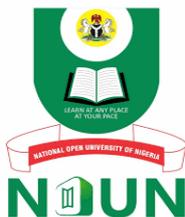


COURSE GUIDE

PAD 302 ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

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© 2024 by NOUN Press
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Printed 2024

ISBN: 978-058-795-0

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978-058-795-0

INTRODUCTION

Understanding organizational behaviour is a key skill for all staff so they can compete successfully in an ever-changing marketplace where the whole organization is able to respond quickly and together. For this to occur, managers and supervisors need to understand how and why individuals behave as they do and deliver a truly excellent organization.

PAD 302: Administrative Behaviour, is a one-semester course work of two credit hours. It is available to all undergraduate students taking business related programme in the school of Management Sciences. The course consists of 15 units of three modules which cover the concept and theory of organizational behaviour. The Course Guide tells you what PAD 302 is all about, the materials you will be using and how to make use of them. Other information includes the self -assessment and tutor-marked assignment.

COURSE CONTENT

The course content consists of management stuff and principles and practices in organization as well as the concepts, scope and contributors to the study of organizational behaviour and human relations.

COURSE AIMS

The aim of this course is to expose you to the basic management stuff and the concept and practices of organizational behaviour. This aim will be achieved by taking a cursory look at:

- The conceptual issues in management
- The principles and practices in organizations
- The concept and nature of people and organizations.

OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the conceptual stuff of management
- explain the perspectives of organizational behaviour
- discuss the behaviour influencing forces in an organization like perception, personality motivation etc.
- explain the principles and practices in organization.

COURSE MATERIALS

- Course Guide
- Study Units

- Text Books
- Assignment Guide

STUDY UNITS

MODULE 1

- Unit 1 Concept of Administrative Behaviour
- Unit 2 Administrative Behaviour in Organizational Decision Making
- Unit 3 Element of Organizational Behaviour
- Unit 4 Individual Behaviour
- Unit 5 Industrial/Organizational Psychology and Goals of Industrial/Organizational Psychology

MODULE 2

- Unit 1 Learning Process an organization
- Unit 2 Motivation in an Organization
- Unit 3 Management in an Organization
- Unit 4 perspectives of organizational behaviour (o.b.)
- Unit 5 Principles and Practices in an Organisations

MODULE 3

- Unit 1 Roles and Role Expectations
- Unit 2 Management of Change
- Unit 3 Power and Control
- Unit 4 The Concept of Status and Occupational Prestige
- Unit 5 Work Groups

MODULE 4

- Unit 1 Communication in Organisations
- Unit 2 Money as Reward for Reinforcement
- Unit 3 Organisational Structure
- Unit 4 Forms of Relationship in Organization
- Unit 5 The Basics of Behavior Modification

MODULE 5

- Unit 1 The Science of Behavior Analysis and Modification
- Unit 2 Defining the Behavior and Setting Goals
- Unit 3 Basic Operant Conditioning Principles/Procedures and Respondent Conditioning and Observational Learning
- Unit 4 Extinction and Spontaneous Recovery

THE MODULES

The course is divided into five modules. The first module addresses the following dimensions of organizational behaviour: management, the

stuff of organizational behaviour, principles and practices in organizations, roles and role expectation and management of changes. The second module deals with influencing forces of behaviour in an organization including, power and control, the concept of status and occupational prestige, perception, personality concept and work groups. The third and the last module consist of five units including: communication in Organizations, motivation, motivational processes, money and organizational structure.

ASSIGNMENT

Each unit consists of at least one assignment which you are expected to attempt.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

You are expected to apply what you have learnt in the contents of the study unit to do the assignments and send them to your tutor for grading.

FINAL WRITTEN EXAMINATION

This will be done at the end of the course.

SUMMARY

This course, PAD 304(Administrative Behaviour), exposes you to the theory of organization and the concept of staff morale and job performance. On successful completion of the course, you should have equipped yourself to face on-the-job challenges that may come your way.

MAIN COURSE

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MODULE 1 CONCEPT ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Meaning of administrative behavior
 - 1.3.2 Types of Behaviour in Administrative Organization
 - 1.3.3 Forms of Administrative Behaviors
- 1.4 Principles of Good Administrative Behaviour
 - 1.4.1 Behavioral conduct in public Organization
- 1.5 Administrative Decision Making
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

You have heard the term Administrative Behaviour overtime. But you don't actually know the meaning. This unit will discuss the concept of Concept of Administrative Behaviour, Meaning of administrative behavior, types of Behaviour in Administrative Organization, Forms of Administrative Behaviors, Principles of Good Administrative Behaviour, Behavioral conduct in public Organization and Decision Making in administrative organization.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of administrative behavior;
- Identify types of Behaviour in Administrative Organization
- State the Forms of Administrative Behaviors
- Itemize the Principles of Good Administrative Behaviour
- Explain the Behavioral conduct in public Organization
- Discuss the Decision Making



1.3 Concept of Administrative

1.3.1 Meaning of administrative behavior

Studying how bureaucracies make their choices is what we call "administrative behaviour" (Simon, 2001). The term "administrative behaviour" refers to a broad framework for understanding how organisations function. Herbert Simon is widely acknowledged as the creator of the idea, which is based on his unconventional observations of organisational behaviour in contrast to standard approaches. There are two major ideas connected to the concept of administrative behaviour, and both are credited to Simon. The idea of bounded rationality is the first. The concept of bounded rationality acknowledges the human brain's cognitive limits. In his book *Models of My Life*, Simon argues that most people are only somewhat rational, and that the rest of their actions are driven more by emotion and irrationality. The author also notes that "bounded rational beings encounter restrictions in articulating and solving complex issues and in processing (receiving, storing, retrieving, and transferring) information" in another piece of writing (Williamson, 2018). Keeping with the spirit of fairly rigorous formalisation, Simon outlines a number of aspects along which "classical" models of rationality can be rendered slightly more realistic. Among these include the potential for a "vector" or "multi-valued" utility function, a recognition of the expenses associated with collecting and processing information, and the limitation of the types of utility functions that could exist.

The theory of administrative behaviour also includes the concept of "satisficing," which is the second topic we'll cover. The term "satisficing" refers to a pattern of behaviour in which one aims for less than the ideal value of a variable in question rather than for the ideal value itself. The most prevalent use of the idea is in the field of administration, which, in contrast to classical economic analyses, posits that businesses should view profit not as something to be maximised but as a necessary evil to be overcome. Although these views agree that enterprises must make a profit, beyond a certain point in time, other objectives take precedence.

1.3.2 Types of behaviour in Administrative Organization

The five types of behaviour most often in the organisational behaviour literature are:

- task performance,
- organizational citizenship,
- counterproductive work behaviours,

- joining and staying with the organisation, and
- work attendance

1.3.3 Forms of Administrative Behaviors

The survey items were categorized into four subgroups of administrative behaviors:

1. emotional,
2. environmental,
3. technical, and
4. instructional

The administrative behaviors of most value to the special education teachers were those that were emotional in nature. Some of the examples of administrative behavior are: conflict, communication, cooperation, creativity, play, social interaction, tradition, and work.

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

1. Explain the concept of administrative behavior
2. identify the types of behaviour in Administrative Organization
3. State the forms of Administrative Behaviors

1.4 Principles of Good Administrative Behaviour

Parliamentary and Health service ombudsman.org.uk (2022) identified Good Administrative Behaviour as:

1. “Getting it right by acting in accordance with the law and with regard for the rights of those concerned. Acting in accordance with the public body’s policy and guidance (published or internal).
2. Taking proper account of established good practice.
3. Providing effective services, using appropriately trained and competent staff.
4. Taking reasonable decisions, based on all relevant considerations.
5. Being customer focused
6. Ensuring people can access services easily.
7. Informing customers what they can expect and what the public body expects of them.
8. Keeping to its commitments, including any published service standards.
9. Dealing with people helpfully, promptly and sensitively, bearing in mind their individual circumstances.
10. Responding to customers’ needs flexibly, including, where appropriate, co-ordinating a response with other service providers.
11. Being open and accountable

12. Being open and clear about policies and procedures and ensuring that information, and any advice provided, is clear, accurate and complete.
13. Stating its criteria for decision making and giving reasons for decisions.
14. Handling information properly and appropriately.
15. Keeping proper and appropriate records.
16. Taking responsibility for its actions.
17. Acting fairly and proportionately
18. Treating people impartially, with respect and courtesy.
19. Treating people without unlawful discrimination or prejudice, and ensuring no conflict of interests.
20. Dealing with people and issues objectively and consistently.
21. Ensuring that decisions and actions are proportionate, appropriate and fair. 5 Putting things right
22. Acknowledging mistakes and apologising where appropriate.
23. Putting mistakes right quickly and effectively.
24. Providing clear and timely information on how and when to appeal or complain.
25. Operating an effective complaints procedure, which includes offering a fair and appropriate remedy when a complaint is upheld.
26. Seeking continuous improvement
27. Reviewing policies and procedures regularly to ensure they are effective.
28. Asking for feedback and using it to improve services and performance.
29. Ensuring that the public body learns lessons from complaints and uses these to improve services and performance. These Principles are not a checklist to be applied mechanically.
30. Public bodies should use their judgment in applying the Principles to produce reasonable, fair and proportionate results in the circumstances.
31. The Ombudsman will adopt a similar approach in deciding whether maladministration or service failure has occurred”.

1.4.1 Behavioral Conduct in Public Organization

1. Adhere to Rule of Law

Every government agency has a duty to uphold the law and protect the rights of its constituents. They need to follow the guidelines set forth by the service they are providing as well as any laws they are subject to. In other words, they need to adhere to the rules and regulations set forth by their own organisation, be they formal or informal.

In matters of clinical care, for instance, government agencies must adhere to widely accepted quality standards or to accepted best practice.

Governments should be open to the idea that there may be times when trying something new can yield a better outcome or service. They should document the reasoning behind any deviations from known good practise, quality standards, or even their own guidelines.

2. Citizens-Centered

Services provided by government agencies should be efficient and delivered by qualified personnel. They need to give new policies and procedures plenty of thought before implementing them. In cases where a public agency must adhere to specific requirements because of legislation or because of the publication of service standards, it is imperative that it allocates sufficient resources to do so. Decisions made by government agencies should be consistent with the law. When making a call, it's important to weigh the available data and just pay attention to the most pertinent information.

Governments must always weigh the potential consequences of their actions. As expected, they should be careful and ethical while spending taxpayer dollars. Also, government agencies should be fair and reasonable in their risk assessments.

Governments ought to make it simple for the general public to obtain the services they offer. Information concerning the service must be correct, comprehensive, and easy to comprehend, and there must be transparent policies and procedures.

The goal of any public service organisation should be to make its constituents aware of their rights, the services they can and cannot expect from the organisation, and their own obligations. When given a mandate, public agencies should follow through on their commitments. If they say they'll do something, they should follow through or provide an explanation. They need to either provide the promised level of service or inform their clients of the reason why they will not.

Government agencies should act in a helpful manner by responding to citizens quickly, within a reasonable time frame, and within any time constraints that may be outlined in official documents. When something is going to take longer than the public body has said or than people can reasonably expect, they should let the public know. Governments should use language that is accessible to the public and tailored to individual needs when disseminating information.

As a matter of policy, government agencies ought to treat citizens with compassion, taking their unique requirements into account and adapting their responses accordingly. If they are unable to assist a client, they should send them to an other provider or work with them to find one that can.

3. Transparent and Responsible

Everything that may legally be disclosed should be, and the government should operate as publicly as possible. Clear, accurate, comprehensive,

relevant, and timely information and guidance, when provided by public bodies, is a basic human right.

Institutions of public trust must provide transparent and honest explanations for the choices they make and the results they achieve. They should explain how they arrived at their conclusions and what factors they considered.

Governing bodies have a responsibility to process and handle data in a transparent and lawful manner. Therefore, public bodies should be open and honest about their policies and procedures, but they must also comply with the law and protect the privacy of citizens' sensitive data.

For accountability purposes, public authorities must document their actions with records that can be used afterwards. To make sure that documents can be recovered when needed and are retained for the required amount of time (either due to law or business necessity), they should be managed in accordance with accepted standards.

4. Justice and fairness

Doing what's right, It is imperative that government agencies treat citizens with dignity and fairness at all times. They need to be able to hear the concerns of their customers without getting defensive. Governments should not discriminate against its citizens. They need to be able to relate to their varied clientele, appreciate their differences, and treat everyone fairly.

Any conflict of interest must be disclosed in order to ensure that a public body's actions and decisions are not influenced by any personal bias or interests. No government agency should take any action that unfairly benefits or disadvantages any group of people or group of interests.

Each individual should receive the same treatment as everyone else in a similar situation. The specifics of each situation are what should be used to determine whether or not a deviation from standard practise is warranted.

Public organisations should act appropriately when making judgments, especially when imposing fines, and make sure that any actions they take are proportionate to the goals sought, reasonable under the circumstances, and fair to the individuals involved.

If the rigorous application of the law, regulations, or processes would result in an unfair outcome for an individual, the public entity should work to rectify the situation. Of course, when doing so, government agencies must not go beyond their authority or risk mismanaging taxpayer dollars.

5. Putting Things Right

When errors are made, government agencies should apologise, offer an explanation, and take immediate action to rectify the situation.

To make things right, it may be necessary to review any wrong judgments and to review and revise any policies and processes deemed ineffective, unworkable, or unfair, with due notification before making any significant changes.

Although statutory obligations and service standards have been satisfied, the activities of a well-run public entity may still have a greater impact on an individual due to their unique circumstances. Government agencies need to be aware of this and ready to respond flexibly to prevent or rectify any unintended consequences.

Those in authority should make it easy for citizens to file appeals and complaints by providing clear and timely information about those processes. They need to explain how grievances can be addressed internally or by an impartial third party. For customers who may feel overwhelmed by the complaints procedure, it may be helpful to provide information about additional support options.

If a complaint is filed against a government agency, that agency should have a complaints mechanism in place that conducts a prompt, complete investigation into the allegation and offers a variety of remedies to the complainant and others in a similar position if the complaint is upheld. The public entity shall provide an explanation and apology to the complainant, take corrective action, compensate the complainant monetarily, or some combination of these as part of an adequate range of remedies. The recommended remedy ought to work toward putting the complainant in the same position they would have been in had the problem never occurred. In cases when it isn't practicable, as is almost often the case, the remedy provided should nonetheless be commensurate with the complainant's actual harm.

6. Improving efficiency

Policies and procedures should be reviewed frequently to ensure efficacy, feedback should be actively sought and welcomed (both positive and negative), feedback should be used to improve public service delivery and performance, and lessons learned from complaints should be captured and reviewed to inform future service development.

1.5 Administrative Decision Making

Administrative decision making, in the context of public service, can be seen as the process of applying general principles to particular cases.

The administrative decision-making procedure involves both routine administrative duties and acts with known legal consequences.

Decision making, according to Herbert Simon's notion, is the process of settling one's own mind on a particular opinion or action. entails picking one possible course of action out of a set of two or more. All considerations are given to the policy in place before a choice is taken. A policy is comprehensive, has far-reaching effects, and is implemented repeatedly. A ruling is applicable just to a single issue and its application is discontinuous.

Simon argues that investigating the working and managerial personnel is crucial. Managers must have the authority to motivate workers toward more cooperative and productive actions. Understanding the organization's inner workings requires looking at how its personnel are influenced both by and within the company.

Decision-making modes in organizations:

A subordinate who is under a superior's authority will do as he is told without needing convincing. Loyalties to one's organisation mean that a person sees himself as part of that group and acts in ways that benefit that group.

Efficient decision making is based on a number of characteristics, the most important of which is efficiency.

Individuals have the right to get advice and information in order to make educated decisions. Participant satisfaction with their own decision-making increases with training.

The classical school of thought disregarded decision making as an integral part of management alongside more traditional tasks like planning, organizing, and coordinating. They cared about decision making only as it related to power distribution and delegation. Taylor claimed that the scientific method was the best tool for choosing courses of action.

For Simon, making decisions is a holistic process that includes everything from "POSDCORB" to "POCCC" and everything in between. He disagreed with the conventional view that there are universal administrative principles.

In order to make decisions, according to Simon:

There are two pillars upon which every choice rests: (i) objective facts established via observation and (ii) subjective claims of value.

Higher-level Value is concerned with the choosing of ultimate goals, whereas lower-level Fact is concerned with the actual carrying out of those aims.

Decision-Making Process Steps:

As a form of intelligence work, identifying decision-making opportunities is a key task. People conduct assessments of the ecological, technological, political, and social environments to spot changes that necessitate action.

Individuals devote significantly more time in this activity to coming up with, creating, and constructing potential courses of action for handling situations that call for a decision.

Choosing a solution to a problem from among several possible options that have been thought through and evaluated for their effects is a choice activity.

At every stage, you'll have to make intricate choices. Again, a new intelligence phase may be required during the design process. Intelligence, decision making, and free will may all break down into sub-problems.

Simon thinks that a manager who is tasked with both ordinary tasks and long-term planning prioritises the former. So, routine eliminates spontaneity.

Types of decision	Traditional technique	Modern technique
Programmed i.e. routine, repetitive, organization develops specific process for handling them	Habit, clerical routine method	operation research, analysis models, computer simulations, electronic data processing
Non programmed i.e. one shot, ill structured, novel, policy decisions handled by general problem solving process	judgment, intuition, creativity, rule of thumb	heuristic problem solving applied to training human decision makers, constructing heuristic computer programs

Source: <https://upscfever.com/upsc-fever/en/pubad/en-pub-chp21.html>
 Simon viewed rationality as "Selection of preferred behavior alternatives in terms of value whereby the consequences of behavior can be evaluated".

Component of a decision:

Objectively rational: Maximize given values in a given situation

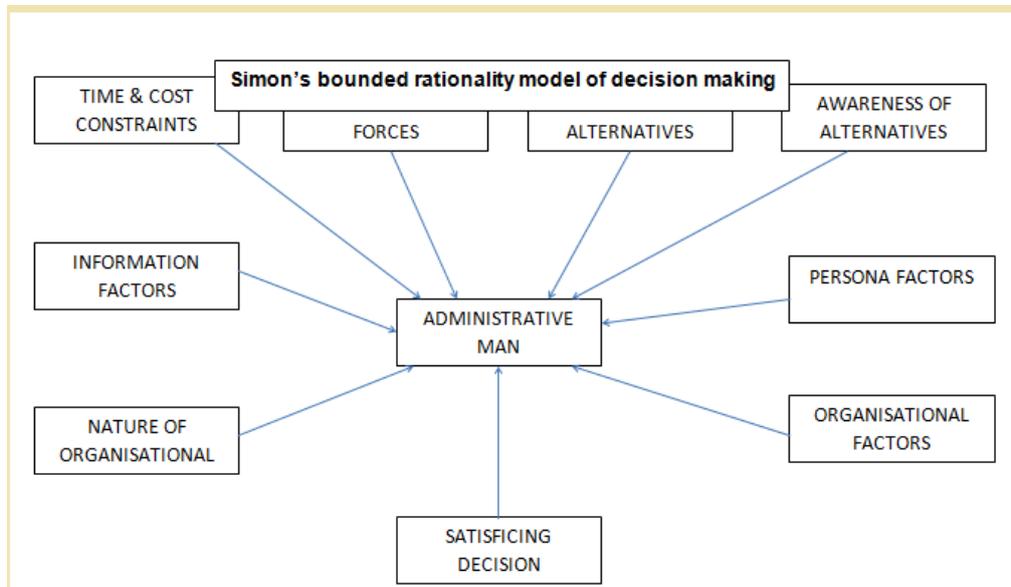
Subjectively rational: Maximize attainment relative to a actual knowledge of subject
 Consciously rational: Adjustment of means to ends is a conscious process.

Deliberately rational: Adjustment of means to ends is deliberately brought about.

Organizationally rational: Its oriented to organizations goals.

Personally rational: Oriented to individuals goals.

Total rationality is impossible hence we can't have 'maximizing decisions'. Human behavior in an organization is characterized by 'bounded rationality' leading to 'satisfying decisions'.



Source: <https://upscfever.com/upsc-fever/en/pubad/en-pub-chp21.html>

In view of the limitations Simon proposes the administrative man against the model of economic man who takes maximizing decisions. Administrative man chooses between alternatives and selects one that is good enough.

Recognizes the world he perceives is simplified model of the real world.
 Can make a decision using Rule of Thumb as he treat world as empty.
 Can make decisions by considering the alternatives are all possible cases as he only satisfies.

Critics to Simon's theory have claimed that fact, value distinction is in a new way revising the politic administrative dichotomy and considers bureaucracy as a neutral instrument. C. Argyris observes that Simon hasn't considered role of intuition, tradition, faith in decision making. He said Simon's theory uses 'satisfying decisions' to rationalize incompetence.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

1. Itemize the Principles of Good Administrative Behaviour
2. Explain the Behavioral conduct in public Organization
3. Discuss the Decision Making



1.6 Summary

The unit discussed the concept of Administrative Behaviour, meaning of administrative behavior, types of Behaviour in Administrative Organization, Forms of Administrative Behaviors, Principles of Good Administrative Behaviour, Behavioral conduct in public Organization and Decision Making in administrative organization. Studying how bureaucracies make their choices is what we call "administrative behaviour" (Simon, 2001). The term "administrative behaviour" refers to a broad framework for understanding how organisations function. Herbert Simon is widely acknowledged as the creator of the idea, which is based on his unconventional observations of organisational behaviour in contrast to standard approaches

The five types of behaviour most often in the organisational behaviour literature are:

1. task performance,
2. organizational citizenship,
3. counterproductive work behaviours,
4. joining and staying with the organisation, and
5. work attendance

Good Administrative Behaviour as:

1. Getting it right by acting in accordance with the law and with regard for the rights of those concerned. Acting in accordance with the public body's policy and guidance (published or internal).
2. Taking proper account of established good practice.
3. Providing effective services, using appropriately trained and competent staff.
4. Taking reasonable decisions, based on all relevant considerations.
5. Being customer focused
6. Ensuring people can access services easily

Behavioral conducts in public Organization are:

Adhere to Rule of Law

Citizens-Centered

Transparent and Responsible

Justice and fairness

Putting Things Right

Improving effective

Administrative decision making in the context of public service, can be seems as the process of applying general principles to particular cases. The administrative decision-making procedure involves both routine administrative duties and acts with known legal consequences.

Decision making, according to Herbert Simon's notion, is the process of settling one's own mind on a particular opinion or action. entails picking one possible course of action out of a set of two or more. All considerations are given to the policy in place before a choice is taken. A policy is comprehensive, has far-reaching effects, and is implemented repeatedly. A ruling is applicable just to a single issue and its application is discontinuous.

Simon argues that investigating the working and managerial personnel is crucial. Managers must have the authority to motivate workers toward more cooperative and productive actions. Understanding the organization's inner workings requires looking at how its personnel are influenced both by and within the company

Decision-Making Process Steps:

As a form of intelligence work, identifying decision-making opportunities is a key task. People conduct assessments of the ecological, technological, political, and social environments to spot changes that necessitate action.

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Choosing a solution to a problem from among several possible options that have been thought through and evaluated for their effects is a choice activity.

At every stage, you'll have to make intricate choices. Again, a new intelligence phase may be required during the design process. Intelligence, decision making, and free will may all break down into sub-problems



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answer to SAEs 1

1. Administrative Behaviour is how bureaucracies make their choices is what we call "administrative behaviour" (Simon, 2001). The term "administrative behaviour" refers to a broad framework for understanding how organisations function. Herbert Simon is widely acknowledged as the creator of the idea, which is based on his unconventional observations of organisational behaviour in contrast to standard approaches

2. The five types of behaviour most often in the organisational behaviour literature are:

- i. task performance,
- ii. organizational citizenship,
- iii. counterproductive work behaviours,
- iv. joining and staying with the organisation, and
- v. work attendance

3. Forms of administrative behaviors:

- i. emotional,
- ii. environmental,
- iii. technical, and
- iv. instructional

Answer to SAEs 2

1. Good Administrative Behaviour as:

- i. Getting it right by acting in accordance with the law and with regard for the rights of those concerned. Acting in accordance with the public body's policy and guidance (published or internal).
- ii. Taking proper account of established good practice.
- iii. Providing effective services, using appropriately trained and competent staff.
- iv. Taking reasonable decisions, based on all relevant considerations.
- v. Being customer focused
- vi. Ensuring people can access services easily

2. Behavioral conducts in public Organization are:

Adhere to Rule of Law

Citizens-Centered

Transparent and Responsible

Justice and fairness

Putting Things Right

Improving effective

3. Administrative decision making

Administrative decision making in the context of public service, can be seems as the process of applying general principles to particular cases. The administrative decision-making procedure involves both routine administrative duties and acts with known legal consequences.

Decision making, according to Herbert Simon's notion, is the process of settling one's own mind on a particular opinion or action. entails picking one possible course of action out of a set of two or more. All considerations are given to the policy in place before a choice is taken. A policy is comprehensive, has far-reaching effects, and is implemented repeatedly. A ruling is applicable just to a single issue and its application is discontinuous.

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Decision-Making Process Steps:

As a form of intelligence work, identifying decision-making opportunities is a key task. People conduct assessments of the ecological, technological, political, and social environments to spot changes that necessitate action.

Individuals devote significantly more time in this activity to coming up with, creating, and constructing potential courses of action for handling situations that call for a decision.

UNIT 2 ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION MAKING

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Administrative Behaviour in Organizational Decision Making
 - 1.3.1 The equilibrium of the organization
 - 1.3.2 Loyalties and Identification
- 1.4 Limitations of Administrative theory
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

"Administrative Behavior" is one most significant book which shaped my thinking around decision making, information processing, Organizations and Rationality. It asserts that "decision-making is the heart of the administration, and that the vocabulary of administrative theory must be derived from the logic and psychology of human choice", and it attempts to describe administrative organizations "in a way that will provide the basis for scientific analysis".



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine the term administrative behavior in Organizational Decision Making;
- Concepts of Functions of Executive Extended and limitations;



1.3 Administrative Behaviour in Organizational Decision Making

Administrative Behavior laid the foundation for the economic movement known as the Carnegie School. If we recognize the forays made by the Chester I. Barnard upon the conceptualization of the Organizational framework as the first meaningful scratches; then the

Administrative Behavior written by Herbert A. Simon in 1947 can be described as the first real attempt to build upon the dent made by Barnard. This book is a real structural explanation of organization. This explanation is the first behavioral framework of organization which deviated from Gullick, Waldo and likes who were more concerned with the mechanical designing of the Organizational structure and its principles.

The framework of Organization given by Barnard stops after philosophizing the need for cooperation, the system of the communication process, the theory of authority and concepts of executive functions and processes. Simon moved a step ahead of Barnard, taking off from the place where Barnard landed his thoughts of Organizations.

If cooperation is the key around which Barnard moved his concepts of organizations, Administrative Behavior anchored around the decision-making process and oiled by the logical positivism. Simon tries to move away from Barnard in the sense that he moves more towards an empirical base from the philosophical base.

While reading Administrative Behavior, it is worth keeping "Functions of Executive" written by Barnard nearby. Administrative Behavior can be classified into two segments:

I. Concepts of Functions of Executive extended: - In the first segment come the following **Two Concepts**:

a. **The equilibrium of the organization**

b. **Loyalties and Identification**

II. Limitations of 'Functions of Executive' Concepts and New Proposed Alternatives: -In the second segment, Simon at times differs from the Barnard and gives completely different postulates. He proposes new thoughts in the following seven areas:

a) Limitations of Administrative theory

b) Decision Making

c) Bounded Rationality

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What is the term administrative behavior? Discuss
2. Explain decision making?

1.3.1 The equilibrium of the organization

While discussing the requirement for the maintenance of the balance between the goals of various stakeholders of the organisation, Administrative Behavior broadly concurs with Barnard. Simon, however, goes into considerably more detail and develops this idea beyond the straightforward equilibrium that Baranrd discussed.

Contribution equals Inducements + (Organizing Benefits - Disadvantages)

The concept of numerous decision-making criteria, role behaviour, interpersonal differences, automation and alienation, size and growth of the organisation, and role behaviour are all topics that are covered in more detail by administrative behaviour.

The power is not evenly distributed among the stakeholders, as Simon correctly recognised, and there will always be one or more stakeholders who have the most influence on the company. According to his theory, the dominating group will be opportunistic and motivated by the conservation of resources, and the above equilibrium will resemble Contribution equals Inducements plus C plus (Organizing Benefits - Organizational Costs where C is the conserved contribution balance the foundation for the organisations' continued existence is provided by the sum "C" conserved.

1.3.2 Loyalties and Identification

Simon was completely unambiguous in his approach while discussing the concept of Social value and Organizational value. The conflict which could arise in organization due to differences in alternatives which could result from these two bases was rightly discussed in this book. This gives rise to the importance of the "Impersonality of Organization Decisions". Here comes the significance of inducement in substituting the organizational value scale for personal value scale as the correctness of the decision. The zone of acceptance plays a significant role here.

1.4 Limitations of 'Functions of Executive' Concepts and New Proposed Alternatives

In the second segment, Simon at times differs from the Barnard and gives completely different postulates. He proposes new thoughts in the following seven areas:

- a) Limitations of Administrative theory
- b) Decision Making
- c) Bounded Rationality
- d) Communication
- e) Role of Authority
- f) Efficiency
- g) Anatomy of Organization

a) Limitations of Administrative theory

Administrative Behavior is very much critical of classical administrative theory and just stops sort of rejecting them altogether. The book dwelt upon the conflicts inherent into the principles of the Specialization, Unity of Command and Span of Control concepts at a great length.

The one-paragraph where Simon describes the defects of the principles of administration as fatal summarizes the criticality of Simon's approach towards those principles:

"It is a fatal defect of the current principles of administration that, like proverbs, they occur in pair. For almost every principle, one can find an equally plausible and acceptable contradictory principle. Although the two principles of the pair will lead to exactly opposite organizational recommendations, there is nothing in the theory to indicate which is the proper one to apply."

This criticism is much more based upon the mechanical approach taken by the classical administrative theorists than upon the concepts per se. The book accepts the usefulness of the principles of administrative theory as the proverbs but refuses to recognize them as principles.

Here Simon recognizes the role of various limits of the individuals and organizations which limits the usefulness of the principles postulated by the classical administration theorists. The concept of free will, purpose and power of choice proposed by Barnard seems to be the basis from where Simon draws his thoughts and says that there is the limit upon the rationality of the individuals. Hence, they cannot behave as per the rationality principles of classical administrative theorists.

b) Decision Making

Suppose the "Purpose" was the element which gelled together with the various concepts of "Functions of Executives". In that case, it is the "Decision Making" which gelled together with the concepts of "Administrative Behavior". Simon talked about two elements of Decision Making, i.e. Factual and Value Element. Simon seems to postulate that administration is concerned with a higher degree of 'Factual Element' and Policy is concerned with a higher degree of 'Value Element'. Further, he seemed to link legislator with value element and administrator with the factual element.

Nevertheless, he was extremely pertinent in accepting the inseparability of these two elements. He discussed the value element as ethical questions. It is this inseparability of two elements which puts a different kind of limits and demands upon organizations, its members and systems.

However his theory is criticized for this same inseparability factor, Waldo and Argyris have criticized him for taking a very idealistic stand. They said that Simon seems to live in a very narrow world and the mere fact of the inseparability of the two elements nullifies the distinction put forward by Simon and hence the applicability of his concepts objectively is doubtful.

While Barnard said that every individual hates "decision making"; Simon seems to differ from Barnard when he says that "Decision Making" is "Satisficing Experience".

c) Bounded Rationality

This is the most powerful concept which can be said to be the core of this book. It looks similar to the concept of free will, purpose and power of choice postulated by Barnard. However, it is quite a different approach in terms of its explanation based upon the logical positivism. The book talks about the triangle of limits which bounds the area of rationality. The three limits are:

- i) The individual is limited by skills, habits, and reflexes, Which are no longer in the realm of consciousness.
- ii) The individual is limited by his values and those conceptions of purpose, Which influence him in making his decisions.
- iii) The individual is limited by the extent of his knowledge of things relevant to his job.

Further, he says that these are not the only limits which bound the rational Behavior. The limits of rationality are variable limits and consciousness of the limits may in itself alter them.

Further, while discussing the psychology of administrative behavior Simon states that it is impossible for the behavior of a single isolated individual to attain a high degree of rationality. He postulates that actual behavior falls short of objective rationality in three ways

- i) Incompleteness of knowledge
- ii) Difficulties of Anticipation
- iii) The Scope of Behavioral possibilities

d) Communication

This is one concept where Simon seems to differ comprehensively from Barnard. The concept is much more comprehensive and includes not only top-down and bottom-up approach but also parallel channels of communication. The concept of information, information sources, and their importance in communication channel design are dealt at a great length. The book is very much pertinent when it recognizes that there is hardly any need for communication when information source and decision-making authority is the same, and there is really no need for organization in that case.

The book also recognizes the well documented and researched concept of "Importance of Motivation" and "Importance of Power" on the communication process. The book describes that individual will pass on the information through a communication channel or withhold the same depending upon his motives which is quite an interesting observation. Few more contributions of this book which are of great importance to Organizations are:

- i) Organization of Decision Centers
- ii) Organization Memory

iii) Investigatory Facilities

Of these, the concept of "Organizational Memory" was revolutionary from that point of time when very little was said and researched about the same. This is one area where a whole lot of research has been carried out since then, and still, the organizations are grappling with the problem of improving and building a system of Organizational Memory. Simon makes an interesting point when he recognized human resources turnover as the greatest enemy of organizational memory.

The book is exceptionally elaborate in its approach while discussing the impact of communication on Organizational Learning. The ways organizations learn, the structure of roles, and Innovations are discussed at great length. These thoughts have developed an entirely new set of areas upon which a significant no. of books and articles have been written to date. They still provide the framework for organizational innovations, organizational learning research, whether in business organizations or academic world.

e) Role of Authority

Simon is entirely in sync with Barnard on this concept while defining authority as being delegated by the subordinated to superior. Still, at the same time, he seems to differ also when he recognized a few other reasons which lead to acceptance of authority. These other reasons are:

i) Social Sanctions

ii) Psychological differences between individuals

iii) Joint Purpose

Of the above three reasons, the second was of extremely high importance when Simon recognized the importance of personality traits in the determination of an individual's behavior. He postulated that there are a group of people who like to be lead, and there are others who like to lead.

Further, he postulated that use of authority decreases the authority of the position, and one should try to make use of persuasion and influence to the maximum. The book rightly points out three functions of the authority, namely, enforcement of responsibility of the individual using authority, secures expertise in making of decisions, and coordination of activity.

Simon gave broader meaning to the concept of Unity of Command. He seemed to be taking this concept away from the narrower meaning attached to it by the classical administrative theorist.

The question of the hierarchy of authority and division of authority discussed is encyclopedic in its treatment of the concept. It included the concept of rank, emergence of conflicts, handling of conflicts, and application of sanctions. Simon suggested the use of positive incentives to enforce authority instead of the use of authority itself. He seems to be agreeing with the zone of indifference concept postulated by Barnard

when discussing limitations of authority. However, Simon gave a different name to this, i.e. 'Zone of Acceptance'

f) Efficiency

Simon describes his man as the satisfying man who works with the limited alternatives and rationality and not as the economic man postulated by economists, which is quite explanatory of limits of decision-making behaviour. He described the use of the budget as the efficiency criterion in detail. He emphasized upon the factual elements of decision making along with the value elements of the same as efficiency criterion.

To me, the book does not seem to be taking any position on this. He seems to be vacillating between economic efficiency criterion and his philosophy of satisficing man and value element of decision making. At this point, however, the motives and explanations seem to be different, but examples are similar to that of economic efficiency criterion. However, the future writings of Simon have cleared this air, but in this book, he has not come out with the alternative efficiency criterion.

The book seems to be overly biased when it seems to neglect any other efficiency criterion for a commercial organization other than profit. Research suggests that profit is a criterion to judge the commercial organizations. However, they are affected by other stakeholders criterion also, and many commercial organizations have doomed by taking a single efficiency criterion of profit.

g) Anatomy of Organization

This part of the book also suffers from the same lacunae as the efficiency criterion. The book discusses various bits and pieces of the organization, its mechanisms and processes but fails to come up with any concrete shape of the organization.

However, this criticism is also accepted in a sense by Simon when he said that this book is not prescribing any particular theory but rather is a way of thinking and an approach.

The book talked about half a century of development of organizational theories, Individual and Group Rationality, the importance of Organizational Location, Planning Process, Centralization vs Decentralization, and Influence etc. but somehow fails to come up with any "Next Step".

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1. | List concepts of Functions of Executive Extended |
| 2. | Itemize the Limitations of 'Functions of Executive' Concepts and New Proposed Alternatives |



1.6 Summary

“This unit discussed how Administrative Behavior" is one most significant book which shaped my thinking around decision making, information processing, Organizations and Rationality. The framework of Organization given by Barnard stops after philosophizing the need for cooperation, the system of the communication process, the theory of authority and concepts of executive functions and processes. Simon moved a step ahead of Barnard, taking off from the place where Barnard landed his thoughts of Organizations.”



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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Nicholas P. Lovrich; "The Simon/Argyris Debate: Bounded Rationality vs Self Actualization conception of Human Nature"; PAQ Winter 1989

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Terence R. Mitchell & William G. Scott; "The Barnard-Simon Contribution: A Vanished Legacy"; PAQ Fall 1988.



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Administrative Behavior laid the foundation for the economic movement known as the Carnegie School.

If we recognize the forays made by the Chester I. Barnard upon the conceptualization of the Organizational framework as the first meaningful scratches; then the Administrative Behavior written by Herbert A. Simon in 1947 can be described as the first real attempt to build upon the dent made by Barnard. This book is a real structural explanation of organization. This explanation is the first behavioral framework of organization which deviated from Gullick, Waldo and likes who were more concerned with the mechanical designing of the Organizational structure and its principles.

The framework of Organization given by Barnard stops after philosophizing the need for cooperation, the system of the communication process, the theory of authority and concepts of executive functions and processes. Simon moved a step ahead of Barnard, taking off from the place where Barnard landed his thoughts of Organizations.

If cooperation is the key around which Barnard moved his concepts of organizations, Administrative Behavior anchored around the decision-making process and oiled by the logical positivism. Simon tries to move away from Barnard in the sense that he moves more towards an empirical base from the philosophical base.

"Administrative Behavior" is one most significant book which shaped my thinking around decision making, information processing, Organizations and Rationality.

2. Decision-making is the heart of the administration, and that the vocabulary of administrative theory must be derived from the logic and psychology of human choice", and it attempts to describe administrative organizations "in a way that will provide the basis for scientific analysis

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Two Concepts:

- a) The equilibrium of the organization
- b) Loyalties and Identification

2.

- a) Limitations of Administrative theory
- b) Decision Making
- c) Bounded Rationality

d) Communication

e) Role of Authority

f) Efficiency

g) Anatomy of Organization

UNIT 3 ELEMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Organizational Behaviour
 - 1.3.1 Elements of Organisational Behaviour
 - 1.3.2 Need for Studying Organisational Behaviour
- 1.4 Approaches
 - 1.4.1 Scientific Management Approach
 - 1.4.2 Bureaucratic Approach
- 1.5 Models
- 1.6 Global Scenario
 - 1.6.1 Social Conditions
 - 1.6.2 Political Conditions
 - 1.6.3 Economic Conditions
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the contents



1.1 Introduction

In this unit we are going to know the fundamental concepts of organizational behavior and its impact on the global scenario. We are also going to study the individual factors such as personality, attitude, learning, perception, motivation and ability with respect to organizational behavior and commitment.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

- Understand the fundamental concepts of organizational behavior.
- Understand the role of individual factors in organizational behavior.



1.3 Element of Organisational Behaviour

Organisational behaviour can then define as: “The study of human behaviour in organisational settings, the interface between human behaviour and the organisational context, and the organisation itself.” The above definition has three facets – the individual behaviour, the organisation and the interface between the two. Each individual brings to an organisation a unique set of beliefs, values, attitudes and other personal characteristics and these characteristics of all individuals must interact with each other in order to create an organisational setting. The organisational behaviour is specifically concerned with work-related behaviour which takes place in organisations. In addition to understanding the on-going behavioural processes involved in their own jobs, managers must understand the basic human element of their work. Organisational behaviour offers three major ways of understanding this context; people as organisations, people as resources and people as people. Above all, organisations are people; and without people there would be no organisations. Thus, if managers are to understand the organisations in which they work, they must first understand the people who make up the organisations. As resources, people are one of an organisation’s most valuable assets. People create the organisation, guide and direct its course, and vitalise and revitalise it. People make its decisions, solve its problems, and answer its questions. As managers increasingly recognise the value of potential contributions by their employees, it will become more and more important for managers and employees to grasp the complexities of organisational behaviour.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What do you understand by organisational behaviour?
2. Define individual behaviour.

1.3.1 Elements of Organisational Behaviour

The key elements in the organisational behaviour are people, structure, technology and the environment in which the organisation operates.

People: People make up the internal and social system of the organisation. They consist of individuals and groups. The groups may be big or small; formal or informal; official or unofficial. Groups are dynamic. They work in the organisation to achieve their objectives.

Structure: Structure defines the formal relationships of the people in organisations. Different people in the organisation are performing different type of jobs and they need to be related in some structural way so that their work can be effectively co-ordinated.

Technology: Technology such as machines and work processes provide the resources with which people work and affects the tasks that they perform. The technology used has a significant influence on working relationships. It allows people to do more and better work but it also restricts people in various ways.

Environment: All organisations operate within an external environment. It is part of a larger system that contains many other elements such as government, the family and other organisations. All of these mutually influence each other in a complex system that creates a context for a group of people

1.3.2 Need for studying Organisational Behaviour

The rules of work are different from the rules of play. The uniqueness of rules and the environment of organisations forces managers to study organisational behaviour to learn about normal and abnormal ranges of behaviour. More specifically, organisational behaviour serves three purposes:

- i. What causes behaviour?
- ii. Why particular antecedents cause behaviour?
- iii. Which antecedents of behaviour can be controlled directly and which are beyond control?

A more specific and formal course in organisational behaviour helps an individual to develop a more refined, workable set of assumptions more directly relevant to his work interactions. Organisational behaviour helps in predicting human behaviour in the organisational setting by drawing a clear distinction between individual behaviour and group behaviour.

Organisational behaviour does not provide solution to all complex and multifarious behaviour puzzles of organisations. It is only the intelligent judgement of the manager in dealing with a specific issue can try to solve problem. Organisational behaviour only assists in making judgements that derived from tenable assumptions, judgement that takes into account the important variables underlying the situation; judgement that assigns due recognition to the complexity of individual or group behaviour; judgement that explicitly takes into account the managers own goals, motives, hang-ups, blind spots and frailties.

1.4 Approaches

Modern Approach to Organisational Behaviour

The modern approach to organisational behaviour is the search for the truth of why people behave the way they do and it is a delicate and complex process. If one aims to manage organisations, it is necessary to understand how they operate. Organisations combine science and people. While science and technology is predictable, the human

behaviour in organisations is rather unpredictable. This is because it arises from people's deep-seated needs and value systems.

Historical Background for Modern Organisational Behaviour

1.4.1 Scientific Management Approach:

Scientific management approach was developed by F.W. Taylor at the beginning of 20th century. This theory advocated use of certain steps in scientifically studying each element of a job, selecting and training the best workers for the job, making sure that the workers follow prescribed method of doing the job. It provided a scientific rationale for job specialisation and mass production. His assumption was that employees are motivated largely by money. To increase output, Taylor advised managers to pay monetary incentives to efficient workers. Yet, his theory was criticised by employers and workers. Workers objected to the pressure to work ever harder and faster. Critics worried that the methods took the humanity out of labour, reducing workers to machines responding to management incentives. Now the Taylor's view is considered inadequate and narrow.

1.4.2 Bureaucratic Approach:

While scientific management was focusing on the interaction between worker and task, other researchers began to study how to structure organisations more effectively. Instead of trying to make each worker more efficient, classical organisation theory sought the most effective overall organisational structure for workers and managers. The theory's most prominent advocate, Max Weber, proposed a 'bureaucratic form' of structure which he thought would work for all organisations. Weber's ideal bureaucracy was logical, rational and efficient. He made the naive assumption that one structure would work best for all organisations. Henry Ford, Henry Fayol and Frederick W. Taylor, the early management pioneers, recognised the behavioural side of management. However, they did not emphasise the human dimensions. Although there were varied and complex reasons for the emergence of the importance of the behavioural approach to management, it is generally recognised that the Hawthorne studies mark the historical roots for the field of organisational behaviour. Hawthorne Studies Even as Taylor and Weber brought attention with their rational, logical approaches to more efficient productivity, their views were criticised on the ground that both approaches ignored worker's humanity. The real beginning of applied research in the area of organisational behaviour started with Hawthorne Experiments. The findings of these studies were given a new name 'human relations. In 1924, a group of Professors such as Elton Mayo began an enquiry into the human aspects of work and working conditions at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company, Chicago. The studies brought out a number of findings relevant to understanding human behaviour at work which are as follows: The

human element in the work place was considerably more important. The workers are influenced by social factors and the behaviour of the individual worker is determined by the group. Hawthorne studies have been criticised for their research methods and conclusions drawn. But their effect on the emerging field of organisational behaviour was dramatic. They helped usher in a more human centered approach to work.

Approaches to Organisational Behaviour There are mainly four approaches to organisational behaviour. They are:

- Human resources approach
- A contingency approach
- A productivity approach
- A systems approach

Human Resources Approach:

The human resources approach is concerned with the growth and development of people towards higher levels of competency, creativity and fulfillment, because people are the central resource in any organisation. This approach helps employees become better, more responsible and then it tries to create a climate in which they may contribute to the limits of their improved abilities. This approach is also known as 'supportive approach' because the manager's primary role changes from control of employees to active support of their growth and performance.

A Contingency Approach:

A contingency approach to organisational behaviour implies that different situations require different behavioural practices for effectiveness instead of the traditional approach to one best way for all situations. Each situation must be analyzed carefully to determine the significant variables that exist in order to establish the kinds of practices that will be more effective. The strength of this approach is that it encourages analysis of each situation prior to action. Thus it helps to use in the most appropriate manner all the current knowledge about people in organisation.

Productivity Approach:

Productivity is a ratio that compares units of output with units of input. It is often measured in terms of economic inputs and outputs. If more outputs can be produced from the same amount of inputs, productivity is improved. But besides economic inputs and outputs, human and social inputs and outputs also are important.

Systems Approach:

A system is an interrelated part that interact with one another and functions as a whole. Within the organisation 'people' employ

‘technology’ in performing the ‘tasks’ that they are responsible for, while the ‘structure’ of the organisation serves as a basis for co-ordinating all their different activities.

