fatigue.
4. Name two types of fatigue.
5. Name two causes of fatigue?
6. Write four symptoms of Fatigue.

10.7 Measurement of Fatigue

This is in relation to the industrial worker:

1. Physical Tests using the Finger Ergograph
2. Chemical Tests through analysis of saliva, blood and urine. Accumulation of toxic substances, in the body indicates the onset of fatigue.
3. **Physiological Tests:** The amount of oxygen intake, examination of pulse rate, Fatigue and Accident Prevention and blood pressure can also indicate the onset of fatigue.
4. **Mental Tests:** Tests of sensory discrimination, attention, memory, imagination and measurement of other higher mental processes of an individual also suggest whether he is fatigued or not.

Besides, there are other indirect ways of measuring fatigue as follows:

1. Production i.e. output on the part of the individual worker.
2. Accidents
3. Absenteeism

10.8 Fatigue Test (In Relation to Materials)

It is in relation to materials. The definition of fatigue testing can be thought of as simply applying cyclic loading to your test specimen to understand how it will perform under similar conditions in actual use. The load application can either be a repeated application of a fixed load or simulation of in-service loads. The load application may be repeated millions of times and up to several hundred times per second.

Low Cycle Fatigue

Low Cycle Fatigue (LCF) describes the service environment of many critical (and primarily metal) components: low frequency, large loads/strains. The LCF environment is typical of turbine blades (heat-up/cool down cycling) and other power generation equipment subject to thermal and/or mechanical cycling (i.e. pressure vessels, piping, etc.) LCF typically involves large deformations, thereby accumulating damage on the specimen. LCF research is essential for the understanding of failure (in metals), for design and engineering purposes.

High Cycle Fatigue

High Cycle Fatigue (HCF) results from vibratory stress cycles at frequencies which can reach thousands of cycles per second and can be induced from various mechanical sources. It is typical in aircraft gas turbine engines and has led to the premature failure of major engine components (fans, compressors, turbines). While LCF involves bulk plasticity where stress levels are usually above the yield strength of the material, HCF is predominantly elastic, and stress levels are below the yield strength of the material.

10.9 Remedies of Fatigue

Some of the effective remedies to industrial fatigue are as follows:

1. Time Management

Inability to manage time could create stressful situations on the job quite frequently. Unfinished work, critical remarks from boss and colleagues, comments from subordinates in hushed tones,

misplaced papers, may all make the life of an executive quite miserable. To overcome such situations, one must pay attention to the following ideas suggested by of the leading trainers, SanjeevDuggal in the Global Manager, 1997.

2. Time Thoughts

- You cannot control how much time you have but you can control how to use it.
- Time is finite and it needs utilization when it is available.
- Writing a daily plan, listing priorities that require attention help us save lot of time while at work
- Time cannot be managed like other resources, rather you have to manage yourself in relation to time.
- Time is money. Time and tide wait for none. And every moment, utilised or not, is gone with the wind. It cannot be retrieved.

Tips for Time Management

- Carry your 'to do' list with you at all times
- Put all the tasks you need to remember however small, on the list
- Delegate or choose not to do some tasks
- Review the list in the evening
- Write a new list every day
- Ask yourself "is this important?"
- Check if you need to do a task at all.
- Ask yourself, "would anything terrible happen ifl didn't do it?" If the answer is 'no', think if you need to do it at all.
- Do the most difficult part first
- Do it now
- Look consciously for tasks which you can delegate
- Praise the results after you have delegated the tasks
- Provide action plans for moments when problems might arise
- Open your mail near the wastebasket and discard the envelopes
- Enter the key details of meetings immediately in your diary.

3. Exercise

Physically inactive individuals have a higher incidence of heart attacks and death than do active individuals. Exercise, as most of the studies indicate, reduces depression, anxiety and phobias. When you do the exercise regularly, the day-long tension on the job is given a decent burial. You focus more on your body than on your mind.

Not surprisingly, many organisations nowadays encourage their executives to be physically fit and active. Companies like Infosys Technologies, Escorts, NIIT, Tata group companies have created in-house physical fitness facilities for the benefit of employees.

4. Meditation and Relaxation

Mind gets the needed relaxation when we engage in a creative hobby like painting, reading, gardening etc. The wonderful effects of prayer as a relaxation measure have been well-documented in our ancient scriptures. Meditation also helps in putting our nagging thoughts to rest. Meditation is a way of focussing on something in a relaxed state in a serene and quiet environment. You can focus on muscular relaxation, an image, an object, a symbol, a point or anything you like. The advocates of Transcendental Meditation" have scientifically proved the beneficial impact of the technique on human brain in recent times. The practice of TM involves the use of a meaningless sound called a 'mantra'. A trained instructor individually assigns the mantra

to the meditator, and proper use of the mantra is said to automatically reduce the level of excitation and disorderly activity of the nervous system and to quiet the mind while maintaining its alertness. One sits comfortably with closed eyes and repeats the mantra for about 20 minutes twice a day.

5. Role Clarity

Define employee roles clearly. Employees must have a clear understanding of the job. They must know what the company expects and be confident that they can meet these expectations. Stress, most often, occurs when employees are not very sure about their work roles or fear they cannot do their jobs. When excessive stress is present in a role, management can initiate steps such as:

- Redefining the person's role
- Reduce overload by redistributing the work
- Set up procedures to prevent hindrances to work
- Arrange for a meeting of all those involved in a messy situation and try to find a way out
- Make the job intrinsically meaningful, challenging and rewarding.

6. Supportive Climate

Factors such as freedom to think and act independently, a certain amount of informality with key employees, clear communications, participative decision making, friendly conversations - all help in reducing stress levels in an organisation. If practiced regularly, they also reveal a supportive organisational climate where everybody is willing to contribute his best and share the rewards thereafter. There is very little room for disruptive political games, and conflicts to occur, vitiating the whole atmosphere. A friendly, supportive climate builds trust and confidence among employees and they will be quite happy to extend a helping hand to management, whenever required.

7. Clear Career Paths

To reduce uncertainty, each employee must be sure of where he is heading for, say after 5 years within the same organisation. A clear career path and the job rewards and benefits that follow committed service would go a long way in preventing or reducing stress levels greatly.