The system view emphasizes the interdependence of each of these elements within the organisation, if the organisation as a whole is to function effectively. The other key aspect of the systems view of organisations is its emphasis on the interaction between the organisation and its broader environment which consists of social, economic, cultural and political within which they operate. Organisations are dependent upon their environment in two main ways: First, the organisation requires ‘inputs’ from the environment in the form of raw material, people, money, ideas and so on. The organisation itself can be thought of as performing certain ‘transformation processes; on its inputs in order to create outputs in the form of products or services. Secondly, the organisation depends on environment i.e., public to accept its output i.e., products/services. The systems view of organisation, thus emphasizes the key interdependencies that organisations must manage. Within themselves the organisations must trade off the interdependencies among people, tasks, technology and structure in order to perform their transformation processes effectively and efficiently. Organisations must also recognise their interdependence with the broader environments within which they exist. Contemporary Organisational Behaviour

A Separate Field of Study: Organisational behaviour can be treated as a distinct field of study. It has yet to become a science. Now efforts are being taken to synthesize principles, concepts and processes in this field of study. Interdisciplinary Approach:

Organisational behaviour is basically an interdisciplinary approach. Organisational behaviour draws heavily from other disciplines like psychology, sociology and anthropology. Besides, it also takes relevant things from economics, political science, law and history. Organisational behaviour integrates the relevant contents of these disciplines to make them applicable for organisational analysis.

For example, it addresses issues such as the following which may be relevant to the case:

- What facilitates accurate perception and attribution?
- What influences individual, group and organisational learning and the development of individual attitudes toward work?
- How do individual differences in personality, personal development, and career development affect individual’s behaviours and attitudes?
- What motivates people to work, and how does the organisation’s reward system influence worker behaviour and attitudes?
- How do managers build effective teams?
- What contributes to effective decision-making?
- What constitutes effective communication?

- What characterises effective communication?
- How can power be secured and used productively?
- What factors contribute to effective negotiations?
- How can conflict (between groups or between a manager and subordinates) be resolved or managed?
- How can jobs and organizations be effectively designed?
How can managers help workers deal effectively with change?

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. List the elements in the organisational behaviour
2. What are the Approach to Organisational Behaviour?

1.5 Models

An Organisational Behaviour System Organisations achieve their goals by creating, communicating and operating an organisational behaviour:

The major elements of a good organisational behaviour system are given in the above chart. These systems exist in every organisation, but sometimes in varying forms. They have a greater chance of being successful, though, if they have been consciously, created regularly examined and updated to meet new and emerging conditions. The primary advantage of organisational behaviour system is to identify the major human and organisational variables that affect the results they are trying to achieve. For some of these variables, managers can only be aware of them and acknowledge their impact, for others, they can exert some control over them. The end results are typically measured in various forms of performance (quantity and quality of products and services; level of customer) as well as in human outcomes, such as employee satisfaction or personal growth and development Elements of the System

The system's base rests in the fundamental beliefs and intentions of those who join together to create it (such as owners) and of the managers who currently administer it. The philosophy (model) of organisational behaviour held by management consists of an integrated set of assumptions and beliefs about the way things are, the purpose for these activities, and the way they should be. These philosophies are sometimes explicit, and occasionally implicit, in the minds of managers. Organisations differ in the quality of organisational behaviour that they develop. These differences are substantially caused by different models of organisational behaviour that dominate management's thought in each organisation. The model that a manager holds usually begins with certain assumptions about people and leads to certain interpretations of events.

The following four models of organisational behaviour are discussed here:

- Autocratic model
- Custodial model
- Supportive model; and
- Collegial model

Autocratic Model:

In the autocratic model, the manager must have the power to command the workers to do a specific job. Management believes that it knows what is best and the employee's obligation is to follow/obey orders. The psychological result for employees is dependence on their boss. It does get results, but usually only moderate results. Its main weakness is its high human cost.

Custodial Model:

This model focuses better employee satisfaction and security. The organisations satisfy the security and welfare needs of employees. Hence it is known as custodian model. This model leads to employee dependence on the organisation rather than the boss. As a result of economic rewards and benefits, employees are happy and contented but they are not strongly motivated.

Supportive Model:

The supportive model depends on 'leadership' instead of power or money. Through leadership, management provides a climate to help employees grow and accomplish in the interests of the organisation. This model assumes that employees will take responsibility, develop a drive to contribute and improve themselves if management will give them a chance. Management orientation, therefore is, to 'support' the employee's job performance rather than simply supporting employee benefit payments as in the custodial approach. Since management supports employees in their work, the psychological result is a feeling of participation and task involvement in the organisation.

Collegial Model:

The term 'collegial' relates to a body of persons having a common purpose. It is a team concept. Management is the coach that builds a better team. The management is seen as joint contributor rather than as boss. The employee response to this situation is responsibility. The psychological result of the collegial approach for the employee is 'self-discipline'. In this kind of environment employees normally feel some degree of fulfillment, worthwhile contribution and self-actualisation. This self-actualisation will lead to moderate enthusiasm in performance.

Four Models of Organisational Behaviour

	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial
Basis of Model	Power	Economic resources	Leadership	Partnership
Managerial-orientation	Authority	Money	Support	Teamwork Employee
Managerial-orientation	Obedience	Security and benefits	Job performance	Responsible behaviour
Employee psychological result	Dependence on boss	Dependence on organisation	Participation	Self-discipline
Employee needs met	Subsistence	Security	Status and recognition	Self-actualisation
Performance result	Minimum	Passive cooperation	Awakened drives	Moderate enthusiasm

It is wrong to assume that one particular model is the best model because what is best is contingent on what is known about human behaviour in a particular environment. The primary challenge for management is to identify the model it is actually using and then assess its current effectiveness.

The selection of model by a manager is determined by a number of factors. The prevailing philosophy, vision and goals of manager affect their organisational behaviour model. In addition, environmental conditions help determine which model will be most effective. The current turbulent conditions in some industries, for example, may drive firms toward the more collegial models, since rapid decision-making and flexibility are needed. This suggests that one's model should not be static and changing, but adapted across time.

1.6. Global Scenario

Social Conditions

In many countries due to poorly developed resources, there is shortage of managerial personnel, scientists and technicians. Hence needed skills must be temporarily imported from other countries, and training programmes need to be developed to prepare local workers. The training multiplier effect is in action, by which the skilled people develop others and these trained local become the nucleus for developing still more people. Another significant social condition in many countries is that the local culture is not familiar with advanced technology. A few countries are agriculture dominated and a few other manufacturing industry

dominated. Naturally, the nature of their culture and work life will be different.

Political Conditions

Political conditions that have a significant effect on organisational behaviour include instability of the Government, nationalistic drives and subordination of employers and labour to an authoritarian State. When the Government is unstable, organisations become cautious about further investments. This organisational instability leaves workers insecure and causes them to be passive and low in initiative. In spite of instability, a nationalistic drive is strong for locals to run their country and their organisations by themselves without interference by foreign nationals. In some nations, organised labour is mostly an arm of the authoritarian State and in some other nations, labour is somewhat independent. In some nations, State tends to be involved in collective bargaining and other practices affecting workers. In some nations, for example, employee lay-offs are restricted by law and in some other countries workers' participation in management is permitted.

Economic Conditions

The most significant economic conditions in less developed nations are low per capita income and rapid inflation. Inflation makes the economic life of workers insecure when compared to developed countries. The different socio-economic and political conditions prevailing in countries influence the introduction of advanced technology and sophisticated organisational systems. A developed country can easily adopt advanced technology whereas a less developed cannot do it. These limiting conditions cannot be changed rapidly because they are too well established and woven into the whole social fabric of a nation.

Managing an International Workforce Whenever an organisation expands its operations to other countries, it tends to become multicultural and will then face the challenge of blending various cultures together. The managerial personnel entering another nation need to adjust their leadership styles, communication patterns and other practices to fit their host country. Their role is to provide a fusion of cultures in which employees from both countries adjust to the new situation of seeking greater productivity for the benefit of both the organisation and the people of the country in which it operates.

Barriers to Cultural Adaptation

- One category of managers and other employees who come into a host country tend to exhibit a variety of behaviours and somewhat see situation around them from their own perspective.

They may fail to recognise key differences between their own and other cultures. These people are called ‘parochial’.

- Another category called ‘individualistic’ who place greatest emphasis on their personal needs and welfare. They are more concerned about themselves than others in host country.
- Another potential barrier to easy adaptation to another culture occurs when people are predisposed to believe that their homeland conditions are the best. This predisposition is known as the self-reference criterion or ‘ethnocentrism’. This feeling interferes with understanding human behaviour in other cultures and obtaining productivity from local employees.

Cultural Distance

To decide the amount of adaptation that may be required when personnel moves to another country, it is helpful to understand the cultural distance between the two countries,

Cultural distance is the amount of distance between any two social systems. Whatever the amount of cultural distance, it does affect the responses of all persons to business. The manager’s jobs require employees to be adaptable enough to integrate the interests of the two or more cultures involved.

Cultural Shock

When employees enter another nation, they tend to suffer cultural shock, which is the insecurity and disorientation caused by encountering a different culture. They may not know how to act, may fear losing face and self-confidence or may become emotionally upset. Cultural shock is virtually universal. Some of the more frequent reasons for cultural shock are as follows:

- i. Different management philosophies
- ii. New language • Alternative food, dress, availability of goods
- iii. Attitude towards work and productivity
- iv. Separation from family, friends and colleagues
- v. Unique currency system

Many expatriates report difficulty in adjusting to different human resource management philosophies, the language, the different currency and work attitudes in another culture.

Overcoming Barriers to Cultural Adaptation

- i. Careful selection of employees for assignments to other countries who can withstand/adjust cultural shocks is important.
- ii. Pre-departure training in geography, customs, culture and political environment in which the employee will be living will help for cultural adaptation.
- iii. Incentives and guarantees for better position will motivate employees for cultural adaptation in the new country.

- iv. Employees who return to their home country after working in another nation for sometime tend to suffer cultural shock in their own homeland. After adjusting to the culture of another nation and enjoying its uniqueness, it is difficult for expatriates to readjust to the surroundings of their home country. Hence organisations need repatriation policies and programmes to help returning employees obtain suitable assignments and adjust to the 'new' environments.

Cultural Contingencies

Productive business practices from one country cannot be transferred directly to another country. This reflects the idea of cultural contingency - that the most productive practices for a particular nation will depend heavily on its culture, the social system, economic development and employee's values in host country. Hence the expatriate managers must learn to operate effectively in a new environment with certain amount of flexibility. Labour policy, personnel practices and production methods need to be adapted to a different labour force. Organisation structures and communication patterns need to be suitable for local operations.

Management's Integrating Role Once managers are on location in a host country, their attention needs to be directed toward integrating the technological approaches with the local cultures involved.

Motivating and Leading Local Employees:

Same motivational tools may not suit the employees of all the nations. Hence appropriate motivational techniques need to be evolved depending on the requirement of employees of that particular nation. Similarly, communication problems may also arise between the expatriate manager and the employees of host country. Hence, managers need to make adjustments in their communication suited to local cultures. If local culture is ignored, the resulting imbalance in the social system interferes with the productivity.

Eventually, a cadre of employees with cross-cultural adaptability can be developed in organisations with large international operations. These employees are 'transcultural' employees because they operate effectively in several cultures. They are low in ethnocentrism and adapt readily to different cultures without major cultural shock. They usually can communicate fluently with more than one language.

Transcultural employees are especially needed in large, multinational firms that operate in a variety of national culture. For a firm to be truly multi-national in character, it should have ownership, operations, markets and managers truly diversified. Its leaders look to the world as an economic and social unit; but they recognise each local culture,

respect its integrity, acknowledge its benefits and use its differences effectively in their organisation.

Self-Assessment Exercises 3

1. Explain the three global scenarios for organisational behaviour
2. Explain cultural contingencies



1.6 Summary

This unit discussed and understand the fundamental concepts of organizational behavior, element of organisational behaviour, the need for studying organisational behaviour, different approach of organisation behaviours, models of organisational behaviours and different global scenario.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

- Barney/Griffin, “The Management of Organisations”.
- Chandan, S.Jit, “Organisational Behaviour”.
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- Van Fleet, “Behaviour in Organisations”



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

Answers to SAEs 1

1. The study of human behaviour in organisational settings, the interface between human behaviour and the organisational context, and the organisation itself.

2. Individual brings to an organisation a unique set of beliefs, values, attitudes and other personal characteristics and these characteristics of all individuals must interact with each other in order to create an organisational setting

Answers to SAEs 2

- a. People
 - b. Structure
 - c. Technology
 - d. Environment
- 2
- i. Human resources approach
 - ii. A contingency approach
 - iii. A productivity approaches
 - iv. A Systems approach

Answers to SAEs 3

1.

1. Social Conditions

In many countries due to poorly developed resources, there is shortage of managerial personnel, scientists and technicians. Hence needed skills must be temporarily imported from other countries, and training programmes need to be developed to prepare local workers. The training multiplier effect is in action, by which the skilled people develop others and these trained local become the nucleus for developing still more people. Another significant social condition in many countries is that the local culture is not familiar with advanced technology. A few countries are agriculture dominated and a few other manufacturing industry dominated. Naturally, the nature of their culture and work life will be different.

2. Political Conditions

Political conditions that have a significant effect on organisational behaviour include instability of the Government, nationalistic drives and subordination of employers and labour to an authoritarian State. When the Government is unstable, organisations become cautious about further investments. This organisational instability leaves workers insecure and causes them to be passive and low in initiative. In spite of instability, a nationalistic drive is strong for locals to run their country and their organisations by themselves without interference by foreign nationals. In some nations, organised labour is mostly an arm of the authoritarian State and in some other nations, labour is somewhat independent. In some nations, State tends to be involved in collective bargaining and other practices affecting workers. In some nations, for example,

employee lay-offs are restricted by law and in some other countries workers' participation in management is permitted.

3. Economic Conditions

The most significant economic conditions in less developed nations are low per capita income and rapid inflation. Inflation makes the economic life of workers insecure when compared to developed countries. The different socio-economic and political conditions prevailing in countries influence the introduction of advanced technology and sophisticated organisational systems. A developed country can easily adopt advanced technology whereas a less developed cannot do it. These limiting conditions cannot be changed rapidly because they are too well established and woven into the whole social fabric of a nation.

2. Cultural Contingencies

Productive business practices from one country cannot be transferred directly to another country. This reflects the idea of cultural contingency - that the most productive practices for a particular nation will depend heavily on its culture, the social system, economic development and employee's values in host country. Hence the expatriate managers must learn to operate effectively in a new environment with certain amount of flexibility. Labour policy, personnel practices and production methods need to be adapted to a different labour force. Organisation structures and communication patterns need to be suitable for local operations.

UNIT 4 INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Individual Behaviour
 - 1.3.1 What is individual behaviour?
 - 1.3.2 The Nature of Individual Differences
- 1.4 Personality Development
 - 1.4.1 Personality Factors in Organisations
 - 1.4.2 Personality Dimensions
- 1.5 Attitudes
 - 1.5.1 Components of Attitude
 - 1.5.2 Work-Related Attitudes
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The individual makes a variety of contributions to the organisation - effort, skills, ability, time, loyalty and so forth. These contributions presumably satisfy various needs and requirements of the organisation. In return for contributions, the organisation provides inducements such as pay, promotion, job security, etc. to the individual. Just as the contributions available from the individual must satisfy the organisation's needs, the inducements must serve the individual's needs. If both the individual and the organisation consider the psychological contract fair and equitable, they will be satisfied with the relationship and will likely to continue it. If either party perceives an imbalance or inequity in the contract, it may initiate a change. A major challenge faced by an organisation, thus, is to manage psychological contracts.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine individual behaviour;
- Discuss the nature of individual differences;
- Discuss types of personality development and
- Components of attitude



1.3 Introduction to Individual Behaviour

Human behaviour, a complex phenomenon as it is, is most difficult to define in absolute terms. It is primarily a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli. These responses would reflect psychological structure of the person and may be a result of combination of biological and psychological processes, interprets them, responds to them in an appropriate manner and learns from the result of these responses.

Psychologist Kurt Levin has conducted considerable research into the human behaviour and its causes. He believes that people are influenced by a number of diversified factors, both genetic and environmental, and the influence of these factors determines the pattern of behaviour. Whenever people buy something, for example, a car, both the buyer and the seller sign a contract that specifies the terms of the sales agreement. Similarly, most people, when they begin a working relationship with an organisation formulate a psychological contract with their employer.

A psychological contract is the overall set of expectations that an individual holds with respect to his/her contributions to the organisation and the organisation's response to those contributions. A psychological contract is not written down like a legal contract. The individual makes a variety of contributions to the organisation - effort, skills, ability, time, loyalty and so forth. These contributions presumably satisfy various needs and requirements of the organisation. In return for contributions, the organisation provides inducements such as pay, promotion, job security, etc. to the individual. Just as the contributions available from the individual must satisfy the organisation's needs, the inducements must serve the individual's needs. If both the individual and the organisation consider the psychological contract fair and equitable, they will be satisfied with the relationship and will likely to continue it. If either party perceives an imbalance or inequity in the contract, it may initiate a change.

A major challenge faced by an organisation, thus, is to manage psychological contracts. One specific aspect of managing psychological contracts is managing the person-job fit. The 'person-job fit' is the extent to which the contributions made by the individual match the inducements offered by the organisation. In theory, each employee has a specific set of needs to fulfill and a set of job-related behaviours and abilities to contribute. If the organisation can take complete advantage of those behaviours and abilities and exactly fulfill the employee's needs, it will have achieved a perfect person-job fit. Of course, such a precise level of person-job fit is seldom achieved due to various reasons such as imperfect selection procedures, differences in individual skills, constant change in the needs and requirements of people and organisation, etc. Thus, the behaviour of individuals in organisation is the primary concern

of management and it is essential that managers have an understanding of the factors influencing the behaviour of the individuals they manage. The following figure identifies five sets of factors that have an impact upon individual behaviour in organisation

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What is individual behaviour?
2. Discuss the major challenges forced by organisation in human behaviour?

1.3.1 The Nature of Individual Differences

Individual differences are personal attributes that vary from one person to another. Individual differences may be physical and psychological.

Psychological Differences

- i. Personality
- ii. Attitudes
- iii. Perception
- iv. Motivation
- v. Learning

Physical Differences

- i. Height
- ii. Weight
- iii. Body shape
- iv. Appearance
- v. Complexion

Whenever an organisation attempts to assess for individual differences among its employees, it must consider the situation in which behaviour occurs. Individuals who are satisfied in one context may prove to be dissatisfied in another context. Assessing both individual differences and contributions in relation to inducements and contexts, then, is a major challenge for organisations as they attempt to establish effective psychological contracts with their employees and achieve optimal fits between people and jobs.

Individual differences make the manager's job endlessly, challenging. In fact, according to recent research, "variability among workers is substantial at all levels but increases dramatically with job complexity. Due to these reasons, growing work force diversity compels managers to view individual differences in a fresh way. Leaders now talk frequently about "valuing differences" and learning to "manage diversity". So

rather than limiting diversity, as in the past, today's managers need to better understand and accommodate employee diversity and individual differences.

1.3.2 Personality

Personality Development

The personality development of an individual starts at birth and continues throughout. Three major types of factors play important roles in personality formation. They are determinants, stages and traits.

Determinants:

The most widely studied determinants of personality are biological, social and cultural. Hereditary characteristics (eg body shape and height) and the social context (family and friends) and cultural context (religion and values) in which people grow up interact to shape personality. As people grow into adulthood, their personalities become very clearly defined and generally stable.

Stages and Traits:

Sigmund Freud saw human personality development as progressing through four stages: dependent, compulsive, oedipal and mature. The concept of stages of growth provides a valuable perspective from which to view organisational behaviour. Experienced managers become aware of the stages that their employees often go through and they learn how to deal with these stages to promote maximum growth for the individual and for the organisation.

Trait approaches to personality formation are also based on psychology. According to some trait theories, all people share common traits, like social, political, religious and aesthetic preferences but each individual's disposition differentiates that person from all others.

1.4 Personality Factors in Organisations

Some of the important personality factors that determine what kind of behaviours are exhibited at work include the following:

- i. Need Pattern
- ii. Locus of Control
- iii. Introversion and Extroversion
- iv. Tolerance for Ambiguity
- v. Self-esteem and Self-concept
- vi. Authoritarianism and Dogmatism
- vii. Risk Propensity
- viii. Machiavellianism
- ix. Types A and B Personalities

x. Work-Ethic Orientation

1. Need Pattern:

Steers and Braunstein (1976) developed a scale for the four personality needs that manifest themselves in the work setting. They are: the needs for achievement, affiliation, autonomy and dominance. Those who are high in achievement engage themselves proactively in work behaviours in order to feel proud about their achievements and successes; those high in need for affiliation like to work cooperatively with others; those high in need for autonomy function best when not closely supervised; and those high in their need for dominance are very effective while operating in environments where they can actively enforce their legitimate authority.

2. Locus of Control:

Locus of control is the degree to which an individual believes that his/her behaviour has direct impact on the consequences of that behaviour. Some people, for example, believe that if they work hard, they are certain to succeed. They strongly believe that each individual is in control of his/her life. They are said to have an internal locus of control. By contrast, some people think that what happens to them is a result of fate, chance, luck or the behaviour of other people, rather than lack of skills or poor performance. Because these individuals think that forces beyond their control dictate what happens to them, they are said to have an external locus of control. As a personality attribute, locus of control has clear implications for organisations. For example, individuals with an internal locus of control may have a relatively strong desire to participate in the management of their organisations and have a freedom in how do their jobs. Thus, they may prefer a decentralised organisation where right of decision-making is given to them and a leader who provides them freedom and autonomy. They may like a reward system that recognises individual performance and contributions. People with an external locus of control, on the other hand, are likely to prefer a more centralised organisation where they need not take any decisions. They may gravitate to structured jobs where standard procedures are defined for them. They may prefer a leader who makes most of the decisions and may prefer a reward system that considers mainly seniority rather than merit.

3. Introversion and Extroversion:

Introversion is the tendency in individuals which directs them to turn inward and experience and process feelings, thoughts and ideas within themselves. Extroversion, on the other hand, refers to the tendency in individuals to turn outward of themselves searching for external stimuli with which they can interact. While there is some element of introversion as well as extroversion in all of us, people tend to be

dominant as either extroverts or introverts. Extroverts are sociable, lively, gregarious and seek outward stimuli or external interactions. Such individuals are likely to be most successful working in the sales department, publicity office, personal relations unit, and so on, where they can interact face to face with others. Introverts, on the other hand, are quiet, reflective, introspective, and intellectual people, preferring to interact with a small intimate circle of friends. Introverts are more likely to be successful when they can work on highly abstract ideas (such as R&D work), in a relatively quiet atmosphere. Since managers have to constantly interact with individuals both within and outside the organisation and influence people to achieve the organisation's goals, it is believed that extroverts are likely to be more successful as managers.

4. Tolerance for Ambiguity:

This personality characteristic indicates the level of uncertainty that people can tolerate without experiencing undue stress and can still function effectively. Managers have to work well under conditions of extreme uncertainty and insufficient information, especially when things are rapidly changing in the organisation's external environment. Managers who have a high tolerance for ambiguity can cope well under these conditions. Managers, who have a low tolerance for ambiguity may be effective in structured work settings but find it almost impossible to operate effectively when things are rapidly changing and much information about the future turn of events is not available. Thus, tolerance for ambiguity is a personality dimension necessary for managerial success.

5. Self-Esteem and Self-Concept:

Self-esteem denotes the extent to which individuals consistently regard themselves as capable, successful, important and worthy individuals. Self-esteem is an important personality factor that determines how managers perceive themselves and their role in the organisation. Self-esteem is important to self-concept, i.e. the way individuals define themselves as to who they are and derive their sense of identity. High self-esteem provides a high sense of self-concept; high self-concept, in turn, reinforces high self-esteem. Thus, the two are mutually reinforcing. Individuals high in self-esteem will try to take on more challenging assignments and be successful, thus enhancing their self-concept; i.e. they would tend to define themselves as highly valuable and valued individuals in the organisational system. The higher the self-concept and self-esteem, the greater will be their contributions to the goals of the organisation, especially when the system rewards them for their contributions.

6. Authoritarianism and Dogmatism:

Authoritarianism is the extent to which an individual believes that power and status differences are appropriate within hierarchical social systems like organisations. For example, an employee who is highly authoritarian may unquestioningly accept directives or orders from his superior with more authority. A person who is not highly authoritarian may agree to carry out appropriate and reasonable directives from his boss but is also likely to raise questions, express disagreement and even refuse to carry out requests if they are for some reason objectionable. Dogmatism is the rigidity of a person's beliefs and his/her openness to other view points. The popular terms 'close-minded' and 'open-minded' describe people who are more and less dogmatic in their beliefs. For example, a manager may be unwilling to listen to a new idea for doing something more efficiently. He is said to be a person with close-minded or highly dogmatic. A manager in the same circumstances who is very receptive to hearing about and trying out new ideas might be seen as more open-minded or less dogmatic. Dogmatism can be either beneficial or detrimental to organisations, but given the degree of change in the nature of organisations and their environments, individuals who are not dogmatic are most likely to be useful and productive organisational members.

7. Risk Propensity:

Risk-propensity is the degree to which an individual is willing to take chances and make risky decisions. A manager with a high-risk propensity might be expected to experiment with new ideas and to lead the organisation in new directions. In contrast, a manager with low-risk propensity might lead to a stagnant and overly conservative organisation.

8. Machiavellianism:

Machiavellianism is manipulation or influencing of other people as a primary way of achieving one's goal. An individual tends to be Machiavellian, if he tends to be cool, logical in assessing the system around them, willing to twist and turn facts to influence others, and try to gain control of people, events and situations by manipulating the system to his advantage.

9. Types A and B Personalities:

Type A persons feel a chronic sense of time urgency, are highly achievement-oriented, exhibit a competitive drive, and are impatient when their work is slowed down for any reason. Type B persons are easy-going individuals who do not sense the time urgency, and who do not experience the competitive drive. Type A individuals are significantly more prone to heart attacks than

Type B individuals. While Type A persons help the organisation to move ahead in a relatively short period of time, they may also suffer

health problems which might be detrimental to both themselves and the organisation in the long-run.

10. Work-Ethic Orientation:

Some individuals are highly work-oriented while others try to do the minimum that is necessary to get by without being fired on-the-job. The extremely work ethic-oriented person gets greatly involved in the job. Extreme work ethic values could lead to traits of “workoholism” when work becomes to be considered as the only primary motive for living with very little outside interests. For the workaholic, turning to work can sometimes become a viable alternative to facing non-work-related problems. Though a high level of work ethic orientation of members is good for the organisation to achieve its goals, too much “workoholism” which might lead to premature burnout and health problems is dysfunctional for both organisation and the workaholic members. The above ten different personality predispositions are important for individual, managerial and organisational effectiveness.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. What are the psychological and physical differences?

1.6 Attitude:

Simply explained, an “attitude” is an individual’s point of view or an individual’s way of looking at something, or to be more explicit, an “attitude”, may be explained, as the mental state of an individual, which prepares him to react or make him behave in a particular pre-determined way.

An attitude is defined as, “a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object”.

Attitudes are complexes of beliefs and feelings that people have about specific ideas, situations or other people. Attitudes are important because they are the mechanism through which most people express their feelings.

1.5.1 Components of Attitude

Attitudes have three components namely affective component, cognitive component and intentional component.

Affective Component

- i. How we feel toward the Situation?
- ii. Intentional Component
- iii. how we intend to behave toward the situation
- iv. Cognitive Component
- v. why we feel that way?

The affective component of an attitude reflects ‘feelings and emotions’ that an individual has toward a situation. The cognitive component of an

attitude is derived from 'knowledge' that an individual has about a situation. Finally, the intentional component of an attitude reflects how an individual 'expects to behave' toward or in the situation. For example, attitude towards a firm which supply the products irregularly as well as inferior could be described as follows:

"I don't like that company" - Affective component.

"They are the worst supply firm I have ever dealt with" - Cognitive component.

"I will never do business with them again" - Intentional component.

People try to maintain consistency among the three components of their attitudes. However, circumstances sometimes arise that lead to conflicts. The conflict that individuals may experience among their own attitudes is called 'cognitive dissonance'.

Attitude Formation and Change

Individual attitudes form over time as a result of repeated personal experiences with ideas, situations or people. Attitudes that are situationally specific and learned is one very important way to understand individual behaviour in organisations.

An attitude may change as a result of new information. A manager may have a negative attitude about a new employee because of his lack of job-related experience. After working with the new person the manager may come to realise that he is actually very talented and subsequently may develop a more positive attitude toward him.

1.5.2 Work-Related Attitudes

People in an organisation form attitudes about many things - about their salary, promotion possibilities, superior, fringe benefits, food in the canteen, uniform, etc. Especially some important attitudes are job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement.

Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction is an attitude that reflects the extent to which an individual is gratified by or fulfilled in his or her work. Extensive research conducted on job satisfaction has indicated that personal factors such as an individual's needs and aspirations determine this attitude, along with group and organisational factors such as relationships with co-workers and supervisors and working conditions, work policies and compensation.

A satisfied employee also tends to be absent less often, to make positive contributions, and to stay with the organisation. In contrast, a dissatisfied employee may be absent more often, may experience stress that disrupts co-workers, and may be continually looking for another job.

Organisational factors that influence employee satisfaction include pay, promotion, policies and procedures of the organisations and working conditions. Group factors involving relationship with co-workers and supervisors also influence job satisfaction. Similarly, satisfaction depends on individual factors like individual's needs and aspirations. If employees are satisfied with their job, it may lead to low employee turnover and less absenteeism and vice-versa

Self-Assessment Exercises 3

1. What is attitude?
2. State the types of attitudes in an organisation.



1.6 Summary

We have learnt in this unit that The individual makes a variety of contributions to the organisation - effort, skills, ability, time, loyalty and so forth, The Nature of Individual Differences, the personality development of an individual starts at birth and continues throughout. Three major types of factors play important roles in personality formation. They are determinants, stages and traits and the affective component of an attitude reflects 'feelings and emotions' that an individual has toward a situation. The cognitive component of an attitude is derived from 'knowledge' that an individual has about a situation.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. The study of human behaviour in organisational settings, the interface between human behaviour and the organisational context, and the organisation itself.

2. A major challenge faced by an organisation, thus, is to manage psychological contracts. One specific aspect of managing psychological contracts is managing the person-job fit. The ‘person-job fit’ is the extent to which the contributions made by the individual match the inducements offered by the organisation. In theory, each employee has a specific set of needs to fulfill and a set of job-related behaviours and abilities to contribute. If the organisation can take complete advantage of those behaviours and abilities and exactly fulfill the employee’s needs, it will have achieved a perfect person-job fit. Of course, such a precise level of person-job fit is seldom achieved due to various reasons such as imperfect selection procedures, differences in individual skills, constant change in the needs and requirements of people and organisation, etc. Thus, the behaviour of individuals in organisation is the primary concern of management and it is essential that managers have an understanding of the factors influencing the behaviour of the individuals they manage

Answers to SAEs 2

Some of the important personality factors that determine what kind of behaviours are exhibited at work include the following:

1. Need Pattern
2. Locus of Control
3. Introversion and Extroversion
4. Tolerance for Ambiguity

5. Self-esteem and Self-concept

1. Need Pattern:

Steers and Braunstein (1976) developed a scale for the four personality needs that manifest themselves in the work setting. They are: the needs for achievement, affiliation, autonomy and dominance. Those who are high in achievement engage themselves proactively in work behaviours in order to feel proud about their achievements and successes; those high in need for affiliation like to work cooperatively with others; those high in need for autonomy function best when not closely supervised; and those high in their need for dominance are very effective while operating in environments where they can actively enforce their legitimate authority.

2. Locus of Control:

Locus of control is the degree to which an individual believes that his/her behaviour has direct impact on the consequences of that behaviour. Some people, for example, believe that if they work hard, they are certain to succeed. They strongly believe that each individual is in control of his/her life. They are said to have an internal locus of control. By contrast, some people think that what happens to them is a result of fate, chance, luck or the behaviour of other people, rather than lack of skills or poor performance. Because these individuals think that forces beyond their control dictate what happens to them, they are said to have an external locus of control. As a personality attribute, locus of control has clear implications for organisations. For example, individuals with an internal locus of control may have a relatively strong desire to participate in the management of their organisations and have a freedom in how do their jobs. Thus, they may prefer a decentralised organisation where right of decision-making is given to them and a leader who provides them freedom and autonomy. They may like a reward system that recognises individual performance and contributions. People with an external locus of control, on the other hand, are likely to prefer a more centralised organisation where they need not take any decisions. They may gravitate to structured jobs where standard procedures are defined for them. They may prefer a leader who makes most of the decisions and may prefer a reward system that considers mainly seniority rather than merit.

3. Tolerance for Ambiguity: This personality characteristic indicates the level of uncertainty that people can tolerate without experiencing undue stress and can still function effectively. Managers have to work well under conditions of extreme uncertainty and insufficient information, especially when things are rapidly changing in the organisation's external environment. Managers who have a high tolerance for ambiguity can cope well under these conditions. Managers, who have a low tolerance for ambiguity may be effective in structured work settings

but find it almost impossible to operate effectively when things are rapidly changing and much information about the future turn of events is not available. Thus, tolerance for ambiguity is a personality dimension necessary for managerial success.

2. Psychological Differences

- i. Personality, Attitudes, Perception, Motivation, Learning
- ii. Physical Differences
- iii. Height, Weight, Body shape, Appearance, Complexion

Answers to SAEs 3

1. An attitude is defined as, “a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object”

2.
 1. Components of Attitude
 2. Work-Related Attitudes

UNIT 5 INDUSTRIAL/ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND GOALS OF INDUSTRIAL/ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Industrial/Organizational Psychology
 - 1.3.1 Explain meaning of Psychology,
 - 1.3.2 Distinguish between Industrial Psychology and Organisational Psychology,
- 1.4 Discuss the basic goals of Industrial/Organisational Psychology
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings
- 1.7 Possible Answers to SEAs



1.1 Introduction

Industrial Psychology as a course was initiated for the student of public administration in order to develop their critical thinking skills. A great deal of topics such as the Assessment of human attributes at work, Work stress, Job design, Selection, placement of people on jobs, Training, learning at work, Performance appraisal, Organisational change and development are what you study in industrial Psychology.

Industrial psychological studies the relation between the attitudes of the employees and their performance. From these studies, the factors enhancing morale of personnel can be identified and incorporated into the working environment of employees in order to increase their morale and job- satisfaction. Industrial psychology therefore is the study of people at work and the application of psychological principles to employees and organizations. satisfaction.

Industrial psychology therefore is the study of people at work and the application of psychological principles to employees and organizations



1.2 Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOs)

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain meaning of Psychology,

- Distinguish between Industrial Psychology and Organisational Psychology,
- List and explain the goals of Industrial/Organisational Psychology



1.3 Industrial/Organizational Psychology

1.3.1 Meaning of Psychology

Human behaviour holds a lot of charm for all and sundry. Philosophers such as Socrates and Plato speculated a lot about human behaviour. There are many puzzles as well as several rightly or wrongly held myths and beliefs about human behaviour. Puzzles such as: i. How do we remember things? ii. Why do we dream? iii. How and why do drugs alter human consciousness? iv. What will cause someone to take his/her own life, via suicide, or take the life of others via gun shots or what is the origin of extreme behaviour like suicide bombing? V. What makes individuals such as Boko Haram members become social misfits?

1.3.2 Distinction between Industrial Psychology and Organisational Psychology

Industrial Psychology as a sub-field of Psychology dated to the work of some notable writers such as Hugo Munsterberg, Fredrick Taylor, Eton Mayo, Abraham Maslow and so many others whose works are focused on the issues of man at work, functioning either as individuals or in groups. Our lives as individuals revolve around industries and organisations from where we sojourn either as workers or owners of businesses to make ends meet. Since the home, church, market place, shopping malls, and schools are all forms of organisation, there is no escaping the grip of the rules, relationships that range from the very simple to complex forms and the conforming structures and processes that are features of organisations. In the same vein, industries are forms of organisation and although they are commonly associated with machines and equipments, man is an important component.

Industrial Psychology as a subfield of study initially focused mainly on individuals at work. The principal concern was about individual differences at work. This focus was as a result of the concept of man as mere factor of production. This approach was influenced by Taylorism whose mechanistic conception of work pitch man as sharing narrow roles in productivity after work has been divided and the one-best way was found to improve productivity through appropriate connectivity between productivity and reward (Taylor, 1911). While Organisational Psychology explain the Informal groups at work and such issues as

group morale, social conformity, attitudes and the generally observable changes that both physical and social aspects of the work place represents and other scenarios such as structure, processes and people became topical issues which are codified as Organisational Psychology. Organisational Psychology thus began as a separate field of study different and independent of Industrial Psychology.

1.4 Goals of Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Understanding human behaviour, from a scientific point of view, is the overall goal of Psychology. This broad, all-important goal involves five basic activities:

- i. **Measurement of behaviour:** Much of the work of psychologists involves measuring of concepts, attributes, characteristics or variables that impact or conditions human behaviour.
- ii. **Describing:** Attributes or concepts that are so measured are classified, identified, or categorized in terms of their salient features, or characteristics.
- iii. **Explanation:** This mean adducing reason(s) to why people think, feel, or act the way they do. It is one of the major goals of any scientific discipline and this may be achieved through formulation of theories.
- iv. **Prediction:** The goal of predicting behaviour is underscored by the need to take decisions that will be valid for now and in the future.
- v. **Control:** Another equally important goal is the need to; based on predicted behaviour, encourage frequent occurrence of desired behaviour and stoppage of undesired ones.

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

1. Define **Psychology**
2. Differeciate between Industrial Psychology and Organisational Psychology



1.4. Summary

We have learnt in this unit that Industrial/Organisational Psychology offers valuable contribution and a repertoire of knowledge of man in work situations. The ranges of issues covered are broad and germane to the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour at and off work. In lecture will further explain the Basic Issues in Industrial/Organisational Psychology and other sub-fields of psychology



1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Mullins, L. J. (2007) *Management and Organisational Behaviour* (8th Ed.). New York: Prentice Hall

Munsterberg, H. (1913) *Psychology and Industrial Efficiency*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.



1.6. Possible Answers to SAEs

Possible Answers (1)

Human behaviour holds a lot of charm for all and sundry. Philosophers such as Socrates and Plato speculated a lot about human behaviour. There are many puzzles as well as several rightly or wrongly held myths and beliefs about human behaviour. Puzzles such as:

1. How do we remember things?
- ii. Why do we dream?
- iii. How and why do drugs alter human consciousness?
- iv. What will cause someone to take his/her own life, via suicide, or take the life of others via gun shots or what is the origin of extreme behaviour like suicide bombing?
- V. What makes individuals such as Boko Haram members become social misfits?

Possible Answers (2)

Industrial Psychology as a sub-field of Psychology dated to the work of some notable writers such as Hugo Munsterberg, Fredrick Taylor, Leta Mayo, Abraham Maslow and so many others whose works are focused on the issues of man at work, functioning either as individuals or in groups. Our lives as individuals revolve around industries and organisations from where we sojourn either as workers or owners of businesses to make ends meet. Since the home, church, market place, shopping malls, and schools are all forms of organisation, there is no escaping the grip of the rules, relationships that range from the very simple to complex forms and the conforming structures and processes that are features of organisations. In the same vein, industries are forms of organisation and although they are commonly associated with machines and equipments, man is an important component.

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whose mechanistic conception of work pitch man as sharing narrow roles in productivity after work has been divided and the one-best way was found to improve productivity through appropriate connectivity between productivity and reward (Taylor, 1911). While Organisational Psychology explain the Informal groups at work and such issues as group morale, social conformity, attitudes and the generally observable changes that both physical and social aspects of the work place represents and other scenarios such as structure, processes and people became topical issues which are codified as Organisational Psychology. Organisational Psychology thus began as a separate field of study different and independent of Industrial Psychology

UNIT 1 LEARNING PROCESS AN ORGANIZATION

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Learning Process
 - 1.3.1 Components of Learning Process
 - 1.3.2 Learning Theory
 - 1.3.3 Learning Theory and Organisation Behaviour
- 1.4 Attitude: Its Importance in Organisational Behaviour
- 1.5 Perception
 - 1.5.1 Basic Perceptual Process
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Learning is another important psychological process determining human behaviour. Learning can be defined as “relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice”. There are four important points in the definition of learning:

- The behavioural change must be relatively permanent. Any temporary change in behaviour is not a part of learning.
- The behavioural change must be based on some form of practice or experience.
- The practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine the term learning;
- Learning Theory and Organisation Behaviour;
- Attitude: It’s Importance in Organisational Behaviour
- Perception



1.3 Learning Process

Learning involves a change in behaviour, though this change is not necessarily an improvement over previous behaviour. Learning generally has the connotation of improved behaviour, but bad habits, prejudices, stereotypes, and work restrictions are also learned.

1.3.1 Components of Learning Process

The components of learning process are: drive, cue stimuli, response, reinforcement and retention.

1. Drive

Learning frequently occurs in the presence of drive – any strong stimulus that impels action. Drives are basically of two types – primary or physiological drives and secondary or psychological drives. These two categories of drives often interact. Individuals operate under many drives at the same time. To predict behaviour, it is necessary to establish which drives are stimulating the most.

2. Cue Stimuli

Cue stimuli are any objects existing in the environment as perceived by the individual. The idea is to discover the conditions under which stimulus will increase the probability of eliciting a specific response. There may be two types of stimuli so far as their results in terms of response are concerned: generalisation and discrimination. Generalisation occurs when a response is elicited by a similar but new stimulus. If two stimuli are exactly alike, they will have the same probability of evoking a specified response. The principle of generalisation has important implications for human learning. Because of generalisation, a person does not have to completely relearn each of the new tasks. It allows the members to adapt to overall changing conditions and specific new assignments. The individual can borrow from past learning experiences to adjust more smoothly to new learning situations. Discrimination is a process whereby an organisation learns to emit a response to a stimulus but avoids making the same response to a similar but somewhat different stimulus. Discrimination has wide applications in organisational behaviour. For example, a supervisor can discriminate between two equally high producing workers, one with low quality and other with high quality.

3. Responses

The stimulus results in responses. Responses may be in the physical form or may be in terms of attitudes, familiarity, perception or other complex phenomena. In the above example, the supervisor discriminates

between the worker producing low quality products and the worker producing high quality products, and positively responds only to the quality conscious worker.

4. Reinforcement

Reinforcement is a fundamental condition of learning. Without reinforcement, no measurable modification of behaviour takes place. Reinforcement may be defined as environmental events affects the probability of occurrence of responses with which they are associated.

5. Retention

The stability of learned behaviour over time is defined as retention and the converse is forgetting. Some of the learning is retained over a period of time; while other may be forgotten.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Define learning?
2. Discuss learning as a physiological process

1.3.2 Learning Theories

Classical Conditioning

The work of the famous Russian Physiologist Ivan Pavlov demonstrated the classical conditioning process. When Pavlov presented a piece of meat to the dog in the experiment, Pavlov noticed a great deal of salivation. He termed the food an unconditioned stimulus and the salivation an unconditioned response. When the dog saw the meat, it salivated. On the other hand, when Pavlov merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of a bell each time the meat was given to the dog. The dog eventually learned to salivate in response to the ringing of the bell even when there was no meat. Pavlov had conditioned the dog to respond to a learned stimulus. Thorndike called this the “law of exercise” which states that behaviour can be learned by repetitive association between a stimulus and a response. Classical conditioning has a limited value in the study of organisational behaviour. As pointed out by Skinner, classical conditioning represents an insignificant part of total human learning. Classical conditional is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific or particular fashion. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event and as such it explains simple and reflexive behaviours. But behaviour of people in organisations is emitted rather than elicited, and it is voluntary rather than reflexive. The learning of these complex behaviours can be explained or better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

Operant Conditioning

Operant is defined as behaviour that produces effects. Operant conditioning, basically a product of Skinnerian psychology, suggests that individuals emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning is voluntary behaviour and it is determined, maintained and controlled by its consequences. Operant conditioning is a powerful tool for managing people in organisations. Most behaviours in organisations are learned, controlled and altered by the consequences; i.e. operant behaviours. Management can use the operant conditioning process successfully to control and influence the behaviour of employees by manipulating its reward system. Reinforcement is anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behaviour. Four types of reinforcement strategies can be employed by managers to influence the behaviour of the employees, viz., positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and punishment.

1. Positive Reinforcement:

Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behaviour by the presentation of a desirable consequence (reward). In other words, a positive reinforcer is a reward that follows behaviour and is capable of increasing the frequency of that behaviour. There are two types of positive reinforcers: primary and secondary. Primary reinforcers such as food, water and sex are of biological importance and have effects which are independent of past experiences. For instance, a primary reinforcer like food satisfies hunger need and reinforced food-producing behaviour. Secondary reinforcers like job advancement, recognition, praise and esteem result from previous association with a primary reinforcer. Primary reinforcers must be learned. In order to apply reinforcement procedures successfully, management must select reinforcers that are sufficiently powerful and durable.

2. Negative Reinforcement:

The threat of punishment is known as negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcers also serve to strengthen desired behaviour responses leading to their removal or termination.

3. Extinction: Extinction is an effective method of controlling undesirable behaviour. It refers to non-reinforcement. It is based on the principle that if a response is not reinforced, it will eventually disappear. Extinction is a behavioural strategy that does not promote desirable behaviours but can reduce undesirable behaviours.

4. Punishment:

Punishment is a control device employed in organisations to discourage and reduce annoying behaviours of employees. Observational Learning

Observational learning results in as a result of watching the behaviour of another person and appraising the consequences of that behaviour. It does not require an overt response. When Mr. X observes that Y is rewarded for superior performance, X learns the positive relationship between performance and rewards without actually obtaining the reward himself. Observational learning plays a crucial role in altering behaviours in organisations.

Cognitive Learning

Here the primary emphasis is on knowing how events and objects are related to each other. Most of the learning that takes place in the class room is cognitive learning. Cognitive learning is important because it increases the change that the learner will do the right thing first time, without going through a lengthy operant conditioning process.

1.3.3 Learning Theory and Organisation Behaviour

The relevance of the learning theories for explaining and predicting of organisational behaviour is marginal. This does not mean that learning theories are totally irrelevant. Learning concepts provide a basis for changing behaviours that are unacceptable and maintaining those that are acceptable. When individuals engage in various types of dysfunctional behaviour (late for work, disobeying orders, poor performance), the manager will attempt to educate more functional behaviours. Learning theory can also provide certain guidelines for conditioning organisational behaviour. Managers know that individuals capable of turning out superior performance must be given more reinforces than those with average or low performance. Managers can successfully use the operant conditioning process to control and influence the behaviour of employees by manipulating its reward system.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Itemize the components of learning process
2. What is Operant Conditioning?

1.4 Attitude: Its Importance in Organisational Behaviour

Attitudes of both workers and management react to each other and determine mutual relationships.

Attitudes, that is, understanding or learning why employees feel and act the way, they do, helps supervisors in winning cooperation from them, so very essential for the efficient working of an organisation.

From a personal perspective, attitudes provide knowledge-base – or prepare our mental state, for our interaction with others, and with world around us, which directly affects organisational behaviour, and in turn organisational working.

1.5 Perception

Perception is an important mediating cognitive process. Through this complex process, persons make interpretations of the stimulus or situation they are faced with. Both selectivity and organisation go into perceptual interpretations. Externally, selectivity is affected by intensity, size, contrast, repetition, motion and novelty and familiarity. Internally, perceptual selectivity is influenced by the individual's motivation, learning and personality. After the stimulus situation is filtered by the selective process, the incoming information is organised into a meaningful whole.

Individual differences and uniqueness are largely the result of the cognitive processes. Although there are a number of cognitive processes, it is generally recognised that the perceptual process is a very important one that takes place between the situation and the behaviour and is most relevant to the study of organisational behaviour. For example, the observation that a department head and a subordinate may react quite differently to the same top management directive can be better understood and explained by the perceptual process.

In the process of perception, people receive many different kinds of information through all five senses, assimilate them and then interpret them. Different people used to perceive the same information differently.

Perception plays a key role in determining individual behaviour in organisations. Organisations send messages in variety of forms to their members regarding what they are expected to do and not to do. In spite of organisations sending clear messages, those messages are subject to distortion in the process of being perceived by organisation members. Hence managers need to have a general understanding of basic perceptual process.

1.5.1 Basic Perceptual Process:

Perception is influenced by characteristics of the object being perceived and of the person and by situational processes.

i. Characteristics of the object include contrast, intensity, movement, repetition and novelty.

ii. Characteristics of the person include attitudes, self-concept and personality.

The details of a particular situation affect the way a person perceives an object; the same person may perceive the same object very differently in different situations. The processes through which a person's perceptions are altered by the situation include selection, organisation, attribution, stereotyping, the halo effect and projection. Among these, selective perception and stereotyping are particularly relevant to organisations.

Selective Perception:

Selective perception is the process of screening out information that we are uncomfortable with or that contradicts our beliefs. For example, a manager has a very positive attitude about a particular worker and one day he notices that the worker seems to be goofing off. Selective perception may make the manager to quickly disregard what he observed. Suppose another manager has formed a very negative attitude about a particular worker and when he happens to observe a high performance from the worker, he too disregards it.

In one sense, selective perception is beneficial because it allows us to disregard minor bits of information. If selective perception causes managers to ignore important information, it can become quite detrimental.

Stereotyping:

Stereotyping is the process of categorising or labeling people on the basis of a single attribute. Perceptions based on stereotypes about people's sex exist more or less in most work places. Typically, these perceptions lead to the belief that an individual's sex determines which tasks he or she will be able to perform. For example, if a woman sitting behind the table in the office is, very often, perceived as a clerk and not an executive but would make the opposite assumption about a man. Stereotyping consists of three steps: identifying categories of people (like women, politician), associating certain characteristics with those categories (like passivity, dishonesty) and then assuming that anyone who fits a certain category must have those characteristics. For example, if dishonesty is associated with politicians, we are likely to assume that the next politician we meet is also dishonest.

Self-Assessment Exercises 3

1. What role does perception plays in an organisation?
2. Explain Stereotyping?



1.6 Summary

This unit discussed Learning generally has the connotation of improved behaviour, The components of learning process, Learning Theory and Organisation Behaviour, attitude and perception in an organisation.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Barney/Griffin, “The Management of Organisations”. Chandan, S.Jit, “Organisational Behaviour”. Fred Luthans, Organisational Behaviours, McGraw Hill Book Co., 1995. Gangadhar Rao, VSP Rao, P.S. Narayana, “Organisational Behaviour”. Gordon Judith R, “A Diagnostic Approach to Organizational Behaviour”. Gregory Moorehead and R.S. Griffin, Organisational Behaviour - Managing People and Organisations, Jaico, 1994. Hugh J. Arnold, Daniel C. Fledman, “Organisational Behaviour”. Judith R. Gordon, A Diagnostic Approach to Organisational Behaviour, Allyn & Bacon, 1993. Keith Davis, Human Behaviour at Work, McGraw Hill Book Co., 1991. Nirmal Singh, “Organisational Behaviour: Concepts, Theory and Practices”. Prasad L M, “Organisational Behaviour”. Stephen P. Robbins, Organisational Behaviour, Prentice Hall, 1997. Van Fleet, “Behaviour in Organisations”.



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Learning can be defined as “relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice”.
2. Learning is another important psychological process determining human behaviour. Learning can be defined as “relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice”. There are four important points in the definition of learning:
 1. The behavioural change must be relatively permanent. Any temporary change in behaviour is not a part of learning.
 2. The behavioural change must be based on some form of practice or experience.
 3. The practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur

Answers to SAEs 2

- 1.
1. Drive
2. Cue Stimuli

3. Responses
4. Reinforcement
5. Retention

2. Operant is defined as behaviour that produces effects. Operant conditioning, basically a product of Skinnerian psychology, suggests that individuals emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning is voluntary behaviour and it is determined, maintained and controlled by its consequences.

Operant conditioning is a powerful tool for managing people in organisations. Most behaviours in organisations are learned, controlled and altered by the consequences; i.e. operant behaviours

3. Answers to SAEs 3

Perception plays a key role in determining individual behaviour in organisations. Organisations send messages in variety of forms to their members regarding what they are expected to do and not to do. In spite of organisations sending clear messages, those messages are subject to distortion in the process of being perceived by organisation members. Hence managers need to have a general understanding of basic perceptual process.

2. Stereotyping is the process of categorising or labeling people on the basis of a single attribute. Perceptions based on stereotypes about people's sex exist more or less in most work places. Typically, these perceptions lead to the belief that an individual's sex determines which tasks he or she will be able to perform. For example, if a woman sitting behind the table in the office is, very often, perceived as a clerk and not an executive but would make the opposite assumption about a man. Stereotyping consists of three steps: identifying categories of people (like women, politician), associating certain characteristics with those categories (like passivity, dishonesty) and then assuming that anyone who fits a certain category must have those characteristics

UNIT 2 MOTIVATION IN AN ORGANIZATION

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Motivation
 - 1.3.1 Importance of Motivation
 - 1.3.2 Characteristic Features of Motivation
 - 1.3.3 New Approaches to Motivation in Organisation
- 1.4 Physical and Intellectual Qualities
- 1.5 Ability
- 1.6 Goals Setting Theory
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The word motivation is derived from the word ‘motive’ which is defined as an active form of a desire, craving or need which must be satisfied. Motivation is the key to organisational effectiveness. The manager in general has to get the work done through others. These ‘others’ are human assets or resources. They are to be motivated to work to attain the organisational objectives.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine the term motivation;
- Discuss the Characteristic Features of Motivation;
- Examine and discuss importance of Motivation
- Physical and intellectual qualities and
- Ability of an individual



1.3 Motivation

“Motivation refers to the degree of readiness of an organism to pursue some designated goals and implies the determination of the nature and locus of force inducing degree of readiness” – Encyclopedia of Management. On the basis of above definitions, the following observations can be made regarding motivation:

- a. Motivation is an inner psychological force which activates and compels the person to behave in a particular manner.
- b. Motivation process is influenced by personality traits learning abilities, perception and competence of an individual.
- c. Highly motivated employee works more efficiently and his level of production tends to be higher than others.
- d. Motivation originates from the needs and wants of an individual. It is a tension of lacking something in his mind which forces him to work more efficiently.
- e. Motivation is also a process of stimulating and channelising an energy of an individual for achieving set goals.
- f. Motivation also plays a crucial role in determining the level of performance. Highly motivated employee will get higher satisfaction which may lead higher efficiency.
- g. Motivating force and its degree, may differ from individual to individual depending on his personality, needs, competence and other factors
- h. The process of motivation helps the manager in analysing and understanding human behaviour and finding out that how an individual can be inspired to produce desirable working behaviour.
- i. Motivation may be positive as well as negative. Positive motivation includes incentives, rewards and other benefits while negative motivation implies some punishment, fear, use of force etc.
- j. The process of motivation contributes to and boosts up the morale of the employees. And high degree of motivation may lead to high morale.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Defined the term motivation? 2. Outline the observations made regarding motivation. |
|---|

1.3.1 Importance of Motivation

Motivation is an important part of managing process. A team of highly qualified and motivated employees is necessary for achieving objectives

of an organisation. It is only through motivation process; they contribute maximum for accomplishing objectives.

- a. Highly motivated employees make optimum use of available resources for achieving objectives. • Motivation is directly related to the level of efficiency.
- b. Highly motivated employees make full use of their energy and other abilities to raise the existing level of efficiency.
- c. Highly motivated employees would make goal-directed efforts. They are more committed and cooperative for achieving organisational objectives.
- d. Highly motivated employees are more loyal and sincere, and wants to remain with the organisation for longer period of time. These factors help reduce absenteeism and labour turnover.
- e. Motivation is considered as a backbone of good industrial relations.
- f. Effectively motivated employees get more job satisfaction and carry high morale.
- g. Motivation also helps in improving the image of the organisation.

The motivation framework is a good starting point for understanding how people choose certain behaviours. The motivation process begins with needs that individuals identify for themselves. For example, a worker feels that he is underpaid. This deficiency becomes a need that the worker seeks to satisfy, perhaps, by asking for a raise, by working harder to earn a raise or by seeking a new job. Once he chooses to pursue one or more of these options and then enacts them (working harder while simultaneously looking for a job, for example), he evaluates his success. If his hard work resulted in a pay rise, he probably feels satisfied and will continue to work hard.

But if no raise has been provided, he is likely to try another option. Since people have many different needs, the satisfaction of one need or set of needs is likely to give rise to the identification of other needs. Thus, the cycle of motivation is being constantly repeated.

Understanding human motivation is crucial for managing people. Many people have done extensive research to find out what make people work and how to motivate them. This include managers, social scientists, behaviourists and psychologists. A number of theories have been developed, even though there is no university accepted motivation theory. Understanding these theories assist managers to get a better insight into the human behaviour.

1.3.2 Characteristic Features of Motivation

- i. Motivation is a internal feeling and forces a person to action.

- ii. Motivation is a continuous activity.
- iii. It varies from person to person and from time to time.
- iv. It may be positive or negative.

1.3.3 New Approaches to Motivation in an Organisation

New approaches are emerging to supplement the established models and theories of motivation. Two of the most promising are Goal-Setting Theory and the Japanese Approach.

Goal-Setting Theory

This approach to motivation has been pioneered in the USA by Edwin Locke and his associates in 1960s and refined in 1980s. Goal-setting theory suggests that managers and subordinates should set goals for the individual on a regular basis (as suggested by MBO). These goals should be moderately difficult and very specific and of a type that the employee will accept and make a commitment to accomplishing. Rewards should be tied directly to accomplished goals. When involved in goal-settings, employees see how their effort will lead to performance, rewards and personal satisfaction.

Salient features of this theory are the following:

- i. Specific goal fixes the needs of resources and efforts
- ii. It increases performance
- iii. Difficult goals result higher performance than easy job
- iv. Better feedback of results leads to better performances than lack of feedback.
- v. Participation of employees in goal has mixed result.
- vi. Participation of setting goal, however, increases acceptance of goal and involvements. • Goal setting theory has defined two factors which influences the performance. These are given below:
- vii. Goal commitment, and
- viii. Self-efficiency.

The mere act of goal-setting does not ensure higher levels of motivation among employees. In fact, there appear to be three important criteria that goals must meet if they are to influence the behaviour of organisation members. They are goal specificity, goal difficulty and goal acceptance.

Goal Specificity

Goals must be stated in specific terms if they are to motivate effective performance. Goals must be set in terms of measurable criteria of work performance i.e. number of units produced, new sales etc. and must specify a time period within which the goal is to be attained. It also gives a sense of personal satisfaction and accomplishment to workers if he is able to meet the specific goal.

Goal Difficulty/Challenge

There exists a relationship between goal difficulty and work motivation. The more difficult and challenging the goal, the higher the level of motivation and performance. But it is essential that goals be set at levels

that are realistic to a person. Goals that are very difficult to achieve, lose their capacity to motivate, since it is beyond the capacity of the individual.

Goal Acceptance

In order to influence motivation and performance, a goal must be internalised by the individual. In other words, the person has to feel some personal ownership of the goal and must have commitment to achieve it.

Goal Setting in Practice

The most obvious implication of goal-setting theory is that managers should be helping sub-ordinates to set goals that are specific and reasonably difficult and that sub-ordinates accept and internalise as their own. Besides this, there are a number of issues that arise in implementing goal-setting in practice.

1. Though specificity of goal is essential and measurability is desirable, it should not affect in identifying meaningful and valid objective measures of goal attainment.
2. The manager can stimulate goal acceptance in at least three ways:
 - a. By involving sub-ordinates in goal-setting process.
 - b. By demonstrative a supportive attitude and approach toward his/her sub-ordinates.
 - c. By trying various rewards to the achievement of goals. Management by Objectives (MBO) is a managerial technique for improving motivation and performance using goal-setting principles.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

A researcher Charms in 1960, has reported that extrinsic motivation like pay or rewards for a job which has an intrinsic-motivation content prior to such rewards, tend to decrease overall level of motivation. This proposal is called "Cognitive Evaluation Theory" which has supported by a large number of research studies conducted subsequently.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. What is the importance of motivation?
2. State the characteristic Features of Motivation

1.4 Physical and Intellectual Qualities

Physical differences among individuals are the most visible of all differences. They are also relatively easy to assess. Intellectual differences are somewhat more difficult to discern, but they too can be

assessed by fairly objective means. The abilities, skills and competencies of employees are both physical and intellectual qualities.

1.5 Ability

Abilities refer to an individual's skill and to perform effectively in one or more areas of activity, such as physical, mental or interpersonal work. Individuals with numerical ability for example, can be trained to apply their ability in the field of engineering, accounting and computer science. Abilities develop from an individual's natural aptitudes and subsequent learning opportunities. Aptitudes are relatively enduring capacities for performing some activity effectively. Learning opportunities translate aptitudes into abilities through practice and experience and formal training. Organisations have to ensure that people possess the necessary abilities to engage in the behaviours required for effective performance. This can be accomplished either by careful selection of people or by a combination of selection and training.

Skills are generally thought of as being more task-specific capabilities than abilities. For example, an individual with numerical ability who goes to school to learn accounting develops a numerical skill 'specific to that field'. Thus when a particular ability is applied to a specialised area (for example Accounting), it becomes a skill.

Competencies are skills associated with specialisation. Competencies are skills that have been refined by practice and experience and that enable the individual to specialise in some field. For example, an accountant with numerical ability and accounting skill takes a position in the Taxation Department and as time passes, he develops more competency as a tax expert. Physical abilities such as strength, flexibility, endurance and stamina can be developed with exercise and training. Mental abilities such as reasoning, memory visualisation and comprehension and interpersonal abilities can also be developed through practice and education. Even in the absence of such formal programmes, many individuals manage their own careers in such a way as to continually upgrade their abilities, skills and competencies in order to remain valuable to their organisations.

1.6 Goals Setting Theory

Another theory sometimes considered under the heading of motivation to work is goal theory, or the theory of goal – setting. This theory is based mainly in the work of Locke (Mullins, 1996). The basic assumption of goal setting theory is that people's goal or intentions play an important part/role in determining behaviour. The belief is that people strive to achieve goals in order to satisfy their emotions and

desires. Goals guide people's responses and actions. Goals direct work behaviour and performance, and lead to certain consequences or feedback. Generally speaking, effective goals tend to have two basic characteristics.

1. They are moderately difficult: while a goal that is too easy does little to enhance effort and motivation, a goal that is also too difficult also fails to motivate people.

2. They are specific. A goal of "do your best" for instance, does not motivate people nearly as much as a goal like "increase profit by 10 percent" (Griffin et al., 1999). The specificity and clarity of this goal serves to focus attention and energy on exactly what needs to be done.

Goal theory has a number of practical implications for the manager (Mullins, 1996). An important aspect of goal setting is the employee's participation in the goal setting process. When people help to select the goals that they are asked to work toward, they tend to accept them more readily and are more committed to achieving them.

Similarly, complete, accurate and timely feedback and knowledge of results is usually associated with high performance. Feedback provides a means of checking progress on goal attainment and forms the basis for any revision of goals. A number of research studies? Locke (as cited; Mullins, 2000) has attempted to examine the relationship between goal setting and performance. Although, almost inevitably, there are some contrary findings, the majority of evidence suggests strong support for the theory, and its effects on motivation.

Self-Assessment Exercises 3

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1. | What is the Physical and intellectual qualities? |
| 2. | Discuss the term ability. |



1.6 Summary

This unit discussed how Motivation is defined as, "the set of forces that cause people to choose certain behaviours from among the many alternatives open to them, how Highly motivated employee works more efficiently and his level of production tends to be higher than others, the characteristic features of Motivation and importance, also new approaches to motivation in organisation, physical and intellectual qualities and lastly ability in relation to skill and to perform effectively in an organisation.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Barney/Griffin, "The Management of Organisations". Chandan, S.Jit, "Organisational Behaviour". Fred Luthans, Organisational Behaviours, McGraw Hill Book Co., 1995. Gangadhar Rao, VSP Rao, P.S. Narayana, "Organisational Behaviour". Gordon Judith R, "A Diagnostic Approach to Organizational Behaviour". Gregory Moorehead and R.S. Griffin, Organisational Behaviour - Managing People and Organisations, Jaico, 1994. Hugh J. Arnold, Daniel C. Fledman, "Organisational Behaviour". Judith R. Gordon, A Diagnostic Approach to Organisational Behaviour, Allyn & Bacon, 1993. Keith Davis, Human Behaviour at Work,



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

3. Motivation is defined as, "the set of forces that cause people to choose certain behaviours from among the many alternatives open to them".
4. The following observations can be made regarding motivation:
 - a. Motivation is an inner psychological force which activates and compels the person to behave in a particular manner.
 - b. Motivation process is influenced by personality traits learning abilities, perception and competence of an individual.
 - c. Highly motivated employee works more efficiently and his level of production tends to be higher than others.
 - d. Motivation originates from the needs and wants of an individual. It is a tension of lacking something in his mind which forces him to work more efficiently.
 - e. Motivation is also a process of stimulating and channelising an energy of an individual for achieving set goals.
 - f. Motivation also plays a crucial role in determining the level of performance. Highly motivated employee will get higher satisfaction which may lead higher efficiency.
 - g. Motivating force and its degree, may differ from individual to individual depending on his personality, needs, competence and other factors
 - h. The process of motivation helps the manager in analysing and understanding human behaviour and finding out that how an individual can be inspired to produce desirable working behaviour.

Answers to SAEs 2

- a. Highly motivated employees make optimum use of available resources for achieving objectives.
- b. Motivation is directly related to the level of efficiency.
- c. Highly motivated employees make full use of their energy and other abilities to raise the existing level of efficiency.
- d. Highly motivated employees would make goal-directed efforts. They are more committed and cooperative for achieving organisational objectives.
- e. Highly motivated employees are more loyal and sincere, and wants to remain with the organisation for longer period of time. These factors help reduce absenteeism and labour turnover.
- f. Motivation is considered as a backbone of good industrial relations.
- g. Motivation is a internal feeling and forces a person to action.
- h. Motivation is a continuous activity.
- i. It varies from person to person and from time to time.
- j. It may be positive or negative.

Answers to SAEs 3

1. Physical differences among individuals are the most visible of all differences. They are also relatively easy to assess. Intellectual differences are somewhat more difficult to discern, but they too can be assessed by fairly objective means. The abilities, skills and competencies of employees are both physical and intellectual qualities
2. Abilities refer to an individual's skill and to perform effectively in one or more areas of activity, such as physical, mental or interpersonal work. Individuals with numerical ability for example, can be trained to apply their ability in the field of engineering, accounting and computer science. Abilities develop from an individual's natural aptitudes and subsequent learning opportunities. Aptitudes are relatively enduring capacities for performing some activity effectively. Learning opportunities translate aptitudes into abilities through practice and experience and formal training. Organisations have to ensure that people possess the necessary abilities to engage in the behaviours required for effective performance. This can be accomplished either by careful selection of people or by a combination of selection and training.

UNIT 3 MANAGEMENT IN AN ORGANIZATION

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Management Perspectives
 - 1.3.1 Meaning of Management
 - 1.3.1 The Management Functions
- 1.4 Management and Administration
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Management is generally considered to have three major dimensions: technical, conceptual and human. The technical dimension consists of the manager's expertise in computers, accounting, or purchasing or marketing. There seems to be little question that today's managers are technically competent. While they know the technical requirement to improve their effectiveness in producing goods and services, there is still the need for better management. If a good job is already being done on the technical aspect, then it follows that more needs to be done on the conceptual and human dimensions for modern management. As it was recently pointed out, "while in speeches the importance of productivity has been stressed, not enough (business leaders) explicitly is taking steps to concentrate on productivity, measurement, incentives, labour management relation/cooperation and employees involvement". It is in the area of such new approaches that the field of Organizational Behaviour (O.B.) comes into the picture. Organizational behaviour is directly concerned with the conceptual and human side of management and with the application of techniques that most experts in productivity are talking about.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the different perspectives of management

- discuss what managers do functionally
- point out the distinction between management and administration



1.3 Concept of Management

In view of the variety of activities involved and the range of organizations in which management is practiced, it is not surprising that there is no generally accepted definition of management. Hence, like politics, management is a subject upon which many have strong views but few have been able to agree on a definition. There are however a number of popular views as to the meaning of management. This includes the reference to management as

(i) People Management refers to people as a particular category of employees who are involved in the business of management. The operators at different levels of management are commonly called managers and there are many different types of managers, with diverse tasks and responsibilities.

(ii) A discipline Management in this sense is used to refer to an area of study. That is a well-developed body of knowledge detailing the science of getting things done in the most effective and efficient manner. And as a discipline, it can therefore be transmitted from one person to another.

(iii) A profession This means that management is practiced as a career with many persons today making their living as managers. Definitions however vary as to what constitute a profession but given the basic characteristics of a true profession, it seems that management is still not fully a profession.

(iv) A science or art Management is often referred to as an art because it deals with the practical application of both knowledge and skill to achieve an objective. And since it involves the use of certain management techniques, principles and theories that are today well developed and organised it is also called a science. It has, however, been argued that the science and art of management are not mutually exclusive, they are complimentary. As the science of management improves so should the art of management. A balance between the two is needed. Management will therefore always be a mixture of both art and science.

(v) As a process (or activity). Perhaps the most useful view of management is that of management as process. A process is a systematic way of doing things. Management is defined as a process because all managers, regardless of their particular aptitudes or skills, engage in certain interrelated activities in order to achieve their desired goal. And as a process, management has been widely conceptualized

1.3.1 What is Management

Management has often been defined as the accomplishment of goals through others. This may be an oversimplified definition but it leads us to some points that were made at the onset. The first point relates to the accomplishment of goals. Management in the true sense involves the accomplishment of goals or objectives and is not simply a position within a business. Many people have the word manager in their titles, but in actuality they merely preside over an activity rather than manage it toward the accomplishment of a certain objective. The established goals may be explicit, finite, measurable or achievable, but where there are no goals; there is no need for management.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Defined Management as a science or art management?2. Discuss the term Management. |
|---|

1.3.2 The Management Functions

It must be stressed that management is a process or activity which takes place at all levels in an organization. It is not carried out only by people with 'manager' in their job title. Departmental heads, Supervisors, Foremen, Stores officers, Presidents or even Boy's scout leader all performs managerial functions; although obviously not at the same capacity. It is the task which a person performs which is of importance not the job title. Hence managers, whoever they may be, tend to have the same set of functions in an organization. Thus, these activities are called management functions, because, they identify broadly with what managers do. These managerial functions are generally considered central to a discussion of management by authors. The above perspectives as to the meaning of management clearly demonstrate that there are certain activities that are specifically managerial and a manager is known by performing these functions. He may perform these functions well or not, consciously or unconsciously, adequately or inadequately but he nevertheless performs them.

These functions are generally grouped under the following headings: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating and controlling:

Planning Functions

Planning, simply put, is a decision-making process that pertains to the future. In the managerial sense, planning is the determination of what to do and how to do it. It involves all activities leading to the formulation of objectives and deciding upon the means of meeting them. Planning therefore, is making decisions from many alternatives. Obviously, the manager must have knowledge of the many opportunities that present themselves and must have ability to create and develop opportunities,

but in the long run he or she must be able to analyse the opportunities and to select the best one for the conditions that exist. The plan is the net results of the planning process.

The organizing function

In a very brief summary, the preparation required for managerial plans into action is called organizing. It is the managerial process of arranging and allocating work, authority and resources among an organization's members so they can achieve an organization's goals efficiently. Basically, organizing involves the determination of the activities required to achieve the established objectives, grouping these activities in logical basis for handling by a subordinate manager, and finally, assigning the designed jobs to different persons and work department to assist a manager in executing them. The net result of organizing is the organization structure.

The staffing functions

Staffing is the managerial function of matching the right people with the right job. It has been broadly defined as filling, and keeping filled, the position vacancies in the organization structure through proper and effective recruitment, selection and development of qualified personnel to do the organization's work (Koontz, O'Donnell et al., 1993 p. 356). Like organizing, this function is not performed once and abandoned; it must be constantly worked at in order to have qualified people available in the future to move into vacated positions or to allow the company to expand its activities.

This function, therefore, includes such things as the development of manpower requirement for all the various existing jobs. The appraisal and selection of candidates for dates and incumbents on jobs in order to improve their use for the managerial function of staffing is called human resources management.

The directing function

To get things done through others, a manager is called upon to direct, supervise, motivate and lead his subordinates to do the assigned jobs effectively and willingly and strive to achieve the set objectives. This is the domain of directing as a managerial function. Directing assures the performance of the assigned work by individual employees. Specifically, it has been defined as the managerial activity of providing all guidance and inspiration to people at work to carry out their assigned duties responsibly. It includes explaining procedures, offering instructions on the job, issuing orders and directives and seeing to it that occurring errors are rectified in time.

The coordinating functions

Coordination is not generally regarded as a separate function of the manager, but it is so essential to the successful performance of any manager. It is a managerial process whereby the effort of a group is synchronized or unified, so that the desired objective is easily achieved. If there are multiple goals in the people's minds, coordination of effort may be impossible. To coordinate therefore means to unite all activities. Coordination is the central problem of an organization. Without coordination, people and departments would lose sight of their roles within the organization and be tempted to pursue their own special or personal interest often at the expense of the organizational goals. Thus, coordinating provides the requisite unity and harmony needed to attain organizational goals. Basically, coordination is interested in synchronization of all efforts provided in their proper amount, timing, direction and motivation so that all unified and harmonized activities can be performed in the proper sequence for achieving desired objective/s. Communications plays an important role in coordination as many breakdowns in coordinating efforts occur because people simply do not have the information or knowledge, they need in order to bring about coordination. The controlling function Control is a primary management activity and is the function which attempt to maintain conformity between goals and results. Specifically, the managerial function of controlling is the process of monitoring subordinate performance whereby actual results are compared with planned or to amend in order to bring activities in line with plans or to amend the plans. Control in essence compels events to conform to plans. Compelling events to conform to plans invariable means that person/s are responsible for the deviation from plans and should take the steps necessary to see that these persons modify their performance.

Such corrective actions or steps can be taken, if needed, by replanning, reorganising, or redirecting. The implication is that, if some activities are not contributing to goal achievement, such activities are modified or even eliminated. Certain actual subordinate behaviour may have to be improved to raise performance to the desired level. Sometimes, objectives or performance standard may have to be modified, revised if they are unrealistically achievable. Although there are many aids or tools for the controlling process, basically things are controlled by controlling people.

1.4 Management and Administration

There is often confusion over different interpretations of the two terms 'management' and 'administration'. One of the main reasons for this confusion may result from the translation of Fayol's book: *Administration Industrielle et Generale* from French into English (Mullins, 1996). In the original 1929 English edition, there was a direct

translation of 'administration', but in the wider republication of the book in 1949, the term 'management' replaced 'administration' in the title. In the introduction to the revised edition, Urwick regrets this change. He refers to Fayol's use of the word administration as indicating a specific function which covers all tasks involved in the supervision of the work of others. It is not concerned with the status of those who exercise this function. Brech (1975), specifically defined administration as: That part of management which is concerned with the installation and carrying out of the procedures by which the programme is laid down and communicated, and the progress of activities is regulated and checked against plans. In this regard, administration is said to be a purposeful process, which involves the setting of objectives, the determination of policies and strategies, and the direction of people in some group purpose or endeavour. When we therefore talk of administration, we talk of the process whereby the objectives are realised. Urwick also expresses concern at the possible division between management being seen to apply only to business organisation and (public) administration as applying to the same function; we talk of process whereby the objectives are realised. Dictionary definitions tend to see the two words as synonymous.

Management is sometimes referred to as 'administration of business concerns.

There is clearly an overlap between the two terms and they tend to be used in accordance with the convenience of individual writers. This confirms the feeling that although most people perceive a difference between the two terms, this difference is not easy to describe. The use of the term administration has traditionally been associated with public sector organizations, but the term management is now used increasingly. This can be seen in the publication of the report of the study group appointed to 'examine management principles and structures in local government at both elected members and officer levels'. The report includes frequent reference to the corporate management, the management process and the management team. There is also an increasing number of books which examine management in the public sector. There appears, therefore, to be a growing acceptance of the term management as the general descriptive label and administration as relating to the more specific function of the operation of procedures used by management. Administration can be seen as taking place in accordance with some sort of rules of procedures, whereas management implies a greater degree of discretion.

For the purpose of this book, administration is interpreted as part of the management process, and concerned with the design and implementation of systems and procedures to help meet stated objectives. Thus, the all-encompassing nature of management makes it specifically relevant for use for the purpose of this book.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Itemize the function of management.
2. What is as an administration?

**1.6 Summary**

Management is a subject which many have strong views but few have been able to agree on a definition. There are, however, a number of popular views as to the meaning of management. Management in the true sense involves the accomplishment of goals or objectives and is not simply a position within a business. Many people have the word manager in their titles, but in actuality they merely preside over an activity rather than manage it toward the accomplishment of a certain objective. Management is a process or activity, which takes place at all levels in an organisation. It is not carried out only by people with manager in their job title. Departmental heads, Supervisors, Foremen, Stores Officers, Presidents or even Boy's scout leader all performs managerial functions; although obviously not at all of the same type of equal importance. It is the task, which a person performs which is of importance not the job title. Hence managers, whoever they may be, have the same set of functions in an organization. Thus, these activities are called management functions, because, they identify broadly with what managers do. These managerial functions are generally considered central to a discussion of management by authors. There is clearly an overlap between the terms management and administration and are tended to be used, therefore, in accordance with the convenience of individual writers. This confirms the feeling that although most people perceive a difference between the two terms, this difference is not easy to describe. The use of the term administration has traditionally been associated with public sector organizations, but the term management is now used increasingly.

**1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources**

Koontz, H. & Wehrich, H. (1980). *Management: A Book of Readings*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc. Hill, W. L. & Jones, R. J. (2004). *Strategic Management: An Integrated Approach*. (6th ed.). New Delhi: Biztantra. Ishola, T. O. (2004). *Management of Stores Activities*. (1st ed.). Wadtsen Dusme International Ltd. Stewart,

R. (1991). *Managing Today and Tomorrow*. New York: Macmillan.



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Answers to SAEs 1

1. A science or art Management is often referred to as an art because it deals with the practical application of both knowledge and skill to achieve an objective. And since it involves the use of certain management techniques, principles and theories that are today well developed and organised it is also called a science. It has, however, been argued that the science and art of management are not mutually exclusive, they are complimentary. As the science of management improves so should the art of management. A balance between the two is needed. Management will therefore always be a mixture of both art and science.

2. Management is generally considered to have three major dimensions: technical, conceptual and human. The technical dimension consists of the manager's expertise in computers, accounting, or purchasing or marketing. There seems to be little question that today's managers are technically competent. While they know the technical requirement to improve their effectiveness in producing goods and services, there is still the need for better management. If a good job is already being done on the technical aspect, then it follows that more needs to be done on the conceptual and human dimensions for modern management

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Management Functions:

- i. The planning function;
- ii. The organizing function;
- iii. The staffing function;
- iv. The directing function;
- v. The coordinating function;
- vi. The controlling function

2. Administration as: That part of management which is concerned with the installation and carrying out of the procedures by which the programme is laid down and communicated, and the progress of activities is regulated and checked against plans. In this regard, administration is said to be a purposeful process, which involves the setting of objectives, the determination of policies and strategies, and the direction of people in some group purpose or endeavour.

UNIT 4 PERSPECTIVES OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR (O.B.)

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Perspectives of Organisational Behaviour
 - 1.3.1 Definition of Organizational Behaviour (O.B.)
- 1.4 Influences on Behaviour in Organizations
- 1.5 Cultural Influences and Organizational Behaviour
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Understanding organizational behaviour is a key skill for all staff so they can compete successfully in an ever-changing marketplace where the whole organization is able to respond quickly and together. For this to occur, managers and supervisors need to understand how and why individuals behave as they do and deliver a truly excellent organization.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- define organizational behaviour as a field of study
- identify the various influences on behaviour in organizations and their impacts
- describe the ways in which culture interacts with business.



1.3 Perspectives organizational behaviour

1.3.1 Organizational behaviour as a field of study

As a field of study, O.B is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour in organizations. It represents the behavioural approach to management though not the whole of management. In other words, organizational behaviour does not intend to portray the whole of management since there are other recognized approaches to management including the process, qualitative system and contingency approaches.

The study of O.B. is generally concerned with how to understand, predict and influence human behaviour in organizations. It basically deals with the human aspect of business and industrial concern. It is a truth that organizations are faced with a mirage of intractable financial, technical, scientific problems etc., None is, however, more serious and challenging than the complex task of understanding why people behave the way they do in an organization.

In the past, managers and others possessing authority within (or over) organizations found it necessary to deal with such organizational problems largely through information. That is, they had to rely upon common sense, trial and error, or the proverbial “wisdom of the ages” in dealing or handling organization-based problems. Indeed, in the past, most practicing managers either ignored the conceptual and human dimensions of their job or made some overtly simplistic assumptions. Most managers (then) thought and many still do, that their employees were basically lazy, that they were interested only in money and that if you could make them happy, they would be productive. Such assumption in a way presents management problems so clear-cut and easy to solve. Hence all management had to do was to devise monetary incentive plans, ensure security and provide good working conditions; by this morale would be high and maximum productivity would result. It was as simple as one, two, and three.

Unfortunately, this informal approach proved ineffective in practice. Although no real harm has been done, in fact some impressive results were recorded and some actually resulted in the early stage of organizational development. But it is now evident that such a simplistic approach falls far short of providing a meaningful solution to the complex human problems facing today’s management. The major fault of the traditional approach is that the assumptions overlook far too many aspects of the problem. Human behaviour at work is much complicated and diverse than is suggested by the economic security – working approach. Similarly, trial and error is costly and it offers no guarantee of success.

While the limitations of an informal, common-sense approach to organization problems were always apparent, they become even more painfully obvious during the 19th and early 20th centuries. At that time, rapid industrialization, major technological advances and sheer growth in size both intensified long standing difficulties and created many new ones.

Faced with long standing chaotic conditions, thoughtful managers and scholars began a search for other perhaps more effective, means of dealing with them. Fortunately, one new approach was soon suggested by the emergence of several fields, known collectively as the Behaviour Sciences. These new disciplines (e.g. psychology, sociology, political science) attempted to add to knowledge of human behaviour through the use of rigorous scientific methods and as they quickly discovered, this tactic really worked. Within a few short decades, the behavioural sciences had contributed important new insights into human and human society. This rapid progress led to the attempt (or idea) to apply the new knowledge (insights) and methods of these fields of behavioural sciences) to the task of understanding organizations and solving their complex problems. As these ideas took shape, the field of O.B itself was born.

Presently, O.B. is an active, vigorous field with two major goals:

1. Increased understanding of organizations and behaviour within them
2. Application of this knowledge to the solution of many practical problems and the enhancement of organizational effectiveness.

Along this line, O.B. may be conveniently defined as the field that seeks enhanced knowledge of behaviour in organizational settings through the scientific study of individual, group and organizational processes; the goal of such knowledge being the enhancement of both organizational effectiveness and individual wellbeing.

This is a working definition because to fully understand why people act and think as they do in organizational settings, we must know something about them as individuals (e.g. their attitudes, perceptions, motives) sometimes about the group to which they belong (e.g. leaders policies, norms) and sometimes about their total organization (e.g. it culture, values, structure). Careful attention to each of these factors is central than in modern O.B and this should be fully reflected by many definitions of the field. Similarly, there is general agreement in the field O.B that knowledge about organizations and O.B. should be put into practical use.

Further, there is also agreement that it should be used in two major ways. First, it should contribute to enhanced organizational effectiveness. Productivity efficiency and product quality should all benefit from such applications. Second, it should contribute to enhanced wellbeing of people. Indeed, all knowledge about O.B should be used to improve the quality of work life, increase job satisfaction and further the

career development of individuals. In this regard, the application of O.B knowledge is both sides of the same coin; the two are intimately and consistently intertwined. Lastly, since O.B took its “entrance cue” from the behavioural sciences, it naturally built on the basic principle first established in these fields, that of application of the science methods to the study of complex human phenomenon.

Given these facts, it is not surprising that modern O.B is largely scientific in orientation. It seems to increase knowledge through an empirical, science based approach. Practitioners are fully agreed that careful conducted research, carried out in accordance with basic scientific principles, is the best single way of adding to our store of knowledge about O.B. However, while O.B is basically scientific in orientation, it is far from rigid in this regard, that is, it is less defensive about its scientific perspective than other disciplines.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Definition and Perspectives of Organizational Behaviour (O.B.)
2. Itemize two major goals Organizational Behaviour (O.B) active vigorous field.

1.4 Influences on Behaviour in Organizations

A number of variables in terms of the influences on behaviour in organization are discernible in providing parameters within which to identify a number of interrelated dimensions – the individual, the group, the organization, and the environment – which collectively influence behaviour in work organizations. See Figure 2.1 below for these influences and their impact on the management of organizational operations.

The individual Organizations

Are made up of their individual members. The individual is a central feature of organizational behaviour and a necessary part of any behavioural situation, whether acting in isolation or as part of a group, in response to expectations of the organization, or as a result of influences of the external environment. Where the needs of the individual and the demands of the organization are incompatible, it results in frustration and conflict. It is the task of management to provide a working environment which permits the satisfaction of individual needs as well as the attainment of organizational goals

The group

Groups exist in all organizations and are essential to their working and performances. The organization is comprised of groups of people and almost everyone in an organization will be a member of one or more groups. Informal groups arise from the social needs of people within the

organization. People in groups influence each other in many ways, and groups may develop their own hierarchies and leaders. Group pressures can have a major influence over the behaviour and performance of individual members. An understanding of group structure and behaviour complements knowledge of individual behaviour and adds a further dimension to organizational behaviour.

The organization

Individuals and groups interact within the structure of the formal organization. Structure is created by management to establish relationships between individuals and groups, to provide order and systems and to direct the efforts of the organization into goal-seeking activities. It is through the formal structure that people carry out their organizational activities in order to achieve aims and objectives. Behaviour is affected by patterns of organizational structure, technology, styles of leadership and systems of management through which organizational processes are planned, directed and controlled. The focus of attention therefore, is on the impact of organization structure and design, and patterns of management, on the behaviour of people within the organization.

The environment

All organizations function as part of the broader external environment of which it is part. There are different variables within the external environment that affect the organization. For example, technological and scientific development, economic activity, social and cultural influences and governmental actions have tremendous impact on organizational operations.

The effects of the operations of the organization within its environment are reflected in terms of the management of opportunities and risks and the successful achievement of its aims and objectives. The increasing rate of change in environmental factors has necessitated the need to study the total organization and the processes by which the organization attempts to adapt to the external demands placed upon it. These different dimensions above provide contrasting but related approaches to the understanding of human behaviour in organizations. They present a number of alternative ways for the study of the subject and extent of related analysis.

1.5 Cultural Influences and Organizational Behaviour

Culture is defined as that part of human action that is socially as opposed to genetically transmitted. It is that which causes one group of people to act collectively in a way that is different from another. Needle

(1999) identifies three different ways in which culture interacts with business. These are:

- i. Our socialization, the influences which shape our behaviour in a particular social setting, will determine our individual's orientation to work.
- ii. We see organizations as societies in microcosm with their own specific cultures and ways of transmitting these cultures to their members.
- iii. Culture is used as an analytical device to distinguish one society from another. Hofstede (1980) as cited by Needle (1999) identified four key cultural variables that tend to show the extent to which business activities are culturally defined. The variables are power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity.

Power Distance: This is the extent to which members of a society accept that power is distributed unequally in organizations. Inequality is based upon physical economic, intellectual or social characteristics. In a society where power distance is small, attempt is made to reduce the inequality, while in a society where it is large, social relations is based on it.

Individualism: Individualistic society shows preference for looking after oneself or one's immediate family group, a belief in freedom and a tendency towards a calculative involvement with work organization. In collective society the reverse is the case.

Uncertainty Avoidance: - This is the extent to which members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty. Those with strong uncertainty avoidance tend to be anxious about the future and have inability to tolerate deviant ideas, while those with weak uncertainty avoidance show a willingness to accept new ideas and take risks.

Masculinity: - Masculine societies tend to display a preference for achievement, assertiveness and material success and a strong belief in gender roles, while feminine societies tend to place more emphasis on the quality of life, care for others and equality, more especially between the sexes.

Motivation theories such as those propounded by Herzberg, McClelland and Vroom reflect high individualism and masculinity. A generally accepted conclusion that can be drawn from the above is that cultural influences in different societies will result in different styles of organizational behaviour and different patterns of organization structure.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- 1 List 4 types of influence on behaviour in an organisation.
2. What is cultural influence on an organisational behaviour?



1.6 Summary

The study of OB is generally concerned with how to understand, predict and influence human behaviour in organizations. It basically deals with the human aspect of business and industrial concern. To fully understand why people, act and think as they do in organizational settings, we must know something about them as individuals (e.g., their attitudes, perceptions, motives) sometimes about the group to which they belong (e.g. leaders policies, norms) and sometimes about their total organization (e.g. its culture, values, structure).

Careful attention to each of these factors is central than in modern O.B and this should be fully reflected by many definitions of the field. Finally, a number of variables in terms of the influences on behaviour in organization are discernible in providing parameters within which to identify a number of interrelated dimensions – the individual, the group, the organization, and the environment – which collectively influence behaviour in work organizations.



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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. The study of O.B. is generally concerned with how to understand, predict and influence human behaviour in organizations. It basically deals with the human aspect of business and industrial concern. It is a truth that organizations are faced with a mirage of intractable financial, technical, scientific problems etc., None is, however, more serious and challenging than the complex task of understanding why people behave the way they do in an organization.

2. 1. Increased understanding of organizations and behaviour within them

2. Application of this knowledge to the solution of many practical problems and the enhancement of organizational effectiveness

Answers to SAEs 2

1.

- 1) The individual
- 2) The group
- 3) The organization
- 4) The environment

2. Cultural Influences

Culture is defined as that part of human action that is socially as opposed to genetically transmitted. It is that which causes one group of people to act collectively in a way that is different from another

UNIT 5 PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES IN AN ORGANISATIONS

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Principles and Practices in an Organization
 - 1.3.1 Types of Organizations
 - 1.3.2 Principles of Organization
- 1.4 Frederick W. Taylor (1856-1915) the Scientific Management Movement
- 1.5 Urwick and Gulick (1937) Principles in Organisations
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

This unit will take a look at principles, types and concepts of organizations. Organization is composed of people whose collective efforts are geared towards the attainment of a collective goal. It becomes necessary that a structure should be provided for the clear allocation of resources. This unit discusses the intricacies of organization and the principles underlying the ability of an organization to achieve set goals.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to state the:

- Meaning of organization
- Types of organization
- Principles of organization as enunciated by Fayol, Taylor and Urwic



1.3 Principles and Practices in an organization

1.3.1 Concept of Organization

The concept of organization has been perceived from different perspectives. It is generally believed that every individual belongs to one

form of organization or another. Different authorities have tried to give different but related definitions of the word “organization”. The common ones are given below:

An organization is:

- i. A planned unit deliberately structured for the purpose of achieving specific goals.
- ii. An assemblage of interacting human beings with a central coordination unit (Marsh and Simeon).
- iii. A system of roles graded by authority (Wright Mills). is a social unit or human grouping deliberately constructed and re-constructed to seek specific goals (Parson and Harcourt).
- iv. A collection of those activities directed at organizing.

What is clearly identified from the above definitions is that an organization is composed of people. Since an organization is composed of people whose collective efforts are geared towards the attainment of a collective goal, it becomes necessary that a structure should be provided for the clear allocation of resources. This is supported by Misaazi (1982) who says that organizations are needed to provide a structural framework for communication, command and coordination of activities and people’s efforts.

Key characteristics of organizations are:

- They are set up to pursue objectives (co-operative mission)
- They have individuals and groups who interact
- There are jobs and tasks to be performed
- It is a system of co-operative activities
- It has an input-output process.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What is an organization?
2. Itemize the key characteristics of organizations.

1.3.2 Types of Organization

Several types of organizations can be distinguished. Broadly, they are classified into two:

- (a) Formal organizations and
- (b) Informal organizations

Formal Organization A formal organization is established to achieve certain goals. The common features of a formal organization are:

- i. Pre-planned pattern of authority and influence
- ii. Deliberate allocation of functions
- iii. Existence stated policies, procedure and regulations
- iv. Following of precedent • defined activities of individuals and departments or units

- v. Existence of long-term objectives
- vi. Membership is gained consciously and largely openly.

Informal Organization

This is also referred to as a spontaneous organization in the sense that it is not as a result of a conscious plan. In many businesses, large or small, there is usually a tendency for an informal organization to grow up and operate concurrently. This may be to remedy inherent shortfalls in the organization or to take advantage of a weak manager, anticipate natural changes eventually requiring the taking of formal action. In the view of R.B. Ayanniyi, informal organizations can assist in achieving better cooperation and motivation of workers if properly encouraged.

The following are some elements of informal organizations:

- i. They can lead to meritocracy
- ii. Employee reactions in certain situations may become unpredictable
- iii. Planning becomes difficult
- iv. They lead to short-circuiting in the management decision chain.

1.3.3 Herry Fayol Principles of Organization

The principles of organization as formulated by Henri Fayol are:

- 1) Division of work: Increase productivity as a result of specialization
- 2) Authority & Responsibility: The right to give order. This should be commensurate with responsibility.
- 3) Discipline: There must respect for and obedience to the rules and objectives of the organization.
- 4) Unity of Command: Each subordinate should come under from and be responsible to one superior.
- 5) Unity of Direction: Every part should contribute to the attainment of the enterprise objective.
- 6) Subordination of Individual Interest: The interest of the employee or group should not prevail over the interest of the organization.
- 7) Remuneration: Workers must be paid fair wages for services rendered.
- 8) Centralization: There should be a balance between concentration and distribution of authority in the organization.
- 9) Scalar Chain: There should be clear line of unbroken authority.
- 10) Order: There should be social and material order. A place for everything and everything in its place.
- 11) Equity: Fairness, cordiality, kindness and justice based on predetermined norms.
- 12) Stability of Tenure: Job security should be used to reward good performance.
- 13) Esprit de Corps: Unity in strength.