8. Reducing Burnouts

W.S. Paine suggested four techniques to reduce burnout. These are:

- **Identification:** This is the analysis of the incidence, prevalence and features of burnout in individuals, workgroups and subunits in an organisation.
- **Prevention:** Serious attempts should be made to prevent burnout process before it begins through employee wellness programmes (designed to keep employees healthy and happy). These programmes focus on such things as smoking cessation, weight control, physical fitness, high blood pressure control, nutrition education and stress management.
- **Mediation:** This involves procedures for slowing, halting or reversing the burnout process.
- **Remediation:** Techniques are designed for persons who are already burned out or are rapidly reaching the end stages of this process.

10.10 Summary

Fatigue is an integral part of the natural fabric of life. Some of it occurs because we try to do too much in the time available and some because of difficulties with the interpersonal relationships either at home or at work. Impact of fatigue can be either physical or psychological.

The main purpose of effective safety programmes in an organisation is to prevent work-related injuries and accidents. Safety members in factories cover slipping and falling hazards, collision

and obstruction hazards, equipments hazards, fire hazards, hazards from falling objects etc. Supervisors play a great role in reducing unsafe conditions and unsafe acts.

Effective safety management includes establishing a safety policy, ensuring top management support, creating safety committees, promoting safety discipline, and instituting safety engineering procedures, offering safety training, investigating reasons for accidents thoroughly, and evaluating safety efforts from time to time.

The legal provisions regarding safety cover areas such as fencing of machinery, not Fatigue and Accident Prevention employing young persons near dangerous machines, using safe devices to cut off power, using good hoists and lifts, giving enough room for workers to move around safely, quality flooring, providing ventilators for pumping out fumes, gases; and precautions to be taken to prevent fire accidents etc.

10.11 Glossary

Fatigue: reduction in ability to do work.

Hazard: a danger or risk.

Meditator: to engage in focused thought

Physiological: relating to the branch of biology that deals with the normal functions of living organisms and their parts.

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10.14 Model Questions

1. Discuss the concept and nature of fatigue.
2. Explain the causes and symptoms that lead to fatigue. Suggest remedies.

3. Discuss the causes of fatigue? What are the effective remedies to control industrial fatigue?

Suggestive answers to self-assessment exercise

1. Fatigue is defined as "the inability to function at the desired level due to incomplete recovery from the demands of prior work and other activities". Acute fatigue can occur when there is inadequate time to rest and recover from a work period. Cumulative (chronic) fatigue on the other hands occurs when there is insufficient recovery from acute fatigue over time. Recovery from fatigue, i.e. restoration of function (particularly of cognitive function), requires sufficient good quality sleep. **(Gander, 2011).**

2. **i) Physical fatigue:**

Physical fatigue is caused either by continuous work for long periods or the nature of work like the work may be heavy and requiring lot of physical excursion. The physical capacities of workers are limited and they may feel tired after a continuous work for longer periods.

ii) Mental fatigue:

A worker utilizes his brain for doing a job for a longer period. The doing of same work again and again will result in mental fatigue of the worker.

3. **i) Long Working Hours:** Long working hour also gives support to industrial fatigue. Long working hours can lead to stress or mental ill health, decreased production, rate of accident also increases. The remedy for avoiding fatigue is simple to regulate the laws regarding working hour.

ii) Unsatisfactory Work Environment: Industrial fatigue may be occurring by unfavourable or unsatisfactory work environment. Unsatisfactory or unfavourable work environment include improper facility of illumination, ventilation, humidity, temperature and problem of noise. All these factors lead to headache, eye strain and sometime irritation and weakness. For minimizing these influences on the work, employers must take care of the factory layout.

4. i) sleepiness

ii) irritability (more than usual)

iii) less conversational, or less clear in communication

iv) reduced attention span, more easily distracted

-S-

Monotony and Boredom: Concept, Causes and Effects

Structure

- 11.0 Objectives**
- 11.1 Introduction**
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- 11.4 Effects of monotony and boredom**
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11.0 Objectives

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

1. Know about the concept of monotony and boredom.
2. Learn about the causes and effects of monotony and boredom.
3. Ways to reduce monotony and boredom at work place.

11.1 Introduction

Monotony and Boredom are widely recognized as undesirable side effects of repetitious work. With an increasing trend toward the application of computer control, more jobs are becoming automated and, despite a concomitant demand for programming and other computer-related work associated with a high degree of job satisfaction, there is concern that this trend will result in a net increase in the number of fragmented and routine jobs; in this event the effects of boredom and monotony will become increasingly important considerations in job design and personnel management

Most of us would readily agree that boredom and monotony are unpleasant, undesirable states. During recent years, however, a number of investigators have begun to refer to monotony and boredom, especially that resulting from repetitive industrial work, not simply as undesirable aspects of automation, but as stressors that may be as potentially harmful to the individual as are the more commonly acknowledged effects of exposure to overstimulation or conditions of excessive workload. If boredom and monotony are significant determinants of stress, then attempts to reduce the strain of excessive workloads through increased automation could have the ironic effect of replacing one sort of stressor with another

11.2 Concept of Monotony and Boredom

Monotony and boredom may be used interchangeably sometimes, generally refers to the experience that arises from exposure to stimulus conditions which are perceived to be either uniform or repetitive, and which also induce a desire for change or variety. This is essentially the same definition of boredom and monotony as proposed by P.C. Smith.

Monotony is boredom is commonly referred to as mental fatigue or psychological fatigue which leads to work decrement. Monotony is an important aspect of industrial unrest and work decrement. It may be responsible for the increase of nervous disorders in modern life. Monotony and boredom refer to the undesirable effects of repetitive work. This is actually a state of mind caused by repetitive work. According to Maier, "Monotony and boredom are influenced by the way a person views his task from time to time causing the output to fluctuate rather than to fall off progressively." With low motivation in particular task the effect of mental fatigue becomes apparent very early. But when the motivation and interest in Job is high there may not be quick onset of monotony and boredom. Wright (1909) conducted an experiment to measure the ability of subject to do physical work under different conditions of motivation. The findings of this study support the construction that with expectations defined higher motivation occurred and increased the amount of energy made to available for work. Hence with low motivation in a particular type of work, the effect of mental fatigue apparent very early. But when the motivation and interest in job are high there may not be a quick on set of mental fatigue until physical exhaustion overshadows mental fatigued.