- 14) Initiatives: All personnel must be allowed to show their initiative in some way.

1.4 Frederick W. Taylor

(1856-1915): the Scientific Management Movement

Frederick Taylor is commonly referred to as the father of scientific management movement.

As a staff of the Midvale Street Company in Pennsylvania, USA, he harped on his work experience at various levels of the organization to establish the fact that a substantial amount of inefficiency was prevalent in the performance of all tasks at the operational level. The high level of inefficiency, according to him, was partly due to the fact that workers were in charge of both planning and performing their job, which he claimed, led to wastage. He perceived that a gap existed between actual production and cost. He believed that proper work methods and standards would eliminate or reduce the level of inefficiency. Taylor's research work was largely focused on:

- Improvement of working tools
- Analysis and innovation of work methods
- Enforced standardization of work methods
- Enforced cooperation.

Taylor's principles as summarized by Villers (1960) are:

- (a) Time Study Principle – Production effort should be measured by the standard and time and accurate time study established for the work.
- (b) Piece-rate Principle – Wages should be made proportional to output. Rate being based on standards already established.
- (c) Separation of Planning from Performance – Managements should be responsible for planning and also make sure performance is physically possible.
- (d) Scientific Methods of Work Principle – Managements should take charge of the work method and train the workforce accordingly.
- (e) Managerial Control Principle – Managers should be taught how to apply scientific principles of management and control.
- (f) Functional Management Principle – Advocates the application of military principles and the design of industrial organisations to serve desired purpose.

In addition, Frederick, Taylor also advocated that:

- i. Law is the chief instrument for efficient management
- ii. Good life for the workforce must be brought about by monetary rewards

iii. Administration should be interrelated with the personal aspirations of the workers

1.5 Urwick and Gulick (1937)

Urwick and Gulick worked on Fayol's principles of management to derive more articulate and up-to-date principles of management. According to them, the primary works of the executive are: planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting, which stand for the acronym: "POSDCORB".

This was later expanded by Enaohwo and Eferakeya, (1989) as POSDCORBE, with the addition of 'E'.

P - Planning

O - Organizing

S - Staffing

D -Directing

C - Coordinating

R - Reporting

B - Budgeting

E - Evaluation.

The above represent the traditional functions of the chief executive

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. State the Principles of Organization
2. What is Frederick W. Taylor research work was largely focused on?



1.6 Summary

An organisation is composed of people whose collective efforts are geared toward the attainment of collective goal. Two types of organisations are identified. These are formal and informal organisations. The Henri Fayol's principles of organisation which should form the basis for the effective administration or management of organisations were also stated.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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Koontz, H. & Weihrich, H. (1980). *Management. A Book of Readings.*
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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. An organization is composed of people whose collective efforts are geared towards the attainment of a collective goal, it becomes necessary that a structure should be provided for the clear allocation of resources. This is supported by Misaazi (1982) who says that organizations are needed to provide a structural framework for communication, command and coordination of activities and people's efforts.
2. Key characteristics of organizations are:
 - i. They are set up to pursue objectives (co-operative mission)
 - ii. They have individuals and groups who interact
 - iii. There are jobs and tasks to be performed
 - iv. It is a system of co-operative activities
 - v. It has an input-output process.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. 1. Division
2. Authority & Responsibility
3. Discipline
4. Unity of Command
5. Unity of Direction.
6. Subordination of Individual Interest
7. Remuneration of authority in the organization.
9. Scalar Chain
10. Order:
11. Equity
12. Stability of Tenure.
13. Espirit de Corps: Unity in strength
14. Initiatives
2.
 - 1) Improvement of working tools
 - 2) Analysis and innovation of work methods
 - 3) Enforced standardization of work methods
 - 4) Enforced cooperation.

UNIT 1 ROLES AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to the nature of roles
 - 1.3.1 Role Conflict
 - 1.3.2 Types of Conflict
 - 1.3.2.1 Intra-individual Conflict
 - 1.3.2.2 Conflict Due to Frustration
 - 1.3.2.3 Goal Conflict
 - 1.3.3 Interpersonal Conflict
 - 1.3.4 Intergroup Behaviour and Conflict
 - 1.3.5 Organizational Conflict
 - 1.3.6 Strategies for Conflict Resolution – (Managing Conflict)
 - 1.3.7 The Role of Conflict in Today’s Organizations
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Persons living in modern society assume a succession of roles throughout life. A typical sequence of social roles would be that of child, son or daughter, teenager, college student, boyfriend or girlfriend, spouse, parent, and grandparent. Each of these roles has recognised expectations which are acted out like a role in a play. Organizational roles have attached to them a required set of tasks and responsibilities (often, but not always spelled out in a job description). The roles which individuals bring into the organization are relevant and closely connected to their behaviour. However, in the study of O. B, the organizational role is most important because it often carries conflicting demands and ambiguity in the first line supervisor.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define role as a concept
- Differentiate between role conflicts and role ambiguities
- Explain clearly the different types of role conflict

- State and discuss the different conflict management strategies
- List the role of conflict in an organization.

1.3 Introduction to Roles and Role Expectations

Role has been defined as a position that has expectations evolving from established norms. In other word, roles are positions in an organization defined by a set of expectations about behaviour of any incumbent or occupant.

Role by its nature draws or attracts behaviour from the person who holds the role or position. The position you occupied and the expectations from such a position refers to your role in the society, family and organization. Persons living in modern society assume a succession of roles throughout life. A typical sequence of social roles would be that of child, son or daughter, teenager, college student, boyfriend or girlfriend, spouse, parent, and grandparent. Each of these roles has recognized expectations which are acted out like a role in a play.

Similarly, adults in modern society fill numerous other roles at the same time. It is not uncommon for the adult middle-class male to be simultaneously playing the roles of husband, father, provider, son (to elderly parent), worker or manager, coach, church member, member of a social club; officer of a community group and weekend golfer. Although all the roles which individuals bring into the organization are relevant or closely connected to their behaviour, in the study of O. B, the organizational role is the most important.

1. Roles such as assembly line worker, clerk, supervisor, sales person, engineer, system analyst, HOD, VP, and chairperson of the board often carry conflicting demands and expectations.

2. Organizational roles have attached to them a required set of tasks and responsibilities (often, but not always spelled out in a job description). The formal role tells it occupant what activity is actually expected, and often what result are desired. Since salaries are paid in returns for performance of the original role, roles have a powerful effect on behaviour. Roles can also be informal, creating expectation that is not official, but that strongly influence behaviour. Both formal and informal can be requirements about both task and interactions.

3. The role tells the person who holds it, not only what tasks to carry out, but always with whom to interact in carrying out the tasks. Through the requirement of the role may never be written, they will be conveyed to the occupant and more or less enforced; in any event, they strongly influence behaviour. Original role tells tasks, duties, and activities to perform and also tell who to interact what. Whether formal or written and or informal, role shapes the behaviour of a position occupant. A jobless graduate who suddenly got elected as a local government chairman will have his behaviour moderated by his new role or position.

Expectation draws or attracts behaviour from the person who holds the role. However, roles also shape behaviour in other, less direct ways. The nature of the tasks assigned to a role have impact on the feelings of the occupant about how to work, depending upon whether the tasks are simple or complex, repetitive or varied, stationary or mobile, concentration – intense or not, equipment/technology-oriented or not, and so on. In general, researchers have found that increasing numbers of individuals respond with greater commitment and efforts when the tasks of their job provide stimulation and challenge. The exceptions are that individuals whose skills and aspirations are so low do not respond to challenge; that leads to declining breed in an organization.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. what is the definition of the term individual role in an organisation.
2. Discuss the organisational roles.

1.3.1 Role Conflict

As noted earlier, the role which individuals bring into the organization is relevant and is closely connected to their behavior. However, in the study of O. B the organizational role is most important because it often carry conflicting demands and ambiguity in that of the first line supervisor. The first line supervisor is often described as the person in the middle. One set of expectation is that the supervisor is part of the management team and should have the corresponding values and attitudes. A second set of expectation is that the supervisor came from, and is still part of the workers' group and should have the value and attitudes. Still a third set of expectations is that the supervisors, though a separate link between management and the workforce, also have their own unique set of value and attitudes. Conflict arises because supervisors themselves, like workers and managers, and may not know which set of expectations they should follow. Hence, applied to the work place, Role Conflict –involves an incompatibility between job tasks/activities, resources, rules or policies, and other people. Ordinarily, conflict is defined as the struggle between incompatible or opposing needs, wishes, ideas, interest or people. Conflict arises when individual or groups encounters goals that parties cannot attain/obtain satisfactorily. In any organization, setting groups do put effective pressure on individuals by the requirement to comply with the rules and regulations of their association. Pressure arises particularly because, usually unwritten 'laws' to fall in line are often backed by sanctions in the form of the uncooperative behaviour of the rest of group and all possible forms of ostracisation. And this can lead to stress on the individual who dares to fall out with the group. This stress arises as a result of role conflict and role ambiguity.

Role Conflict Occurs when a group member is obliged to behave in ways inconsistent with his innate behavioural patterns. There are four principal types of role conflicts:

- i. The first type is known as inter-sender role conflict and it occurs when the inconsistent demand faced by the individual comes from different members of a group.
- ii. The second, referred to as inter-sender role occurs when the inconsistent demand comes from the same manager or office.
- iii. Inter role conflict is the third and it is induced when someone outside a group makes a demand inconsistent with the group's (own role).
- vi. The fourth type called person-role conflict develops when the group's demand is inconsistent with the individual's own beliefs, attitudes and general value system.

Role Ambiguity: This result from inadequate information or knowledge to do a job. This ambiguity may be due to inadequate training, poor communication, or the deliberate withholding or distortion of information by a co-worker or supervisor. Role ambiguity is of two types – Task Ambiguity and Emotional Ambiguity. Task Ambiguity occurs when an individual is uncertain about his group's desired and expected behaviour or task. On the other hand, Emotional Ambiguity occurs when a group member is unsure of his status or the person is unsure about his supervisor's assessment of him. Two factors have been identified as commonly giving rise to role conflict and ambiguity.

vii Role conflict and ambiguity may occur either because an individual is new in a group and is yet to understand his role, status and the group's expectations.

viii. Because of a structure and role relationship change in the group. In any event, the result of role conflict and ambiguity is stress for the individual, and there is a substantial body of research indicating undesirable outcomes for the individual and the organization.

Fillery and House (1983) indicated in their research report that the impact of the undesirable effects from role conflicts depends upon four major variables.

- a. Awareness of role conflict
- b. Acceptance of conflicting job pressures
- c. Ability to tolerate stress
- d. General personality make up.

Roles conflict cannot be wished or completely planned away. The right approach will be for management to recognize the existence of role conflict, attempt to understand its cause and ramifications and then try to manage it as effectively as possible.

1.3.2 Types of Conflict

Interactive behaviour can occur at the individual, personal, group or organizational level. It often results in conflict at each of these levels. Hence the following represents the major types of conflict:

1.3.2.1 Intra-individual Conflict

In reality, a smooth progression of the fulfillment of one's role expectation does not always occur. This is because within every individual there are usually:

- a. A number of competing needs and roles, the role of a man as a manager and as father/husband.
- b. A variety of different ways that motives and roles can be expressed.
- c. Many types of barriers which can occur between the drive/need and the goal.
- d. Both positive and negative aspects attached to desire goals. These complicate the human adaptation process and often result into conflict. Intra-individual forms of conflict can be analysed in terms of the frustration paradigm, goals and roles.

3.3.2.2 Conflict Due to Frustration

Frustration occurs when a motivated need drive is blocked before reaching a desired goal. The barrier may be either overt (outward or physical) or covert (inward or mental-psychological). Frustration normally triggers defense mechanism in the person. Traditional psychologists felt that frustration always leads to the defense mechanism of aggression. On becoming frustrated, it was through that a person will react by physically or symbolically attacking the barrier. An example of a frustration situation might be that of a thirsty person who comes up against stuck or locked door/gate and is prevented from reaching a water tap/foundation. Figure 3.1 below illustrates this simple frustrating situation.

3.3.2.3 Goal Conflict Another common source of conflict for an individual is a goal which has both positive and negative feature or two more competing goals. While in frustration a single motive is blocked before the goals is reached, in goal conflict two or more motives block one another. For ease of analysis, three separate types of goal conflict are generally identified:

Approach – approach conflict results where an individual is motivated to approach two more mutually exclusive of desirable goals. For example, a new graduate confronted with two excellent job opportunities, such situations often cause the person some anxiety but are quickly resolved.

Approach – avoidance conflict; this is a situation where an individual is motivated to approach a goal and at the same time motivated to avoid it. The single goal contains both positive and negative characteristics for the individual. Normally, organizational goals have positive and negative aspects for organization participations. Increase in fuel pump price though necessary for President Obasanjo to be able to deregulate fuel, can also bring down his government and his political party chances. Accordingly, the organizational goal may actually cause some anxiety at the point where approach is equal avoidance. That is a situation of 'do-ldo-it or not?' An above average aged lady (mainly 45) and unmarried as a CED faced decision to marry a rehabilitated ex-convict. A born-again oil worker/banker suddenly faced with the need to retribute a

forged first and/or second-degree certificate, confesses and loses his/her job etc. Avoidance – avoidance conflict: This is where the individual is motivated to avoid two or more negative but mutually exclusive goals. That is both opportunities are not attractive, and there is a great difficulty in avoiding both.

Avoidance – avoidance conflict is easily resolved. A person faced with two negative goals may not choose either of them and may simply leave the situation. Most personnel in modern organizations are unable to resolve this for example worker who unable to leave. Such workers cannot easily resolve their avoidance – avoidance conflict in a time when jobs are very scarce.

3.3.2 Inter-personal Conflict

Besides the intra-individual aspects of conflict, the interpersonal aspects of conflict behaviour are important dynamic of interactive behaviour. This is a conflict that can arise or result when two or more persons with personality differences are interacting with one another. Two popular ways to analyse this interpersonal conflict are through transactional analysis and the Johari window. This is beyond the scope of this book.

3.3.3 Intergroup Behaviour and Conflict

Conceptually similar to interpersonal behaviour is intergroup behaviour. One way to look at organizations is in terms of interacting groups. Instead of depicting an organization as being made up of interacting individuals, one could think of it a consisting of interacting group.

Groups in conflict have much different behaviour from that of smoothly co-operating groups. The following characteristics have been identified as depicting group in conflict:

- i. There is a clear distinction and comparison between “we” (the ingroup) and “they” (the out-group)
- ii. A group that feels it is in conflict becomes more cohesive and pulls together to present a solid front to defeat the other group.
- iii. The positive feelings and cohesion within the in-group do not transfer to the members for the out-group. The members of the out-group are viewed as the enemy rather than as neutrals.
- iv. Threatened group members feel superior – They over-estimate their strength and under-estimate that of members of another group.
- v. The amount of communication between conflicting groups decreases. When there is communication, it is characterized by negative comments and hostility.
- vi. The cohesion of a group losing in a conflict decrease and the group member experience increased tension among themselves. They look for a scapegoat to blame their failure on.

3.3.4 Organizational Conflict

Organizational conflict is inevitable due to: (1) personality clashes and (2) incompatible pressures and influences. Each member has certain

roles, objectives and responsibilities which may be frustrated by others who induce barriers and do not co-operate.

Hence in the discussion of organization conflict, it must be remembered that inter-individual, interpersonal and intergroup conflict are all inherent in organizational conflict.

More conceptually, has been suggested that there are about seven (7) recognized sources of conflicts in organizations.

1. Competition over resources: This is a cause of conflict difficult to avoid in organizations. This is so because at any point in time some or all of the productive resources are not likely to go round all the groups as desired. This gives rise to competition and contest for the available resources.

2. Differences in perception: In cohesive group, there is the possibility of members perceiving things from their groups' (selfish) perspective.

3. Perceived Superiority in the functional Area/Dept: Status Differences and workflow in organizations from one section or department to another either for control purpose or as a matter of need often breed conflict in the exercise of these functions, there arise conflicts in organizations. The reason is that every group believes in the superiority of its views, ideas or positions.

4. Conflicting Objectives: Subsumed in the overall organizational objectives are the sub goals of the different departments and groups. These goals ought not to conflict and diametrically opposed. Unfortunately, this ideal is rarely achieved in most organizations.

5. Personality Clash: This is a cause of conflict that surfaced only when the conflictive situation becomes antagonistic and openly unco-operative. Differences in leadership styles, prejudices, biased attitude, belief and motivations of a group physical and functional relations are necessarily closed.

6. Reciprocity: One good turn deserves another is popular saying that is relevant for family, mental, personal and work group relationships. However, where the relations between groups are such that one group seem to be always doing something for another group without receiving benefits in return, this gives rise to a feeling of being exploited. This feeling leads to conflict and the exploited group will be motivated to end the relationship.

7. Ambiguous Authority and Responsibility: This often is problematic because management may be unspecific in the assignment of authority associated with the functions delegated and where you have peer groups cooperating on a function, this leads to conflict as each of the peer-group will see ascendancy over the other.

3.3.5 Strategies for Conflict Resolution – (Managing Conflict)

There are different ways of managing conflict, focusing either on interpersonal relationships or on structural changes. Indeed, there are many but difficult choices which depend upon

(1) Contingencies

- (2) The environment
- (3) The technology and
- (4) The needs of individuals, groups and tasks. Two basic conflict handling behaviours have been popularized. These are (i) Assertion and (ii) Co-Operation.

Assertion: This is an attempt to confront the opposition hence this is basically confrontational in approach e.g., USA, Britain against Iraq.
Cooperation: On the other hand, seek to find an agreeable solution.

The two behavioural patterns are further classified into five outcomes:

- i. Competition: This characterized by low cooperation and very high in assertion. The competing parties use weapons such as argument and threats to achieve their goals. This attitude can be useful when the other party is not ready to cooperate and when issued at stake it vital critical to one's survival.
- ii. Collaboration: Involves considerable assertion and cooperation in an attempt to satisfying the need of been partners. It often called a non-zero-sum-game since both parties can win and lose at the same time.
- iii. Accommodation: requires high cooperation and low assertion since it involves giving-in to the other party of sacrificing one's own personal needs. Accommodation is done for number reasons: (1) the parties have no other choice (2) when one party finds it more beneficial to give-in than to compete on certain issues.
- iv. Avoidance: This shows little assertion and cooperation since it is on moving away from the other party or ignoring or withdrawing from the situation. This is an appropriate behaviour when the issue is trivial or when nothing can be gained by either competing or cooperating.
- v. Compromising: Compromising requires some assertion and some cooperation since this option/behaviour search for partial satisfaction of both parties.

When conflicting parties are:

- i. Low on assertion and cooperation – Avoid Conflict a.Low on assertion and high on cooperation –
- ii. Low on cooperation and high on assertion – Compete
- iii. High on assertion and high on cooperation - Collaborate
- a. Compromise comes at the centre stage or the conflict handling behaviour.

It is however important to note that the many approaches to resolving (group) conflicts can be easily classified according to the outcome of such resolutions. Conflict situations – (for that matter, these could also be used in intergroup and organizational conflict resolution). The principal classes of methods include:

- i. Lose -Lose Methods
- ii. Win iii. Win - - Lose Methods win Methods

Win-win strategy is the most effective, but since the other two types are so commonly used, they should also be understood.

1. Lose-Lose Strategy: In a lose-lose approach to conflict resolution, both parties lose. This method will typically be employed where the parties are not sure of a successful outcome. Hence the approach is based on the conventional wisdom that 'half-a-loaf is better than none'. The usage of this method can however take several forms; first compromise; secondly paying off one of the parties in the conflict especially in the form of bribes. A third approach is to use an outside third party or arbitrator. And finally, the parties can resort to bureaucratic rules or existing regulations to resolve the conflict. This strategy is sometimes the only way that conflicts can be resolved but it is less a desirable method than the other. In the final analysis, the four approaches inherent in this strategy will still be resolved but it is less a desirable method than others. In the final analysis, the four approaches inherent in this strategy will still lead to both parties in the conflict losing.

2. Win-Lose Strategy: A win-lose strategy is a common way of resolving conflict in modern society, especially in a competitive culture. One party in a conflict situation will simply attempt to marshal its forces to win, and the other party loses. The following characteristics are notable in a win-lose situation:

- i. There is a clear, we-they distinction between the parties
- ii. The parties direct their energies toward each other in an atmosphere of victory and defeat
- iii. The parties see the issue from their own point of view
- iv. The emphasis is to solutions rather than on the attainment of goals values of objectives
- v. Conflict are personalized and self-judge-mental
- vi. The parties take a short-run view of the issues.

Examples of a win-lose strategies can be found in superior-subordinate relationships, union-management relations and many other conflict situations found in today's organizations. This strategy can be both functional and dysfunctional in consequences. It is functional when it creates a competitive spirit to win and it can lead to cohesiveness and spirit-de-corps within individuals or groups in the conflict situation. Dysfunctionally, the strategy ignores other solutions such as a cooperative, mutually agreed-upon outcome and there are pressures to conform which deny questioning opportunity and a creative atmosphere for conflict resolution. Worst still in the strategy is just that someone must lose although the loser may learn something in the process; they also tend to be bitter and vindictive. A much healthier strategy is to have both tending to be bitter and vindictive.

3. Win-Win Strategy: A win-win strategy of conflict resolution probably the most desirable from a human and organizational standpoint. Indeed,

it is generally referred to as the problem-solving method because all energies and creativities are aimed at solving the problems rather than beating the other party. This strategy takes the advantage of functional aspects of win lose and eliminates many of the dysfunctional aspects. The needs of both parties in the conflict situation are met and both parties received rewarding outcomes. A review of the relevant literature revealed that ‘win-win decision strategies are associated with better judgments, favourable bargains’. Although it is often difficult to accomplish a win-win outcome of an interpersonal conflict, this should be a major goal of the management of conflict.

3.3.4 The Role of Conflict in Today’s Organizations

By definition, conflict can be described as “the exercise of power between two or more parties (individuals or groups)”; problem solving on the other hand “is the exercise of fact of logic by parties seeking a high quality mutually acceptable solution to a problem”. The existence of conflict thus gives rise to problems-solving. Although, there are problem-solving exercises and processes that are not a response to conflict problems, good management however engage in problem solving by anticipating conflicts and planning for their avoidance before they become problems. It is however a huge error to believe that conflicts are always bad and like plagues must be avoided at all cost. Traditionally, the management of organizational conflict was based on the simple assumptions that conflict is by definition avoidable; often caused by trouble-making and that scapegoat must always be found. Hence formal authority and classical restructuring were used in attempts to (entirely) eliminate conflict. However, the more modern approach is to assume the inevitability of conflict. Recognize that it is not always bad for the organization, and try to manage it effectively rather than merely to eliminate it. Conflict is neither good nor bad. Similarly, outcome of conflict, while predictable, are also neither good nor bad. There are many outcomes.

Constructively used, conflict can:

- i. Create a more dynamic group that is creative, solves problems more easily, make better decision and is generally more productive.
- ii. Lead to innovation and changes; it can energize people to activity, develop protection for something else in the organization (in the divide and conquer sense), and be an important element in the system analysis of the organization.
- iii. Unfortunately, many adverse effects are seen:
- iv. Such as high mental stress
- v. Uncooperative group behaviour
- vi. Misalignments of goals between the group and the organization, various stages of group disintegration, irrational and illogical conduct and communication breakdown.

- vii. The constructive use of conflict however indicates that conflict can be made to work for rather than against goal attainment in the modern organization.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. List seven types of organisational conflict.
2. What is the Role of Conflict in Today's Organizations



1.4 Summary

In any organizational setting groups do put effective pressure on individuals by the requirement to comply with the rules and regulations of their association. Pressure arises particularly because, usually, unwritten 'laws' to fall in line are often backed up by sanctions in the form of the uncooperative behaviour of the rest of group members and all possible forms of ostracisation. And this can lead to stress on the individual who dare fall out with the group. This stress arises as a result of role conflict and role ambiguity. Conflict arises when individual or groups encounters goals that parties cannot attain/obtain satisfactorily. There are, however, strategies designed to handle all types of conflicts that can possibly arise from an organization.



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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Role has been defined as a position that has expectations evolving from established norms. In other word, roles are positions in an

organization defined by a set of expectations about behaviour of any incumbent or occupant.

Organizational roles have attached to them a required set of tasks and responsibilities (often, but not always spelled out in a job description). The formal role tells its occupant what activity is actually expected, and often what results are desired. Since salaries are paid in return for performance of the original role, roles have a powerful effect on behaviour. Roles can also be informal, creating expectations that are not official, but that strongly influence behaviour. Both formal and informal can be requirements about both tasks and interactions.

2. Roles which individuals bring into the organization are relevant or closely connected to their behaviour, in the study of O. B, the organizational role is the most important.

1. Roles such as assembly line worker, clerk, supervisor, sales person, engineer, system analyst, HOD, VP, and chairperson of the board often carry conflicting demands and expectations.

2. Organizational roles have attached to them a required set of tasks and responsibilities (often, but not always spelled out in a job description). The formal role tells its occupant what activity is actually expected, and often what results are desired. Since salaries are paid in return for performance of the original role, roles have a powerful effect on behaviour. Roles can also be informal, creating expectations that are not official, but that strongly influence behaviour. Both formal and informal can be requirements about both tasks and interactions.

3. The role tells the person who holds it, not only what tasks to carry out, but always with whom to interact in carrying out the tasks. Through the requirements of the role may never be written, they will be conveyed to the occupant and more or less enforced; in any event, they strongly influence behaviour. Original roles tell tasks, duties, and activities to perform and also tell who to interact with. Whether formal or written and/or informal, role shapes the behaviour of a position occupant. A jobless graduate who suddenly got elected as a local government chairman will have his behaviour moderated by his new role or position. Expectations draw or attract behaviour from the person who holds the role. However, roles also shape behaviour in other, less direct ways. The nature of the tasks assigned to a role has an impact on the feelings of the occupant about how to work, depending upon whether the tasks are simple or complex, repetitive or varied, stationary or mobile, concentration – intense or not, equipment/technology-oriented or not, and so on. In general, researchers have found that increasing numbers of individuals respond with greater commitment and efforts when the tasks of their job provide stimulation and challenge. The exceptions are that individuals whose skills and aspirations are so low do not respond to challenge; that leads to declining morale in an organization.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Organizational conflict

is inevitable due to:

1. Competition over resources
2. Differences in perception
3. Perceived Superiority in the functional Area/Dept
4. Conflicting Objectives
5. Personality Clash
6. Reciprocity
7. Ambiguous Authority and Responsibility

2. By definition, conflict can be described as “the exercise of power between two or more parties (individuals or groups)”; problem solving on the other hand “is the exercise of fact of logic by parties seeking a high quality mutually acceptable solution to a problem”. The existence of conflict thus gives rise to problems-solving. Although, there are problem-solving exercises and processes that are not a response to conflict problems, good management however engage in problem solving by anticipating conflicts and planning for their avoidance they become problems. It is however a huge error to believe that conflicts are always bad and like plagues must be avoided at all cost. Traditionally, the management of organizational conflict was based on the simple assumptions that conflict is by definition avoidable; often caused by trouble-making and that scapegoat must always be found. Hence formal authority and classical restructuring were used in attempts to (entirely) eliminate conflict. However, the more modern approach is to assume the inevitability of conflict. Recognize that it is not always bad for the organization, and try to manage it effectively rather than merely to eliminate it. Conflict is neither good nor bad. Similarly, outcome of conflict, while predictable, are also neither good nor bad

UNIT 2 Management of Change

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to the Nature of Change
 - 1.3.1 External and Internal Causes of Change and Rate of Change
 - 1.3.2 Impact of Change on Employees and the Organization
 - 1.3.3 Approaches to Introducing Change
 - 1.3.4 Response to Change
 - 1.3.5 Implications of Resistance to Change
 - 1.3.6 Strategies for Responding to External Challenges for Change
 - 1.3.7 Managing Resistance to Change
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

In the dynamic society surrounding today's organizations, the question of whether change will occur is no longer relevant. Instead, the issue is how do manager and leaders cope with the inevitable barrage change that confront them daily in attempting to keep their organizations viable and current. Although change is a fact of life, if managers are to be effective, they can no longer be content to let change occur as it will. They must be able to develop strategies to plan, direct and control change. This unit exposes you to the dynamic force of nature that is permanent and to how to respond to the challenges it throws up.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain what it means to change
- State the forces that cause changes to happen

- Explain various approaches to introducing change and the response to change
- Discuss the strategies for dealing with response to change.



1.3 Introduction to the Nature of Change

In the dynamic society surrounding today's organizations, the question of whether change will occur is no longer relevant. Instead, the issue is how do manager and leaders cope with the inevitable barrage of change that confront them daily in attempting to keep their organizations viable and current. Although change is a fact of life, if managers are to be effective, they can no longer be content to let change occur as it will. They must be able to develop strategies to plan, direct and control change. To change, in all simplicity, is to make different or to alter, to make or oblige something to or subtraction from a thing or a state of things. Change is natural in the course of development and growth. Society is everywhere in a continual state of transition, every unit of business, even the most private enterprises, as an organ of society, is therefore continually obliged to operate under ever changing conditions and circumstances. Indeed, over a period of 20 years, it is possible for a company, even one that is not growing to experience numerous changes – in its business, product, markets, Competition, government regulation, available technologies, labour markets and its own business strategy. These changes are the inevitable products of its interaction with a world that is not static.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What do you understand with the world change in an organisation?

1.3.1 External and Internal Causes of Change and Rate of Change

Everyone today is keenly aware of and concerned about change. All organizations today are equally vibrating from forces of chance. The forces can be summarized into four (4) broad areas of technology change, the knowledge explosion, product and service obsolescence and social change.

- i. Technological Change: Everyone is keenly aware that the rate of technology change is greater than it has ever been. It is affecting the nature of jobs at all levels and in all types of organizations.
- ii. The Knowledge Explosion: The amount of knowledge is an accelerated path. There has been a transition from an agricultural to an industrial and now to knowledge-based society especially in the advanced societies.

- iii. **Product and Service Obsolescence:** Although some industries worse in this respect than others, the product life cycle is getting shorter and shorter. Textile products, electronics, pharmaceutical products.
- iv. **Social Change:** This involves a change in social attitudes, behaviours, values and belief and composition of the people particularly as this affects their attitude to and even survive, organizations must meet the tremendous challenges presented by all the areas of change. Neither private nor public organizations can compete in today's market place by standing or going backward. This type of business change generally involves organization adjustment.
- v. **Other extraneous external sources of change that can be listed include:**
 - a. consumer needs or taste
 - b. distribution channel
 - c. change in the product life cycle
 - d. shortages of raw materials
 - e. change in management itself for example a change in board of directors
 - f. international monetary policy
 - g. natural disaster like flood, earthquake, tsunamis, volcanic eruption etc.
 - h. political instability
 - i. expectations of the people.

The internal forces of change can take the shape of:

- a. new managerial policies
- b. conflict within the organization
- c. change in management itself with their peculiar philosophies of leadership styles.

The point that must however be stressed is that the external forces that causes change are uncontrollable and therefore cannot be resisted or stopped. A manager can only anticipate, respond and or take the change as given by developing coping tactics. The internal forces of change are controllable and can therefore be resisted and or even stopped. A manager must however operate in a stable environment and yet must incorporate change without resisting it. Hence there is the need for maintaining balance in our strategic response to the constantly occurring change within and without the organization.

1.3.2 Impact of Change on Employees and the Organization

Change brings with it challenges for managers. For instance, coping with new technology, resource shortages, and changing moral standards require that managers should have great concern for the social, political and psychological impacts of the organization.

A report covering management education for the 1990s suggests that in order to cope with the challenges presented by the pace of change at

work and in social arena, a manager must be a combination of diplomat, decision maker, negotiator, persuader, coordinator, planner, and consensus builder. Change can affect individuals and collectively as an organization. As an individual, change can bring about stress. It is not however a truism that change does always the same effect on everybody all the time nor does any individual affected by all the change.

1.3.3 Approaches to Introducing Change

The fact of change in today's dynamic business environment needed no proof and its impact on behaviour in organizations is pervasive. A first requirement for managing change is to understand the forces (external and internal) of change. One of the manager's responsibilities is to identify areas where there is need for change so as to develop change alternatives. The manager at the same time equally needs to recognize the need for stability in work environments. Managers in this case will be faced with the need to constantly balance the demands of change and stability in work environment. The manager must recognize that significant change in human behaviour is a process that requires time. Hence whatever approach to introduce change must take into consideration. Indeed, one other factor that affects response of organization members to change is the manner in which the changes are introduced. Sometimes, changes are introduced without consulting any of those affected by the changes. Additionally, too much change in too brief a time period may create resistance and ultimately prevent any change occurring. Approaches to introducing change have been discussed in terms of a "power distribution" continuum.

1. Unilateral Action: - These approaches are at one end of the continuum and are characterized by one way communication.
2. Power Sharing: - This approach involves interaction between those in positions of authority and those who will be affected by changes. However, the manager ultimately makes the decision of the proposed changed.
3. Delegated Authority: - This approach to introducing actually turns over to subordinates the responsibility for defining and deciding on the change problem. This involves a manager providing information, describing change problem situation and then allow the group to resolve the problem.

It must be noted that there is no best approach to introducing change hence a particular manager that will utilize several approaches depending on the nature of the change and the specific context within which it will occur. Although it is probably time that most change in organizations are introduced using some variations of unilateral action, there is an increasing recognition of the value and appropriateness of changed power approaches. The three (3) basic suggested change

processes includes unfreezing, moving or change and freezing at a new level

1.3.4 Response to Change

Although change is taking place constantly in organizations, they do not affect every individual (member) equally. There are positive and negative responses to change and of course, response to change can also be neutral from the organizational members.

(i) Neutral:- This response is probably most common. From behavioural point of view. It only means that one is indifferent to the change(s) taking place. It is however important to point out that when there is no response to instituted change by the management from the employees, it is indicative of a problem. Because neutral in itself is a response but signaling a potential problem which should alarm the management. It is a form of communication to the management that something is wrong. It might mean that there is a lot of apathy in the organization. The management in this circumstance should see the need to improve communication.

(ii) Positive: - There are positive responses which signify acceptance of the change by the employees. It also signifies effective communication from the management about the change process and about the benefits of the change. Generally, it may be summarized that this response from the manager's perspective indicates that:

- i. Response has effectively and efficiently contributed to goal accomplishment
- ii. Subordinates are co-operative, adaptive, progressive and "able to cope with change"
- iii. Those changes are favorable to the employees which may translate to more pay, benefits and promotion
- iv. Even where change results in major behaviour modification, it may not be resisted where:

- (a) change was properly introduced
- (b) employees have capacity for coping with change
- (c) effect on human interaction is minimal.

The Hawthorne studies particularly revealed that response to change depends not only on change itself but also on the attitudes or sentiments of employees.

(iii) Negative: Negative response to change tells the management that the change is not wholly or partly acceptable and this can lead to sabotage of the management effort. Technically, it means the employees are resistance to the change and this can be very destructive. This response to change by employees is viewed by managers as:

- i. dysfunctional to goal achievement
- ii. as employees being stubborn, uncooperative and unable to cope with change.

From the subordinates' perspective, resistance to change may be:

- i. just normal behaviour, neither negative nor positive

ii. viewing change as causing personal losses of one kind or the other e.g. fear, insecurity, loss of self-esteem.

iii. that even where change is socially desirable it may be resisted where it causes emotional stress and require adaptive behaviour.

It must be pointed out that management should not see resistance to change as something to overcome. Rather, management should note that something is wrong and it calls for improvement in the strategy required to make the change acceptable

1.3.5 Implications of Resistance to Change

The natural inclination of most people is to change because it upsets their way of doing things and threatens their security. Indeed, managers have always viewed subordinates as constantly resisting change especially resistance to change is a serious problem for managers. However, managers should not always see resistance to change as something to be overcome. Rather resistance should be regarded as a sign that something is wrong. Resistance to change is neither always good nor bad. Generally speaking, resistance to change has implications. This includes:

i. Resistance can be very disruptive to work performance.

ii. There may be sabotage i.e. destruction of property by discontented workmen.

iii. Resistance may also be a signal on the need to improve communication by managers about purpose and the specifics of change desired.

iv. Resistance to change can reveal the need for a better approach for introducing and implementing change.

v. It can equally suggest the need for more realistic timing. vii.

Resistance can also reveal the inadequacy of current procedure for anticipating changes.

Given the foregoing therefore, it may be concluded that:

a. Absence of resistance to change may be harmful to the organization.

b. Absence of resistance to change may be indicative of an organization climate of suspicion, distrust and fear.

c. As stated earlier, rather than seeing resistance as something to be overcome at all cost, managers should instead view resistance to change desired as:

i. a (more) behavioural response

ii. Neither good nor bad

iii. Calling for effective managerial action

Although intelligent and sensitive managers often can prevent many of the causes of employee resistance to change from arising, there are some situations that in the final analysis are best described as: "WIN-LOSE" situations. When the employees are the losers, their resistance can be very understandable.

1.3.6 Strategies for Responding to External Challenges for Change

Research evidences have provided enough support to the argument that organizations by their nature will resist change in the form of challenge from an external force. However, the organization resistance will always follow a pattern of response strategies or tactics such as:

1. The first major strategy was complete resistance to change. This strategy involved several tactics:

- a. Ignoring the challenge
- b. Repressing the challenge by discrediting it and the people prompting the challenge
- c. By issuing counter charges
- d. It may involve disclaiming responsibility for issues involved and then transferring the responsibility to someone else

2. The second major strategy was compromise. Essentially, this strategy involves:

- a. Offers of counter inducement to the promoter(s) of the challenge, and more specifically, the following tactics may be used:
 - i. Offering positive inducement rather than confrontation
 - ii. Applying negative inducement such as threats, warnings or trying to gain allies
 - iii. Threatening to cease operation of the challenge of the challenge is not removed or modified.

3 When the two above strategies however fails, an organization can then adopt the third strategy called capitulation. This amounts to a tactical surrender or backing down on the change situation. When an organization finds itself in a 'no win situation', then it can work out a favourable deal

1.3.7 Managing Resistance to Change

A reduction of resistance can be achieved in many different ways. The following are conditions or steps however involved.

1. The objectives for and the purpose of the intended change must be clear.
2. Staff should be involved in the planning of the change, there must be analyses for staff air their views and their resistances.
3. Communication about the proposed change also helps to clarify the reasons or effects of the change.
4. Group patterns or habits must be identifies and catered for.
5. Retraining programmes must be supportive: threats to status, grade and security must be minimized.
6. Plans must be sufficiently in advance of implementation and thorough in conception to avoid unnecessary pressures and anxieties.
7. The changes must be seen to have advantages over the old method.
8. The initiators must be respected and trusted.

Resistance to change is heightened if managers fail to recognise the above pre-conditions before making changes. The choice to managers is however very clear. They must plan in advance for the impact of

changes or wait until they are forced to react with the consequential disadvantages.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Itemize external and internal causes of change and Rate of Change
2. What are strategies for responding to external challenges for change?



1.6 Summary

Change is natural in the course of development and growth. Society is everywhere in a continual state of transition, every unit of business, even the most private enterprises, as an organ of society, is therefore continually obliged to operate under ever changing conditions and circumstances. A first requirement for managing change is to understand the force-External and Internal of change. One of the manager's responsibilities is to identify areas where there is a need for change and to develop change alternatives. Manager at the same time equally need to recognize the need for stability in work environments. Managers in this case will be faced with the need to constantly balance the demands of change and stability in work environment. The manager must recognize that significant change in human behaviour is a process that requires time. A first requirement for managing change is to understand the force-External and Internal of change. One of the manager's responsibilities is to identify areas where there is a need for change and to develop change alternatives. Manager at the same time equally need to recognize the need for stability in work environments. Managers in this case will be faced with the need to constantly balance the demands of change and stability in work environment. The manager must recognize that significant change in human behaviour is a process that requires time.



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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

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Answers to SAEs 1

In the dynamic society surrounding today's organizations, the question of whether change will occur is no longer relevant. Instead, the issue is how do manager and leaders cope with the inevitable barrage change that confront them daily in attempting to keep their organizations viable and current. Although change is a fact of life, if managers are to be effective, they can no longer be content to let change occur as it will. They must be able to develop strategies to plan, direct and control change.

Answers to SAEs 2

1.

- i. Technological Change
- ii. The Knowledge Explosion
- iii. Product and Service Obsolescence
- iv. Social Change

2.

1. The first major strategy was complete resistance to change.

This strategy involved several tactics: a. Ignoring the challenge b. Repressing the challenge by discrediting it and the people prompting the challenge c. By issuing counter charges d. It may involve disclaiming responsibility for issues involved and then transferring the responsibility to someone else.

2. The second major strategy was compromise. Essentially, this strategy involves:

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Unit 3 Power and Control

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Power and Control
 - 1.3.1 Bases of Power
 - 1.3.2 The Cost of Using Power
 - 1.3.3 Power Blocs
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The concepts of leadership and power have generated lively interest, debate and occasionally confusion throughout the evolution of management thought. The concept of power is closely related to the concept of leadership, for power is one of the means by which a leader influences the behaviour of followers. Given this integral relationship between leadership and power, scholars have argued that leaders must not only assess their leader behaviour in order to understand how they actually influence other people but they must also examine their possession and use of power.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

- define power and differentiate it from other concepts
- discuss the bases of power
- explain the blocs that available in an organization
- state the cost of using power.



1.3 The Concept of Power

Although the concepts in the field of OB seldom have universally agreed definitions, power and other concepts, such as influence and authority,

may have even more diverse definitions than most. Almost everyone who writes about power defines it differently. For example, power has been defined in the following ways:

- i. The ability to employ force.
- ii. The production of intended effects.
- iii. Power is when “(Mr.) A has power over (Mr.) B to the extent that A can get B to do something that B would otherwise not do.
- iv. Power has also been broadly defined as “The maximum ability of a person or group to induce or influence other individuals or groups and bring about some degree of change in their behaviour.
- v. ROGERS attempt to clear up the terminological confusion by defining power as “The potentials for influence.

Thus, power is a resource which may or may not be used. The use of power resulting in the probability that a person or group will adopt the desired behavioural change is defined as “influence”. Accepting ROGERS’ definition, the following distinction is made between leadership and power.

Leadership has been defined as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal accomplishment in a given situation or a group in efforts toward goal simply any attempt to influence, while Power is well described as a leader’s Influence Potential. It is the resource that enables a leader to induce compliance from or influence other. Hence power is a force which one can use to obtain compliance. The use of power is therefore leadership.

It must also be noted that power and authority are often used interchangeably. But if power is defined as influence potential, how does one describe authority? Authority is a particular type of power which has its origin in the position that a leader occupies. Thus, authority is the power that is legitimized by virtue of an individual’s formal role in a social organization. Hence, in the management context, authority is a form of power or influence that is sometimes defined as the supreme coordinating power.

It is the power to perform responsibility, the right to take action or to direct others to do so. This gives managers the power to direct and enlist the cooperation of subordinates and to achieve the coordination of their efforts.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What is power?
2. What is leadership.

1.3.1 Bases of Power

Many power base classification systems have been developed but the framework devised by French and Raven appears to be most widely accepted. They propose that there are five (5) different bases of power.

This includes: coercive power, expert power, legitimate power, referent power, and reward power. Later, Raven added information power. Then, in 1979, Goldsmith et al proposed a seventh basis of power– connection power. These seven bases of power identified as potential means of successfully influencing the behaviour of others are discussed below.

1. Coercive Power

This source of power depends on fear. The person with coercive power has the ability to inflict punishment on the other person or at least, to make threats that the other person will result in punishment or undesirable outcomes. This form of power has contributed greatly to the negative connotation that power has for laypersons. Although coercive power is most commonly thought of in terms of physical force or perhaps the use of a weapon, it can also bring about reliance upon physical strength, verbal facility or the ability to grant or withhold emotional support from others. These bases provide the individual with the means to physically harm, bully, humiliate or deny love to others. In an organizational context, managers frequently have coercive power in threat they can fire or demote subordinates or stop their pay, although unions have certainly stripped some of this power away over the years. Management can also directly or indirectly threaten an employee with these punishing consequences.

2. Expert Power

This is based on the leader's possession of expertise, skill, and knowledge or understanding only in certain well-defined areas, which, through respect, influence others. A leader high in expert power is seen as possessing the expertise to facilitate the work behaviour of others. This respect leads to compliance with the leader's wishes put in other words, others must perceive the power holder to be credible trustworthy and relevant before expert power is granted or recognised.

Credibility comes from having the right credentials; that is the person must really know what he or she is talking about and be able to show tangible evidence of his knowledge. For example, if a high successful football coach gives an aspiring young player some advice on how to do new block, he grant expertly instead to – he will be granted expert power. The coach has knowledgeable about case because he is so knowledgeable about football. Besides credibility, the person (agent) must also have trustworthiness and advance. By trustworthiness, it is meant that the person seeking expert power must have a reputation for being honest and straightforward. The point must also be made that expertise is the most tenuous (very thin) type of power, but managers and especially staff specialists, who seldom have the other sources of power available to them, often have to depend upon their expertise as their only source of power.

3. Legitimate Power

This is power based on the position held by the leader. Normally, the higher the position, the higher the legitimate power tends to be. A leader

high in legitimate power induces compliance or influences other because they feel that this person has the right, by virtue of his position in the organization, to expect that his suggestions will be followed. This shows that unlike reward and coercive power which depend on the relationships with others, legitimate power depends on the position or role that the person holds.

Legitimate power can come from three major sources.

First the prevailing culture values of a society, organization, or group determine what is legitimate. For example, in some societies, the older people become the more legitimate power they possess. The same may be true for certain physical attributes, sex, or vocation. In an organizational, context managers generally have legitimate power because employees believe in the hierarchical chain where higher positions have been designed to have power over lower positions.

Secondly, people can obtain legitimate power from the accepted social structure. In some societies there is an accepted ruling class. But an organization or a family may also have an accepted social structure that gives legitimate power.

A third source of legitimate power can come from being designated as the agent or representative of a powerful person or group. Elected officials, union or management committees are examples of this form of legitimate power. Each of this form of legitimate power creates an obligation to accept and be influenced. But in actual practice, there are often problems, confusion, or disagreement about the range or scope of this power.