1. Mono means one and tones mean tone. One thing being repeated so many times over and over again creates "Monotony".
2. Monotony is especially associated with automatic and semi-automatic type of work. But it is more the individual's reaction and attitude towards work that creates a feeling than the nature of the job itself.
3. Fatigue occurs to continuous physical work, while monotony usually occurs due to the repetitive nature of work, lack of interest and motivation.
4. Objectively speaking, studies conducted on behalf of the Industrial Health Research Board (1937) indicate that the psychological plane deferent feelings underline boredom & fatigue.

Difference between Monotony and Boredom

Monotony and Boredom both refer to disinterest in work. Monotony is a state when a person is bored of doing repetitive work or activity. On the other hand, Boredom is the subjective state, when a person is not interested because of regular revelation or treatment. Boredom and monotony are often overlapping terms. People get confused with both the terms. No doubt, they are widely recognized as undesirable side effects of repetitious work. In this article, let us understand the difference between both the terms boredom and monotony.

Boredom is a state when a person is not at all in a mood of doing any activity. The idiom 'boredom' was first expressed in 1852, in the novel 'Bleak House' by Charles Dickens. The term was mainly derived from the French word 'ennui'.

Boredom is an emotional state when a person has control on his thinking, but his mind does not allow his body to respond. This state of boredom is like an emotional oxymoron. The type of endless boredom happens more to men and people with brain injuries and certain psychotic disorders. For drug addicts, fighting boredom can predict their success in kicking their habit as well.

Monotony simply means repetitiveness. A person feels bored by doing or applying the same activity again and again. Monotonous was derived from the Latin word 'monotonia', meaning

'sameness of tone'. For example: If the particular music is being played for the longer period of time, then one will get bored because of monotony. It automatically creates a lack of interest. A person in their life anyhow needs variety. As it gives a reason to live and learn something new. Monotony is an unpleasant, undesirable affective state. The word was first expressed in the year 1700.

11.3 Causes of Monotony and Boredom

Here are a few main causes of boredom:

1. Repetition and lack of interest

Boredom is similar to mental fatigue and is caused by repetition and lack of interest in the details of our tasks (such as tasks that require continuous attention, waiting at the airport, prisoners locked in cells). Any experience that is predictable and repetitive becomes boring. In general, too much of the same thing and too little stimulation can cause in its victim an absence of desire and a feeling of entrapment (Toohey, 2012).

2. Lack of Flow

Flow is a state of total immersion in a task that is challenging yet closely matched to one's abilities, akin to "being in the zone." Flow occurs when a person's skills match the level of challenge presented by the environment and when a task includes clear goals and immediate feedback. Tasks that are too easy are boring. In contrast, tasks that people perceive to be too difficult lead to anxiety.

3. Need for Novelty

Some individuals are more likely to be bored than others. People with a strong need for novelty, excitement, and variety are at risk of boredom. These sensation seekers (e.g., skydivers) are likely to find that the world moves too slowly. The need for external stimulation may explain why extroverts tend to be particularly prone to boredom. Novelty seeking and risk-taking is the way that these people self-medicate to cure their boredom.

4. Paying Attention

Monotony and boredom is linked to problems with attention. What bores us never fully engages our attention. After all, it is hard to be interested in something when you cannot concentrate on it. People with chronic attention problems, such as attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, have a high tendency for boredom.

Emotional Awareness

People who lack self-awareness are more prone to boredom. A bored individual is unable to articulate what it is that he or she desires or wants to do. They have trouble describing their feelings. An inability to know what will make one happy can lead to a more profound existential boredom. Not knowing what we are searching for means that we lack the capacity to choose appropriate goals for engagement with the world (Eastwood, 2012).

6.Inner Amusement Skills

Individuals lacking the inner resources to deal with boredom constructively will rely on external stimulation. In the absence of inner amusement skills, the external world will always fail to provide enough excitement and novelty.

7.Lack of Autonomy

People feel boredom a lot when they feel trapped. And feeling trapped is a big part of boredom. That is, they are stuck or constrained so that their will cannot be executed. For

example, adolescence is a peak period for boredom, largely because children and teenagers are not given a lot of control over what they want to do.

8. The Role of Culture

In many ways, boredom is a modern luxury (Spacks, 1996). Boredom was literally non-existent until the late 18th century. It came into being as the Enlightenment was giving way to the Industrial Revolution. Early in human history, when our ancestors had to spend most of their days securing food and shelter, boredom wasn't an option.

11.4 Effects of Monotony and Boredom

There are following effects of monotony and boredom:

1. Monotony can turn out to be an addiction

Some people cannot live in monotony; they need excessive changes in their lives. Whereas other people, in contrast, becomes used to it. The monotony activities can turn out to be an addiction, and the person may even feel stressed if he does not do it. This could include when a person smokes cigarettes at a regular time, he becomes addicted to it. But in this case, it is not only limited to such examples. For instance, a person that has only one place –in this case, her room– for studying for the exam, she becomes unconsciously addicted to the place, and cannot study anywhere else except their room. Or if a person has lived for years in the same place, changing their country may cause a psychological crisis to the individual. We have to avoid excessive monotony because if we become addicted to it, our brain functioning can be negatively affected.

2. Monotony restricts cognitive functioning

The brain is the organ that develops as long as it is working constantly and another important factor is that it never gets tired. In order for a brain cell to survive, we should constantly send signals and warn them. And this can only be achieved if there is a change in our environment. Our brain improves when there are different, surprising stimuli. A Monotony restricts our cognitive functioning. Most of the psychologists claim that monotony and doing the same activities every day can have an impact on the recession of cognitive functioning and reduced performance.

In order to have a better brain functioning, one should avoid every single monotony. Change things that have become routine doing them every day. For example, we are not suggesting you to stop having long walks in the morning, but you should try to run in different places instead of running in the same paths. Or you can read a book every day, but you have to change your reading place. Also, doing small changes in your house – for example, changing the place of the bookshelf, table – can surprise, have a positive effect on your brain and help it develop.

3. It is associated with high levels of stress

In my opinion, even thinking about wearing the same clothes, eating the same meal, doing the same activities every day makes me nervous. A research done on this also agrees with me. They have concluded that monotony, besides being linked to reduced performance and quality of work, it is also associated with the experience of high levels of stress. That is why it is suggested to people diagnosed with depression to force themselves to have changes in their lives instead of not willing to get out from the bed all day.

4. Monotony prevents being attentive

Although this may depend on the individual, in most cases monotony prevents us from giving our full attention to the task as long as it is also associated with boredom. If we do the same tasks, in the same environment, we might become bored of it even without being aware of the boredom we are experiencing. Consequently, we may have difficulties in concentration and attention.

Self- Assessment Exercise

1. Define Monotony.
2. What is the difference between monotony and boredom?
3. Write two causes of monotony and boredom.

11.5 Ways to reduce monotony and boredom at workplace

Following are the ways to reduce monotony and boredom at workplace

1. Get more involved in your work.

Try to think of a new angle of solving a current task. You can also go over some of your past activities and evaluate their long-term results or figure out a completely different way of doing things.

2. Get creative

There's no better way to fight monotony at work. Tina Seelig, the executive director of the Stanford Technology Ventures Program, is one of the people who have debunked the myth of creativity as a birth right. She also designed a practical model called the "Innovation Engine" that gives you a series of tools to increase creativity and encourage innovation. Read more about it in her book – "in GENIUS: A Crash Course on Creativity".

Buy two hats, of different colors. Let's say green and orange (see what we did there?). Wear the green one while performing an activity from a very cerebral, grounded point of view. Then use the orange hat to think of a different and fun way to do it.

So, if you were Sherlock, what would you do?

3. Research a new idea that you can build on.

It gives you the upper hand of **being on top of your field's new discoveries and advancements** but the real value is in using that information to build something of your own. A new project, a new framework or a new product. Wouldn't you like to be recognized as a pioneer? The challenge of research is that it's very time consuming. So if you have some free time on your hands, make the most out of it by catching up with the latest news.

Ask for a colleague's opinion and try to find new ways of approaching the matter. You can discuss it over a break or, even better, over lunch.

4. Make a change

If your chair is really uncomfortable or you've been sitting for hours now, get up and take a walk, maybe talk to a friend or go grab some a coffee. Make yourself be aware of the things you can improve around you.

Unclutter the mess on your desk or get a personalized object that makes you happier when you look at it. Your working space should help improve your productivity and keep you happy.

A great technique for balancing your working time with a smart break is the Pomodoro technique that allows you to *do more and have fun*. It's the perfect way to fight monotony at work.

5. Learn something new

Learn a new program, a new subfield, anything that gives you a brain thrill. Ever heard of Coursera? It's great platform with all sorts of different online courses, including several languages. You can even get a verified certificate for some of these courses.

Another great example where you can learn something new is Bitdegree. This website offers various interactive online courses to make the learning experience even more interesting.

6. Takeaway

While it's very hard to avoid monotony at work, you can choose to fight it through a **combination of working hard and having fun**. Don't exaggerate on just one of these two.

Try them out, one at a time, and figure out what the best solution for you is. So the next time you feel like you don't feel challenged anymore, try one of the ideas above.

You should also sit down with your manager and figure out what causes this feeling and how you can improve your happiness at work.

7. Listen to music

A lot of people say that music helps them concentrate better and get rid of the tension. It decreases stress levels and it can put you in a great mood that allows you to fight monotony at work! Depending on the music.

You can run an improvised radio station in your department and get special requests from your co-workers. Agreed, it will probably have an impact on your productivity but where there's a will, there's a way. And having some fun at the office may boost happiness and productivity for everyone so it's worth a try.

8. Play

You can restart your brain and fight monotony at work with a **quick game break** with your colleagues. Choose your weapon: Wii, PlayStation, Xbox, you name it. The 15 minutes you spend playing can maximize the next couple of hours!

9. Try sports

Why not do some **sports during breaks**? If your office has a shower, it's a perfect way to stay healthy and re-power your brain. You could run 5 miles twice a week in the afternoon.

10. Plan other tasks in a timed interval schedule

- Email an old friend.
- Add something to your website.
- Research a weekend trip.
- Check out a new gadget via web research.
- Research something of interest to you, your hobbies or a potential interest.
- Call your mother-in-law.

11.6 SUMMARY

Monotony refers to uniformity or lack of variation in pitch, intonation, or inflection or tedious sameness or repetitiousness: the monotony of daily routine. It is generally caused by doing the same kind of work again and again at workplace. Employees should seek to take up new opportunities and acquire knowledge to overcome monotony.

11.7 GLOSSARY

Monotony: It refers to uniformity or lack of variation in pitch, intonation, or inflection or tedious sameness or repetitiousness: the monotony of daily routine.

Stress: a state of mental or emotional strain or tension resulting from adverse or demanding circumstances.

Unclutter: neat and orderly

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11.10 MODEL QUESTIONS

1. Define Monotony and Boredom. What are the causes and effects of Monotony and Boredom on employees at work place?
2. What is Monotony and Boredom. Discuss the ways to reduce the effects of Monotony and Boredom on employees at work place.

Suggestive answers to self-assessment exercise

1. According to Maier, "Monotony and boredom are influenced by the way a person views his task from time to time causing the output to fluctuate rather than to fall off progressively."
2. Monotony and boredom both refer to disinterest in work. Boredom is the subjective state, when a person is not interested because of regular revelation or treatment. On the other hand, monotony is a state when a person is bored of doing repetitive work or activity.

3. i) Repetition and lack of interest

Boredom is similar to mental fatigue and is caused by repetition and lack of interest in the details of our tasks (such as tasks that require continuous attention, waiting at the airport, prisoners locked in cells). Any experience that is predictable and repetitive becomes boring. In general, too much of the same thing and too little stimulation can cause in its victim an absence of desire and a feeling of entrapment (Toohey, 2012).

ii) Lack of Flow

Flow is a state of total immersion in a task that is challenging yet closely matched to one's abilities, akin to "being in the zone." Flow occurs when a person's skills match the level of challenge presented by the environment and when a task includes clear goals and immediate feedback. Tasks that are too easy are boring. In contrast, tasks that people perceive to be too difficult lead to anxiety.