4. Referent Power

This source or basis of power is based on the leader's trait (characteristic). A leader high in referent power is generally liked and admired by others because of personality. This liking of, admiration for, and identification with the leader influences others. Advertisers take advantage of this type of power when they use celebrities, such as movie stars or sport figures, to do testimonial advertising. The buying public identifies with (finds attractive) certain famous people and grants them power to tell them what product to buy. Timing is an interesting aspect of the testimonial advertising type of referent power. Only professional athletes who are in season for example football players who are in top-form are used in the advertisement, because then they are visible, they are the forefront of the public's awareness and consequently they have referent power. In an organizational setting, referent power is much different from the other types of power. For example, management with referent power must be attractive to subordinates so that subordinates will want to identify with them, regardless of whether the managers later have the ability to reward or punish or whether they have legitimacy. In other words, the manager who depends on referent power must be personally attractive to subordinate

5. Reward Power

This source of power depends on the person's having the ability and resources to reward others. In addition, they target of this power must value these rewards. In an organizational context, managers have many potential rewards such as pay increases, new equipment, promotions, favourable work assignments, more responsibility, praise, feedback and recognition available to them.

To understand this source of power more completely, it must be remembered that the recipient holds the key. If managers offer subordinates what they think is a reward (for example, a promotion with increased responsibility), but subordinates do not value it (for example, they are insecure or have family obligations that are more important to them than a promotion), then managers do not really have reward power. By the same token, managers may not think they are giving a reward to subordinates (they calmly listen to chronic complainers); the managers nevertheless have reward power. Also, managers may not really have the rewards to dispense (they may say that they have considerable influence with top management to get their people promoted), but as long as their people think they have it, they do indeed have reward power.

6. Information Power

This is based on the leader's possession of or access to information that is perceived as valuable by others. This power-based influences others because they need this information or want to be in on things.

7. Connection Power

This basis of power is based on the leader's "connections" with influential or important persons inside or outside the organization. A leader high in connection power induces compliance from others because they aim at gaining the favour or avoiding the disfavour of powerful connection

1.3.2 Cost of Using Power

It is important to consider the cost involved in attempting to use a resource to influence another person's behaviour. Sometimes, the cost will be so high that the user of the power will prefer to abandon its use. This is an ideal situation. Nevertheless, it is wiser to use power when the cost of using such power is very low. For instance, a manager who has the power to terminate the employment will in doing so, consider the cost of hiring a substitute with its attendant recruitment difficulty. On the other hand, the risk of being perceived by other employees as wicked and unjust is also costly. Therefore, the more costly it is to use a resource, the less power are held over another person.

1.3.3 Power Blocs

Power blocs (also called potential influences) simply refer to those that possess certain qualities strong enough to influence an organization's decision. Some of these power blocs are identified and discussed as follows:

1. Board of Director: They are the governing council of the organization and most decision often originates from this body.

2. Management: They day to day running of the organization is vested in the management. In this sense, management is rewarded as a powerful organizational position, that is, individuals who have authority and responsibility in getting thing done. Such individual (e.g. functional managers) enjoy the power of employment. By the virtue of their position they influenced the employees and consequently become a recognizable bloc within the organization.

3. The Employees: They are responsible for the operational and administrative work of an organization. Some of these employees exert expert and information power on members of the organization; hence they are accorded some respect.

4. Labour Union: Workers do come together under the umbrella of a union, to exercise their right within the organization. In other words, the function of mediating and bargaining between the worker and management are left for the union to handle. This has made the union a powerful bloc within an organization (i.e. unionized organization) because they can use all available weapons (e.g. demonstration, go slow, slow-down, overtime ban, sit-in work-in or the strike) at their disposal to influence the management decision.

5. Government: Although this is an external power bloc, it influences the organization. Climate may not be over locked. For instance, they government seldom fix minimum and maximum wage which companies should pay their employees and at times they fix an operational budget which a company should use in a financial year. In summary, they concept of power control is very important toward organizational development. Hence its inclusion in the study of organizational behaviour is to say the least appropriate.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. List the seven bases of power.
2. what is power blocs? List 5 types of power blocs in an organisation.



1.6 Summary

The concept of power is closely related to the concept of leadership, for power is one of the means by which a leader influences the behaviour of followers. Power is a resource which may or may not be used. The use of power resulting in the probability that a person or group will adopt the desired behavioural change is defined as “influence”.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

French, W. L. & Bell, C.H. (1995). *Organizational Development: Behavioural Science Interventions for Organizations Improvement*. (5th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. Gbolahan, G. & Adebakin, M. A. (2009). *Organizational Behaviour: A Basic Introduction*. (2nd ed.). Shomolu – Lagos: Nukucanu and Brothers Enterprises. Mullins, L. J. (2000). *Management and Organizational Behaviour*. (4th ed.). London: Pitman Publishing. Stewart, R. (1991). *Managing Today and Tomorrow*. New York: Macmillan.



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Power has also been broadly defined as “The maximum ability of a person or group to induce or influence other individuals or groups and bring about some degree of change in their behaviour.

2. Leadership has been defined as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal accomplishment in a given situation or a group in efforts toward goal simply any attempt to influence, while Power is well described as a leader’s Influence Potential. It is the resource that enables a leader to induce compliance from or influence other. Hence power is a force which one can use to obtain compliance. The use of power is therefore leadership.

It must also be noted that power and authority are often used interchangeably. But if power is defined as influence potential, how does one describe authority? Authority is a particular type of power which has its origin in the position that a leader occupies. Thus, authority is the power that is legitimized by virtue of an individual’s formal role in a social organization. Hence, in the management context, authority is a form of power or influence that is sometimes defined as the supreme coordinating power

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Coercive Power

This source of power depends on fear. The person with coercive power has the ability to inflict punishment on the other person or at least, to make threats that the other person will result in punishment or undesirable outcomes. This form of power has contributed greatly to the negative connotation that power has for laypersons. Although coercive power is most commonly thought of in terms of physical force or perhaps the use of a weapon, it can also bring about reliance upon physical strength, verbal facility or the ability to grant or withhold emotional support from others. These bases provide the individual with

the means to physically harm, bully, humiliate or deny love to others. In an organizational context, managers frequently have coercive power in threat they can fire or demote subordinates or stop their pay, although unions have certainly stripped some of this power away over the years. Management can also directly or indirectly threaten an employee with these punishing consequences.

2. Expert Power

This is based on the leader's possession of expertise, skill, and knowledge or understanding only in certain well-defined areas, which, through respect, influence others. A leader high in expert power is seen as possessing the expertise to facilitate the work behaviour of others. This respect leads to compliance with the leader's wishes put in other words, others must perceive the power holder to be credible trustworthy and relevant before expert power is granted or recognised.

Credibility comes from having the right credentials; that is the person must really know what he or she is talking about and be able to show tangible evidence of his knowledge. For example, if a high successful football coach gives an aspiring young player some advice on how to do new block, he grant expertly instead to – he will be granted expert power. The coach has knowledgeable about case because he is so knowledgeable about football. Besides credibility, the person (agent) must also have trustworthiness and advance. By trustworthiness, it is meant that the person seeking expert power must have a reputation for being honest and straightforward. The point must also be made that expertise is the most tenuous (very thin) type of power, but managers and especially staff specialists, who seldom have the other sources of power available to them, often have to depend upon their expertise as their only source of power.

3. Legitimate Power

This is power based on the position held by the leader. Normally, the higher the position, the higher the legitimate power tends to be. A leader high in legitimate power induces compliance or influences other because they feel that this person has the right, by virtue of his position in the organization, to expect that his suggestions will be followed. This shows that unlike reward and coercive power which depend on the relationships with others, legitimate power depends on the position or role that the person holds legitimate power. Each of this form of legitimate power creates an obligation to accept and be influenced. But in actual practice, there are often problems, confusion, or disagreement about the range or scope of this power.

4. Referent Power

This source or basis of power is based on the leader's trait (characteristic). A leader high in referent power is generally liked and admired by others because of personality. This liking of, admiration for, and identification with the leader influences others. Advertisers take advantage of this type of power when they use celebrities, such as movie

stars or sport figures, to do testimonial advertising. The buying public identifies with (finds attractive) certain famous people and grants them power to tell them what product to buy. Timing is an interesting aspect of the testimonial advertising type of referent power. Only professional athletes who are in season for example football players who are in top-form are used in the advertisement, because then they are visible, they are the forefront of the public's awareness and consequently they have referent power. In an organizational setting, referent power is much different from the other types of power. For example, management with referent power must be attractive to subordinates so that subordinates will want to identify with them, regardless of whether the managers later have the ability to reward or punish or whether they have legitimacy. In other words, the manager who depends on referent power must be personally attractive to subordinate

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UNIT 4 **The Concept of Status and Occupational Prestige**

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 The Meaning of Status
 - 1.3.1 Sources of Status
- 1.4 Status Comparison and Reactions to Comparison
- 1.5 Occupational Prestige
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Status is another characteristic of individual which generally affects behaviour. In a social system, status cannot and must not be ignored because of its importance to most people. In this unit, you will be exposed to the study of status as an influencing variable on behavior in an organizational setting.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

- explain different perspectives as to the meaning of status
- state the different sources of status.



1.3 The Concept of Status and Occupational Prestige

Status is another characteristic of individual which affects behavior. In a social system, status cannot and must not be ignored because of its importance to most people. In this context, it is common to see people with high status act differently from people with low status. As a concept, status is defined as the social rank of a person in relation to other people in a social system. Psychologists described status as the rank we confer on a person according to our perception of him. Status is therefore a product of social interaction and no one is assumed to have it unless it is conferred on him by that interaction.

The terms role and status are sometimes used interchangeably but the distinction is instructive. While status defines who a person is. Role defines what such a person is expected to do. Status can either be Formal or Informal; it is formal when the rank is designated by the authority structure of the organization and it is informal when it is accorded to people because of feeling towards them. It must also be pointed out that key elements in status are ranking and comparison. Individuals are bound together in status system or status hierarchies which defined their rank in relation or relative to other within the system. Simply put therefore, status is the worth of an individual as estimated by a group or class of persons.

1.3.1 Sources of Status

There are basically two main sources of status: the social system based on value perception and the organization. Status is commonly conferred on people by the social system based on some factors such as wealth, occupation, culture, personal achievement, education, family background, etc.

- i. Occupation: This confers status in two ways. Whatever we do to bring progress to others bring status and places one in a social class.
- ii. Wealth: Society gives status to individual through the organization of wealth principally because of the reward and the cost invested in sharing his wealth to others. E.g. a philanthropist.
- iii. Culture: A chief, elders, priests are given status from the community either because of hard work, old age or environmental demand.
- iv. Personal Achievement: Here, the concept of “self-made man” plays an important role. Military generally, scientist managers, sports figure acquire celebrity status because of personal achievement can bring lasting recognition and prestige.
- v. Education: In modern industrial society, individual who lacks the expected educational qualifications is almost ineligible. The amount of formal education an individual can obtain will affects his occupation. Income level, reputation etc.
- vi. Family Background: The achievements and status of one’s parents and grandparent also contribute to a great deal in giving high status to people from that family.
- vii. Leisure time: The way people spend their leisure time gives them status. This can arise from being a member of a social club such as the rotary, inner wheel, oriental, Tennis club etc. These clubs are actually for the opulence and those who cannot reach this height often place them in high esteem.

Unlike the individual sources, the organization also gives status through any of the following ways. These are: i. Organization association ii. Occupation (e.g., Supreme Court Judges) iii. Organizational level (e.g. Managing Director) iv. Salary grade level (e.g. 3.5 Million naira for

furniture allowance) v. Workloads (e.g. Number of publications or research articles a lecturer has to his credit).

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. define status?
2. discuss the term role and status.

1.4 Status Comparison and Reactions to Comparison

Status comparison refers to act of ranking others and comparing ourselves to such rank people. It can also be used to measure the values or worth of one's status among others. It is a truism that characteristically, high status people:

- i. Enjoy more power and influence
- ii. Receive more privileges from their group
- iii. Tend to participate more in significant group activities
- iv. Tend to interact more with their peers than with those of lower rank.
- v. Have opportunity to play a more important role in an organization.

As a result, lower status members tend to feel isolated from the mainstream and show more stress symptoms than higher ranked members.

This comparison in status can be viewed from two major perspectives namely:

- i. Distributive Justice
- ii. Status congruence

Distributive Justice

This (also called natural justice) is the perception that person's outcome is directly proportional to the effort and costs he has invested. This is sometimes measure by comparing oneself with others on the same outcome, based on the amount of investments (or efforts).

Hence, distributive justice is said to be at play if the outcome of certain set of members in a group is higher because they have invested more (in terms of efforts) in the course of their jobs. On the other hand, it is injustice if somebody's income is higher because he/she is the favourite of the CEO and not necessarily due to hard work.

Status Congruence

Congruence implies that all the characteristics and attribute of a person are greater than, equal to or lower than the corresponding attributes of a person with whom he can be compared. Thus, the manager as compared with the assistant manager must have a higher income, a bigger office, more clerical staff and better experience. In other words, the manager is said to enjoy benefit/outcomes congruent/equal to/ with his status. Example of in congruence is: supervisors earning less than their subordinates.

For example, status symbols serve as reward; tells the amount of authority possessed; serves as communication facilitators. Titles and physical appearance are some obvious symbols used to designed status. It is important to note that for an organization to be effective,

distributive justice and status, congruence must be allowed to take its course. When inequality is perceived it created disequilibrium and attempt are always made by the people either in an organization or social system at ensuring equilibrium in status. People must therefore be able to assess the costs, investments and rewards of similarly positioned co-worker so that they can make an accurate comparison either their own status/outcomes.

1.5 Occupational Prestige

The relationship between status, occupational prestige and job satisfaction cannot be over-emphasized. Occupation prestige is the importance attached to a profession based on the quality and length of training required of such occupation. It is specially related to a person's education and income. For example, in modern industrial society, a person prepares himself for occupational life by obtaining an education, which in turn, prepares him for a more significant occupational role. This is further rewarded with more economic (income) and social status. The point therefore is that people tend to be assigned to a class status according to their occupations.

Occupational prestige hence becomes one of the most basic systems of stratification in modern societies. A skilled occupation for instance enjoys high status more than non-skilled occupations. Even among the skilled occupations, workers in the oil and banking industries enjoy more prestige than their counterparts in teaching profession.

The importance of occupational prestige can therefore be enumerated as follows:

- ii. It helps a counselor to diagnose status problems and conflicts
- iii. It influences the kinds of promotion and transfer an employee will take.
- iv. It helps to determine who will be the informal leader of a group composed of different occupations.
- v. It enables "status seekers" to qualify themselves for high status jobs so that they can become better adjusted.
- vi. It serves as a motivator to those seeking to advancement in the organization.

In relation to the status concept, job satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when a want is satisfied. Technically speaking, job satisfaction is the difference between the amount of some valued outcome a person receives and the concept that create a feeling of enthusiasm and happiness during and after working hours. Indeed, the usefulness of job satisfaction to the social interaction (which in turn gives rise to status) can be summarized as follows:

- i. It gives management an indication of the general levels of satisfaction in a company
- ii. It reduces turnover, absenteeism and consequently high productivity.
- iii. It gives the staff a feeling of belongingness.
- iv. Job satisfaction affects the employee's life outside the job.

v. It ensures valuable communication from or in all directions.

One may therefore rightly conclude that, status, like power, is also a function of social interaction in a social system. And it is rather conferred than possessed.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. what is status comparison?
2. List five (5) sources of status.



1.6 Summary

Status, like power, is a function of social interaction in a social system. And it is rather conferred than possessed. Key elements in status are ranking and comparison. Status are commonly conferred on people by the social system based on wealth, occupation, culture, background etc. the possession of some factors such as personal achievement, education, family background etc.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

- Gbolahan G. & Adebakin, Moruf A. (2009). *Organizational Behaviour: A Basic Introduction*. (2nd ed.). Shomolu – Lagos: Nukucanu and Brothers Enterprises.
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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. As a concept, status is defined as the social rank of a person in relation to other people in a social system. Psychologists described status as the rank we confer on a person according to our perception of him. Status is therefore a product of social interaction and no one is assumed to have it unless it is conferred on him by that interaction.

2. The terms role and status are sometimes used interchangeably but the distinction is instructive. While status defines who a person is. Role defines what such a person is expected to do. Status can either be Formal or Informal; it is formal when the rank is designated by the authority structure of the organization and it is informal when it is accorded to people because of feeling towards them. It must also be pointed out that key elements in status are ranking and comparison. Individuals are bound together in status system or status hierarchies which defined their rank in relation or relative to other within the system. Simply put therefore, status is the worth of an individual as estimated by a group or class of persons.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Status comparison refers to act of ranking others and comparing ourselves to such rank people. It can also be used to measure the values or worth of one's status among others

2.
 1. Occupation
 2. Wealth
 3. Culture
 4. Personal Achievement
 5. Education
 6. Family Background
 7. Leisure t

UNIT 5 WORK GROUPS

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Work Groups
 - 1.3.1 Characteristics of Groups
 - 1.3.2 Types of Groups
- 1.4 The Purpose of a Group
- 1.5 Theories of Group Formation
 - 1.5.1 Group Dynamics
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Individuals in organizations seldom work in isolation from others. Workers are deliberately banded into groups in the form of departments, units, divisions, and the like. Hence, groups are a characteristic of all work situations and almost everyone in an organization will be a member of one or more groups. Basically, work is a group-based activity and for the organization to function effectively it requires good teamwork. This unit will expose you to the discussion on work groups and decision making.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of a work group
- comment on the characteristics and types of work group.



1.3 Introduction to Work Groups

A work group is a set of two or more people who see themselves as a group and are interdependent with one another for a purpose, and communicate and interact with one another on a more or less continuing basis. In many cases (but not always), they work closely together physically. The essential feature of a group is that its members regard

themselves as belonging to the group. Although there is no single accepted definition, most people will readily understand what constitutes a group. A popular definition by Schein (1988), regards the group in psychological terms as any number of people who interact with one another, are psychologically aware of one another and perceive themselves to be a group.

A group is more than a collection of individuals; rather, through their interactions, new forms and new properties are created that need to be identified and studied in themselves. The goals may pertain to specific tasks, but it may also mean that the people share some common concerns, values, or ideology. Thus, group members are attracted to each other by some social bonds.

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

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. what is the meaning of a work group.
2. Discuss the term group?

1.3.1 Characteristics of Groups

1. One obvious characteristic of a group is that it is composed of two or more individuals engaged in social interaction. People interact-verbally by mutually influencing each other. People must influence each other in same way to be considered a group.

2. Group must also have some structure i.e. some stable pattern of relationships between members. A group structure is determined, impart, by cohesiveness i.e. – the present member faced to remain in their group. And it is also influenced by the informal rules that operate in groups referred to as norms. Similarly, it is determined by the many roles played by group members.

3. A third characteristic of social group is that they share common goals groups from for some reasons their members come together to achieve some goals that they unifying interest that helps sustain the group.

4. A goals characteristic of group is that their members perceived themselves as a group. People must reason with each other as similar in some ways, as sharing some common fate. Group members recognized each other and are able to differentiate who is and who is not part of the group.

1.3.2 Types of Groups

There are numerous types of groups. There are small and large groups, primary and secondary groups, membership and reference groups, in and out groups and formal and informal groups. Each type has different characteristics and different effects on its members.

According to Charles H. Cooley, primary groups are those characterized by intimate face-to-face association and cooperation. They are primary in several senses, but chiefly, in that they are fundamental in forming the social nature and ideas of the individuals. Often, the terms Small group and Primary group are used interchangeably. Technically, there is a difference. A small group has to meet only criteria that assign precise numbers, but the accepted criterion is small size. Usually, no attempt is made to assign precise numbers, but the accepted criterion is that the group must be small enough for face-to-face interaction and communication to occur. In addition to being small, a primary group must have a feeling of comradeship. Loyalty and common sense are of values among members. Thus, all primary groups are primary groups. Two examples of primary groups are the family and the peer group.

Besides, there are also other classifications of groups that are important to the study of O.B. Two important distinctions are between membership and reference groups, and between in-groups and out-groups. These differences can be described as follows: Membership groups are those to which the individual actually belongs, while reference group is one with which the individual identifies or to which he would like to belong. The in-group represents a christening of individuals holding prevailing values in a society or at least having a dominant place in social functioning. The out-groups are the conglomerated looked upon as subordinated or marginal in the culture. All these types of groups have relevance to the study of organizational behaviour but the formal and informal types are most directly applicable.

Formal groups are created (usually by managers), to fulfill specific tasks clearly related to the enterprise's purpose. They can be permanent like departments in an organization, or temporary, like committees or task forces, which are often formed to achieve a purpose and then disband. Two very common examples of formally designated groups in modern organization are the command and task group.

A command group consists of superior and the immediate subordinates. The members and structure of command groups are formally determined and are represented in the organization chart. The superior is granted authority over the members of the command group. Formal groups are formed by their members and may either be in achieving organization objectives or serve other needs of the members (such as social needs). There are three types of information group (or cliques).

1. The horizontal clique i.e., a group of people who work in the same area and are of the same rank and status for example, all supervisors.

2. The vertical clique is a group of people of different rank and status within the same department for examples lecturers starting from Asst. lecturer to a chief lecturer.

3. The mixed clique is a group of people of different rank and status from different departments in different locations e.g., NASUP.

The latter two (II & III) types of groups may form because their members have known each other in the past or know each other off the job.

1.4 The Purpose of a Group

The purpose of any group is to generate specific benefit to the (specific members and the environmental of the group. In other words, groups have many functions and advantages for individuals and the organization. Thus, by becoming a member of a group, a person fulfills at least four of needs:

1. Social and Affiliation Needs

Groups serve as the primary mechanism for fulfilling social need (Maslow) and affiliation need (McClelland) through friendship and support. The work group is the most likely place to find understanding, companionship and comradeship at work. Job problems can be discussed with group members and this often applies to personal problems as well. So, employees join work groups and work at being accepted in order to satisfy their need for affiliation (social need).

2. Identity, Recognition and Esteem (Ego) Needs

The second reason people become involve in work groups is that the group can provide the recognition-ego (esteem) needs described by Maslow. It can also make a significant input to a person's identity development because a major part of the identity of those for whom work is important comes from the workplace. Indeed, most middle class and upper-class.

3. Security and Power Needs Groups can help employees satisfy their security needs (Maslow) or their need or power (McClelland). If a group supports an employee against "arbitrary" demands by outsiders (other groups, managers, clients), it gives that employee more control over his or her destiny. It gives the employee a sense of power and therefore dignity. The evidence is fairly strong that most employees join unions to protect themselves against what they perceive to be arbitrary acts by supervisors or superiors.

4. Other Needs Groups serve a series of other purposes in addition to those just discussed. One is to help establish and stabilize perceptions of the workplace. Another benefit of groups is that they promote communication. It may be the give-and-take in a formal meeting, or can take the form of the grapevine, which is the informal communication through which group members became aware of "what is really going on in the firm".

(a) Socialization of New Employees: Sociologists described the process of orientating new employees as socialization. By this they mean

teaching the new employee the work norms, that is, how to behave at work. In some cases, group “slows down” employees who are “working too hard” and showing up other members; So is the opposite also. If an employee is not working hard enough, the group pressures him or her to “get inline”. This pressure takes the form of talking to the employee, slumming or ignoring him or her, or in extreme cases, physical pressures. Thus, the group orientates and integrates the new employee into the organizational ‘work rules and norms and keeps the employee under control. The supervisor cannot watch every employee all the time, but the group can.

(b) Getting the job done: Although theoretically the enterprise is responsible for training the new employee and getting the work done, this task is often accomplished by the work group. Usually the new employee gets some training on how to do the job, but this is rarely enough to get the job done well. The work group really teaches the employee how to cope with the job, how to handle the numerous techniques taught in the training programme that are needed to get the job done. Many parts of the job may have to be done by two or more people someone in the work group helps out at such times. This work groups facilitate both training and operations and therefore are beneficial to the organization.

(c) Decision making: In addition, groups are used for decision making, negotiating and bargaining thus, group members with diverse backgrounds may bring different perspectives to the decision-making process. Hence some decisions turn out better when several people make them jointly than if one person makes them alone.

1.5 Theories of Group Formation

Some classic theories have been put forward to explain group formation or why people affiliate with one another.

1. The most basic theory explaining affiliation is propinquity. The word propinquity simply means that individuals affiliate with one another because of spatial or geographical proximity. The theory would predict that in an organization, employees who work in the same area of the plant or office manages with offices close to one another would be more probably form into groups than those who are not physically located together. There is some research evidence to support the propinquity theory and, on the surface, it has a great deal of merit for explaining group formation. The drawback is that it is not analytical and does not begin some of the complexities of group formation.

2. Interaction Theory: George Hormans based his theory on three elements that are directly related. These are activities, interactions and sentiments. According to this theory, the more activities persons share, the more numerous will be their interactions and the stronger will be their sentiments (that is how much the other persons are liked or disliked); the more interactions among persons, the more will be their shared activities and sentiments; and the more sentiments persons have

for one another, the more will be their shared activities and interactions. The major element is interaction. It is believed that informal groups form as a consequence of frequent interaction in common activities. The Horman's theory tends a great deal to the understanding of group formation and process. Participants in an organization interact not just in the physical propinquity sense, but also to solve problems, attain goals, facilitate coordination, reduce tension and achieve a balance tend to form into powerful groups

3. Balance Theory: This was propounded by Theodore Newcomb and it states that persons are attracted to one another on the basis of similar attitudes towards commonly relevant objects and goal. Many management specialists believe groups will be formed and maintained to the degree that members are similar to each other. The more similar they are, the greater the likelihood of group formation. Such similarities may be in the areas of work values, life experiences, education, socioeconomic status, sex, age, religion, ethnic background and the like.

4. Exchange Theory: This is one group formation theory receiving the greatest emphasis in more recent times and it is similar in functioning to the work motivation theory. Exchange theory of groups is based upon reward cost outcome of interaction. A minimum positive level (rewards greater than cost) of an outcome must exist in order for attraction or affiliation to take place. Rewards from interactions gratify (satisfy) needs, while cost incur (attract) anxiety, frustration, embarrassment or fatigue. Propinquity, interaction and common attitudes (similarity) all have roles in exchange theory.

Stages of Group Formation

There have been many descriptions and studies of the formation and development of groups. A typical analysis of group development includes four stages; initial formation; development of goals, elaboration of structure and development of leaders.

Stage 1 Initial formation (Forming stage): A number of people with the abilities necessary to achieve an organizational goal are assembled and assigned a task. At this stage of development, it is important that individuals recognize the social need to belong to the group and that they are willing to give and receive friendship and other marks of affiliation for it is in their self-interest to do so.

Stage 2

Development of goals (Storming stage): At this stage, the group seeks to establish common task goals. To the extent that these goals are clearly understood, generally agreed on and relevant to the needs of individuals, they are more likely to be achieved.

Stage 3

Elaboration of structure (Norming stage): At this stage, coordination becomes paramount. Formal leaders are appointed by management and communication is encouraged in an attempt to re-enforce the structure.

Stage 4

Development of leaders (Performing stage): To supplement the formal leadership of the supervisor (boss or company executive), informal leaders develop. These are the people group member turn to when they encounter problems. Leadership studies have identified at least two leaders of work groups: the task leader (usually the formally appointed leader), who pays primary attention to formal goal achievement and the social leaders (informal leader) who provides “social maintenance”.

A drawback of this analysis of group development is its orientation towards groups formed by enterprise self. In reality, similar groups evolve within formal groups or across them.

1.5.1 Group Dynamics

Just as there is no 1

one definition of the word group, there is also no universal agreement on what is meant by group dynamics. One normative view is that groups dynamic described how a group should be organised and conduct. In democratic leadership, member participation and overall cooperation are stressed.

Another close view group dynamics from the perspective of the internal nature of groups, how they form, their structure and processes and how they function and affect individual members, other groups and the organisation as a whole. It is this relationship that holds group members together and the strength of the interaction that a group has, determines group effectiveness. An Effective Work Group is one whose members function as a team and participate fully in group discussions, whose goals are clearly developed, and whose resources are adequate to accomplish its goals. The following factors can influence group effectiveness.

1. Size of Group The effective group is relatively small. Theoretically, as a group gets larger it could become more effective, this is because the potential for greater variety of talents is greater. Members have a better chance of finding people they like to work with. But the disadvantages of such a large size far outweigh its advantages. For example, more efforts must be used to get the group to function; splinter groups may form; larger groups take longer to function and may not be able to function at all. Yet again, as the group gets larger, it becomes less efficient, since most members of necessity participate less. Thus, size is an important variable in group effectiveness. This is because inter-person relationship is more frequent and it tends to be faced affairs.

2. Eye Contact and Location of Members

Group whose members are located close together and can interact frequently and easily, are likely to be more cohesive and effective than those whose members are separated by greater distance. Eye movements, direction of gaze and mutual eye contact are important nonverbal interactions that influence group effectiveness. The easier it is to communicate in person the more likely the group is to be cohesive.

3. Nature of Task

Homogeneous group (those whose members are alike in age, education, status, and experience) are better when the task or goal requires mutual cooperation and conflict-free behaviour and if the task is simple. Heterogeneous groups are more effective where the task is complex, if speed is not important and if creativity is desirable.

4. Cohesiveness

Group cohesiveness is the degree to which group members are of one mind and thus can act as one body. Sometimes cohesiveness is thought of as group loyalty, solidarity or pride. Cohesiveness results from homogeneity of membership, stability of members over time and high status. In general cohesive groups are more effective.

5. Group Norms

Group norms are shared values about the kind of behaviours that are acceptable and unacceptable as work. They develop over time and are re-enforced by group pressures or the members to conform. Norms can affect performance positively or negatively. The effects of norms on productivity or performance are affected by cohesiveness. In general, if the group is very cohesive and performance (or high productivity) is a group norm, performance will be high. If the group is less cohesive, the norms will be less powerful.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. What is the characteristics of work group?
2. Itemize the purpose of the purpose of a group.



1.6 Summary

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



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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. A work group is a set of two or more people who see themselves as a group and are interdependent with one another for a purpose, and communicate and interact with one another on a more or less continuing basis.

2. A group is more than a collection of individuals; rather, through their interactions, new forms and new properties are created that need to be identified and studied in themselves. The goals may pertain to specific tasks, but it may also mean that the people share some common concerns, values, or ideology. Thus, group members are attracted to each other by some social bonds.

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

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Characteristics of Groups

1. One obvious characteristic of a group is that it is composed of two or more individuals engaged in social interaction. People interact-verbally by mutually influencing each other. People must influence each other in same way to be considered a group.

2. Group must also have some structure i.e. some stable pattern of relationships between members. A group structure is determined, impart, by cohesiveness i.e. – the present member faced to remain in their group. And it is also influenced by the informal rules that operate in

groups referred to as norms. Similarly, it is determined by the many roles played by group members.

3. A third characteristic of social group is that they share common goals groups from for some reasons their members come together to achieve some goals that they unifying interest that helps sustain the group.

4. A goals characteristic of group is that their members perceived themselves as a group. People must reason with each other as similar in some ways, as sharing some common fate. Group members recognized each other and are able to differentiate who is and who is not part of the group.

2. The Purpose of a Group

a. Social and Affiliation Needs

b. Identity, Recognition and Esteem (Ego) Needs

c. Security and Power Needs

Module 4

UNIT 1 COMMUNICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Communication
 - 1.3.1 Communication Process Model
 - 1.3.2 The Communication Function in an Organization
- 1.4 Barriers and Breakdowns in Communication
- 1.5 Achieving Effective Communication
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

In all aspect of human living, the process of communication is a central element. Studies of managers at all levels consistently find that most of a manager's time is spent in communication and that most of this is verbal communication. The differences usually involve who managers communicate with and what they communicate about. Management is often defined as “the responsibility for achieving desired result through the effective use of people.” However, to achieve this, it is necessary to communicate with “people”. Communication is therefore fundamental to good management. Indeed, communication should be seen as a purposeful business activity to enable the organization to achieve its objectives smoothly and the individuals who work for it to give their best work to the organization. This unit deals with the fundamental issue of communication.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what communication means
- describe communication process model
- list and explain factors that give to communication breakdown in an organization
- comment freely on measures to achieve effective communication.



1.3 Introduction to Communication

Although the term communication has enjoyed a free and widespread usage by everyone in modern society, the term can hardly be precisely defined by many. In a broad term, communication may be defined as the process of meaningful interaction among human beings. This definition includes all means by which meaning is conveyed from one person to another such as gestures, facial expressions, and postures of the body communicate meaning to others. Even sometimes, silence can convey meaning and therefore must be considered as part of communication. Managers as involve in two kinds of communication which are interpersonal and organizational. Interpersonal Communication: This is the process of exchanging information and transmitting meaning between two people or in a small group of people.

Organizational Communication: This is the process by which managers develop a system to give information and transmit meaning to large numbers people within the organization and to relevant individuals and institutions outside it. In brief, communication is defined as the transfer of information from the sender to the receiver, with the information being understood by the receiver. This definition then becomes the basis for the discussion of the communication process.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Explain what communication means?
2. What is organisational communication.

1.3.1 Communication Process Model

A model of the communication process is the basis framework for understanding what steps are involved in communication.

Communication begins when two conditions exist:

- (i) Some individual or group as an idea or concept
- (ii) This person or group wishes to make such information know to someone

The model first showed that in an organization, specific person may wish others to influence them, to assist them with their work, to obtain input they need for performing their own jobs, to affect decisions, to correct others past mistakes to dazzle or impress them with their vast knowledge. In any case, the first thing or step to step is that the sender has the idea or concept (thinking) for the message: its purpose-Then he or she encodes the message into the form in which it will be transmitted i.e. words, body movements, writing, even facial expression or observation actions that convey a specific meaning. The message is

transmitted verbally by a medium (in person, on the phone) or in writing, and then informal. Thus the sender has completed the initial phase of communication.

The receiver has to be ready for the message so that it can be decoded into thought. A person thinking about an exciting football game may pay insufficient attention to what is being said. Hence the receiver must first perceive the message; see it or hear it with the senses. Then he or she decodes it and this involves “translation” the message into terms that have meaning for the receiver. Thus comes understanding of course there is important element to consider feedback. This is when the receiver reverses the process and transmits back to the original sender.

Such feedback is an essential part of communication in many settings. It is especially valuable in organizations where communication seems to flow downward from supervisors and managers to subordinates. Providing such persons with an opportunity to offer feedback yields several benefits. For example, it can enhance their belief that their views really count, and so increase their commitment to the organization similarly, it permits them to participate in decision making and other organizational processes. Such participation can be beneficial from the view of work related attitudes. The benefits of feedback are not in any case restricted to receiver. However, such information can also aid senders (e.g. managers) by keeping them informed as to whether their message has been understood, by providing them with evaluation of their ideas and by enhancing their understanding of the perceptions of the subordinates.

1.3.2 The Communication Function in an Organization

It is no exaggeration to say that the communication function is the means by which organized activity is unified. It may be looked upon as the means by which social inputs are fed into the social system. In its broadest sense, the purpose of communication in an enterprise is to effect change that is, to influence action toward the welfare to the enterprise. Communication is essential for the internal functioning of enterprises because it integrates the managerial functions.

Especially, communication is needed to:

- (i) establish and disseminate goals of an enterprise
- (ii) organize human and other resources in the most effective and efficient way
- (iii) help personal relation since communication is the chief means by which organization members work together
- (iv) also helps to hold the organization together by making it possible for members for influence and another and to react to one another
- (v) needed for the manager’s function of planning, organizing, leading and controlling to be accomplished.

The process of communication therefore makes it possible for managers to carry out their responsibilities. The success of an individual in an organization is partly due to his position in the hierarchy, partly to his

competence and to a very large extent upon the existence of a complete and well-organized communication system. An important aspect of communication in a business organization is its relationship to organizational structure.

Written and oral acts of communication tie the organizational units and positions together into a total pattern or total framework. It links the supervisory presence with their subordinates providing for the dissemination of ideas order.

1.4 Barriers and Breakdown in Communication

It is probably not surprising that managers frequently cite communication breakdowns as one of their most important problems. Yet, every organization, whether it is comprised of as few as a handful of employees or a complex enterprise such as a government department or multinational enterprise, require efficiency in its communication network in order to survive or to meet their profit, product service quality or other objectives because of inadequate communications, which is manifested in the distortion of messages, friction between individuals and a general lack of morals. Thus, the perspective manager will first look for the cause of communication problems instead of just dealing with the symptoms. Barriers can exist in the sender, in the transmission of the message, in the receiver or the feedback.

The principal barriers to communication include the following:

1. Lack of planning:

Good communication seldom happens by chance, too often people start talking and writing without first thinking, planning and stating the purpose of the message.

2. Semantic distortion: Another barrier to effective communication can be attributed to semantic distortion, which can be deliberate or accidental. An advertisement saying "we sell for less" is deliberately ambiguous; it releases the question: less what? Words may evoke different responses.

3. Poorly expressed messages:

No matter how clear the idea in the mind of the sender, it may still be marked by poorly chosen words, omissions, lack of a coherence poor organization of ideas, awkward sentence structure platitudes, unnecessary jargon and a failure to clarify the implications of the message. This lack of clarity and precision can be very costly.

4. Organization and structure problems:

In large-scale enterprises, where it is necessary to have several layers of supervisor in the organizational structure, communications may suffer due to losses in transmission.

Where people are separated by great physical distance and status in an organization, oral communication will be difficult to enforce. Messages are then conveyed in written form and here, the senders and receivers may not easily achieve the desired effect. Inefficiency may further result

in the form of incorrect translation a loss part of the message and poor retention of information.

5. Status problems: Inefficiency in communications may also result from the differences in rank or status of transmitters and receivers. People or low in status tend to be slow to communicate with superior, thus resulting in a lack of necessary upward flow of information. Also, receivers who are at the lower levels in the organizational hierarchy may be inclined to interpret messages in terms of their own positions, background and experience and their perceptions of the superior's intentions. Communication may suffer too because of the listener's mistrust.

6. Information overload: One might think that more and unrestricted information flow would help to overcome communication problems. But unrestricted flow may result in too much information. People respond to information overload in various ways. First, they may disregard certain information; people make errors in processing it. Third, people may delay processing information either permanently or with the intention of catching up in the future. Fourthly, a person may filter information. Chances are that attention will be given first to matters that are easy to handle, while more difficult but perhaps critical messages are ignored. Finally, people respond to information overload by simply escaping from the task of communication. In other words, they ignore information or they do not communicate information because of an overload.

7. Poor listening and premature evaluation: There are many talkers but few listeners. Listening demands full attention and self-discipline. It also means avoiding premature evaluation of what the other person has to say. A common tendency is to judge, to approve or disapprove what is being said, rather than trying to understand the speaker's frame of reference. Yet listening without making hasty judgments can make the whole enterprise more effective and more efficient.

8. Change Issues: The purpose of communication is to affect what may seriously concern employees e.g. shifts in time, type and order of work, communications concerning changes are skills to be used. Communications concerning changes are unlikely to be received in full by receivers. People tend to resist change and are likely to ignore or filter out those matters which threaten existing positions or cause some conflict.

9. Other Communication Barriers: Beside the mentioned barriers to effective communication, there are many others. In selective perception people tend to perceive what they expect to perceive. In communication this means that we hear what we want to hear and ignore other relevant information. Closely related to perception is the influence of an attitude, which is the predisposition to act or not to act in a certain way; it is a mental position regarding a fact or state. Clearly if we have made up our minds, we can objectively listen to what is said.

1.5 Achieving Effective Communication

While it is unlikely that any organization will ever achieve a condition of perfect communication, there are a number of steps which if taken, are likely to lead to an improvement in communication. Hence, in order to deal with the barriers of organizational communication, it is important first to recognize that communication is an inherently difficult process. For one thing, the verbal and visual symbols we use to describe reality are far from being precise. Another reason that communication is inherently difficult is that human beings perceive and interpret reality through the filter of their individual backgrounds, needs, emotions, values and experiences.

Comprehending the barriers to communication and taking steps to minimize them are therefore the first step towards improving manager's ability to communicate effectively. A sound, basic communication programme is the key to effective communication. A sound programme includes the fundamental concept that communication is an executive skill and that opportunities for developing the personal skills of executives in all aspect of human activity/relation should be provide.

Whether oral or written, the effectiveness of communication requires the following conditions.

- (i) A known comprehensive communication structure.
- (ii) A code (rule) governing the relations among people occupying various roles.
- (iii) A quality of relationship among people immediately connected with each other.
- (iv) Communication must be an active one, not a passive process.
- (v) Communication must be sincere and open.

The American Management Associations (AMA) has codified a number of communication principles into what it calls the ten commandments of good communication. Those commandments which are designed to improve effectiveness of organizational communication include:

1. Seek to clarify your ideas before communicating. The more systematically we analyze the problem or idea of message to be communicated the clearer it becomes.
2. Examine the true purpose of each communication. The communicator must be clear, in his preparation, as to his key aim.
3. Consider the total physical and human setting whenever you communicate. This is because inappropriate or uncomfortable seating, poor temperature control, shoddy visual material, telephone interruptions, extraneous noise will all contribute failure.
4. Consult with others where appropriate in planning communications. This planning of the communication should not be done in a vacuum. Instead, other should be consulted and encouraged to participate for example in the collection of facts analysis message and selection of the appropriate media.
5. Be mindful, while you communicate, of the overtones as well as the basic content of your message. There is a saying that the tone makes the

music. Similarly, in communication the tone of voice, the choice of language and congruency between what is said and how it is said influence the reactions of the receiver of the message.

6. Take the opportunity, when it arises, to convey something of help or value to the receiver.

7. Follow up your communication. Too often, information is transmitted without communicating, since communication is complete only when the message is understood by the receiver. And one never knows whether communication is understood unless the sender gets feedback. This is accomplished by asking questions requesting a reply to a letter and encouraging receivers to give their reactions to the message.

8. Communicate for tomorrow as well as today.

9. Be sure your actions support your communications.

10. Seek not to be understood but to understand – be a good listener.

Information Necessary in organizational Communication

As noted earlier, if the aim is to enable people to give their best, then what are the things they need to know? There are three main areas of necessary information:

Job Content: - examples include: details of the individual's own function, responsibilities and authorities the results expected and how performance is assessed: how the job affects and is affected by others and how it affects costs/expenses changes to the systems, targets.

Job Context:- examples include: details of the organization structure, conditions of employment; how to pay and prospects are assessed; change in of proceedings.

General Background: - the overall management philosophy; major company developments/innovations; external developments – such as legislation-affecting the company. The precise nature of the information required can vary significantly from level to level, whilst a general manager and an office junior may each need to know about the company's corporate objectives, detail and method of the presentation will be very different.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. what is the function of communication in an organisation.

2. Explain the barriers and breakdown in communication



1.6 Summary

Communication is the means by which social inputs are fed into the social system. In its broadest sense, the purpose of communication in an

enterprise is to effect change that is, to influence action toward the welfare to the enterprise. Communication is essential for the internal functioning of enterprises because it integrates the managerial functions



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

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Answers to SAEs 1

1. The process of communication is a central element. Studies of managers at all levels consistently find that most of a manager's time is spent in communication and that most of this is verbal communication. The differences usually involve who managers communicate with and what they communicate about. Management is often defined as "the responsibility for achieving desired result through the effective use of people." However, to achieve this, it is necessary to communicate with "people". Communication is therefore fundamental to good management. Indeed, communication should be seen as a purposeful business activity to enable the organization to achieve its objectives smoothly and the individuals who work for it to give their best work to the organization

2. **Organizational Communication:** This is the process by which managers develop a system to give information and transmit meaning to large numbers people within the organization and to relevant individuals and institutions outside it. In brief, communication is defined as the transfer of information from the sender to the receiver, with the information being understood by the receiver. This definition then becomes the basis for the discussion of the communication process

Answers to SAEs 2

1.

(i) establish and disseminate goals of an enterprise

(ii) organize human and other resources in the most effective and efficient way (iii) help personal relation since communication is the chief means by which organization members work together

(iv) also helps to hold the organization together by making it possible for members for influence and another and to react to one another

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2. The principal barriers to communication include the following:

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2. Semantic distortion: Another barrier to effective communication can be attributed to semantic distortion, which can be deliberate or accidental. An advertisement saying "we sell for less" is deliberately ambiguous; it releases the question: less what? Words may evoke different responses.

3. Poorly expressed messages: No matter how clear the idea in the mind of the sender, it may still be marked by poorly chosen words, omissions, lack of a coherence poor

Unit 2 MONEY AS REWARD FOR REINFORCEMENT

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Money
 - 1.3.1 Perspectives as to the Concept of Money
 - 1.3.2 Why do People Work?
- 1.4 How to Motivate and Improve Employee Performance
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Despite the tendency in recent years to downgrade the importance of money as an organizational reward, there is ample evidence that money can be positively reinforcing for most people. In other words, money can never be over looked as a motivator, whether money in the form of wages, piece work (getting paid for units produced at a certain quality level) or any other incentive pay, bonuses, stock options, company paid insurance, or any other thing that may be given to people for performance, money is important. This unit discusses money as a positively reinforcing reward system in an organization.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- comment on the different views as to the role money can play and also its limitation
- explain the reasons people work
- discuss how to motivate and improve employee performance.



1.3 Money as Reward For reinforcement

In terms of Maslow's hierarchy, money is often equated only with the most basic level of man's needs that is, the physiological needs. It is viewed in the material sense of buying food, clothing and shelter. But as some writers have pointed out, money is often more than monetary value. It also has a symbolic as well as economic material meaning. It can provide power and status and can be a means of measuring achievement. Economists and most managers have placed money high on the scale of motivators, while behavioural scientists tend to place it low. Probably neither view is right or wrong. But if money is to be a kind of motivator, then the managers must remember several things.

That money is not likely to be more important to people who have "arrived" in the sense that their money needs are not so urgent, money is an urgent means of achieving a minimum standard of living, although this has a way of getting higher as people become affluent.

If money is to be an effective motivator, people in various positions, even though at a similar level, must be given salaries and bonuses that reflect their individual performance. In fact, it appears that unless bonuses to managers are based on a major extent of individual performance, an enterprise is not buying much motivation with them. The way to ensure that money has meaning as a reward for accomplishment is to base compensation as much as possible on performance.

It is almost certainly true that money can motivate only when the prospective payment is large relative to a person's income. The trouble with many wages and salary increases and even bonus payments is that they are not large enough to motivate the receiver; they may keep the individual from being dissatisfied and from looking for another job. So, unless they are large enough to be felt they are not likely to be a strong motivator.

It is noted that in most kinds of business and other enterprises; money is used as a means of keeping an organization adequately staffed and not primarily as a motivator. Various enterprises make wages and salaries competitive within their industrial and their geographic area so as to attract and hold people.

Money as a motivator tends to be dulled somewhat by the practice of making sure that salaries of various managers in a company are reasonably similar, in other words, we often take great care to be sure that people on comparable levels are given the same or nearly the same compensation, this is understandable since people usually evaluate their compensation in the light of what their equals are receiving.

Limitations Money can be used as a reward even if it is not sufficient to motivate performance in the first places. Thus, money can be used as a symbol of appreciation or approval even under those conditions where its intrinsic value is not greatly appreciated. However, whether or not money is valued for its intrinsic purchasing power, the limits of the use of money as a special motivational technique are important.

1. Money rewards are costly to the enterprise. There are likely to be cheaper ways (and ways which do not attract income tax) by which to reward satisfactory performance.

2. Once money has been used as a signal for motivation, it is likely that it will be expected again, and it may be difficult to discontinue the practice. Moreover, expectations may spread through the organization making it difficult to resist the use of money for other people and by other managers. Discontinuation may provide a stronger signal (of apparent dissatisfaction) than payment provides satisfaction. Such payments may then become a nuisance to the organization.

3. The manager will need to use judgments in rewarding behaviour by a variety of means. Too small a sum of money may be seen as an insult and act as demotivator, just as too large a sum could also reduce the manager's control.

4. Payment may be subject to contractual limits, for individuals and for groups. Payment may thus be improper just as they may be inappropriate. This would be the case, for example, if they fall outside a wage agreement.

5. Equity between members of the group may be difficult to preserve. Moreover, a given amount of money may be perceived differently by each person so that it is not obvious how much effect the reward will have on each recipient.

6. Where the individual is likely to go through a tax barrier, the motivation goes as in coal mining, where high wages cause absenteeism to minimize tax payments. In short, money may well be a powerful motivator. It is certainly a major reason for working. But when it comes to signaling satisfaction or dissatisfaction, the message may be more appropriately communicated in other ways.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. What is the concept of money?
2. Explain the role of money as a motivational tool.

1.3.1 Why do People Work?

The question as to why people work qualifies for varied and multiple answers. Generally, the significance of work to an individual will depend on a number of variables. But historically, two opposing attitudes toward work have been held by employees:

1. Work is a means to an end. It is usually unpleasant, but we must work to reach the ends we desire and pay our living cost. In other words, it is a way of obtaining the necessary income required to live a valued way of life; hence it is accidental life interest. 2. Work is an end in itself and is very satisfying. A person gains fulfillment through work. Comparisons of labour forces and attitude to work in different countries show that (for example in the USA, Israel etc.) Work itself is a cherished value. In 1971, President Nixon stated: "Labour is good in its self. A

man or woman at work...becomes a better person by virtue of the act of working” In other countries however, it is seen almost as a punishment.

3. The significance of work will also depend on sociological factors because attitudes toward work and a job are developed from the total culture; from the person’s experiences, educational background, age are from attitudes the individual sees in friends and family. Certain individuals have a high need for job security; for example, if an individual is married with a mortgage and children to support, work will hold more significance than for an individual who is single and living at home with their parents, schools, further education and friends all from our attitude to work.

4. People also work for spiritual or religions reason. For example, the protestant ethics maintain that work pleases God. The Catholic says that to work is to pray and in several places in the Bible and Quran, the need to work is emphasized e.g. II Thessalonians 3:10 in the Bible says: If any would not work, neither should he eat.

5. Yet again, the social Darwinism tried to explain that work has survival value. As it is often expressed, in any given situation the fittest survives. An individual survival is then seen in relation to the kind of job he does while the individual is counted fit when he is able to work. Hence work is seen as a requirement necessary for survival.

6. The psychologist believed that work is a primary reinforcer and so attached to work are food, shelter, social esteem and approval, meaning that, work has both moral value and inherent goodness.

In other words, it is supposed to be something that is inherent to the individual because work is inherently good. In conclusion, it may be said that work is both an instrumental activity as well as an end in its self. While today’s employees have varying work attitudes that may differ by age, sex, race education, and experience, the attitude that work is a means to an end is probably more widespread among blue-collar workers. The attitude that work is an end of itself is found among many professional, technical, managerial and other white-collar workers. Ona (1984) of the central bank training school has argued that, the very fact that one had a job satisfied his needs because work gives a feeling of being tied into the larger society, of having to do and of having a purpose in life (i.e. it gives you a sense of being a member of society). The question why people work then is a question about the complex human goal, needs and motives. Therefore, if work is so important, people should therefore be motivated to work and motivation in turn will generate satisfaction and influence performance

1.4 **How to Motivate and Improve Employee Performance**

It is a truism that everyday managers must make decisions on the basis of inadequate information. This applies to motivation, too. Although there is not yet a comprehensive explanation of motivation, the effective manager will mentally combine the major theories and do the best he or she can to apply them to each situation. Richard steers and Lyman

Carter make the following suggestions about using motivation theory to improve employee performance.

1. If managers want to improve employees' attitudes and performance, managers must be active in influencing motivation processes. Shifts toward more positive work attitude or better motivational climates do not just happen. Managers have to make them happen.
2. Before managers attempt to improve the motivation levels of others, they should have a clear view of their motives, strength, and weaknesses and how they themselves are perceived by others at work.
3. Managers should understand that peers' employees' and supervisors' abilities, attitudes, and motives differ: that one set of rewards is not likely to lead to equal effect or performance on the part of everyone.
4. High performance and effect to increase managers must define superior performance and reward superior performers. At the time of the reward the link between superior performance and reward must be clearly communicated.
5. High performance also requires that employees know what is expected of them on the job and that employees are placed in the types of jobs that will satisfy their needs.
6. Motivation and performance are also affected by supervisor's style and social interaction (group dynamics) at work. Managers should determine whether these two factors facilitate performance.
7. Work attitude are important to motivation and performance. Managers need to use attitudes surveys more frequently to assess employees work attitudes and then take steps to improve the less desirable attitudes.
8. The motivation of many employees will be improved if they participate more fully in processes aimed at attaining organizational effectiveness.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Explain on the different views as to the role money can play and also its limitation.
2. Why do People Work?



1.5 Summary

Money can never be over looked as a motivator, whether money in the form of wages, piece work (getting paid for units produced at a certain quality level) or any other incentive pay, bonuses, stock options, company paid insurance, or any other thing that may be given to people for performance, money is important. Economists and most managers have tended to place money high on the scale of motivators, while behavioural scientists tend to place it low. However, money is certainly a major reason for working. But when it comes to signaling satisfaction

or dissatisfaction, the message may be more appropriately communicated in other ways.



1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.7 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Money is often more than monetary value. It also has a symbolic as well as economic material meaning. It can provide power and status and can be a means of measuring achievement. Economists and most managers have place money high on the scale of motivators, while behavioural scientists tend to place it low. Probably neither view is right or wrong. But if money is to be a kind of motivator, then the managers must remember several things.

2. 1. Money rewards are costly to the enterprise. There are likely to be cheaper ways (and ways which do not attract income tax) by which to reward satisfactory performance.

2. Once money has been used as a signal for motivation, it is likely that it will be expected again, and it may be difficult to discontinue the practice. Moreover expectations may spread through the organization making it difficult to resist the use of money for other people and by other managers. Discontinuation may provide a stronger signal (of apparent dissatisfaction) than payment provides satisfaction. Such payments may then become a nuisance to the organization.

3. The manager will need to use judgments in rewarding behaviour by a variety of means. Too small a sum of money may be seen as an insult and act as demotivator, just as too large a sum could also reduce the manager's control.

4. Payment may be subject to contractual limits, for individuals and for groups. Payment may thus be improper just as they may be

inappropriate. This would be the case, for example, if they fall outside a wage agreement.

5. Equity between members of the group may be difficult to preserve. Moreover, a given amount of money may be perceived differently by each person so that it is not obvious how much effect the reward will have on each recipient.

6. Where the individual is likely to go through a tax barrier, the motivation goes as in coal mining, where high wages cause absenteeism to minimize tax payments. In short, money may well be a powerful motivator. It is certainly a major reason for working. But when it comes to signaling satisfaction or dissatisfaction, the message may be more appropriately communicated in other ways.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. The limits of the use of money as a special motivational technique are important:

a. Money rewards are costly to the enterprise. There are likely to be cheaper ways (and ways which do not attract income tax) by which to reward satisfactory performance.

b. Once money has been used as a signal for motivation, it is likely that it will be expected again, and it may be difficult to discontinue the practice. Moreover, expectations may spread through the organization making it difficult to resist the use of money for other people and by other managers. Discontinuation may provide a stronger signal (of apparent dissatisfaction) than payment provides satisfaction. Such payments may then become a nuisance to the organization.

c. The manager will need to use judgments in rewarding behaviour by a variety of means. Too small a sum of money may be seen as an insult and act as demotivator, just as too large a sum could also reduce the manager's control.

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e. Equity between members of the group may be difficult to preserve. Moreover, a given amount of money may be perceived differently by each person so that it is not obvious how much effect the reward will have on each recipient.

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2. 1. Work is a means to an end. It is usually unpleasant, but we must work to reach the ends we desire and pay our living cost. In other words, it is a way of obtaining the necessary income required to live a valued way of life; hence it is accidental life interest.

2. Work is an end in itself and is very satisfying. A person gains fulfillment through work.

3. The significance of work will also depend on sociological factors because attitudes toward work and a job are developed from the total culture; from the person's experiences, educational background, age are from attitudes the individual sees in friends and family. Certain individuals have a high need for job security; for example, if an individual is married with a mortgage and children to support, work will hold more significance than for an individual who is single and living at home with their parents, schools, further education and friends all from our attitude to work.

Unit 3 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Meaning of organizational Structure
 - 1.3.1 Dimensions of Structure
 - 1.3.2 Levels of organizational Structure
- 1.4 Dimensions of People – organizational Relationship
 - 1.4.1 Clarification of Objectives
 - 1.4.2 Clarification of Tasks
- 1.5 The Division of Work
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

In every organization, there are some positions and responsibilities arising from the operations associated with the mission, goals and objectives for the existence of the organization. The formal distribution of tasks, the definition of authority and responsibility and the relationship between members of the organization is usually established on the basis of an organizational structure. Organization may exist on a small-scale basis, which can allow the distribution of authority and responsibilities on somehow informal basis. However, as the organization grows, with increasing size, there is greater need for a carefully designed and purposeful form of organizational structure. This calls for the entrenchment of a formal structure. The structure cannot, in most cases, be held sacrosanct in all operational situations. There is also need for a continual review of the structure to ensure that it is the most appropriate form for a particular organizational development, and in keeping with the dictates of both the internal and external environment. In this study unit, therefore, you will be taken through the general overview of the field of organizational behaviour.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be to:

- explain the meaning of organizational structure
- identify and explain levels of organization structure

- mention and discuss dimensions of people-organization relationship



1.3 INTRODUCTION TO ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

According to Mullins (2000), structure is the pattern of relationships along the positions in the organization and among members of the organization. The purpose of structure is the division of work among members of the organization, and the coordination of their activities so they are directed towards achieving the goals and objectives of the organization. The structure defines tasks and responsibilities, work roles and relationships and channels of communication.

Structure makes possible the application of the process of management and creates a framework of order and command through which the activities of the organization can be planned, organized, directed and controlled. According to Drucker (1989), the organization structure should satisfy three requirements. These requirements are as follows:

1. It must be organized for business performance

The more direct and simpler the structure the more efficient it is because there is less change needed in the individual activities directed to business performance and results. Structure should not rest on past achievements but be geared to future demands and growth of the organization.

2. The structure should contain the least possible number of management levels

The chain of command should be as short as possible. Every additional level makes for difficulties in direction and mutual understanding, distorts objectives, sets up additional stresses, creates inertia and slack, and increases the difficulties of the development of future managers moving up through the chain. The number of levels will tend to grow by themselves without the application of proper principles of organization.

3. organizational structure must make possible the training and testing of future top management

In addition to their training, future managers should be tested before they reach the top. They should be given autonomy in positions of actual managerial responsibility while still young enough to benefit from the new experience. They should also have the opportunity of at least observing the operation of the business as a whole, and not be narrowed by too long an experience in the position of a functional specialist. Drucker suggests that, in order to satisfy these three requirements, the organizational structure must be based preferably on the principle of regional decentralization, with activities integrated into autonomous product businesses with their own product and market, and with

responsibility for their profit and loss. According to Drucker, if regional decentralization is not possible then the organizational structure should be based on the principle of functional decentralization with integrated units having the maximum responsibility for major and distinct stages of the business process.

The objectives of organizational structure, according to Knight (1977), are as follows:

- (i) The economic and efficient performance of the organization and the level of resource utilization.
- (ii) Monitoring the activities of the organization.
- (iii) Accountability for areas of work undertaken by groups and individual members of the organization.
- (iv) Coordination of different parts of the organization and different areas of work.
- (v) Flexibility in order to respond to future demands and developments, and adapt to changing environmental influences.
- (vi) The social satisfaction of members working in the organization.

According to Knight, these objectives provide the criteria for structural effectiveness. Structure, though, is not an end in itself, is a means of improving organizational performance

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Explain the meaning of organizational structure
2. Enumerate the objective of an organization

1.3.1 Dimensions of Structure

According to Mullins (2000), the variables which determine the dimensions of organizational structure can be identified in a number of ways but are usually taken to include the grouping of activities, the responsibilities of individuals, levels of hierarchical authority (the scalar chain), span of control and formal organizational relationships. The dimensions of structure can however be identified in a number of ways. Child, (1988) suggests six major dimensions as components of an organization structure which are as follow:

- i. Allocation of individual tasks and responsibilities, job specialization and definition
- ii. Formal reporting relationships, levels of authority and spans of control
- iii. Grouping together of sections, departments, divisions and larger units
- iv. Systems for communication of information, integration of effort and participation
- v. Delegation of authority and procedures for monitoring and evaluating the use of discretion

Motivation of employees through systems for appraisal of performance and reward.

Mintzberg (1979) suggesting another approach to the identification of dimensions of structure, gives a set of nine essential design parameters which form the basic components of organisation structure.

- i. How many tasks should a given position in the organisation contain and how specialised should each task be?
- ii. To what extent should the work content of each position be standardised?
- iii. What skills and knowledge should be required for each position?
- iv. On what basis should positions be grouped into units and units into larger units?
- v. How large should each unit be; how many individuals should report to a given manager?
- vi. To what extent should the output of each position or unit be standardised;
- vii. What mechanisms should be established to facilitate mutual adjustment among positions and units?
- viii. How much decision-making power should be delegated to the managers of the units down the chain of authority?
- ix. How much decision-making power should pass from the line managers to the staff specialists and operators?

These nine design parameters, according to Mullins (2000), can be grouped under four broad headings: design of position, design of superstructure, design of lateral linkages and design of decision-making systems. Information technology is an additional dimension of structural design. The computer-based information and decision-support systems influence choices in design of production or service activities, hierarchical structures and organization of support staffs. Information technology may influence the centralization/decentralization of decision-making and control systems (Mullins, 2000). According to Mullins (2000), the impact of information technology will have significant effects on the structure, management and functioning of most organizations. The introduction of new technology will demand new patterns of work organization. It will affect individual jobs, the formation and structure of groups, the nature of supervision and managerial roles. Information technology results in changes to lines of command and authority, and influences the need for restructuring the organization and attention to the job design. Mullins maintains that new technology has typically resulted in a 'flatter' organizational pyramid with fewer levels of management required. In the case of new office technology, it allows the potential for staff at clerical/operator level to carry out a wider range of functions and to check their own work. The result is a change in the traditional supervisory function and a demand for fewer supervisors. Structure provides the framework for the activities of the organization and must harmonize with its goals and objectives. The first step, therefore, is to examine the objectives of the

organization. Only when objectives have been clearly defined those alternative forms of structure be analyzed and compared.

1.3.2 Levels of Organization Structure

According to Parsons (1980), organizations are structured in layers. This implies that the determination of policy and decision-making, the execution of work, and the exercise of authority and responsibility are carried out by different people at varying levels of seniority throughout the organization structure. Therefore, it is possible to look at organizations in terms of interrelated levels in the hierarchical structure such as the technical level, the managerial level and the community level. These are discussed below.

1. The Technical Level

The technical level is concerned with specific operations and discrete tasks, with the actual job or tasks to be done, and with performance of the technical function.

Examples are: the physical production of goods in a manufacturing firm; administrative processes giving direct service to the public in government departments; the actual process of teaching in an educational establishment.

2. The Managerial Level

The technical level interrelates with the managerial level, or organizational level, which is concerned with the coordination and integration of work at the technical level. Decisions at the managerial level relate to the resources necessary for performance of the technical function, and to the beneficiaries of the products or services provided.

Decisions will be concerned with:

- i. Mediating between the organization and its external environment, such as the users of the organizations' products or services, and the procurement of resources and
- ii. The 'administration' of the internal affairs of the organization including the control of the operations of the technical function.

3. The Community Level

In turn, the managerial level interrelates with the community level or institutional level, concerned with broad objectives and the work of the organisation as a whole. Decisions at the community level will be concerned with the selection of operations, and the development of the organisation in relation to external agencies and the wider social environment. Examples of the community level within organisations are:

- i. The board of directors of joint stock companies
- ii. Governing bodies of educational establishments which include external representatives
- iii. Trustees of non-profit organizations.

Such bodies provide a mediating link between the managerial organization and coordination of work of the technical organization, and the wider community interests. Control at the institutional level of the

organization may be exercised, for example, by legislation, codes of standards or good practice, trade or professional associations, political or governmental actions, and public interest.

In practice, all these levels are interrelated, and there is not a clear division between determination of policy and decision-making, coordination of activities and the actual execution of work. Most decisions are taken with reference to the execution of wider decisions, and most execution of work involves decision. Decisions taken at the institutional level determine objectives for the managerial level, and decisions at the managerial level set objectives for the technical level. Therefore if the organization as a whole is to perform effectively, there must be clear objectives, a soundly designed structure and good communication (both upwards and downwards, among the different levels of the organization (Mullins, 2000).

The managerial level, for example, would be unable to plan and supervise the execution of work of the technical function without the knowledge, expertise, practical know-how and enthusiasm of people who are closest to the actual tasks to be undertaken. People operating at the technical level should, therefore, make known to higher levels the practical difficulties and operational problems concerning their work. It is the duty of the managerial level to take appropriate action on this information, and to consult with people at the community or institutional level (Mullins, 2000).

1.4 Dimensions of People – Organization Relationship

1.4.1 Clarification of Objectives

Clarity of objectives is necessary in order to provide a basis for the division of work and grouping of duties into sub-units. The objectives for these sub-units must be related to the objectives of the organization as a whole in order that an appropriate pattern of structure can be established. According to Mullins (2000), clearly stated and agreed objectives will provide a framework for the design of structure, and a suitable pattern of organization to achieve those objectives. The nature of the organization and its strategy will indicate the most appropriate organizational levels for different functions and activities, and the formal relationships between them. Clearly defined objectives will help facilitate systems of communication between different parts of the organization and extent of decentralization and delegation. The formal structure should help make possible the attainment of objectives. It should assist in the performance of the essential functions of the organization and the major activities which it needs to undertake.

1.4.2 Clarification of Tasks

According to Woodward (1980), tasks are the basic activities of the organization which are related to the actual completion of the productive process and directed towards specific and definable end-results. To ensure the efficient achievement of overall objectives of the organization, the results of the task functions must be coordinated. There

are four essential functions that the organization must perform. These are as stated below.

- (i) The good or service must be developed.
- (ii) Something of value must be created. In the case of the business organization, this might be the production or manufacture of a product; in the case of the public sector organization, the provision of a service.
- (iii) The product or services must be marketed. They must be distributed or made available to those who are to use them.
- (iv) Finance is needed in order to make available the resources used in the development, creation and distribution of the products or services provided.

There are other activities of the organization called, element functions which are not directed towards specific and definite ends but are supportive of the task functions and an intrinsic part of the management process. These include personnel, planning, management services, public relations, quality control and maintenance. In other organizations, noticeably in service industries, personnel can be seen as closely associated with a task function. But in the majority of organizations, the personnel function does not normally have any direct accountability for the performance of a specific end-task.

These two kinds of functions, task and element, differ in a number of ways and these differences have important implications for organization. Failure to distinguish between the two types of functions can lead to confusion in the planning of structure and in the relationship between members of the organization. According to Woodward, for example, activities concerned with raising funds for the business, keeping accounts and determination of financial policy are task functions. But management accounting, concerned with prediction and control of production administration, is an element function, and is primarily a servicing and supportive one. Relationships between the accountants and other managers seemed better when the two functions were organizationally separate. This is the case especially in divisionalised organization when each product division has its own accounting staff providing line managers with the necessary information to control their own departments.

1.5 The Division of Work

According to Mullins (2000), work has to be divided among its members and different jobs related to each other within the formal structure of an organization. The division of work and the grouping together of people should, wherever possible, should be organized by reference to some common characteristic which forms a logical link between the activities involved. It is necessary to maintain a balance between an emphasis on subject matter or function at higher levels of the organisation, and specialisation and concern for staff at the operational level.

Work can be divided, and activities linked together in a variety of ways as follows:

(i) Major Purpose or Function The most commonly used basis for grouping activities is according to specialization, the use of the same set of resources, or the shared expertise of members of staff. It is a matter for decision in each organization as to which activities are important enough to be organized into separate functions, departments or sections. Work may be in departments and based, for example, on different tasks and element functions as discussed above. See figure. 5.1.

(ii) Product or Service

In division by product or service, as shown in figure 5.2, the contributions of different specialists are integrated into separate, semi-autonomous units with collective responsibility for a major part of the business process or for a complete cycle of work. This form of grouping is more common in the larger diversified organizations and may be used as a means of sub-dividing departments into sections.

A good example is the bringing together of all activities concerned with a particular production line, product or service. In a hospital where medical and support staff are grouped together in different units dealing with particular treatments such as accidents and emergency, medical and surgery, the danger is that with grouping by product or service, the divisions may attempt to become too autonomous, presenting management with a problem of coordination and control.

(iii) Location In division by location, as shown in Figure 5.3, different services are provided by area or geographical boundaries according to particular needs or demands, the convenience of consumers or for ease of administration.

Examples are the provision of local authority services for people living in a particular locality; the site of hospitals or post offices, the provision of technical or agricultural further education in industrial or rural areas, sales territories for business firms, or the grouping of a number of retail shops under an area manager. Another example is provided by organizations with multi-site working and the grouping of a range of similar activities or functions located together on one site.

One problem with grouping by location is difficulty in the definition of the geographical boundaries and the most appropriate size for a given area. The improvement in communications, particularly telecommunications, tends, however, to reduce the importance of location. For example, administrative staff may no longer need to be located within the main production unit.

(iv) The Nature of the Work Performed Division may be according to the nature of the work performed where there is some special common feature of the work, such as: the need for speedy decisions, accuracy, confidentiality /security, or where local conditions require first-hand knowledge not immediately available elsewhere. Another example may

be the grouping together of equipment or machinery which is noisy or which produces dust, fumes or unpleasant odours.

(v) Common Time Scales Division may be according to time scales, for example, shift working and the extent to which different tasks should be undertaken by different shifts. In a further education college, there may be separate departments or groupings to deal with the different needs of full-time day students and part-time evening students.

Another example of activities grouped according to time is in a hotel. Activities in the kitchen tend to be short term, especially when guests in the restaurant are waiting to be served, and a range of different tasks have to be coordinated very quickly. Other activities, for example, market research and forecasting future room occupancy, are longer-term decisions, and subject to different organizational requirements

(vi) Common Processes When common processes are used in a range of different activities, this may be used as the basis of division. This method of grouping is similar to the division by nature of the work, but includes, for example, the decision whether to establish a centralized resource centre for all departments of the organization or to allow each department to have its own service. In the manufacturing industries, a range of products may pass through a common production facility or configuration of machines which may be grouped together in a single unit. For example, a batch production engineering firm having departments based on like skills or methods of operation. Services using expensive equipment such as mainframe computers may need to be grouped together in this way for reasons of efficiency and economy.

(vii) Staff Employed The allocation of duties and responsibilities may be according to experience, or where a particular technical skill or special qualification is required: for example, the division of work between surgeons, doctors and nurses; or between barristers, solicitors and legal executives. Another good example is the sharing of routine work processes among members of a supervised group. In smaller organizations, the allocation of work may be on an ad hoc, personal basis according to the knowledge and skills contributed by individuals. Work may also be planned deliberately to give a variety of tasks and responsibilities to provide improved job satisfaction or to assist in the training of staff.

(viii) Customer to be Served Separate groups may be established to deal with different consumer requirements. A good example is the division between trade or retail customers, or between home or export sales. In hospitals, there are different groupings dealing with, for example, patients in the gynecology, pediatric and children's wards. In large clothes shops, there may be separate departments for men, women and children's clothing.

Another example is the provision of canteen services which may be grouped by customer demand according to price; range or standard of meals available, speed of service; or type of customer. This gives rise to

separate facilities; for instance, directors' dining room, staff dining room, and separation of students' dining room from lecturers' dining room in educational establishments.

These different ways of dividing work can be combined in various forms most suitable for organizations in terms of their scope of operations. Some activities might be grouped according to one method and the other according to operational activities. Decisions on the methods of grouping will include considerations of:

- i. The need for coordination
- ii. The identification of clearly defined divisions of work
- iii. Economy
- iv. The process of managing the activities
- v. Avoiding conflict
- vi. The design of work organization which takes account of the nature of staff employed, their interests and job satisfaction.

The management team must decide upon the most significant factors which will determine the methods for division of work and linking of activities appropriate to the changing circumstances within the particular organization.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. List the level of organisational structure?
2. Itemize the division of work in an organisation?



1.6 Summary

This study unit has been used to discuss:

- The meaning and nature of organizational structure; that structure defines positions and responsibilities, and it keeps on changing.
- Levels of organization structure such as technical, management, and community levels.
- Dimensions of people–organization relationship such as clarification of objectives, clarification of tasks, and division of work.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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2. The objectives of organizational structure, according to Knight (1977), are as follows:

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- (iii) Accountability for areas of work undertaken by groups and individual members of the organization.
- (iv) Coordination of different parts of the organization and different areas of work.
- (v) Flexibility in order to respond to future demands and developments, and adapt to changing environmental influences.
- (vi) The social satisfaction of members working in the organization.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. 1. The Technical Level
2. The Managerial Level
3. The Community Level
2. (i) Major Purpose or Function
- (ii) Product or Service

- (iii) Location
- (iv) The Nature of the Work Performed
- (v) Common Time Scales
- (vi) Common Processes
- (vii) Staff Employed
- (viii) Customer to be Served

Unit 4 Forms of Relationship in Organization

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Forms of Relation in Organisation
- 1.4 Types of organizational Structure
- 1.5 Common Features of Organizations
- 1.6 Influence of Technology on Organization
- 1.7 Problems of Work Organization
- 1.8 Summary
- 1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.10 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Organizational relates to pattern of relationships along positions in the organization and among members of the organization, which defines tasks and responsibilities, work roles and relationships and channels of communication among organizational members. You have understood that essential factors are normally taken into consideration in designing organization structure. There are different types of structure and relationship in organization. Organizational structure is affected by technology as a critical aspect of the external environment.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- identify and explain forms of relationship in organization
- mention and discuss types of organizational structure
- identify and explain common features of organizations
- discuss how technology impacts on organization
- identify and analyze problems inherent in work organization.



1.3 Introduction to Forms of Relation in Organisation

Some formal relationships between individual positions will arise from the defined pattern of responsibilities in any organizational structure. These individual authority relationships may be identified as line, functional, staff or lateral.

The design of organizational structure in terms of the principle of line, functional, staff or lateral, determines the pattern of role relationships and interactions with other roles, discussed in the next unit.

(i) Line Relationships

In line relationships, authority flows vertically down through the structure, for example, from the managing director to managers, section leaders, supervisors and other staff. There is a direct relationship between superior and subordinate, with each subordinate responsible to only one person. Line relationships are associated with functional or departmental division of work and organizational control. Line managers have authority and responsibility for all matters and activities within their own department

(ii) Functional Relationships

Functional relationships apply to the relationship between people in specialist or advisory positions, and line managers and their subordinates. The specialist offers a common service throughout all departments of the organization, but has no direct authority over those who make use of the service. There is only an indirect relationship. For example, the personnel manager has no authority over staff in other departments – this is the responsibility of the line manager. But, as the position and role of the personnel manager would have been sanctioned by top management, other staff might be expected to accept the advice which is given.

The personnel manager, however, could be assigned some direct, executive authority for certain specified responsibilities such as, for example, health and safety matters throughout the whole organization. Note, however, that specialist in a functional relationship with other managers still have a line relationship with both their own superior and their own departmental subordinate staff.

(iii) Staff Relationships

Staff relationships arise from the appointment of personal assistants to senior members of staff. Persons in a staff position normally have little or no direct authority in their own right but act as an extension of their superior and exercise only 'representative' authority. They often act in a 'gatekeeper' role. There is no direct relationship between the personal assistant and other staff except where delegated authority and responsibility have been given for some specific activity. In practice, however, personal assistants often do have some influence over other staff, especially those in the same department or grouping. This may be

partial because of the close relationship between the personal assistant and the superior, and may partially dependent upon the knowledge and experience of the assistant, and the strength of the assistant's own personality.

(iv) Lateral Relationships

Lateral relationships exist between individuals in different departments or sections, especially individuals on the same level. These lateral relationships are based on contact and consultation and are necessary to maintain coordination and effective organizational performance.

Lateral relationships may be specified formally, but in practice, they depend upon the cooperation of staff and in effect are a type of informal relationship.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Mention and discuss the forms of relationship in organization.
2. Why do organisation need a structure?

1.4 Types of organizational Structure

1. Line and Staff Organization

An area of management which causes particular difficulty is the concept of line and staff. As organizations develop in size and work becomes more complex, the range of activities and functions undertaken increase. People with specialist knowledge have to be integrated into the managerial structure. Line and staff organization is concerned with different functions which are to be undertaken. It provides a means of making full use of specialists while maintaining the concept of line authority. It creates a type of informal matrix structure.

According to Mullins (2000), the concept of line and staff relationships presents a number of difficulties. With the increasing complexity of organizations and the rise of specialist services, it becomes harder to distinguish clearly between what is directly essential to the operation of the organization, and what might be regarded only as an auxiliary function. The distinction between a line manager and a staff manager is not absolute. There may be a fine division between offering professional advice and the giving of instructions.

Friction inevitably seems to occur between line and staff managers. Neither side may fully understand nor appreciate the purpose and role of the other. Staff managers are often criticized for unnecessary interference in the work of the line manager and for being out of touch with practical realities. Line managers may feel that the staff managers have an easier and less demanding job because they have no direct responsibility for producing a product or providing a service for the customer, and are free from day-to-day operational problems.

Furthermore, staff managers may feel that their own difficulties and work problems are not appreciated fully by the line manager. Staff

managers often complain about resistance to their attempts to provide assistance and coordination, and the unnecessary demands for departmental independence by line managers. A major source of difficulty is to persuade line managers to accept, and act upon, the advice and recommendations which are offered.

2. Functional Organization

Under this structure, the division of work and the grouping together of people is organized by reference to some common characteristic which forms a logical link between the activities involved. This emphasizes functions of the organizational operations as well as specialization. The most commonly used bases for grouping activities according to function are: specialization; the use of the same set of resources; and the shared expertise of members of staff. It is a matter for decision in each organization as to which activities are important enough to be organized into separate functions, departments or sections. Work may be departmentalized and based on differentiation between task and element functions.

3. Project Organization

The division of work and methods of grouping described earlier tend to be relatively permanent forms of structure. With the growth in newer, complex and technologically advanced systems, it has become necessary for organizations to adapt traditional structures in order to provide greater integration of a wide range of functional activities. In recent years, greater attention has been given, therefore, to more flexible forms of structure and the creation of groupings based on project teams and matrix organization. Members of staff from different departments or sections are assigned to the team for the duration of a particular project. Therefore, a project organization may be set up as a separate unit on a temporary basis for the attainment of a particular task. When this task is completed, the project team is disbanded or members of the unit are reassigned to a new task. Project teams may be used for people working together on a common task or to coordinate work on a specific project such as the design and development, production and testing of a new product; or the design and implementation of a new system or procedure. For example, project teams have been used in many military systems, aeronautics and space programmes. A project team is more likely to be effective when it has a clear objective, a well-defined task, and a definite end-result to be achieved, and the composition of the team is chosen with care.

4. Matrix Organization

The matrix organization is a combination of:

- (i) Functional departments which provide a stable base for specialized activities and a permanent location for members of staff.
- (ii) Units that integrate various activities of different functional departments on a project team, product, programme, geographical or

systems basis. As an example, ICI is organized on matrix lines, by territory, function and business. A matrix structure might be adopted in a university or college with grouping both by common subject specialism, and by association with particular courses or programmes of study. Therefore, the matrix organization establishes a grid, or matrix, with a two-way flow of authority and responsibility. On the basis of the functional departments, authority and responsibility flow vertically down the line, but the authority and responsibility of the project manager flow horizontally across the organization structure.

Reasons for the use of a matrix structure include the following:

- (i) More than one critical orientation to the operations of the organization. For example, an insurance company that has to respond simultaneously to both functional differentiation such as life, fire, marine, motor, and to different geographical areas.
- (ii) A need to process simultaneously large amounts of information. For example, a local authority social services department seeking help for an individual will need to know where to go for help from outside agencies such as police, priest, and community relations officer; and at the same time whom to contact from internal resources within the organization such as the appropriate social worker, health visitor or housing officer
- (iii) The need for sharing of resources. This could only be justified on a total organizational basis such as the occasional or part-time use by individual departments of specialist staff or services.

Matrix organization offers the advantages of flexibility, greater security and control of project information and opportunities for staff development. Nevertheless, there are difficulties associated with matrix structure. Developing an effective matrix organization, however, takes time and a willingness to learn new roles and behaviour which means that matrix structures are often difficult for management to implement effectively.

There may be a limited numbers of staff reporting directly to the project manager with extra staff are assigned as required by departmental managers. This may result in a feeling of ambiguity. Staff may be reluctant to accept constant change and prefer the organizational stability from membership of their own functional grouping.

Matrix organization can result in a more complex structure. By using two methods of grouping, it sacrifices the unity of command and can cause problems of coordination.

There may be a problem of defining the extent of the project manager's authority over staff from other departments and of gaining the support of the functional managers. Functional groups may tend to neglect their normal duties and responsibilities. According to Bartlett and Ghoshal (1990), matrix structures have proved all but unmanageable. Dual reporting leads to conflict and confusion; the proliferation of channels of communication creates informational log-jams; and overlapping responsibilities result in a loss of accountability.

1.5 Common Features of Organizations

A basic aim for the study of organizations is to indicate both the common features of organizations and the main distinguishing features between different types of organizations. It provides a useful framework for the comparative study of organizations. Some of these common features of organizations are as discussed below.

1. **organizational Sub-systems** The transformation or conversion of inputs into outputs is a common feature of all organizations. Within the organization (system) as a whole, each of the different transformation or conversion activities may themselves be viewed as separate subsystems with their own input conversion-output process interrelated to, and interact sub-systems. The analysis of an organization could perhaps be based upon the departmental structure as sub-systems. The important point is the interrelationships and coordination of subsystems in terms of the effectiveness of the organization as an integrated whole. The interrelationship and interdependence of the different parts of the system raise the question of the identification of these subsystems. The boundaries are drawn at the discretion of the observer and subsystems are identified according to the area under study. These subsystems may be identified, therefore, in a number of different ways, although there is a degree of similarity among the alternative models.
2. **Socio-technical System** According to Mullins (2000), the socio-technical system is concerned with the transformation or conversion process itself, the relationships between technical efficiency and social considerations and the effect on people. Researchers observed that new methods of work and changes in technology disrupted the social groupings of workers, and therefore, brought about undesirable changes to the psychological and sociological properties of the old method of working. As a result, the new method of work could be less efficient than it could have been despite the introduction of new technology. The recommendation calls for a sociotechnical approach in which an appropriate social system could be developed in keeping with the new technical system. It has been observed that there are three sub-systems common to any organization. Such are the:

- i. Technological sub-system
- ii. Sub-system of formal role structure
- iii. Sub-system of individual members' feelings or sentiments.

Another form of analysis result in seeing the organization as an open, socio-technical system with five major sub-systems such as follows:

- i. Goals and values – the accomplishment of certain goals determined by the broader system and conformity with social requirements.
- ii. Technical – the knowledge required for the performance of tasks, and the techniques and technology involved.
- iii. Psychological – the interactions of individuals and groups, and behaviour of people in the organization.

- i. Structure – the division and coordination of tasks, and formal relationships between the technical and psychosocial sub-systems.
- ii. Managerial – covering the whole organization and its relationship to the environment, setting goals, planning, structure and control. An alternative model is suggested by Hersey and Blanchard, who identify four main interrelated sub-systems.
- iii. Human / social focuses on the needs and motivations of members of the organization and styles of leadership.
- iv. Administrative / structural focuses on authority and responsibility, and the structure within the organization.
- v. Informational / decision-making focuses on key decisions and information needs necessary to keep the organization operational.
- vi. Economic / technological focuses on the work to be undertaken and its cost effectiveness related to the goals of the organization. Another useful model is that of Leavitt who suggests the organization consists of four main elements – task, structure, information and control, and people – which interact with each other and with the external environment.
Task – involves problem-solving and improving organizational performance.
- vii. Structure – refers to patterns of organization, authority and responsibility, and communications.
- viii. Information and control – techniques for controlling and processing information, such as accounting techniques.
- ix. People – involves attitudes and interpersonal relations. According to Mullins (2000), from the above analysis therefore, five main interrelated sub-systems as a basis for the analysis of work organizations.
 - (i) Task – The goals and objectives of the organisation and the nature of inputs, outputs and the work activities to be carried out in the transformation or conversion process.
 - (ii) Technology – The manner in which the tasks of the organisation are carried out and the nature of work performance. The materials, systems and procedures and equipment used in the transformation or conversion process.
 - (iii) Structure – patterns of organisation, lines of authority, formal relationships and channels of communication among members.
That is the division of work and coordination of tasks by which the series of activities are carried out.
 - (iv) People – the nature of the members undertaking the series of activities, such as their attitudes, skills and attributes needs and expectations, interpersonal relations and patterns of behaviour, group functioning and behaviour; informal organization and styles of leadership.
 - (v) Management – coordination of task, technology, structure and people, and policies and procedures for the execution of work.

Corporate strategy is the direction of the activities of the organization as a whole and its interactions with the external environment.

The attention given to organizational sub-systems can be related to developments in management thinking and organizational behaviour. The classical approach emphasized the structural and the managerial sub-systems and the development of general principles of organization. The human relations approach emphasized the psychological and sociological aspects and gave attention to the importance of people in the organization and such factors as the social needs of individuals, motivation and group behaviour. The systems approach focuses attention on the organization as a whole, as a socio-technical system, and considers the interrelationships between the different sub-systems and the importance of environmental influences. The contingency approach concentrates on situational factors as determinants of alternative forms of organization and management.

3. Interaction between Organization and Environment

An open systems approach is an attempt to view the organization as a purposeful, unified whole in continual interaction with its external environment. The organization (system) is composed of a number of interrelated parts (sub-systems). Any one part of the organizations' activities affects other parts. Managers cannot afford to take a narrow, blinkered view. They need to adopt a broader view of the organizations' activities.

Managers should recognize the interrelationships between various activities and the effects that their actions and decisions have on other activities. Using the above framework of five main interrelated subsystems which are task, technology, structure, people, and management; a useful basis for the analysis of organizational performance and effectiveness can be provided.

Task - the nature of the work activities to be carried out
 Technology - the manner in which activities are carried out
 Structure - patterns of organization and formal relationships within which activities are carried out
 People - the nature of members undertaking the activities
 Management - effective coordination of the sub-systems and direction of activities of the organization as a unified whole. The manager must realize that in order to improve organizational effectiveness, attention should be focused on the total work organization and on the interrelationships between the ranges of variables which affect organizational performance. The organization is best viewed as an open system and studied in terms of the interactions between technical and social considerations, and environmental influences. Changes in part of the system will affect other parts and thus the whole organization. The open systems approach provides a series of activities, Transformation or conversion process, Interrelated sub-systems, Task Technology Management Structure, People, perspective in which to compare and contrast different types of organizations and their methods of operation.

4. **Situational Organization** The analysis of organizational effectiveness requires an understanding of relationships within the organizations' structure, the interrelated sub-systems and the nature of its external environment. Irrespective of the identification of sub-systems, the nature and scale of the series of activities involved in converting inputs to outputs will differ from one organization to another in terms of the interrelationships between technology, structure, methods of operation, and the nature of environmental influences. Contingency models of organization highlight these interrelationships and provide a further possible means of differentiation between alternative forms of organization and management. The contingency approach takes the view that there is no one best, universal form of organization. There are a large number of variables, or situational factors, that influence organizational performance. Contingency models can be seen as an 'if-then' form of relationship. If certain situational factors exist, then certain organizational and managerial variables are most appropriate. Managers can utilize these models to compare the structure and functioning of their own organization (Mullins, 2000)

1.6 Influence of Technology on Organization

According to Mullins (2000), the systems and contingency approaches have drawn attention to the importance of technology in the structure, management and functioning of work organizations. It is important to note that the meaning of technology is interpreted broadly to include both:

- The physical aspects of machines, equipment, processes and work layout (machine technology) involved in the transformation or conversion process; and
- The actual methods, systems and procedures involved (knowledge technology) in carrying out the work of the organisation and transforming or converting inputs into outputs. There is a close interrelationship between the machine side of technology and the specialist knowledge side of technology. The nature of technology can, therefore, be applied to the analysis of all organisations.

In a university, for example, the machine side of technology would include:

- i. blackboards or whiteboards
- ii. overhead projectors
- iii. computers
- iv. televisions and video recorders
- v. closed circuit television
- vi. scientific and engineering equipment
- vii. library facilities.

The knowledge side of technology would include:

- i. lectures
- ii. seminars and

- iii. tutorials
- iv. case studies
- v. role-playing
- vi. practical laboratory work
- vii. visiting speakers
- viii. project and assignment work
- ix. examinations.

The work processes of a university and other educational establishments give rise to the specialist study of educational technology. A university will receive inputs of students and, through the process of educational technology, 'transform' them and return them as outputs into the broader society.

1. Technology and the Behaviour of People

According to Mullins, the nature of technology can influence the behaviour of people in work organizations in many ways including the following:

- i. It influences the specific design of each member's pattern of work including the nature and variety of activities performed, and the extent of autonomy and freedom of action.
- ii. It affects the nature of social interactions, for example, the size and nature of work groups, the extent of physical mobility and of contacts with other people. A person working continuously on a single, isolated machine in a mass production factory will have very limited social interactions compared with, say, a team of receptionists in a large conference hotel.
- iii. It can affect role position and the nature of rewards. People with higher levels of specialist technical knowledge and expertise such as engineers or systems analysts tend to receive higher status and pay than machine operators on an assembly line.
- iv. It can impose time dimensions on workers and may require set times for attending to operations and a set pace of work; for example, the mechanical pacing of work on a mass-production assembly line.
- v. It can result in distinguishing features of appearance; for example, the requirement to wear a standard uniform or protective clothing, compared with a personal choice of smart clothes.

2. Technology and General Climate of Organization

Technology is a major influence on the general climate of the organization and the behaviour of people at work. The nature of technology is also a potential source of tension and stress that affect motivation and job satisfaction. The systems approach should serve to remind managers that activities managed on the basis of technical efficiency alone are unlikely to lead to optimum improvements in organizational performance. It is important to maintain the balance of the socio-technical system. Changes to the work organization as a result of new developments in technology must take account of human and social factors as well as technical and economic factors.

3. Information Technology

The importance of the effective management of technical change has been highlighted by recent and continuing developments in information technology. The term 'information technology' originated in the computer industry, but it extends beyond computing to include telecommunications and office equipment. Advances in technical knowledge, the search for improved economic efficiency and government support for information technology have all prompted a growing movement towards more automated procedures of work.

The impact of information technology demands new patterns of work organization, especially in relation to administrative procedures. It affects the nature of individual jobs, and the formation and structure of work groups. There is a movement away from large-scale, centralized organization to smaller working units. Processes of communication are increasingly linked to computer systems with the rapid transmission of information and immediate access to other national or international offices. Improvements in telecommunications imply that support staff need no longer be located within the main 'production' unit. Modern methods of communication may reduce the need for head office clerical jobs.

Changes brought by information technology relate to the nature of the management task itself. Information technology bears heavily on the decision-making processes of the organization and increasingly forms an essential part of management information and corporate strategy.

4. Technology and Conditions of Work

The growth of information technology implies that individuals may work more on their own, from their personal work stations or even from their own homes, or work more with machines than with other people. One person may be capable of carrying out a wider range of activities. There are changes in the nature of supervision and in the traditional hierarchical structure of jobs and responsibilities.

Computer-based information and decision support systems provide an additional dimension of structural design. They affect choices such as division of work, individual tasks and responsibilities. The introduction of information technology undoubtedly transforms, significantly, the nature of work and employment conditions for staff. Advances in technical knowledge tend to develop at a faster rate with consideration for related human and social consequences. For example, fatigue and low morale are two major obstacles to the efficiency of staff. Research is now being conducted into possible health hazards such as eye strain, backache, general fatigue and irritability for operators of visual display units. This concern has prompted proposals for recommended working practices for VDU operators. There has been a call for regular health checks and eyesight tests for operators, and 20-minute break every two hours.

5. Technical Change and Human Behaviour

Mullins (2000) observes that failure to match technical change to the concomitant human and social considerations means that staff may become resentful, suspicious and defensive. People's cognitive limitations, and their uncertainties and fears, may result in a reluctance to accept change. The psychological and social implications of technical change, such as information technology and increased automation, must not be underestimated. New ideas and innovations should not be seen by members of staff as threats. The manager has to balance the need for adaptability in meeting opportunities presented by new technology with an atmosphere of stability and concern for the interests of staff. The manner in which technical change is introduced into the organization will influence people's attitudes to work, the behaviour of individuals and groups, and their level of performance.

6. Technology and Work Design

According to Mullins, continued technical change is inevitable and likely to develop at an even greater rate. Managers must be responsive to such change. Information technology and automation create a demanding challenge. The systems nature of organizations emphasizes the interrelationships among the major variables or sub-systems of the organization. The implementation and management of technological change needs to be related to its effect on the task, the structure and the people.

Managers need to develop working practices based on an accurate understanding of human behaviour and the integration of people's needs with organizational needs. It is important to avoid destructive conflict, alienating staff including managerial colleagues, or evoking the anger and opposition of unions. At the same time, it is important to avoid incurring increasing costs or a lower level of organizational performance caused by delays in the successful implementation of new technology.

What needs to be considered is the impact of technical change on the design of the work organization, and the attitudes and behaviour of staff. It will be necessary for managers and supervisors to develop more agile skills in organization. This calls for the effective management of human resources and a style of managerial behaviour which helps to minimize the problems of technical change. The management of conflict and organizational change is discussed in detail in other units.

1.7 Problems of Work Organization

As observed by Mullins, the important point is not so much whether competing sub-groups and conflict are seen as inevitable consequences of organization structure, but how conflict, when found to exist within the structure, is handled and managed. There are many potential sources of conflict arising from structure, which include the following: 1. Differences in perception. Individuals see things in different ways. They all have our own unique picture or image of how we see the 'real' world. Differences in perception result in different people attaching different

meanings to the same stimuli. As perceptions become a person's reality, value judgements can be a potential major source of conflict.