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WORK STRESS AND ITS MANAGEMENT

Structure

12.0 Objectives

12.1 Introduction

12.2 Concept of Work Stress

12.3 Nature of Work Stress

12.4 Problems of Work Stress

12.5 Sources of Work Stress

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12.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, you will be able to:

1. know the concept and nature of stress management
2. understand the problems and sources of stress management
3. learn the stress management in an effective way

12.1 Introduction

In today's changing and competitive work environment, stress level is increasing both in the workers as well as in managers. A large number of managers are showing signs of chronic fatigue as such stressed out managers are not good for their companies or shareholders. In most cases, stress leads to reduced efficiency in even the best of individuals, which in turn leads to reduced productivity. Stress is a problem in almost all the countries of the world, irrespective of whether the economy is strong or weak. Therefore, it is pertinent to handle "work stress" as one works in any organization.

12.2 Concept of Stress

Considered from an individual's point of view, stress is our body's physical, mental and chemical reactions to circumstances that frighten, confuse, endanger or irritate us. If controlled, stress is a friend that strengthens us for the next encounter. If handled poorly, it becomes an enemy which can cause diseases like high blood pressure, ulcer, asthma and overactive thyroid. As per the

medical explanation of the term, “stress is the body’s general response to environmental situations.”

It can lead to:

- (1) Physiological discomfort.
- (2) Some kind of emotional unhappiness.
- (3) Strained relationships with other people.

In very simple words, stress refers to an individual’s reaction to a disturbing factor in the environment. Stress is defined as an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological and/or behavioural deviations for organisational participants. Stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important.

According to Ivancevich and Matterson, “Stress is the interaction of the individual with the environment. It is an adaptive response, mediated by individual differences and/or psychological process; that is a consequence of any external (environmental) action, situation or event that places excessive psychological and/or physical demands upon a person”

According to Beehr and Newman, “job stress is a condition arising from the interaction of the people and their jobs, and characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning.”

12.3 Nature of Stress

The nature of stress can be discussed as under:-

1. Stress is a neutral word

Stress is not bad in itself. But when stress is created by undesirable outcomes, it becomes distress. On the other hand, if it is created by desirable and successful effects it is called Eustress. Eustress is a health, positive and development stress response. It is primarily the Distress form of stress which requires examination and steps to cope with it; because distress is generally associated with heart disease, alcoholism, drug abuse, marital problems, absenteeism etc.

2. Stress is associated with Constraints and Demands

Constraints prevent an individual from doing what he or she desires. If a person wants to buy something, but he does not have the necessary cash, it is a constraint. Demands refer to the loss of something desired. If a person wants to go and watch a movie but he is unable to do so because of pressing official work, it amounts to a demand. Both constraints and demands can lead to potential stress.

3. Two conditions are necessary for potential stress to become actual stress

There must be:

- i. Uncertainty over the outcome, and
- ii. Outcome must be important.

Stress is usually very high when there is uncertainty over the outcome and the outcome is very significant. Both these conditions are necessary. If there is no uncertainty but the outcome is significant, there will not be any stress. On the other hand, if there is uncertainty, but the outcome is not significant, there will again be no stress.

4. Stress is not simply anxiety

Stress may be accompanied by anxiety, but they are not synonymous. Anxiety is psychological and emotional whereas stress operates in the physiological sphere also along with psychological sphere.

5. Stress is different from nervous tension

Nervous tension may be a result of stress. Stress is a subconscious action. Even unconscious people have exhibited stress, whereas nervous tension is a conscious action as they may cover up their emotions and not reveal them through nervous tension.

6. The term “burnout” is also closely associated with stress

Burnout is closely associated with helping professions like nursing, education and social work, it is characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishments. Even though technically, burnout is different from stress, these are generally used interchangeably.

12.4 Problems of stress at work

Situations that are likely to cause stress are those that are unpredictable or uncontrollable, uncertain, ambiguous or unfamiliar, or involving conflict, loss or performance expectations. Stress may be caused by time limited events, such as the pressures of examinations or work deadlines, or by ongoing situations, such as family demands, job insecurity, or long commuting journeys.

Resources that help meet the pressures and demands faced at work include personal characteristics such as coping skills (for example, problem solving, assertiveness, time management) and the work situation such as a good working environment and social support. These resources can be increased by investment in work infrastructure, training, good management and employment practices, and the way that work is organised.

Historically, the typical response from employers to stress at work has been to blame the victim of stress, rather than its cause. Increasingly, it is being recognised that employers have a duty, in many cases in law, to ensure that employees do not become ill. It is also in their long term economic interests to prevent stress, as stress is likely to lead to high staff turnover, an increase in sickness absence and early retirement, increased stress in those staff still at work, reduced work performance and increased rate of accidents, and reduced client satisfaction.

Good employment practice includes assessing the risk of stress amongst employees. This involves:

- looking for pressures at work which could cause high and long lasting levels of stress
- deciding who might be harmed by these
- deciding whether you are doing enough to prevent that harm.

12.5 Sources of Stress

A. Extra organisational Stress

Job stress is not limited to things that happen inside the organization, during the working hours. Extra organizational factors also contribute to job stress.

These factors are as follows:

1. Political Factors

Political factors are likely to cause stress in countries which suffer from political uncertainties as in Iran, for example. The reason is that they have stable political system where change is typically implemented in an orderly manner.

2. Economic Factors

Changes in business cycles create economic uncertainties. A very important example is the great depression of 1930s. During this period, suicide rates touched the sky. Minor recessions also

cause stress in the work force as downward swings in the economy are often accomplished by permanent reductions in the work force, temporary layoff or reduction in pay.

3. Technological Factors

In today's era of technological development new innovations make an employee's skills and experience obsolete in a very short span of time. Computers, automation are other forms of technological innovations, which are a threat to many people and cause them stress.