2. Limited resources Most organizational resources are limited, and individuals and groups have to fight for their share; for example, at the time of the allocation of the next year's budget or when cutbacks have to be made, the greater the limitation of resources, then usually the greater the potential for conflict. In an organization with reducing profits or revenues, the potential for conflict is likely to be intensified.

3. Departmentalization and specialization Most work organizations are divided into separate departments with specialized functions. Because of familiarity with the manner in which they undertake their activities, departments tend to turn inwards and to concentrate on the achievement of their own particular goals. When departments need to cooperate with each other this is a frequent source of conflict. Differing goals and internal environments of departments are also a potential source of conflict. For example, a research and development department is more likely to be concerned with the longrun view and, confronted with pressures for new ideas and production innovation, the department is likely to operate in a dynamic environment and with an organic structure. A production department, however, is concerned more with short-term problems such as quality control and meeting delivery dates. The department tends to operate in a more stable environment and with a bureaucratic structure.

4. The nature of work activities Where the task of one person is dependent upon the work of others, there is potential for conflict; for example, if a worker is expected to complete the assembly of a given number of components in a week but the person forwarding the part-assembled components does not supply a sufficient number on time. If reward and punishment systems are perceived to be based on keeping up with performance levels, then the potential for conflict is even greater. In sequential interdependence where the work of a department is dependent upon the output of another department, a crisis situation could arise, especially if this situation is coupled with limited resources; for example, where the activities of a department, whose budget has been reduced below what is believed necessary to run the department efficiently, are interdependent with those of another department, who appear to have received a more generous budget allocation.

5. Role conflict A role is the expected pattern of behaviours associated with members occupying a particular position within the structure of the organization. In practice, the manner in which people actually behave may not be consistent with their expected pattern of behaviour. Problems of role incompatibility and role ambiguity arise from inadequate or inappropriate role definition and can be a significant source of conflict.

6. Inequitable treatment A person's perception of unjust treatment such as in the operation of personnel policies and practices, or in reward and

punishment systems, can lead to tension and conflict. For example, according to the equity theory of motivation, the perception of inequity will motivate a person to take action to restore equity, including changes to inputs or outputs, or through acting on others.

7. Violation of territory People tend to become attached to their own 'territory' within work organizations; for example, to their own area of work, or kinds of clients to be dealt with; or to their own room, chair or packing space. Jealousy may arise over other people's territory; for example, size of room, company car, allocation of a secretary or other perks; through access to information, or through membership of groups. A stranger walking into a place of work can create an immediate feeling of suspicion or even resentment because people do not usually like 'their' territory entered by someone they do not know, and whose motives are probably unclear to them. Mullins observes that ownership of territory may be conferred formally, for example, by organizational charts, job descriptions or management decisions. It may be established through procedures, for example, circulation lists or membership of committees. Or it may arise informally, for example through group norms, tradition or perceived status symbols. The place where people choose to meet can have a possible, significant symbolic value. The relevant strategies for managing conflicts arising from work organization include the following:

(i) Clarification of goals and objectives The clarification and continued refinement of goals and objectives, role definitions and performance standards will help to avoid misunderstandings and conflict. Focusing attention on super-ordinate Organizational **Behaviour** goals that are shared by the parties in conflict may help to diffuse hostility and lead to more cooperative behaviour.

(ii) Resource distribution It may not always be possible for managers to increase their allocated share of resources, but they may be able to use imagination and initiative to help overcome conflict situations; for example, making a special case to higher management; flexibility in virement headings of the budget; delaying staff appointments in one area to provide more money to another area.

(iii) Personnel policies and procedures. Careful and detailed attention to just and equitable personnel policies and procedures may help to reduce areas of conflict. Examples are: job analysis, recruitment and selection, job evaluation; systems of reward and punishment; appeals, grievance and disciplinary procedures; arbitration and mediation; recognition of trade unions and their officials.

(iv) Non-monetary rewards Where financial resources are limited, it may be possible to pay greater attention to non-monetary rewards. Examples are job design, more interesting, challenging or responsible work, increased delegation or empowerment, flexible working hours, attendance at courses or conferences, unofficial perks or more relaxed working conditions.

(v) Development of interpersonal/group process skills This may help to encourage a better understanding of one's own behaviour, the other person's point of view, communication processes and problem-solving. It may also encourage people to work through conflict situations in a constructive manner.

(vi) Group activities Attention to the composition of groups and to factors which affect group cohesiveness may reduce dysfunctional conflict. Overlapping group membership with a 'linking-pin' process, and the careful selection of project teams or task forces for problems affecting more than one group, may also be beneficial.

(vii) Leadership and management A more participative and supportive style of leadership and managerial behaviour is likely to assist in conflict management; for example, showing an attitude of respect and trust; encouraging personal self-development; creating a work environment in which staff can work cooperatively together. A participative approach to leadership and management may also help to create greater employee commitment.

(viii) organizational processes. Conflict situations may be reduced by attention to such features as: the nature of the authority structure; work organization; patterns of communication and sharing of information, democratic functioning of the organization, unnecessary adherence to bureaucratic procedures and official rules and regulations. (ix) Socio-technical approach Viewing the organization as a socio-technical system in which psychological and social factors are developed in keeping with structural and technical requirements, will help in reducing dysfunctional conflict.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. List the types of organizational structure.
2. How do technology have influence on organization?



1.7 Summary

This study unit has been used to discuss:

- Forms of relationship in organization in areas of line, staff, function and lateral relationships.
- Types of organizational structure like line and staff, functional, project and matrix organizations.
- Common features of organizations such as organizational subsystems, socio-technical system, interaction between the organization and the environment, and situation organization.
- Influence of technology on organization in areas of behaviour of people, organizational climate, conditions of work, information technology, and work design.



1.8 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.9 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. (i) Line Relationships

(ii) Functional Relationships

(iii) Staff Relationships

(iv) Lateral Relationships

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however, could be assigned some direct, executive authority for certain specified responsibilities such as, for example, health and safety matters throughout the whole organization. Note, however, that specialist in a functional relationship with other managers still have a line relationship with both their own superior and their own departmental subordinate staff. (iii) Staff Relationships Staff relationships arise from the appointment of personal assistants to senior members of staff. Persons in a staff position normally have little or no direct authority in their own right but act as an extension of their superior and exercise only 'representative' authority. They often act in a 'gatekeeper' role. There is no direct relationship between the personal assistant and other staff except where delegated authority and responsibility have been given for some specific activity. In practice, however, personal assistants often do have some influence over other staff, especially those in the same department or grouping. This may be partial because of the close relationship between the personal assistant and the superior, and may partially depend upon the knowledge and experience of the assistant, and the strength of the assistant's own personality.

(iv) Lateral Relationships Lateral relationships exist between individuals in different departments or sections, especially individuals on the same level. These lateral relationships are based on contact and consultation and are necessary to maintain coordination and effective organizational performance.

Lateral relationships may be specified formally, but in practice, they depend upon the cooperation of staff and in effect are a type of informal relationship.

.3.6 Common Features of Organizations

A basic aim for the study of organizations is to indicate both the common features of organizations and the main distinguishing features between different types of organizations. It provides a useful framework for the comparative study of organizations. Some of these common features of organizations are as discussed below.

1. organizational Sub-systems The transformation or conversion of inputs into outputs is a common feature of all organizations. Within the organization (system) as a whole, each of the different transformation or conversion activities may themselves be viewed as separate subsystems with their own input-conversion-output process interrelated to, and interacting with, the other sub-systems. The analysis of an organization could perhaps be based upon the departmental structure as sub-systems. The important point is the interrelationships and coordination of subsystems in terms of the effectiveness of the organization as an integrated whole. The interrelationship and interdependence of the different parts of the system raise the question of the identification of these sub-systems.

The boundaries are drawn at the discretion of the observer and sub-systems are identified according to the area under study. These sub-

systems may be identified, therefore, in a number of different ways, although there is a degree of similarity among the alternative models.

2. Socio-technical System

According to Mullins (2000), the socio-technical system is concerned with the transformation or conversion process itself, the relationships between technical efficiency and social considerations and the effect on people.

Researchers observed that new methods of work and changes in technology disrupted the social groupings of workers, and therefore, brought about undesirable changes to the psychological and sociological properties of the old method of working. As a result, the new method of work could be less efficient than it could have been despite the introduction of new technology. The recommendation calls for a socio-technical approach in which an appropriate social system could be developed in keeping with the new technical system. It has been observed that there are three sub-systems common to any organization. Such are the:

- i. Technological sub-system
 - ii. Sub-system of formal role structure
 - iii. Sub-system of individual members' feelings or sentiments.
- Another form of analysis result in seeing the organization as an open, socio-technical system with five major sub-systems such as follows:
- iv. Goals and values – the accomplishment of certain goals determined by the broader system and conformity with social requirements.
 - v. Technical – the knowledge required for the performance of tasks, and the techniques and technology involved.
 - vi. Psychological – the interactions of individuals and groups, and behaviour of people in the organization.
 - vii. Structure – the division and coordination of tasks, and formal relationships between the technical and psychosocial subsystems.
 - viii. Managerial – covering the whole organization and its relationship to the environment, setting goals, planning, structure and control. An alternative model is suggested by Hersey and Blanchard, who identify four main interrelated sub-systems.
 - ix. Human / social focuses on the needs and motivations of members of the organization and styles of leadership.
 - x. Administrative / structural focuses on authority and responsibility, and the structure within the organization.
 - xi. Informational / decision-making focuses on key decisions and information needs necessary to keep the organization operational.
 - xii. Economic / technological focuses on the work to be undertaken and its cost effectiveness related to the goals of the organization.

Another useful model is that of Leavitt who suggests the organization consists of four main elements – task, structure, information and control,

and people – which interact with each other and with the external environment.

i. Task – involves problem-solving and improving organizational performance.

ii. Structure – refers to patterns of organization, authority and responsibility, and communications. • Information and control – techniques for controlling and processing information, such as accounting techniques.

iii. People – involves attitudes and interpersonal relations. According to Mullins (2000), from the above analysis therefore, five main interrelated sub-systems as a basis for the analysis of work organizations.

(i) Task – The goals and objectives of the organisation and the nature of inputs, outputs and the work activities to be carried out in the transformation or conversion process.

(ii) Technology – The manner in which the tasks of the organisation are carried out and the nature of work performance. The materials, systems and procedures and equipment used in the transformation or conversion process.

(iii) Structure – patterns of organisation, lines of authority, formal relationships and channels of communication among members.

That is the division of work and coordination of tasks by which the series of activities are carried out.

(iv) People – the nature of the members undertaking the series of activities, such as their attitudes, skills and attributes needs and expectations, interpersonal relations and patterns of behaviour, group functioning and behaviour; informal organization and styles of leadership. (v) Management – coordination of task, technology, structure and people, and policies and procedures for the execution of work. Corporate strategy is the direction of the activities of the organization as a whole and its interactions with the external environment.

The attention given to organizational sub-systems can be related to developments in management thinking and organizational behaviour. The classical approach emphasized the structural and the managerial sub-systems and the development of general principles of organization. The human relations approach emphasized the psychological and sociological aspects and gave attention to the importance of people in the organization and such factors as the social needs of individuals, motivation and group behaviour. The systems approach focuses attention on the organization as a whole, as a socio-technical system, and considers the interrelationships between the different sub-systems and the importance of environmental influences. The contingency approach concentrates on situational factors as determinants of alternative forms of organization and management.

3. Interaction between Organization and Environment

An open systems approach is an attempt to view the organization as a purposeful, unified whole in continual interaction with its external environment. The organization (system) is composed of a number of interrelated parts (sub-systems). Any one part of the organizations' activities affects other parts. Managers cannot afford to take a narrow, blinkered view. They need to adopt a broader view of the organizations' activities. Managers should recognize the interrelationships between various activities and the effects that their actions and decisions have on other activities. Using the above framework of five main interrelated subsystems which are task, technology, structure, people, and management; a useful basis for the analysis of organizational performance and effectiveness can be provided.

Task - the nature of the work activities to be carried out
 Technology - the manner in which activities are carried out
 Structure - patterns of organization and formal relationships within which activities are carried out

People - the nature of members undertaking the activities
 Management - effective coordination of the sub-systems and direction of activities of the organization as a unified whole.

The manager must realize that in order to improve organizational effectiveness, attention should be focused on the total work organization and on the interrelationships between the ranges of variables which affect organizational performance. The organization is best viewed as an open system and studied in terms of the interactions between technical and social considerations, and environmental influences. Changes in part of the system will affect other parts and thus the whole organization.

The open systems approach provides a series of activities, Transformation or conversion process, interrelated sub-systems, Task Technology Management Structure, People, perspective in which to compare and contrast different types of organizations and their methods of operation.

4. Situational Organization

The analysis of organizational effectiveness requires an understanding of relationships within the organizations' structure, the interrelated sub-systems and the nature of its external environment. Irrespective of the identification of sub-systems, the nature and scale of the series of activities involved in converting inputs to outputs will differ from one organization to another in terms of the interrelationships between technology, structure, methods of operation, and the nature of environmental influences. Contingency models of organization highlight these interrelationships and provide a further possible means of differentiation between alternative forms of organization and management.

The contingency approach takes the view that there is no one best, universal form of organization. There are a large number of variables, or

situational factors, that influence organizational performance. Contingency models can be seen as an 'if-then' form of relationship. If certain situational factors exist, then certain organizational and managerial variables are most appropriate. Managers can utilize these models to compare the structure and functioning of their own organization (Mullins, 2000).

2. Organizational relates to pattern of relationships along positions in the organization and among members of the organization, which defines tasks and responsibilities, work roles and relationships and channels of communication among organizational members. You have understood that essential factors are normally taken into consideration in designing organization structure. There are different types of structure and relationship in organization. Organizational structure is affected by technology as a critical aspect of the external environment.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. 1. Line and Staff Organization
2. Functional Organization
3. Project Organization
4. Matrix Organization

2. The systems and contingency approaches have drawn attention to the importance of technology in the structure, management and functioning of work organizations. It is important to note that the meaning of technology is interpreted broadly to include both: • The physical aspects of machines, equipment, processes and work layout (machine technology) involved in the transformation or conversion process; and • The actual methods, systems and procedures involved (knowledge technology) in carrying out the work of the organisation and transforming or converting inputs into outputs. There is a close interrelationship between the machine side of technology and the specialist knowledge side of technology. The nature of technology can, therefore, be applied to the analysis of all organisations.

In a university, for example, the machine side of technology would include:

- i. blackboards or whiteboards
- ii. overhead projectors
- iii. computers • televisions and video recorders
- iv. closed circuit television
- v. scientific and engineering equipment
- vi. library facilities.

The knowledge side of technology would include:

- i. lectures
- ii. seminars and
- iii. tutorials

- iv. case studies
- v. role-playing
- vi. practical laboratory work
- vii. visiting speakers
- viii. project and assignment work
- ix. examinations.

The work processes of a university and other educational establishments give rise to the specialist study of educational technology. A university will receive inputs of students and, through the process of educational technology, 'transform' them and return them as outputs into the broader society.

Unit 5 THE BASICS OF BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction- Defining Terms
- 1.4 The Historical Context of Behaviorism
- 1.5 Understanding Behavior
- 1.6 The Field of Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA)
- 1.7 Coordinating and Communicating in ABA
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Hello and welcome to this course on ways to reduce unwanted, problematic, or even dangerous behavior, or to increase a desirable behavior. Before we dive into this most interesting area, it is important to make sure we all are on the same sheet of music. We will revisit what psychology and learning are, and how changing behavior fits into our field. As it is always important to understand where you came from, we will discuss several of the pioneers in the field of learning who are associated with the school of thought called Behaviorism. Behavior will then be defined, its dimensions discussed, and the field of applied behavior analysis will be described to include pertinent information any applied behavior analyst will need to gather. To round out the module,

we will discuss how learning is shared with the broader scientific community.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

- Clarify how behavior modification fits into the larger context of the field of psychology.
- Identify historical figures and events pertinent to learning and behavior modification.
- Define and describe the characteristics of behavior.
- Clarify how the field of applied behavior analysis goes about changing behavior and describe the ABCs of behavior.
- Identify pertinent professional societies and peer-reviewed journals in the area of applied behavior analysis (ABA).



1.3 Introduction- Defining Terms

To start things off, let's take a step back in time. Behavior modification is an area under the field of **psychology**. Think back to when you took your introduction to psychology course. How did the text, and your professor, define psychology? If you cannot remember, how would you define psychology now that you have likely taken several psychology courses? After giving this some thought, look at the official definition.

Psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes.

Let's examine this definition before we go on.

- i. First, psychology is scientific. Yes, that is correct. Psychology utilizes the *same* scientific process or method used by disciplines such as biology and chemistry. We will discuss this in more detail in Module 2, so please just keep this in the back of your mind for now.
- ii. Second, it is the study of behavior and mental processes. Psychology desires to not only understand why people engage in the behavior that they do, but also how. What is going on in the brain to control the movement of our arms and legs when running downfield to catch the game winning touchdown? What affects the words we choose to say when madly in love? How do we interpret an event as benign or a threat when a loud sound is heard? What makes an individual view another group in less than favorable terms? These are just a few of the questions that we ask.

For the student taking a class in behavior modification, we might say that we seek to study behavior (scientifically of course), but in terms of ways to change it for the betterment of not only the person, but all around him or her. We will spend a lot of time examining behavior in this way but do note that we will touch on cognitive processes because at times, it is not a specific action that we need to change, but the way

we think about it. For instance, you might want to reduce procrastination, eliminate unnecessary anxiety, change a maladaptive cognition, or reverse a particularly bothersome habit. More on this later in the book.

So, our discussion focuses on the scientific study of behavior and specifically the cognitive process of learning. What is **learning** then?

Learning is any relatively permanent change in behavior due to experience and practice.

Learning is key to any study of behavior modification. In fact, as you will see shortly, it is based on the model of learning developed by B.F. Skinner about 90 years ago and going back over 100 years if you consider the work of John B. Watson. If we make an undesirable behavior, we continue doing so because it in some way produces favorable consequences for us. We have learned to associate the behavior with a reinforcer. Let's say we wake up in the morning and instead of going to the gym, we get on our phone. Of course, getting exercise is beneficial in many ways, but we choose to surf the internet, play a game, respond on Facebook, or make a tweet instead. Why? We enjoy doing so and love it when people like our posts. The undesirable behavior is using our phone and the consequences are the enjoyment we feel and our contributions being liked or shared by others. These consequences reinforce the undesirable behavior.

Fortunately, learning is only a *relatively* permanent change in behavior. Nothing is set in stone and what is learned can be unlearned. Consider a fear for instance. Maybe a young baby enjoys playing with a rat, but each time the rat is present a loud sound occurs. The sound is frightening for the child and after several instances of the sound and rat being paired, the child comes to expect a loud sound at the sight of the rat, and cries. This is because an association has been realized, stored in long term memory, and retrieved to working memory when a rat is in view.

Memory plays an important role in the learning process and is defined as the ability to retain and retrieve information. The memory of the loud sound has been retained and retrieved in the future when the rat is present. But memories change. With time, and new learning, the child can come to see rats in a positive light and replace the existing scary memory with a pleasant one. This will affect future interactions with rats.

In some cases, we adjust our behavior based on feedback we receive from others. Joking around with our significant other after they had a long and hard day at work will be perceived differently than a day in which they received an exemplary performance evaluation and a raise. Or the feedback may come from ourselves, such that we stop working out because we notice our heartrate has reached dangerous levels or we turn off the television because we are distracted. Our ability to carefully

consider our actions and the effect they have on others or ourselves, and to make such adjustments, is called **self-regulation**. We self-regulate or self-direct more than just our actions. We can also control our thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and impulses. You might think of self-regulation as a form of behavior modification but in the short term. It could be long term too. To lose weight, we need to exercise on a regular basis, watch what we eat, manage our stress, and get enough sleep. A few days of doing this will not produce the results we seek. We need to stay committed for many months or even years.

This leads to the topic of **self-control** and avoiding temptations. It takes a great deal of illpower to not sleep in, get fast food for dinner, stay up late watching Netflix, or let demands in our environment overwhelm us. This is sometimes called *brute* self-control (Cervone, Mor, Orom, Shadel, & Scott, 2011) and if it goes on for too long it can leave us in a weakened state and cause us to give in to our desires (McGonigal, 2011). More on this later.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Define psychology.
- .
2. Clarify the role of memory.

1.4 The Historical Context of Behaviorism

Stage 1:

Behaviorism Proper (1913-1930)

John B. Watson. Behaviorism began as a school of thought in 1913 with the publication of “Psychology as the Behaviorist Views It” in *Psychological Review* (Watson, 1913). It was Watson’s belief that the subject matter of psychology was to be observable behavior. He is most famous for his Little Albert experiment in which he and his graduate student, Rosalie Rayner, conditioned Albert to be afraid of a white rat by pairing the sight of the animal with hearing a loud sound. This was described earlier in the discussion of learning being relatively permanent and will be covered in more detail in Module 6 when we discuss respondent conditioning. Watson also described three unlearned emotional response patterns inherent in all people (fear, rage, and love). All other emotions arise from these basic emotions via conditioning and so are called *conditioned emotional responses*.

What is maybe most fascinating about Watson’s influence is that he was able to change how psychologists studied human beings. Instead of a study of behavior and mental processes, Watson shaped psychology to be simply a study of behavior, and its prediction and control. This shift began in 1913 and would remain this way for almost five decades. This is not to say that all psychologists renounced cognitive studies. The Gestalt psychologists kept the flame of cognitive processes at least somewhat going; a flicker at best. It is beyond the scope of this class,

but if you take a class in the history of psychology you will quickly discover that why Watson was able to do this was not rooted in psychology or even science, but within the discipline of philosophy and the worldview of mechanism.

Stage 2:

Neobehaviorism (1930-1960)

B.F. Skinner (1904-1990). Skinner developed operant conditioning, discussed schedules of reinforcement, and the process of shaping by successive approximations (Skinner, 1953). His work was the foundation for behavior modification (Skinner, 1938) and will be covered in detail throughout this textbook.

Edward Chance Tolman (1886-1959). Tolman proposed the idea of **purposive behaviorism** or goal-directed behavior (Tolman, 1932) such as a rat navigating a maze with the intent to make it to the goal box where water is at, or a cat trying to escape Thorndike's puzzle box to obtain nourishment. He also proposed the idea of cognitive maps, proposed a cognitive explanation for behavior, described intervening variables or unobserved factors that are the actual cause of behavior, and rejected Thorndike's law of effect. These accomplishments make him a forerunner of contemporary cognitive psychology.

Stage 3:

Sociobehaviorism (1960-1990)

The timing of the development of sociobehaviorism is rather interesting. Coming almost 50 years after the start of behaviorism, it rose and flourished during the cognitive revolution in psychology. Led by Julian Rotter, famous for the concept of locus of control, and Albert Bandura, discussed below, the sociobehaviorists rejected Skinner's dismissal of cognitive processes and proposed a social learning theory. The third stage of behaviorism occurred at the same time that humanistic and cognitive psychology reshaped how psychologists studied people and brought back the study of the mind.

Albert Bandura (1925-). Bandura is most well-known for his Bobo Doll experiment and the social cognitive theory. He criticized Skinner for not using human beings in his experiments and for focusing on single subjects and mostly rats and pigeons. Since people do not live in social isolation, we must not ignore these social interactions. His approach allowed for the modification of behaviors society saw as abnormal. His brand of behavior modification focused on the fact that people model or learn by observing others. As we learn undesirable behaviors in this way, we can unlearn them as well. More on this in Module 6. He also proposed the concept of self-efficacy which we will discuss in Module 3 (Bandura, 1982) and **vicarious reinforcement**, or the idea that we can learn by observing others and seeing what the consequences of their actions are.

Final Thoughts

We will discuss respondent conditioning (Pavlov and Watson), operant conditioning (Skinner and Tolman), and social learning theory/observational learning (Bandura and Rotter) throughout this course, and how the various procedures each learning model has developed can be used to modify human behavior. For now, simply recognize that these models are all related and built off of each other.

1.5 Understanding behavior

The focus of psychology is the scientific study of behavior and what causes it (mental or cognitive processes), while the focus of applied behavior analysis is changing behavior. So, what forms does behavior take? Take a look at Table 1.1 for some examples.

Table 1.1. Types of Behavior People Engage In

Overt		Covert
What we DO	What we SAY	What we THINK/FEEL
Swing the bat and hit the ball when thrown by the pitcher	Thank the coach for the great tip	Have a sense of accomplishment and are encouraged to keep trying
Engage in self-injurious behavior	Tell our family we are not hurting anyone but ourselves	Are embarrassed by the act
Sit around and mope	Call ourselves stupid and say we are a loser	Feel worthless
Procrastinate finishing a project for our behavior modification class	I can get it done later this semester. I have time.	We are engaging in the emotion focused coping strategy of distancing
Go to the gym and workout.	I did a great job and am proud of myself.	Feel elation and that our goal setting strategy is working
Use corporal punishment with our child.	Berate the child verbally (You are a bad child).	I am maintaining order.
Play a game when we wake up instead of going to the gym.	I can always go to the gym later.	Shame for not going to the gym.
Cry over the loss of a loved one due to suicide.	I should have been there. I should have seen the signs.	Engage in self-blame for no good reason.

From the table above, you can see that behavior is what people do, say, or think/feel. Behavior has several dimensions that are important to mention. They include:

- i. Frequency – This is how often the behavior occurs.
- ii. Duration – This is how long the behavior lasts.
- iii. Intensity – This is how strongly the behavior occurs.

iii. Latency –This is the time from when a stimulus presents itself to when a behavior follows.

For any behavior we engage in, some numbers of these dimensions are important. For instance, if we see ourselves as worthless (often a sign of depression), we need to figure out how long the feelings have gone on for and how intense they have become. If the thoughts (and related symptoms) occur for a short duration but are intense, this is characteristic of Major Depressive Disorder. If they last a long time (long duration) but are not very intense, this is characteristic of dysthymia or mild depression. What about running? We need to know how often we run each week, how long we run, and at what speed – the dimensions of frequency, duration, and intensity respectively. Finally, consider a father asking his son to take the trash out (as I often do with my son.) If it takes him 15 minutes to do so then this is the latency.

Behavior can be overt or covert. Overt is behavior that is observable while covert behavior cannot be observed. We might even call covert behavior private events. When a behavior is observable, it can be described, recorded, and measured. This will be important later when we talk about conducting a functional assessment.

Behavior also impacts the environment or serves a function. If we go to the bathroom and turn on the water, we are then able to brush our teeth. If we scream at our daughter for walking into the street without looking, we could create fear in her or raise her awareness of proper street crossing procedure. In either situation, we have impacted the environment either physically as in the example of the faucet or socially as with the street incident. Here's one more example you might relate to – your professor enters the classroom and says, “Put away your books for a pop quiz.”

1.5 The Field of Applied Behavior Analysis

Science has two forms – basic (or pure) and applied. **Basic science** is concerned with the acquisition of knowledge for the sake of the knowledge and nothing else while **applied science** desires to find solutions to real-world problems. In terms of the study of learning, the pure/basic science approach is covered under the *experimental analysis of behavior*, while the applied science approach is represented by *applied behavior analysis* (ABA). This course represents the latter while a course on the principles of learning would represent the former. We will discuss applied behavior analysis and behavior modification in the rest of this book.

So what is applied behavior analysis all about? Simply, we have to first undergo an analysis of the behavior in question to understand a few key pieces of information. We call these the ABCs of behavior and they include:

- i. **Antecedents** – These are the environmental events or stimuli that trigger a behavior. If your significant other does something nice for you and you say, ‘Thank you,’ the kind act is the antecedent.

ii. **Behaviors** – Again, this is what the person does, says, thinks/feels. In the previous example, you saying, ‘Thank you,’ is the behavior or what you said. The behavior may be something we want to increase, and so is classified as a **behavioral deficit**, or something we need to decrease and is a **behavioral excess**. As we will discuss later, we will have desirable and undesirable behaviors we engage in. The undesirable behaviors serve as temptations and distract us from our end goal.

iii. **Consequence** – You might say a consequence is the outcome of a behavior that either encourages it to be made again in the future or discourages its future occurrence. If we always engage in a particular behavior when a specific stimulus is present, then there must be some favorable outcome that follows the behavior, thereby reinforcing its occurrence and making it highly likely that the behavior will occur the next time the antecedent is present. Hence why we say that the antecedent is a trigger for the behavior.

Let’s say that whenever Steve’s friend, John, is present he misbehaves in class by talking out of turn, getting out of his seat, and failing to complete his work. John laughs along with him and tells stories about how fun Steve is to the other kids in the 6th grade class. John is the Antecedent for the unruly Behavior, and the approval from Steve’s peers is the Consequence. Now consider for a minute that Steve is likely getting in trouble at both school and home, also a consequence, but continues making this behavior. We might say that the positive reinforcers delivered by John and his peers are stronger or more motivational for Steve than the punishment delivered by parents and teachers.

In this case, the school and parents will want to change Steve’s behavior in class as it is directly impacting his grades but also the orderliness of the classroom for the teacher. In making this plan, all parties involved will want to keep a few basic principles in mind:

i. The behavior will need to be measured both before and after any treatment is implemented.

ii. Whatever treatment is decided upon by the applied behavior analyst, everyday people in the child’s life will have to implement it. Why? The therapist cannot be present 24/7 but parents and other caregivers, teachers, administrators, babysitters, etc. will be. In fact, none of these people are present 24/7 and so it will take a coordinated effort of several stakeholders to bring about behavior change. It really does take a village to raise a child, or in this case to help change/establish a behavior.

iii. The behavior to be changed must be defined precisely.

iv. Controlling variables, or the events in Steve’s environment that are related to the behavior in a functional way, need to be considered.

If these four principles are addressed, then a sound treatment plan can be developed and implemented to bring about positive change in Steve's behavior.

This is a great example of behavior modification at work to change the behavior of *others* but please note that the same principles and procedures can be implemented by an *individual* to bring about their own change. This is called **self-management** or **self-modification**. The final project in this course will be a self-management project and show you how to apply what you are learning to reducing an unwanted behavior or increasing some desirable one. Self-management, therefore, can be simply described as behavior modification applied to ourselves. More on this throughout the book.

1.7 Coordinating and Communicating in aba

One of the functions of science is to *communicate* findings. Testing hypotheses, developing sound methodology, accurately analyzing data, and drawing cogent conclusions are important, but you must tell others what you have done too. This is accomplished via joining professional societies and submitting articles to peer reviewed journals. Below are some of the societies and journals important to applied behavior analysis.

- i. Association for Behavior Analysis International (ABAI)
 - a. Website – <https://www.abainternational.org/journals.aspx>
 - b. Mission Statement – “Since 1974, the Association for Behavior Analysis International (ABAI) has been the primary membership organization for those interested in the philosophy, science, application, and teaching of behavior analysis.”
 - c. Publication – Inside Behavior Analysis – Newsletter publishes articles of interest to members.
 - d. Other Information – Offers job placement services, “Events that promote dissemination of the science and provide continuing education opportunities for practitioners,” affiliated chapters, and special interest groups.
- ii. Society for the Quantitative Analyses of Behavior
 - a. Website – <https://www.sqab.org/>
 - b. Mission Statement – “The Society for the Quantitative Analyses of Behavior (SQAB) was founded in 1978 by M. L. Commons and J. A. Nevin to present symposia and publish material which bring a quantitative analysis to bear on the understanding of behavior.”
 - c. Publication – Behavioural Processes
 - d. Other Information – “The International Society holds its annual meeting in conjunction with the Association for Behavior Analysis International (ABAI). Talks at SQAB focus on the development and use of mathematical formulations to:

characterize one or more dimensions of an obtained data set, derive predictions to be compared with data, and generate novel data analyses.”

- iii. Publications
- iv. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis
 - a. Website: [http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/10.1002/\(ISSN\)1938-3703/homepage/ProductInformation.html](http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/10.1002/(ISSN)1938-3703/homepage/ProductInformation.html)
 - b. Published by: APA, Division 25
 - c. Description: “a psychology journal that publishes research about applications of the experimental analysis of behavior to problems of social importance.”
- v. The Psychological Record
 - a. Website: <https://www.abainternational.org/journals/tpr.aspx>
 - b. Published by: ABAI
 - c. Description: “TPR publishes investigations of basic behavioral processes, as well as translational studies that bridge experimental and applied analyses of behavior.”
- vi. Perspectives on Behavior Science
 - a. Website: <https://www.abainternational.org/journals/pobs.aspx>
 - b. Published by: ABAI
 - c. Description: “PoBS publishes articles on theoretical, experimental, and applied topics; literature reviews; re-interpretations of published data; and articles on behaviorism as a philosophy.”
- vii. The Analysis of Verbal Behavior
 - a. Website: <https://www.abainternational.org/journals/avb.aspx>
 - b. Published by: ABAI
 - c. Description: “TAVB publishes experimental or theoretical papers relevant to a behavioral analysis of verbal behavior.”
- viii. Behavioral Analysis in Practice
 - a. Website: <https://www.abainternational.org/journals/bap.aspx>
 - b. Published by: ABAI
 - c. Description: “BAP promotes empirically validated best practices in an accessible format that describes what works and the challenges of implementation in practical settings.”
- ix. Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior
 - a. Website: [http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/10.1002/\(ISSN\)1938-3711](http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/10.1002/(ISSN)1938-3711)
 - b. Published by: Society for the Experimental Analysis of Behavior
 - c. Description: “...primarily for the original publication of experiments relevant to the behavior of individual organisms.”
- x. European Journal of Behavior Analysis
 - a. Website: <http://ejoba.org/>
 - b. Published by: Norwegian Association for Behavior Analysis
 - c. Description: The European Journal of Behavior Analysis “is primarily for the original publication of experimental reports and

theoretical/conceptual papers relevant to the analysis of the behavior of individual organisms.”

- xi. Behavioural Processes
 - a. Website: <https://www.journals.elsevier.com/behavioural-processes/>
 - b. Published by: Society for the Quantitative Analyses of Behavior
 - c. Description: “*Behavioural Processes* is dedicated to the publication of high-quality original research on animal behaviour from any theoretical perspective. It welcomes contributions that consider animal behaviour from behavioural analytic, cognitive, ethological, ecological and evolutionary points of view.”

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Clarify what it means to communicate findings.
2. Identify professional societies in ABA.
3. Identify publications in ABA.



1.6 Summary

we learned that psychology was the scientific study of behavior and mental processes and that behavior modification involved changing what people do, say, or think/feel. If we do end up changing the behavior, how do we know that our treatment plan was the actual cause?



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

- Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122-147.
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- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1985). If it changes it must be a process: Study of emotion and coping during three stages of a college examination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48, 150-170.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, s. (1984). *Stress, appraisal and coping*. New York, NY: Springer.



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes, utilizes the *same* scientific process or method used by disciplines such as biology and chemistry, desires to not only understand why people engage in the behavior that they do, but also how. What is going on in the brain to control the movement of our arms and legs when running downfield to catch the game winning touchdown.

2. Memory plays an important role in the learning process and is defined as the ability to retain and retrieve information. The memory of the loud sound has been retained and retrieved in the future when the rat is present. But memories change. With time, and new learning, the child can come to see rats in a positive light and replace the existing scary memory with a pleasant one. In some cases, we adjust our behavior based on feedback we receive from others. Joking around with our significant other after they had a long and hard day at work will be perceived differently than a day in which they received an exemplary performance evaluation and a raise. Or the feedback may come from ourselves, such that we stop working out because we notice our heart rate has reached dangerous levels or we turn off the television because we are distracted. Our ability to carefully consider our actions and the effect they have on others or ourselves, and to make such adjustments, is called **self-regulation**. We self-regulate or self-direct more than just our actions. We can also control our thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and impulses. You might think of self-regulation as a form of behavior modification but in the short term

Answers to SAEs 2

1. One of the functions of science is to *communicate* findings. Testing hypotheses, developing sound methodology, accurately analyzing data, and drawing cogent conclusions are important, but you must tell others what you have done too. This is accomplished via joining professional societies and submitting articles to peer reviewed journals. Below are some of the societies and journals important to applied behavior analysis.

2.
 - i. American Psychological Association à Division 25: Behavior Analysis.
 - ii. Association for Behavior Analysis International (ABAI)
 - iii. Society for the Quantitative Analyses of Behavior
3.
 - i. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis
 - ii. The Psychological Record

- iii. Perspectives on Behavior Science
- iv. The Analysis of Verbal Behavior
- v. Behavioral Analysis in Practice
- vi. Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior
- Vii. European Journal of Behavior Analysis

Module 5

UNIT 1 THE SCIENCE OF BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS AND MODIFICATION

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction to Science and Psychology
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Science and Psychology
- 1.4 Research Designs Used in Psychology
- 1.5 Behavioral Assessment
- 1.5 Establishing a Functional Relationship and Experimental Designs
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

In unit 3, we learned that psychology was the scientific study of behavior and mental processes and that behavior modification involved changing what people do, say, or think/feel. If we do end up changing the behavior, how do we know that our treatment plan was the actual cause? In unit 4, we will look closer at what makes psychology scientific and how we go about declaring with a great deal of certainty that our treatment plan was the cause of the change.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

- Clarify what it means for psychology to be scientific by examining the steps of the scientific method, the three cardinal features of science, and the five main research methods that are used.
- Describe methods of measuring behavior.
- Clarify what is needed for a functional relationship to be established and describe designs which aid with hypothesis testing.



1.3 Introduction to Science and Psychology

In Module 1, we learned that psychology was the “scientific study of behavior and mental processes.” We will spend quite a lot of time on the behavior and mental process’s part, but before we proceed, it is prudent to elaborate more on what makes psychology scientific. In fact, it is safe to say that most people not within our discipline or a sister science, would be surprised to learn that psychology utilizes the scientific method at all.

As a starting point, we should expand on what the scientific method is.

The **scientific method** is a systematic method for gathering knowledge about the world around us.

The key word here is that it is *systematic* meaning there is a set way to use it. What is that way? Well, depending on what source you look at it can include a varying number of steps. I like to use the following:

Table 4.1: The Steps of the Scientific Method

Step	Name	Description
0	Ask questions and be willing to wonder.	To study the world around us you must wonder about it. This inquisitive nature is the hallmark of critical thinking , or our ability to assess claims made by others and make objective judgments that are independent of emotion and anecdote and based on hard evidence and required to be a scientist.
1	Generate a research question or identify a problem to investigate.	Through our wonderment about the world around us and why events occur as they do, we begin to ask questions that require further investigation to arrive at an answer. This investigation usually starts with a literature review , or when we conduct a literature search through our university library or a search engine such as Google Scholar to see what questions have been investigated already and what answers have been found, so that we can identify gaps or holes in this body of work.
2	Attempt to explain the phenomena we wish to study.	We now attempt to formulate an explanation of why the event occurs as it does. This systematic explanation of a phenomenon is

			<p>a theory and our specific, testable prediction is the hypothesis. We will know if our theory is correct because we have formulated a hypothesis which we can now test.</p>
3	Test the hypothesis.		<p>It goes without saying that if we cannot test our hypothesis, then we cannot show whether our prediction is correct or not. Our plan of action of how we will go about testing the hypothesis is called our research design. In the planning stage, we will select the appropriate research method to answer our question/test our hypothesis.</p>
4	Interpret the results.		<p>With our research study done, we now examine the data to see if the pattern we predicted exists. We need to see if a cause and effect statement can be made, assuming our method allows for this inference. More on this in Section 2.3. For now, it is important to know that the statistics we use take on two forms. First, there are descriptive statistics which provide a means of summarizing or describing data, and presenting the data in a usable form. You likely have heard of the mean or average, median, and mode. Along with standard deviation and variance, these are ways to describe our data. Second, there are inferential statistics which allow for the analysis of two or more sets of numerical data to determine the statistical significance of the results. Significance is an indication of how confident we are that our results are due to our manipulation or design and not chance.</p>
5	Draw conclusions carefully.		<p>We need to accurately interpret our results and not overstate our findings. To do this, we need to be</p>

	<p>aware of our biases and avoid emotional reasoning so that they do not cloud our judgment. How so? In our effort to stop a child from engaging in self-injurious behavior that could cause substantial harm or even death, we might overstate the success of our treatment method.</p>
<p>6 Communicate our findings to the larger scientific community.</p>	<p>Once we have decided on whether our hypothesis is correct or not, we need to share this information with others so that they might comment critically on our methodology, statistical analyses, and conclusions. Sharing also allows for replication or repeating the study to confirm its results. Communication is accomplished via scientific journals, conferences, or newsletters released by many of the organizations mentioned in Section 1.5.</p>

Science has three *cardinal features* that we will see play out time and time again throughout this book. They are:

1. *Observation* – In order to know about the world around us we must be able to see it firsthand. In relation to behavior modification, if we want to reduce a problem behavior such as a child acting out in class, we must be able to see the child fidget in his seat, distract other children as they work, talk out of turn, show hostility on the playground, throw food at lunch, etc. In Module 4, we will talk about the need to clearly define what this “problem behavior” entails so we know what we need to observe and record.
2. *Experimentation* – To be able to make *causal* (defined as cause and effect) statements, we must be able to isolate variables. We have to manipulate one variable and see the effect of doing so on another variable. In order to stop the child from acting out, a teacher may use a specific strategy such as giving the child points for behaving that he can later cash in for some coveted prize. The points are part of a system that the teacher can manipulate and the problem behavior is what she is trying to affect. In this case, she is trying to reduce the distracting behavior.
3. *Measurement* – How does the teacher know that her strategy has worked? She can measure how often the child misbehaved before the

strategy in terms of the various dimensions of behavior you learned about in unit 1.3. Let's say the child used to act out about 6 times an hour (frequency) for a few minutes at a time (duration) and become really difficult during group work compared to individual work (intensity). With her plan in place, she now measures behavior and notices a significant decline in the distracting behavior. Her plan must be working.

Behavior modification will utilize these features. Remember, behavior is what we do, say, or think and feel, and behavior must be overt or observable. This meets the first cardinal feature of science.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Define the scientific method

1.4 Research Designs Used in Psychology

Step 3 called on the scientist to test his or her hypothesis. Psychology as a discipline uses five main research designs. They are:

1. **Naturalistic and Laboratory Observation** – In **naturalistic observation**, the scientist studies human or animal behavior in its natural environment which could include the home, school, or a forest. The researcher counts, measures, and rates behavior in a systematic way and at times uses multiple judges to ensure accuracy in how the behavior is being measured. The advantage of this method is that you see behavior as it occurs and it is not tainted by the experimenter. The disadvantage is that it could take a long time for the behavior to occur and if the researcher is detected then this may influence the behavior of those being observed. **Laboratory observation** involves observing people or animals in a laboratory setting. The researcher might want to know more about parent-child interactions and so brings a mother and her child to the lab to engage in preplanned tasks such as playing with toys, eating a meal, or the mother leaving the room for a short period of time. The advantage of this method over the naturalistic method is that the experimenter can use sophisticated equipment and videotape the session to examine it later. The problem is that since the subjects know the experimenter is watching them, their behavior could become artificial.

2. **Case studies** – Psychology can also utilize a detailed description of one person, or a small group, based on careful observation. In fact, much of the work done in applied behavior analysis involves case studies. The advantage of this method is that you have this rich description of the behavior being investigated but the disadvantage is that what you are learning may be unrepresentative of the larger population and so lacks **generalizability**. Again, bear in mind that you

are studying one person or a very small group. Can you possibly make conclusions about all people from just one or even five or ten?

3. **Surveys** – This is a questionnaire consisting of at least one scale with some number of questions which assesses a psychological construct of interest such as parenting style, depression, locus of control, or sensation seeking behavior. It may be administered by paper and pencil or computer. Surveys allow for the collection of large amounts of data quickly, but the actual survey could be tedious for the participant and **social desirability**, when a participant answers questions dishonestly so that they are seen in a more favorable light, could be an issue. For instance, if you are asking high school students about their sexual activity they may not give an honest answer for fear that their parents will find out.

4. **Correlational Research** – This research method examines the relationship between two variables or two groups of variables. A numerical measure of the strength of this relationship is derived, and can range from -1.00, a perfect inverse relationship meaning that as one variable goes up the other goes down, to 0 or no relationship at all, to +1.00 or a perfect relationship in which as one variable goes up or down so does the other. In terms of a negative correlation, we might say that as a parent becomes more rigid, controlling, and cold, the attachment of the child to parent goes down. In contrast, as a parent becomes warmer, more loving, and provides structure, the child becomes more attached. The advantage of correlational research is that you can correlate anything. The disadvantage is that you can correlate anything. Variables that really do not have any relationship to one another could be viewed as related. Yes. This is both an advantage and a disadvantage. For instance, we might correlate instances of making peanut butter and jelly sandwiches with someone we are attracted to sitting near us at lunch. Are the two related? Not likely, unless you make a really good PB&J but then the person is probably only interested in you for food and not companionship. The main issue here is that correlation *does not* allow you to make a causal statement.

5. **Experiments** – This is where the experiment comes in since it is a controlled test of a hypothesis in which a researcher manipulates one variable and measures its effect on another variable. The variable that is manipulated is called the **independent variable (IV)** and the one that is measured is called the **dependent variable (DV)**. In the example about a misbehaving child above, the strategy the teacher came up with is the IV and the distracting behavior that is measured is the DV. The teacher can make a causal statement about her strategy if the hypothesized decrease in behavior occurs. As such, she might say, “When I offered the student points for behaving correctly that were later cashed in for a prize, the student acted out less in class. Hence, my plan led to a reduction in this behavioral excess as hypothesized.” A common feature of experiments is to have a **control group** that does not receive the

treatment or is not manipulated and an **experimental group** that does receive the treatment or manipulation. It is possible that the teacher had a second student in one of her other sections of the class that acted out in the same way. To know if her points system really works, she would use it with the first student but not with the second. Once her treatment phase ended, she could then compare the control group (the student not given points) against the experimental group (the student given points) to see how much behavior was occurring. We would expect no change in behavior for the control group but a decrease with the experimental group if the points system was effective, and this is what the teacher found. Again, the control group allows the researcher (or teacher) to make a *comparison* to the experimental group which can lead to a causal statement.

1.5 Behavioral Assessment

Recall that one of the three cardinal features of science is measurement. Within the realm of behavior modification and applied behavior analysis, we talk about what is called **behavioral assessment** which simply is the measurement of a target behavior. The **target behavior** is whatever behavior we want to change, and from unit 1.4 we know that we can have an excess (it needs to be reduced), or a deficit (it needs to be increased).

Why might we need to measure behavior? Three reasons come to mind. First, we need to determine if a treatment is even needed. Maybe the target behavior is not occurring as frequently as we thought it was and so there is no need to try to reduce it. Or maybe we want to increase the number of times we go to the gym each week but discover we already are going three times most weeks and so strategizing to go more often is not necessary. Of course, we might also discover that we smoke more cigarettes in a day than we believed we did, and so reducing the unwanted or problem behavior is even more important.

Assuming a treatment is needed, our second reason to measure behavior will be to determine what treatment will work best. It may be that we wish to include a specific positive consequence for making the desirable behavior but learn through observation and measurement of behavior that this is something our client, or ourselves, really will not enjoy and so will not motivate behavior.