B.Organizational Stress

In organizations, there is no shortage of causes which can cause stress. Any aspect of work can become a source of stress for someone. Although there are many factors in the work environment that have some influence on the extent of stress that people experience at the job, the following factors have been shown to be particularly strong in inducing stress:

1.Job Related Factors

Job related factors or task demands are related to the job performed by an individual.

i) If a job is too routine, dull and boring or happens to be too demanding in terms of frequent transfers or constant traveling, which limits the time he can spend with his family, the individual is likely to experience stress.

ii) Some jobs can also be hazardous or morally conflicting to the individual who has interfaced it especially when one is forced to work in an environment which he dislikes and yet has to continue working in it. This gives him undue stress and anguish.

iii) Some duties and responsibilities have inbuilt stress such as those of the fire fighter or the police squad which defuses bombs.

iv) Jobs where temperatures, noise or other working conditions are dangerous or undesirable can increase anxiety. Similarly, working in a crowded room where interruptions are constant, can also lead to stress.

v) The more interdependence between a person's tasks and the tasks of others, the more potential stress is there and the presence of autonomy tends to reduce stress.

vi) Security is another factor that can cause stress. Someone in a relatively secure job is not likely to worry unduly about losing the position and if job security is endangered stress can increase dramatically.

vii) Overload of work occurs when a person has more work to do than he can handle. The overload can be either quantitative (the individual has too many tasks to perform or too little time in which to perform them) or qualitative (the person believes that he lacks the ability to do the job). On the other hand, the opposite of overload is also undesirable. It can result in boredom and apathy just as overload is also undesirable. It can result in boredom and apathy just as overload can cause tension and anxiety. Thus, a moderate degree of work related stress is optimal because it leads to high level of energy and motivation.

2.Role Related Factors

Role related factors relate to pressures placed in a person as a function of the particular role he or she plays in the organization. Individuals can experience the following role related stresses:

i) Role Conflict

Role conflict occurs when two or more persons have different and sometimes opposing expectations 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. Role conflict takes place when contradictory demands are placed upon an employee simultaneously. 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 their roles conflict with each other. For example, a police officer is invited to his

friend's wedding party where the guests use drugs which are against the law. Here he faces a role conflict.

ii) Role Ambiguity

Stress from job ambiguity arise when an employee does not know what is expected of him or her or how or who to go about doing the job. For example, if an employee who joins an organization is left to himself to figure out what he is supposed to be doing and nobody tells him what the expectations of him or his role are, the newcomer will face a high level of role ambiguity. Even an old employee can be given a responsibility without being given much information. For example, a production manager might tell a foreman that 500 unit of steel rods are to be manufactured in next five days and leaves town immediately without specifying what kind of additional help will be provided, or what the purpose, cost, weight or design details are. The foreman is left with a lot of role ambiguity and does not know how he should go about doing the job.

iii) Role Overload

Role overload refers to the situation when an individual is expected to do too many things within a limited time as part of the daily routine. For example, if Mrs. X is expected to perform the duties of a supervisor, receptionist, public relations officer and an accountant, she is likely to experience a lot of stress from the several roles she has to play during the day. She may be able to manage the various roles for a short period of time, but if expected to continue in this fashion on a long term basis, she is likely to fall sick or quit.

iv) Role Erosion

When an individual feels that some functions that he would like to perform are being performed by some other one, the stress felt is called role erosion. Role erosion is a subjective feeling of an individual. Role erosion is likely to be experienced in an organization that is redefining roles and creating new roles. Whenever the organization redefines roles, the stress of role erosion is generally felt.

v) Resource Inadequacy

When an individual feels that the resources required for performing the role effectively viz. information, people, material, finance and facilities etc. are not available, he experiences role inadequacy stress.

vi) Personal Inadequacy

An individual may feel that he does not have enough knowledge, skill or training or the time to prepare for the role assigned to him. When he feels that he cannot undertake a role effectively he experiences personal inadequacy stress. When people are assigned new roles due to reallocation or orienatation, they are likely to experience such stress.

vii) Role Isolation

In a role set, an individual may fell that certain roles are psychologically closer to him, while others are at a distance. The main criterion which governs this perception of distance are frequency and case of interaction. Role isolation can be measured in terms of existing and desired linkage. The gap between existing and desired linkage will indicate the amount of role isolation will be low. However, if the individual does not feel strong linkage with his roles, his roles, his role isolation would be high.

3. Inter Personal and Group Related Factors

Interpersonal demands are pressures created by other employees. Group related stressors include factors like conflicts, poor communication, unpleasant relationship and fear of being ostracized form the group as a valued member.

Working with superior, peers or subordinates with whom one does not get along can be a constant source of stress. Some people can deal with conflicts and misunderstandings in an open way and resolve issues as they arise. Many, however, lack of social support from colleagues and poor interpersonal relationships can cause considerable stress, especially among employees with a high social need. Sometimes, the individuals try to avoid these stresses by remaining absent as frequently as possible and even start looking for new jobs.

4. Organisational Structural Factors

Organisational structure defines the level of differentiation, the degree of rules and regulations and where decisions that affect an employee are examples of structural variables that might be potential stressors.

5. Organisational Leadership Factors

These factors represent the managerial style of the organisation's senior managers. Some managers create a culture characterized by tension, fear and anxiety. They establish unrealistic pressures to perform in the short run, impose excessively tight controls and routinely fire employees who fail to turn up.

6. Organisation's Life Cycle

Organisations go through a cycle. They are established; they grow, become mature and eventually decline. An organisation's life cycle creates different problems and pressures for the employees. The first and the last stage are stressful. The establishment involves a lot of excitement and uncertainty, while the decline typically requires cutback, layoffs and a different set of uncertainties. When the organization is in the maturity stage, stress tends to be the least because uncertainties are lowest at this point of time.

C. Group Stress (Inter-Personal) Stress

Another source of stress in organisations is poor interpersonal relationships or conflicts. These conflicts can be among the members of the group or between the superiors and subordinates. Groups have a lot of influence on the employees' behaviour, performance and job satisfaction. In the other hand, the group can also be a potential source of stress.

Group stress can be categorized into the following factors. :

1. Group Cohesiveness

The famous Hawthorne studies had proved that group cohesiveness is very important to the employees, particularly at the lower levels of the organisation. Lack of cohesiveness can be very stress producing especially for those persons who cannot thrive in isolation.

The other side of the picture is that too much cohesiveness can also lead to stress. Sayings like "too much familiarity breeds contempt" are very valid because prolonged contact with other people can also cause stress. This stress becomes more intensified when the people we are close to or with whom we come in contact with are in distress themselves. For example, people tend to become distressed when their friends, colleagues or peers are in distress. Due to this reason people belonging to certain specific professions, which deal with the problems of other people have the highest level of stress.

According to Albercht, doctors have the highest rate of alcoholism of any of the professions and that psychiatrists have the highest rate of suicide.

2.Lack of Social Support

Satisfaction, though, a state of mind is primarily influenced by the 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. In this type of social support is lacking for an individual, it can be very stressful.

3. Conflicts

People who are working in the organisations are prone to interpersonal and intergroup conflict. As we have discussed in the previous chapter, conflict has both functional and dysfunctional aspects. Whenever conflict has dysfunctional consequences, it will lead to stress in all the concerned parties.

4. Organisational Climate

Much of the group or interpersonal relationships depend upon the organisational climate. An overall organisational climate may have a relaxed style of working or it may tense and crisis oriented. All the employees of such organisation will be continuously tense, if the climate in general is unfriendly, hostile or totally task oriented.

5. Sexual Harassment

It refers to unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature that detrimentally affects the work environment or leads to adverse job related consequences for its victims. Corporate managers increasingly realize that sexual harassment is a serious concern. It is not just a legal issue but a serious interpersonal stressor. The most frequent form of sexual harassment is hostile work environment. It includes sexual conduct that unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive work environment.

6. Workplace Violence

It is a very serious interpersonal stress. Individuals who experience violence have symptoms of severe distress after the violent event. Workplace violence is also stress for those who observe the violence. Even not directly individuals who have not directly experienced or observed violence may show signs of stress if they work on high risk jobs.

7. Workplace bullying

Workplace bullying refers to offensive intimidating or humiliating behaviour that degrades, ridicules or insults another person at work. A healthy business climate is built in cooperation, trust and teamwork, whether it is top management or lower level management. Bullying is the antithesis of this. Research indicates that people with higher authority are more likely to engage in workplace bullying toward employees in lower positions. Most also have more absenteeism, impaired decision making, lower work performance and more work errors.

D. Individual stress

The typical individual works for about 8 to 10 hours a day. The problems and experiences which he has to face in the remaining 14 to 16 non –working hours can spill over to his work place. Our final category of stressors thus includes personal or individual stressors.

Following are the main factors which can cause stress to individuals:-

1. Job concerns

One of the major job concerns is lack of job security which can lead to concern, anxiety or frustration to the individual. The prospect of losing a job especially when you have a family and social obligations, is always very stressful.

2. Career progress is another reason of anxiety

This is particularly true for middle aged people, because middle age is a period of soul searching and self-doubt. If these people were not given promotions when due or they feel that the jobs which were given to them were beneath their qualifications, they may become very anxious. This anxiety will lead to stress.

E. Workplace Factors Causing Stress

The workplace is an important source of both demands and pressures causing stress, and structural and social resources to counteract stress.

The workplace factors that have been found to be associated with stress and health risks can be categorised as those to do with the content of work and those to do with the social and organisational context of work. Those that are intrinsic to the job include long hours, work overload, time pressure, difficult or complex tasks, lack of breaks, lack of variety, and poor physical work conditions (for example, space, temperature, light).

Unclear work or conflicting roles and boundaries can cause stress, as can having responsibility for people. The possibilities for job development are important buffers against current stress, with under promotion, lack of training, and job insecurity being stressful. There are two other sources of stress, or buffers against stress: relationships at work, and the organisational culture. Managers who are critical, demanding, unsupportive or bullying create stress, whereas a positive social dimension of work and good team working reduces it.

An organisational culture of unpaid overtime or “presenteeism” causes stress. On the other hand, a culture of involving people in decisions, keeping them informed about what is happening in the organisation, and providing good amenities and recreation facilities reduce stress. Organisational change, especially when consultation has been inadequate, is a huge source of stress. Such changes include mergers, relocation, restructuring or “downsizing”, individual contracts, and redundancies within the organisation.

1. Empirical review

A systematic review of the evidence for work factors associated with psychological ill health and associated absenteeism (Michie and Williams 2001, unpublished data) found the key factors to be:

- long hours worked, work overload and pressure
- the effects of these on personal lives
- lack of control over work and lack of participation in decision making
- poor social support
- Unclear management and work role and poor management style.

2. Explanatory model

Three of these factors form part of the influential control-demand model of work related strain.

According to this model, work related strain and risks to health are most likely to arise when high job demands are coupled with low decision latitude (that is, low personal control over work and limited opportunities to develop skills). On the other hand, high job demands with high decision latitude gives the possibility of motivation to learn, active learning, and a sense of accomplishment. Of the two, decision latitude has been found to be more important than demand. Since its introduction in 1979, the model has been extended to include social support at work as a predictor of job strain. Karasek's model has received sufficient empirical support for it to provide a useful framework for interventions at work.

3. Individual Differences

Individuals differ in their risk of experiencing stress and in their vulnerability to the adverse effects of stress. Individuals are more likely to experience stress if they lack material resources (for example, financial security) and psychological resources (for example, coping skills, self-esteem), and are more likely to be harmed by this stress if they tend to react emotionally to situations and are highly competitive and pressured (type A behaviour).

The association between pressures and well-being and functioning can be thought of as an inverted U, with well-being and functioning being low when pressures are either high or very low (for example, in circumstances of unemployment). Different people demonstrate different shapes of this inverted U, showing their different thresholds for responses to stress. A successful strategy

for preventing stress within the workplace will ensure that the job fits the person, rather than trying to make people fit jobs that they are not well suited to.

4. Interactions between Work and Home Stress

Increasingly, the demands on the individual in the workplace reach out into the homes and social lives of employees. Long, uncertain or unsocial hours, working away from home, taking work home, high levels of responsibility, job insecurity, and job relocation all may adversely affect family responsibilities and leisure activities. This is likely to undermine a good and relaxing quality of life outside work, which is an important buffer against the stress caused by work. In addition, domestic pressures such as childcare responsibilities, financial worries, bereavement, and housing problems may affect a person's robustness at work. Thus, a vicious cycle is set up in which the stress caused in either area of one's life, work or home, spills over and makes coping with the other more difficult.

Women are especially likely to experience these sources of stress since they carry the burden of childcare and domestic responsibilities as compared to men. In addition to this, women are concerted in lower paid, lower status jobs, may often work shifts in order to accommodate domestic responsibilities, and may suffer discrimination and harassment.

12.6 Stress Management

1. Individual Stress Management

Most interventions to reduce the risk to health associated with stress in the workplace involve both individual and organisational approaches. Individual approaches include training and one-to-one psychology services—clinical, occupational, health or counselling. They should aim to change individual skills and resources and help the individual change their situation.

Techniques for managing stress.

Training helps prevent stress through:

1. becoming aware of the signs of stress
2. using this to interrupt behaviour patterns when the stress reaction is just beginning. Stress usually builds up gradually. The more stress builds up, the more difficult it is to deal with
3. analysing the situation and developing an active plan to minimise the stressors
4. learning skills of active coping and relaxation, developing a lifestyle that creates a buffer against stress
5. practising the above in low stress situations first to maximise chances of early success and boost self confidence and motivation to continue.

A wide variety of training courses may help in developing active coping techniques—for example, assertiveness, communications skills, time management, problem solving, and effective management.

However, there are many sources of stress that the individual is likely to perceive as outside his or her power to change, such as the structure, management style or culture of the organisation. It is important to note that stress management approaches that concentrate on changing the individual without changing the sources of stress are of limited effectiveness, and may be counterproductive by masking these sources. For example, breathing deeply and thinking positively about a situation causing stress may make for a temporary feeling of well-being, but will allow a damaging situation to continue, causing persistent stress and, probably, stress to others. The primary aim of the individual approach should be to develop people's skills and confidence to change their situation, not to help them adapt to and accept a stressful situation.

2. Organisational Stress Management

The prevention and management of workplace stress requires organisational level interventions, because it is the organisation that creates the stress. An approach that is limited to helping those already experiencing stress is analogous to administering sticking plaster on wounds, rather than dealing with the causes of the damage. An alternative analogy is trying to run up an escalator

that's going down! Organisational interventions can be of many types, ranging from structural (for example, staffing levels, work schedules, physical environment) to psychological (for example, social support, control over work, participation).

The emphasis on the organisation, rather than the individual, being the problem is well illustrated by the principles used in Scandinavia, where there is an excellent record of creating healthy and safe working environments.

Principles of preventing work stress in Scandinavia

1. Working conditions are adapted to people's differing physical and mental aptitudes
2. Employee is given the opportunity to participate in the design of his/her own work situation, and in the processes of change and development affecting his/her work
3. Technology, work organisation, and job content are designed so that the employee is not exposed to physical or mental strains that may lead to illness or accidents. Forms of remuneration and the distribution of working hours are taken into account
4. Closely controlled or restricted work is avoided or limited
5. Work should provide opportunities for variety, social contact, and cooperation as well as coherence between different working operations
6. Working conditions should provide opportunities for personal and vocational development, as well as for self-determination and professional responsibility

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Define stress.
2. Explain Role Conflict.
3. Explain Role Erosion.
4. Write two techniques of organisational stress management.

12.7 Conclusion

Stress has been defined in different ways over the years. Originally, it was conceived of as pressure from the environment, then as strain within the person. The generally accepted definition today is one of interaction between the situation and the individual. It is the psychological and physical state that results when the resources of the individual are not sufficient to cope with the demands and pressures of the situation. Thus, stress is more likely in some situations than others and in some individuals than others.

12.8 Glossary

Stress-state of mental or emotional strain or tension

Conflicts-a serious disagreement or argument

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- <https://www.scribd.com>
- <https://www.who.int/occupational>
- Ashley Weinberg and Dr Valerie J Sutherland. 2010. Organizational Stress Management: A Strategic Approach.

12.10 further readings

- <https://www.apa.org/pubs/journals/str/>
- <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042811018611>

12.11 Model Questions

1. Discuss the concept and nature of stress. What are the sources of stress?
2. Define stress. Discuss the problems of stress. What are the ways to manage stress in organisation?
3. Discuss the causes of stress and suggest techniques to manage stress.

Suggestive answers to Self-Assessment Exercise

1. According to Ivancevich and Matterson, "Stress is the interaction of the individual with the environment. It is an adaptive response, mediated by individual differences and/or psychological process; that is a consequence of any external (environmental) action, situation or event that places excessive psychological and/or physical demands upon a person."

2. Role Conflict

Role conflict occurs when two or more persons have different and sometimes opposing expectations 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. Role conflict takes place when contradictory demands are placed upon an employee simultaneously.

3. When an individual feels that some functions that he would like to perform are being performed by some other one, the stress felt is called role erosion. Role erosion is a subjective feeling of an individual. Role erosion is likely to be experienced in an organization that is redefining roles and creating new roles. Whenever the organization redefines roles, the stress of role erosion is generally felt.

4. Write two techniques of organisational management

- a) Working conditions are adapted to people's differing physical and mental aptitudes
- b) Technology, work organisation, and job content are designed so that the employee is not exposed to physical or mental strains that may lead to illness or accidents. Forms of remuneration and the distribution of working hours are taken into account

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CENTRE FOR INTERNAL QUALITY ASSURANCE (CIQA)

USOL, PANJAB UNIVERSITY, CHANDIGARH

Dear students,

Centre for Internal Quality Assurance (CIQA) is making a modest attempt to seek your feed-back on the lessons of this block that you have just gone through. Your feedback is sought on following parameters given below. Please do take our sometime to provide your valuable feedback as it shall go a long way in improving our study material.

Best Wishes

Convener, CIQA, USOL

FEEDBACK PROFORMA FOR STUDY MATERIAL

Class.....Semester.....Subject.....Paper.....

Student's Enrolment No.....

Please give your opinion on the following parameters by putting a tick in the appropriate column.

Sr. No.	Parameters	Yes	No	Needs Improvement (Pl Specify lesson. You may write overleaf)
1.	Content is sufficient for self study			
2.	Content coverage is as per syllabus			
3.	Content is up to date			
4.	Presentation of the topics is good			
5.	Printing quality is good			
6.	Study material is student friendly			
7.	Any other suggestions			

Note: Please submit the duly filled-in **Feed-Back Proforma** along with 'your assignments/response sheets' in your respective departments.