Finally, we need to know if the treatment we employed worked. This will involve measuring before any treatment is used and then measuring the behavior while the treatment is in place. We will even want to measure after the treatment ends to make sure the behavior sticks.

Our measurement therefore occurs during three phases:

- i. **Baseline Phase** – Before any strategy or strategies are put into effect. This phase will essentially be used to compare against the treatment phase. We are also trying to find out exactly how much of the target behavior the person is engaging in.

ii. **Treatment Phase** – When the strategy or strategies are being used. We measure across all treatment weeks to see if the target behavior changes in the predicted manner. We will discuss evaluating our plan and making adjustments as needed. Since we are measuring during the treatment phase, we can see if our strategy or a specific strategy within a group of strategies being used does not work. We can remove it, replace it, or change it to bring about the effect on behavior that we hypothesized.

iii. **Maintenance Phase** – Once the treatment phase has ended, we will want to still measure our behavior to ensure that the strategies we used to bring about meaningful behavioral change withstand the passage of time and the influence of temptations in our environment. Let's say our nutritionist gives us a sound strategy that brings about substantial weight loss. We may then reduce our visits and just check in periodically. Without those regular visits to check in we might fall back into bad habits and see our weight rebound, even if just partially. In a follow-up visit, the nutritionist could recommend a return to the full set of strategies or just a few of them until the desirable behavior and results have been re-established. Hopefully with time, the person will make a lifestyle change that keeps the weight off. Continued measurement after the treatment phase has ended can ensure the obtained success continues.

1.6 Establishing a Functional Relationship and Experimental Designs

As we have discussed already, scientists seek to make causal statements about what they are studying. In the realm of behavior modification, we call this a functional relationship and one occurs when we can say a target behavior (DV) has changed due to the use of a procedure, treatment, or strategy (the IV) and this relationship has been replicated at least one other time.

To make a causal statement, we already know that an experimental procedure is required. Within behavior modification, these procedures take on several different forms. In discussing each, note that we will use the following notations:

A will represent the baseline phase and B will represent the treatment phase.

1. **A-B design** – This is by far the most basic of all designs used in behavior modification and includes just one rotation from baseline to treatment phase and then from that we see if the behavior changed in the predicted manner. The issue with this design is that no functional relationship can be established since there is no replication. It is possible that the change occurred due to an unseen and unaccounted for factor, called an extraneous variable, and not due to the treatment that was used.

2. **A-B-A-B Reversal Design** – In this design, the baseline and treatment phases are implemented twice. After the first treatment phase

occurs, the individual(s) are taken back to baseline and then the treatment phase is implemented again. Replication is built into this design, allowing for a causal statement, but it may not be possible or ethical to take the person back to baseline after a treatment has been introduced. What if you developed a successful treatment to reduce self-injurious behavior in children or to increase feelings of self-worth? You would want to know if the decrease in this behavior or increase in the positive thoughts was due to your treatment and not extraneous behaviors, but can you really take the person back to baseline? Is it ethical to remove a treatment for something potentially harmful to the person? Now let's say a teacher developed a new way to teach fractions to a fourth-grade class. Was it the educational paradigm or maybe additional help the child has received from his/her parents or a tutor? Well we need to take the child back to baseline and see if the strategy works again, but can we? How can the child forget what has been learned already? ABAB Reversal Designs work well at establishing functional relationships if you can take the person back to baseline but are problematic if you cannot. An example of them working well includes establishing a system to ensure your son does his chores, having success with it, and then taking it away. If the child stops doing chores and only restarts when the system is put back into place, then your system works.

3. Multiple-baseline designs – This design has just what it sounds like, multiple baselines, but for one of three scenarios. In an across-subjects design there is a baseline and treatment phase for two or more subjects for the same target behavior. In an across-behaviors design, there is a baseline and treatment phase for two or more different behaviors the same participant makes. And finally, the across-settings design has a baseline and treatment phase for two or more settings in the same person for which the same behavior is measured.

4. Changing-Criterion Design – In this design, the performance criteria changes as the subject achieves specific goals. So the individual may go from having to workout at the gym 2 days a week, to 3 days, then 4 days, and then finally 5 days. Once the goal of 2 days a week is met, the criterion changes to 3 days a week. It has an A-B design and rules out extraneous variables since the person continues meeting the changing criterion/new goals using the same treatment plan. Hence successfully moving from one goal to the next must be due to the strategies that were selected.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Clarify what the three cardinal features of science are and how they relate to behavior modification.
2. Define target behavior and the forms it may take.



1.6 Summary

This unit discussed how Scientific Method are defined. Clarify what it means for psychology to be scientific by examining the steps of the scientific method, the three cardinal features of science, and the five main research methods that are used. describe methods of measuring behavior define behavioral assessment. define targetbehavior and the forms it may take. clarify why we need to measure behavior, Contrast the three phases of behavioral assessment, Clarify what a functional relationship is, outline four major experimental designs used in behavior modification.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

- Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122-147.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1991a). Self-efficacy mechanism in physiological activation and health-promoting behavior. In J. Madden, IV (Ed.), *Neurobiology of learning, emotion and affect* (pp. 229- 270). New York: Raven.
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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

The **scientific method** is a systematic method for gathering knowledge about the world around us.

The key word here is that it is *systematic* meaning there is a set way to use it. What is that way? Well, depending on what source you look at it can include a varying number of steps. As follows:

- a. Ask questions and be willing to wonder.
- b. Generate a research question or identify a problem to investigate
- c. Attempt to explain the phenomena we wish to study.
- d. Test the hypothesis.
- e. Interpret the results.

Answers to SAEs 2

Science has three *cardinal features* that we will see play out time and time again throughout this book. They are:

1. *observation* – In order to know about the world around us we must be able to see it firsthand. In relation to behavior modification, if we want to reduce a problem behavior such as a child acting out in class, we must be able to see the child fidget in his seat, distract other children as they work, talk out of turn, show hostility on the playground, throw food at lunch, etc. In Module 4, we will talk about the need to clearly define what this “problem behavior” entails so we know what we need to observe and record.

2. *Experimentation* – To be able to make *causal* (defined as cause and effect) statements, we must be able to isolate variables. We have to manipulate one variable and see the effect of doing so on another variable. In order to stop the child from acting out, a teacher may use a specific strategy such as giving the child points for behaving that he can later cash in for some coveted prize. The points are part of a system that the teacher can manipulate and the problem behavior is what she is trying to affect. In this case, she is trying to reduce the distracting behavior.

3. *Measurement* – How does the teacher know that her strategy has worked? She can measure how often the child misbehaved before the

strategy in terms of the various dimensions of behavior you learned about in Module 1.3. Let's say the child used to act out about 6 times an hour (frequency) for a few minutes at a time (duration) and become really difficult during group work compared to individual work (intensity).

2. A behavioral definition is a precise, objective, unambiguous description of the target behavior or a competing behavior. The behavior may be something we want to increase, and so is classified as a behavioral deficit, or something we need to decrease and is a behavioral excess. As we will discuss later, we will have desirable and undesirable behaviors we engage in. The undesirable behaviors serve as temptations and distract us from our end goal.

i. **Baseline Phase** – Before any strategy or strategies are put into effect. This phase will essentially be used to compare against the treatment phase. We are also trying to find out exactly how much of the target behavior the person is engaging in.

ii. **Treatment Phase** – When the strategy or strategies are being used. We measure across all treatment weeks to see if the target behavior changes in the predicted manner. In Module 15 we will discuss evaluating our plan and making adjustments as needed. Since we are measuring during the treatment phase, we can see if our strategy or a specific strategy within a group of strategies being used does not work. We can remove it, replace it, or change it to bring about the effect on behavior that we hypothesized.

iii. **Maintenance Phase** – Once the treatment phase has ended we will want to still measure our behavior to ensure that the strategies we used to bring about meaningful behavioral change withstand the passage of time and the influence of temptations in our environment. Let's say our nutritionist gives us a sound strategy that brings about substantial weight loss. We may then reduce our visits and just check in periodically. Without those regular visits to check in we might fall back into bad habits and see our weight rebound, even if just partially. In a follow-up visit, the nutritionist could recommend a return to the full set of strategies or just a few of them until the desirable behavior and results have been re-established. Hopefully with time, the person will make a lifestyle change that keeps the weight off. Continued measurement after the treatment phase has ended can ensure the obtained success continues.

UNIT 2 DEFINING THE BEHAVIOR AND SETTING GOALS

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Behavior and Setting Goals
- 1.4 Behavioral definition
- 1.5 Goal setting
- 1.6 Counting Behaviors
- 1.7 Behavioral excess and Counting Behaviours
- 1.8 Summary
- 1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.10 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

As we have seen, to change behavior, we must know what the behavior is that we want to change, whether it is going to the gym more often, removing disturbing thoughts, dealing with excessive anxiety, quitting smoking, preventing self-injurious behavior, helping a child to focus more in class, taking our dog for a walk, gaining the courage to talk to other people, etc. We must be willing to make the change, for our own reasons, and listing the pros and cons of changing the behavior can help us out. Now we move to generating a description of the behavior which must be precise and unambiguous. Once we have clearly defined the behavior, we can then set goals to help us make the desired change. The definition and goals work hand-in-hand as we develop our treatment plan.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Clarify what a behavioral definition is and why it is important to applied behavior analysts.
- State the importance of setting clear goals in terms of what behavior you want to change.
- Count behaviors using the behavioral definition and your goals.



1.3 Introduction to Behavior and Setting Goals

Behavior management

Properly implemented taught goal-setting programs are effective in K-12 schools for behavior and emotional management interventions. In particular, programs that included student input on the goal setting process as well as the collection of targeting data to monitor progress and ensure the delivery of high-quality feedback to students on progress towards goals were more effective behavior management interventions. In order to ensure a properly designed goal setting intervention for behavior management some variation of a checklist can be an effective addition to behavioral management programs.

A typical such checklist could include the following factors:

1. Identify and define behavior
2. Establish a behavior monitoring plan
3. Collect baseline data
4. Set goals
5. Monitor progress towards goals
6. Review data

Goal-setting also works effectively either on its own or as part of a package of other behavior management interventions

Goal setting involves the development of an action plan designed in order to motivate and guide a person or group toward a goal. Goals are more deliberate than desires and momentary intentions. Therefore, setting goals means that a person has committed thought, emotion, and behavior towards attaining the goal. In doing so, the goal setter has established a desired future state which differs from their current state thus creating a mismatch which in turn spurs future actions. Goal setting can be guided by goal-setting criteria (or rules) such as SMART criteria. Goal setting is a major component of personal-development and management literature. Studies by Edwin A. Locke and his colleagues, most notably, have shown that more specific and ambitious goals lead to more performance improvement than easy or general goals. The goals should be specific, time constrained and difficult. Vague goals reduce limited attention resources. Unrealistically short time limits intensify the difficulty of the goal outside the intentional level and disproportionate time limits are not encouraging.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Define goal?
2. Identify the checklist for setting of goals in an organisation behavior management

1.4 Goal Setting

Once you have an idea of exactly what the behavior is you want to change, the next task is to set goals about the behavior. But what exactly is a goal?

A **goal** is an objective or result we desire that clearly indicates how our time and physical and psychological energy will be spent.

For you as a student, the goal is to obtain your bachelor's degree. You spend your time and energy studying, going to classes, writing papers, asking questions, and much more. After four years, you will be happy to take your diploma, which is what motivates you. You might even be driven to obtain the highest grades you can get to be competitive when you hit the job market or apply to graduate school.

Features of Goals

Goals have several interesting features. They can be *large in scope*. Obtaining the bachelor's degree is a relatively large goal but if your terminal educational goal is to earn your Ph.D., then this is even larger in scope. Reading for pleasure is likely a small goal but losing 100 pounds is large and will take much more dedication. Goals can be *complex* and take *planning* to achieve. This is definitely the case with behavior modification. Even if you want to do something as simple as read for pleasure, you might have to implement quite a few additional changes in your life to make that happen. Obtaining a degree is complex and requires a great deal of planning and coordination with people like your major professor or adviser. Goals are more likely to be completed when they are linked to *incentives*. If your goal is to lose 100 pounds, reward yourself as you hit various milestones along the way. And finally, you can have *more than one goal at a time*. Maybe your goal is to exercise more and to restrict your calories. Or maybe you want to run both longer and faster (measures of frequency and intensity).

A few other properties of goals are worth mentioning here:

- i. The more *difficult* the goal, the more rewarding it is when we achieve it.
- ii. Goals can be *ranked* in order of importance and higher-level goals have more value to us when achieved.
- iii. The more *specific* the goal, the better our planning can be, and the more likely that we will achieve the goal.
- iv. Goal *commitment* is key and if you want to make it more likely that you will achieve your goal, publicly announce the goal

(Salancik, 1977). Commitment tends to be higher when the goal is more difficult too.

v. If you *fail* at a goal, you can either try again, quit and move on, reduce the level of the goal, or revise the goal.

Another option to overcome goal failure might be to consider the use of **subgoals**, or waypoints toward the final goal. This leads to a discussion of distal vs. proximal goals. **Distal goals** are far off in the future whereas **proximal** are nearer in time. Go back to the example of changing our behavior such that we run for 60 minutes at a time 3 days a week (our distal goal). We will likely not start running 60 minutes, especially if we never ran a day in our life (except of course to the bathroom in times of crisis...enough said). We might create three additional goals of running for 15 minutes continuously 2 days a week, then running for 30 minutes continuously 3 days a week, and then running for 45 minutes continuously 3 days a week. Since we had not ran regularly in the past, we are changing duration and frequency in this scenario. Frequency goes from 2 to 3 days but note it may even be prudent to start at one day a week. Then our duration goes from 15 to 30 to 45 to 60 minutes. What is 4 goals in this scenario can expand to as many as we need to achieve our goal. Maybe another goal or two is needed (i.e. more proximal goals or steps along the way), and time will tell. As we achieve each proximal goal we should reward ourselves in some way (an incentive) and then of course we could use a bigger reward after the completion of the distal goal.

Criterion

But how do we know when to advance from one goal to the next? The specific “trigger” for when to advance from Goal 1 to Goal 2 is called the **criterion** and is linked to the changing-criterion. Our first goal states that we will run for 15 minutes 2 days a week. Achieved! When do we move to running 30 minutes for 3 days a week? That depends on the behavior we are trying to change. In exercise related projects or plans, it is prudent to make sure you can truly engage in that level of behavior for at least two weeks. Listen to your body, a trainer, or doctor, and then move to the next goal when it is safe to do so. For other projects such as pleasure reading, you could move to the next goal as soon as the current goal has been achieved. There is no need to wait as no serious harm can come from increasing the number of pages you read a night from 5 to 10, other than a few minutes of lost sleep.

This may lead you to wonder what length of time a goal should be maintained for. If I want to run three days a week, and do so Mon to Wed, can I move to my next goal starting Thursday? No. Frame your goals around one week at a time. So if you want to run three days a week, and finish your third day on Friday, then your second week of the current goal or first week of the next goal starts on Monday (if you define weeks as Monday through Sunday as we often do in academia).

Otherwise, you could be pushing through goals too fast and not allowing yourself time to adjust. Though you are excited to bring about behavior change, if you do it too fast you might burn out and ultimately fail. On the other hand, moving too slow will create boredom. Find the right number of weeks to maintain each goal that is best for you. And this criterion might vary too. Earlier goals are likely easier to achieve than latter goals and so your criterion could be shorter for them (say 1 week) and longer for harder goals (say 2 weeks). Consider this when determining your criterion.

1.5 Counting Behaviors

Keep in mind that the behavioral definition IS NOT a goal. It simply defines how you will count the target behavior, which is your dependent variable (DV).

Possibility 1: Duration

If your behavioral definition is 1 behavior = reading 5 pages in a book, and you read 15 pages, then you made 3 behaviors that day. If you read 20 the next day you made 4 behaviors, and then if you only read 10 pages the next you made 2 behaviors. If you read 12 pages, you still only made 2 behaviors. There are no partial behaviors (i.e. not 2.4 behaviors).

This links to your goals such that if you ultimately want to read 30 pages a night, 5 nights a week, then you will make 30 behaviors a week by the end of your plan. Where did 30 come from? One behavior = 5 pages of reading. If you read 30 pages a night, you are making 6 behaviors ($30/5=6$) per night. Since you want to read 30 pages a night for FIVE nights, you are making 30 total behaviors (6 behaviors a night x 5 nights = 30 total behaviors). Your subgoals or proximal goals could be as follows:

- i. Goal 1 – Read 15 pages a night, for 5 nights (15 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read 20 pages a night, for 5 nights (20 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Read 25 pages a night, for 5 nights (25 behaviors)
- iv. Distal Goal – Read 30 pages a night, for 5 nights (30 behaviors)

In this example, you are not changing the frequency (it is set at 5 nights) but are changing the duration (albeit indirectly). Reading 15 pages does not take as long as reading 20 pages, assuming your reading speed remains the same, and so it is sort of like assessing time.

Possibility 2: Frequency

But what if you can read 30 pages at a time now, and are having trouble reading 5 days a week? So duration is good but frequency is not. In this case, your goals look like:

- i. Goal 1 – Read 30 pages a night, for 2 nights (12 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read 30 pages a night, for 3 nights (18 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Read 30 pages a night, for 4 nights (24 behaviors)
- iv. Distal Goal – Read 30 pages a night, for 5 nights (30 behaviors)

Keep in mind the basic math that allowed us to arrive at those behavioral counts. For Goal 1, and all goals, you are making 6 behaviors a night. Why? $30/5 = 6$. Remember that your behavioral definition was reading 5 pages. Then it is 6 behaviors a night \times 2/3/4/5 nights to arrive at 12, 18, 24, and 30 behaviors, respectively.

Possibility 3: Frequency, again

Consider this now: 1 behavior = reading one night for 30 minutes. You might already be reading 30 minutes a night but want to increase the number of days, sort of like in my previous example. Duration is good but frequency is not. So:

- i. Goal 1 – Read for 30 minutes, 2 nights a week (2 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read for 30 minutes, 3 nights a week (3 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Read for 30 minutes, 4 nights a week (4 behaviors)
- iv. Distal Goal – Read for 30 minutes, 5 nights a week (5 behaviors)

The math – Reading one night for 30 minutes is one behavior and then times either 2/3/4/5 days which equals 2/3/4/5 behaviors, respectively.

Possibility 4: Duration, again

What if you are good about reading throughout the week but want to increase the time you spend reading? Now frequency is fine but duration is not. Your behavioral definition will be one behavior = reading for 10 minutes and your goals will be as follows:

- i. Goal 1 – Read for 10 minutes, 5 times a week (5 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read for 20 minutes, 5 times a week (10 behaviors)
- iii. Distal Goal – Read for 30 minutes, 5 times a week (15 behaviors)

The math – Reading for 10 minutes was the behavioral definition and is one behavior. If you read for 20 minutes you are making 2 behaviors. If you read for 30 minutes you are making 3 behaviors. Multiple these numbers by 5 (number of days) to get the number of behaviors.

Possibility 5: Intensity

Now let's get really crazy. What if duration and frequency are good, but you want to increase your reading speed, which is the behavioral dimension of intensity. How might you go about doing this? Well, the idea is that you can read more pages in a fixed amount of time. Since your progress will be slower than with the other examples, make your behavioral definition: 1 behavior = reading 1 page in a book. As for goals, well, this one is hard to do. Start with a set period of time such as reading for 10 minutes. You will need baseline data on what your reading rate is before implementing any treatment plan or making a conscientious effort to read faster. Say it is one page per minute. In 10 minutes, you will be making 10 behaviors. You want this to go up. If it does, it means you are reading faster. So:

- i. Goal 1 – Read 12 pages in 10 minutes (12 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read 13 pages in 10 minutes (13 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Read 14 pages in 10 minutes (14 behaviors)
- iv. Distal Goal – Read 15 pages in 10 minutes (15 behaviors)

At baseline you were reading 10 pages per minute and by completion of the distal goal you are reading 15 pages in 10 minutes which is a 50% faster rate. Of course, you could double your reading rate too which would mean making 20 behaviors instead of 10. Reading rate and intensity are tricky as you will want to also demonstrate the same level as comprehension as before. As long as that stays the same, you are effectively increasing your reading rate. The comprehension measure makes this type of project a bit more complicated but is an important piece. In this example, duration is set and intensity is changing. It would work much the same for increasing how fast you run. Frequency is not included in the example as it may not matter to you. You may just want to read faster when you do read. The duration of 10 minutes is there to standardize your data collection effort.

The above examples show that five students could have the same target behavior (reading for pleasure which is a deficit) but develop five different ways of approaching it based on what they want to get out of the project and what their current level of behavior is. Though the procedures are generally the same in behavior modification, how they are used in a specific plan can vary and do so dramatically.

To be sure you are clear on the different ways that behavioral definitions can appear, see the Table below before proceeding:

#	Dimension Changed	Purpose	How defined? 1 behavior =	Goals
1	Duration	Increase the number of pages read the 5 nights that you read a week	5 pages of reading	Goal 1 - Read 15 pages a night, for 5 nights (15 behaviors) Goal 2 - Read 20 pages a night, for 5 nights (20 behaviors) Goal 3 - Read 25 pages a night, for 5 nights (25 behaviors) Distal Goal - Read 30 pages a night, for 5 nights (30 behaviors)
2	Frequency	Increase the number of nights you read 30 pages	5 pages of reading	Goal 1 - Read 30 pages a night, for 2 nights (12 behaviors) Goal 2 - Read 30 pages a night, for 3 nights (18 behaviors) Goal 3 - Read 30 pages a night, for 4 nights (24 behaviors) Distal Goal - Read 30 pages a night, for 5 nights (30 behaviors)
3	Frequency	Increase the number of nights you read for 30 minutes	Reading one night for 30 minutes	Goal 1 - Read for 30 minutes, 2 nights a week (2 behaviors) Goal 2 - Read for 30 minutes, 3 nights a week (3 behaviors) Goal 3 - Read for 30 minutes, 4 nights a week (4 behaviors) Distal Goal - Read for 30 minutes, 5 nights a week (5 behaviors)
4	Duration	Increase the amount of time you read the 5 nights that you read a week	Reading for 10 minutes	Goal 1 - Read for 10 minutes, 5 times a week (5 behaviors) Goal 2 - Read for 20 minutes, 5 times a week (10 behaviors) Distal Goal - Read for 30 minutes, 5 times a week (15 behaviors)
5	Intensity	Increase the number of pages you read in a 10-minute period of time; i.e. increase reading speed	Reading 1 page in a book	Goal 1 - Read 12 pages in 10 minutes (12 behaviors) Goal 2 - Read 13 pages in 10 minutes (13 behaviors) Goal 3 - Read 14 pages in 10 minutes (14 behaviors) Distal Goal - Read 15 pages in 10 minutes (15 behaviors)

1.6 Behavioral Excess and Counting Behaviors

How might this work with a behavioral excess? Consider the example of a person who loves pleasure shopping so much that he or she spends a significant amount of money each week. The person does not want to

stop shopping; just reduce it. How might the individual handle this target behavior?

- i. Behavioral Definition – The target behavior is your dependent variable or the variable you will measure. So how will you measure pleasure shopping? One potential definition is 1 behavior = spending \$10 at a store. What if you spend \$58 in one location? You made 5 behaviors ($\$58/\$10 = 5$ behaviors; we don't count partial behaviors).
- ii. Current Level of Behavior – In our next module, we will discuss the functional assessment and the baseline phase. To set our goals effectively, we will need to know how much money we are spending each month while doing pleasure shopping (do not count grocery shopping). Let's say we have this data now and know it is in excess of \$600 which is over \$150 per week. In terms of behavioral counts, we are making at least 60 behaviors a month or about 15 per week.
- iii. Acceptable Level of Behavior (The Distal Goal) – We need to determine what level of behavior (shopping) we are okay with, or, how much money are we allowing ourselves to spend per week. Let's say that is \$70 per week, which means we reduce our spending from over \$600 to a bit under \$300, or at least a 50% reduction. Okay. This becomes our distal goal. How do we get there?

Proximal Goals:

- i. Goal 1 – Spend no more than \$150 a week (15 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Spend no more than \$120 a week (12 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Spend no more than \$100 a week (10 behaviors)
- iv. Goal 4 – Spend no more than \$90 a week (9 behaviors)
- v. Goal 5 (Distal) – Spend no more than \$70 a week (7 behaviors)

The Math – Remember that our behavioral definition says one behavior is spending \$10 at a store. Take each of the amounts we are allowing ourselves to spend at each goal level and divide it by 10. When you do that, you arrive at the number of behaviors, or 15, 12, 10, 9, and 7.

The point of an excess is to decrease the behavior either to 0 (not occurring at all and is extinct) or to a more acceptable level as with this example. You have to determine what is right for you. In the field of wellness, moderation is preached as key. If you want to reduce your caloric intake, you do not have to cut out all junk food. Just reduce it and track it as part of your new total daily allowance of calories. If a bag of chips is 120 calories, then add that into your total for the day (which may be 1200 calories). You do not have to get rid of chips; just don't buy the big bag in which you are likely to keep reaching your hand into. Buy the small bags and just eat one at a time. You are still satisfying your craving and do not have to feel guilty for doing so. All things in moderation. This does not work with all excesses. If you are trying to quit smoking that does mean taking the behavior to 0 and since there are health risks with smoking, moderation is not useful here.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Explain how to count behaviors in your goals using the behavioral definition.
2. State the importance of setting clear goals in terms of what behavior you want to change



1.6 Summary

We continued with the process of planning for change. We discussed the need to precisely define our target and competing behaviors and gave examples of behaviors you might have chosen for your project. Once a precise definition is in place, we can formulate goals for how much we wish for the behavior to increase or decrease. We can also set short term or proximal goals to help us achieve the much larger or distal goal. Think about writing a 10-page paper. It is easier to say I am going to write the first section today, the next tomorrow, and then the final section the day after. Then I will revise and edit and print the paper to be submitted. These subgoals make the much larger task more manageable and easier to achieve. As this works with writing a paper, so too it can work with changing behavior.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. A **goal** is an objective or result we desire that clearly indicates how our time and physical and psychological energy will be spent.
2. A typical such checklist could include the following factors:
 1. Identify and define behavior
 2. Establish a behavior monitoring plan
 3. Collect baseline data
 4. Set goals
 5. Monitor progress towards goals
 6. Review data

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Possibility 1: Duration

If your behavioral definition is 1 behavior = reading 5 pages in a book, and you read 15 pages, then you made 3 behaviors that day. If you read 20 the next day you made 4 behaviors, and then if you only read 10 pages the next you made 2 behaviors. If you read 12 pages, you still only made 2 behaviors. There are no partial behaviors (i.e. not 2.4 behaviors).

Possibility 2: Frequency

But what if you can read 30 pages at a time now, and are having trouble reading 5 days a week? So duration is good but frequency is not. In this case, your goals look like:

- i. Goal 1 – Read 30 pages a night, for 2 nights (12 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read 30 pages a night, for 3 nights (18 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Read 30 pages a night, for 4 nights (24 behaviors)
- iv. Distal Goal – Read 30 pages a night, for 5 nights (30 behaviors)

Possibility 3: Frequency, again

Consider this now: 1 behavior = reading one night for 30 minutes. You might already be reading 30 minutes a night but want to increase the number of days, sort of like in my previous example. Duration is good but frequency is not. So:

- i. Goal 1 – Read for 30 minutes, 2 nights a week (2 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read for 30 minutes, 3 nights a week (3 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Read for 30 minutes, 4 nights a week (4 behaviors)
- iv. Distal Goal – Read for 30 minutes, 5 nights a week (5 behaviors)

Possibility 4: Duration, again

What if you are good about reading throughout the week but want to increase the time you spend reading? Now frequency is fine but duration is not. Your behavioral definition will be one behavior = reading for 10 minutes and your goals will be as follows:

- i. Goal 1 – Read for 10 minutes, 5 times a week (5 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read for 20 minutes, 5 times a week (10 behaviors)
- iii. Distal Goal – Read for 30 minutes, 5 times a week (15 behaviors)

Possibility 5: Intensity

What if duration and frequency are good, but you want to increase your reading speed, which is the behavioral dimension of intensity. How might you go about doing this? Well, the idea is that you can read more pages in a fixed amount of time behavioral definition: 1 behavior = reading 1 page in a book. As for goals, well, this one is hard to do. Start with a set period of time such as reading for 10 minutes. You will need baseline data on what your reading rate is before implementing any treatment plan or making a conscientious effort to read faster. Say it is one page per minute. In 10 minutes, you will be making 10 behaviors. You want this to go up. If it does, it means you are reading faster. So:

- i. Goal 1 – Read 12 pages in 10 minutes (12 behaviors)
- ii. Goal 2 – Read 13 pages in 10 minutes (13 behaviors)
- iii. Goal 3 – Read 14 pages in 10 minutes (14 behaviors)
- iv. Distal Goal – Read 15 pages in 10 minutes (15 behaviors)

2. A few other properties of goals are worth mentioning here:

- i. The more *difficult* the goal, the more rewarding it is when we achieve it.

- ii. Goals can be *ranked* in order of importance and higher-level goals have more value to us when achieved.
- iii. The more *specific* the goal, the better our planning can be, and the more likely that we will achieve the goal.
- iv. Goal *commitment* is key and if you want to make it more likely that you will achieve your goal, publicly announce the goal (Salancik, 1977). Commitment tends to be higher when the goal is more difficult too.
- v. If you *fail* at a goal, you can either try again, quit and move on, reduce the level of the goal, or revise the goal.

UNIT 3 BASIC OPERANT CONDITIONING PRINCIPLES/PROCEDURES AND RESPONDENT CONDITIONING AND OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Introduction to Operant Conditioning
- 1.4 Behavioral Contingencies
- 1.5 Primary vs. Secondary (Conditioned)
- 1.6 Factors Affecting the Effectiveness of Reinforcers and Punishers
- 1.7 Reinforcement schedule
- 1.8 Summary
- 1.9 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.10 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

we discussed making important, and at times, life-saving changes. Important to this discussion is establishing a precise and objective definition of the target behavior, setting clear distal and proximal goals, changing because you genuinely want to, and then gathering data about the problem/desired behavior. This all leads to a functional assessment in which we can more clearly see the causes of our behavior or non-behavior, what consequences maintain it, and specifically temptations that could throw a wrench in even the best laid plan.

With all this in mind, we now are at the point that we can do something about our issue, whether a deficit or excess. But what do we do? What does our plan include? will focus on operant conditioning strategies that can be used to deal with the antecedent, behavior, and/or consequence. Most likely you will use a combination of all three and we will discuss about 30 such strategies across these three modules. Before we get there, we will lay down some basic operant condition principles that you will use throughout the duration of this course and to be candid, life. I do not see this as an exaggeration since you will likely have kids and need to implement some type of reinforcement or punishment. You are almost guaranteed to work, and I bet you will want a paycheck. If so, you will be reinforced for your hard work at a fixed amount of time. And you may find that you or someone you love is making a behavior you will

want to get rid of completely, or my favorite word, extinguish. That sounds bad but it really is not. More on this in a bit. We will also discuss the non-operant procedures of respondent conditioning and observational learning, several of which you will see presented in the next three modules.

My advice: Take it slow. Ask questions whether you are taking this course in the classroom or online. It is easy to get confused with the strategies.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Clarify how operant conditioning tackles the task of learning.
- List and describe behavioral contingencies. Clarify factors on their effectiveness.
- Outline the four reinforcement schedules.



1.3 Introduction to Operant Conditioning

It is important to understand what operant conditioning is or attempts to do. But before we get there, let's take a step back. So, what happens when we make a behavior? Consider this framework that will look familiar to you:



Recognize it? Two words are different but it should remind you of Antecedent, Behavior, and Consequence. It looks the same because it is the same. Stimulus is another word for antecedent and is whatever comes before the behavior, usually from the environment, but we know that the source of our behavior could be internal too. Response is a behavior. And of course, consequence is the same word. The definitions for these terms are the same as the ones you were given for the ABCs of behavior. Presenting this framework is important, because operant conditioning as a learning model focuses on the person making some response for which there is a consequence. As we learned from Thorndike's work, if the consequence is favorable or satisfying, we will be more likely to make the response again (when the stimulus occurs). If not favorable or unsatisfying, we will be less likely. We will talk about respondent or classical conditioning which developed thanks to Pavlov's efforts. This type of learning focuses on stimulus and response.

Before moving on let's state a formal definition for operant conditioning:

Operant conditioning is a type of associative learning which focuses on consequences that follow a response or behavior that we make and whether the consequences make a behavior more or less likely to occur.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Define operant conditioning.

1.3 Behavioral Contingencies

As we have seen, the basis of operant conditioning is that you make a response for which there is a consequence. Based on the consequence you are more or less likely to make the response again. This section introduces the term contingency. A **contingency** is when one thing occurs due to another. Think of it as an If-Then statement. If I do X, then Y will happen. For operant conditioning this means that if I make a behavior, then a specific consequence will follow. The events (response and consequence) are linked in time.

What form do these consequences take? There are two main ways they can present themselves.

i. **Reinforcement** – Due to the consequences, a behavior/response is more likely to occur in the future. It is strengthened.

ii. **Punishment** – Due to the consequence, a behavior/response is less likely to occur in the future. It is weakened.

Reinforcement and punishment can occur as two types – positive and negative. These words have no affective connotation to them meaning they do not imply good or bad. *Positive* means that you are giving something – good or bad. *Negative* means that something is being taken away – good or bad. Check out the table below for how these contingencies are arranged.

Contingencies in Operant Conditioning

	Something “ Bad ” (aversive)	Something “ Good ” (rewarding)
Giving (positive)	Positive Punishment (behavior is weakened)	Positive Reinforcement (behavior is strengthened)
Taking Away (negative)	Negative Reinforcement (behavior is strengthened)	Negative Punishment (behavior is weakened)

Let's go through each:

- i. **Positive Punishment (PP)** – If something bad or aversive is given or added, then the behavior is less likely to occur in the future. If you talk back to your mother and she slaps your mouth, this is a PP. Your response of talking back led to the consequence of the aversive slap being delivered or given to your face.
- ii. **Positive Reinforcement (PR)** – If something good is given or added, then the behavior is more likely to occur in the future. If you study hard and earn, or are given, an A on your exam, you will be more likely to study hard in the future.
- iii. **Negative Reinforcement (NR)** – This is a tough one for students to comprehend because the terms do not seem to go together and are counterintuitive. But it is really simple, and you experience NR all the time. This is when something bad or aversive is taken away or subtracted due to your actions, making you more likely to make the same behavior in the future when some stimuli presents itself. For instance, what do you do if you have a headache? You likely answered take Tylenol. If you do this and the headache goes away, you will take Tylenol in the future when you have a headache. NR can either result in current escape behavior or future avoidance behavior. *Escape* occurs when we are presently experiencing an aversive event and want it to end. We make a behavior and if the aversive event, like the headache, goes away, we will repeat the taking of Tylenol in the future. This future action is an *avoidance* event. We might start to feel a headache coming on and run to take Tylenol right away. By doing so we have removed the

possibility of the aversive event occurring and this behavior demonstrates that learning has occurred.

iv. **Negative Punishment (NP)** – This is when something good is taken away or subtracted making a behavior less likely in the future. If you are late to class and your professor deducts 5 points from your final grade (the points are something good and the loss is negative), you will hopefully be on time in all subsequent classes.

Before You Move On

Make sure you understand the four contingencies in operant conditioning and specifically how the terms “positive” and “negative” are used in this context. This is foundational knowledge that will be important in this class and others, as well as any future attempts at behavioral change whether for you or someone else.

1.4 Primary vs. Secondary (Conditioned)

The type of reinforcer or punisher we use is important. Some are naturally occurring while some need to be learned. We describe these as primary and secondary reinforcers and punishers. *Primary* refers to reinforcers and punishers that have their effect without having to be learned. Food, water, temperature, and sex, for instance, are primary reinforcers while extreme cold or hot or a punch on the arm are inherently punishing. A story will illustrate the latter. When I was about 8 years old, I would walk on the street in my neighborhood saying, “I’m Chicken Little and you can’t hurt me.” Most ignored me but some gave me the attention I was seeking, a positive reinforcer. So, I kept doing it and doing it until one day, another kid was tired of hearing about my other identity and punched me in the face. The pain was enough that I never walked up and down the street echoing my identity crisis for all to hear. This was a positive punisher and did not have to be learned. That was definitely not one of my finer moments in life.

Secondary or conditioned reinforcers and punishers are not inherently reinforcing or punishing and must be learned. An example was the attention I received for saying I was Chicken Little. Over time I learned that attention was good. Other examples of secondary reinforcers include praise, a smile, getting money for working or earning good grades, stickers on a board, points, getting to go out dancing, and getting out of an exam if you are doing well in a class. Examples of secondary punishers include a ticket for speeding, losing television or video game privileges, being ridiculed, or a fee for paying your rent or credit card bill late. Because secondary reinforcers are learned, almost anything can become reinforcing.

1.5 Factors Affecting the Effectiveness of Reinforcers and Punishers

The four contingencies of behavior can be made to be more or less effective by taking a few key steps. These include:

1. It should not be surprising to know that the quicker you deliver a reinforcer or punisher after a response, the more effective it will be. This

is called **immediacy**. Don't be confused by the word. If you notice, you can see *immediately* in it. If a person is speeding and you ticket them right away, they will stop speeding. If your daughter does well on her spelling quiz, and you take her out for ice cream after school, she will want to do better.

2. The reinforcer or punisher should be unique to the situation. So, if you do well on your report card, and your parents give you \$25 for each A, and you *only* get money for school performance, the secondary reinforcer of money will have an even greater effect. This ties back to our discussion of **contingency**.

3. But also, you are more likely to work harder for \$25 an A than you are \$5 an A. This is called **magnitude**. Premeditated homicide or murder is another example. If the penalty is life in prison and possibly the death penalty, this will have a greater effect on deterring the heinous crime than just giving 10 years in prison with the chance of parole.

4. At times, events make a reinforcer or punisher more or less reinforcing or punishing. We call these *motivating operations* and they can take the form of an establishing or an abolishing operation. First, an **establishing operation** is when an event makes a reinforcer or punisher more potent. Reinforcers become more reinforcing (i.e. more likely to occur) and punishers more punishing (i.e. less likely to occur). Second, an **abolishing operation** is when an event makes a reinforcer or punisher less potent. Reinforcers become less reinforcing (i.e. less likely to occur) and punishers less punishing (i.e. more likely to occur). See Table 6.1 below for examples of establishing and abolishing operations.

5. All people are different. Reinforcers will motivate behavior. That is a universal occurrence and unquestionable. But the same reinforcers will not reinforce all people. This shows diversity and **individual differences**. Before implementing any type of behavior modification plan, whether on yourself or another person, you must make sure you have the right reinforcers and punishers in place. In case of punisher, consider the example in Table below in the cell for abolishing operations and punishment. Though a fine may deter cheating on taxes for lower- and middle-class people, it may not for the upper-class but a threat of jail time will. In this case, punishers do discourage problem behavior but not in the same way for all people.

Examples of Establishing and Abolishing Operations

Type of Motivating Operation	As used with Reinforcement	As used with Punishment
Establishing	<p>Your favorite restaurant is Olive Garden. As such, you build into your behavior modification plan the opportunity to go to the restaurant once you have lost your first 20 lbs. This makes it more likely you will engage in the target/desirable behavior of eating less calories so you can eat there (i.e. the reinforcer is more potent).</p> <p>If we go to the store when hungry or in a state of <i>deprivation</i>, food becomes even more reinforcing and we are more likely to pick up junk food (i.e. a problem behavior).</p>	<p>You tell a child they will not be able to play video games after dinner if they do not finish their homework before dinner. Since video games are the child's favorite activity the punisher becomes more potent and should discourage problem behavior such as allowing themselves to be distracted.</p> <p>(Do not use punishment if the child has a lot of homework and cannot finish by dinner. They would simply have to continue homework after they eat).</p>
Abolishing	<p>The person looks up the caloric content of fatty foods and understands how eating it will undermine their weight loss plan. The fatty foods (i.e. chips or chocolate) lose their appeal or reinforcing value for the person (i.e. the reinforcer is less potent).</p> <p>If we go to the grocery store full or in a state of <i>satiation</i>, junk food would not sound appealing and we would not buy it.</p>	<p>Cheating on your taxes can lead to very high fines from the government. Though this should be an establishing operation for most of us, a wealthy person may be willing to take the fine since they can afford it and so the penalty loses its effectiveness or is less potent.</p> <p>(As a note, threatening jail time instead may deter their problem behavior making it an establishing behavior. The thought of losing their freedom may make cheating not worth the risk.)</p>

In summary, the five factors that can change the effectiveness of reinforcers and punishers are:

1. Immediacy
2. Contingency
3. Magnitude
4. Motivation operations – establishing and abolishing
5. Individual differences

Now that we have established what contingencies are and what affects them, let's move to a discussion of when we reinforce.

1.6 Reinforcement Schedules

In operant conditioning, the rule for determining when and how often we will reinforce a desired behavior is called the **reinforcement**

schedule. Reinforcement can either occur *continuously* meaning every time the desired behavior is made the person or animal will receive some reinforcer, or *intermittently/partially* meaning reinforcement does not occur with every behavior. Our focus will be on partial/intermittent reinforcement.

Key Components of Reinforcement Schedules

Two Key Components		
When you reinforce	Fixed	Reinforcement occurs at a set rate
	or	
	Variable	Rate of reinforcement changes
What you reinforce	Ratio	The number of correct responses
	or	
	Interval	Time elapsed between correct responses

The above table shows that there are two main components that make up a reinforcement schedule – when you will reinforce and what is being reinforced. In the case of when, it will be either fixed or at a set rate, or variable and at a rate that changes. In terms of what is being reinforced, we will either reinforce responses or time. These two components pair up as follows:

- i. Fixed Ratio schedule (FR) – With this schedule, we reinforce some set number of responses. For instance, every twenty problems (fixed) a student gets correct (ratio), the teacher gives him an extra credit point. A specific behavior is being reinforced – getting problems correct. Note that if we reinforce each occurrence of the behavior, the definition of continuous reinforcement, we could also describe this as a FR1 schedule. The number indicates how many responses have to be made and, in this case, it is one.
- ii. Variable Ratio schedule (VR) – We might decide to reinforce some varying number of responses such as if the teacher gives him an extra credit point after finishing between 40 and 50 problems correctly. This is useful after the student is obviously learning the material and does not need regular reinforcement. Also, since the schedule changes, the student will keep responding in the absence of reinforcement.
- iii. Fixed Interval schedule (FI) – With a FI schedule, you will reinforce after some set amount of time. Let's say a company wanted to hire someone to sell their products. To attract someone, they could offer to pay them \$15 an hour 40 hours a week and give this money every two weeks. Crazy idea but it could work. Saying the person will be paid *every* indicates fixed, and *two weeks* is time or interval. So, FI.

iv. Variable Interval schedule (VI) – Finally, you could reinforce someone at some changing amount of time. Consider the act of watching a football game. After some varying amount of time you are reinforced for the behavior of watching the game by your team scoring a touchdown or at least a field goal. The points earned reinforce your behavior (and time spent watching the game). This could account for why seeing your team lose is so hard. The time invested is not reinforced.

v.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Itemize five factors that can change the effectiveness of reinforcers and punishers
2. what is the different between primary and Secondary reinforcer or punisher.



1.6 Summary

“This unit discussed how e-governance are defined. As we can see, e-governance is more than just a government on the website. The strategies of e-governance can enable government and citizens to engage and partner with each other and other stakeholders. We also discussed the objectives of e-governance as well as the types of service delivery in e-governance. Subsequent units will discuss some other aspects of e-governance



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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Publications limited.



1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

- Answers to SAEs 1

1. **Operant conditioning** is a type of associative learning which focuses on consequences that follow a response or behavior that we make and whether the consequences make a behavior more or less likely to occur.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. The four contingencies of behavior can be made to be more or less effective by taking a few key steps. These include:

1. It should not be surprising to know that the quicker you deliver a reinforcer or punisher after a response, the more effective it will be. This is called **immediacy**. Don't be confused by the word. If you notice, you can see *immediately* in it. If a person is speeding and you ticket them right away, they will stop speeding. If your daughter does well on her spelling quiz, and you take her out for ice cream after school, she will want to do better.

2. The reinforcer or punisher should be unique to the situation. So, if you do well on your report card, and your parents give you \$25 for each A, and you *only* get money for school performance, the secondary reinforcer of money will have an even greater effect. This ties back to our discussion of **contingency**.

3. But also, you are more likely to work harder for \$25 an A than you are \$5 an A. This is called **magnitude**. Premeditated homicide or murder is another example. If the penalty is life in prison and possibly the death penalty, this will have a greater effect on deterring the heinous crime than just giving 10 years in prison with the chance of parole.

4. At times, events make a reinforcer or punisher more or less reinforcing or punishing. We call these *motivating operations* and they can take the form of an establishing or an abolishing operation. First, an **establishing operation** is when an event makes a reinforcer or punisher more potent. Reinforcers become more reinforcing (i.e. more likely to occur) and punishers more punishing (i.e. less likely to occur). Second, an **abolishing operation** is when an event makes a reinforcer or punisher less potent. Reinforcers become less reinforcing (i.e. less likely

to occur) and punishers less punishing (i.e. more likely to occur). See Table 6.1 below for examples of establishing and abolishing operations.

5. All people are different. Reinforcers will motivate behavior. That is a universal occurrence and unquestionable. But the same reinforcers will not reinforce all people. This shows diversity and **individual differences**. Before implementing any type of behavior modification plan, whether on yourself or another person, you must make sure you have the right reinforcers and punishers in place. In case of punisher, consider the example in Table 6.1 in the cell for abolishing operations and punishment. Though a fine may deter cheating on taxes for lower- and middle-class people, it may not for the upper-class but a threat of jail time will. In this case, punishers do discourage problem behavior but not in the same way for all people.

2. *Primary* refers to reinforcers and punishers that have their effect without having to be learned. Food, water, temperature, and sex, for instance, are primary reinforcers while extreme cold or hot or a punch on the arm are inherently punishing while Secondary or conditioned reinforcers and punishers are not inherently reinforcing or punishing and must be learned.

disappeared? Did it start again and your parents could not figure out why? Don't worry. Someday your parents will get you back and do the same thing with your kid(s).

When extinction first occurs, the person or animal is not sure what is going on and begins to make the response more often (frequency), longer (duration), and more intensely. This is called an extinction burst. We might even see novel behaviors such as aggression. I mean, who likes having their privileges taken away? That will likely create frustration which can lead to aggression.

One final point about extinction is important. You must know what the reinforcer is and be able to eliminate it. Say your child bullies' other kids at school. Since you cannot be there to stop the behavior, and most likely the teacher cannot be either if done on the playground at recess, the behavior will continue. Your child will continue bullying because it makes him or her feel better about themselves (a PR).

With all this in mind, you must have wondered if extinction is the same as punishment. With both, isn't it correct that you are stopping an undesirable behavior? Yes, but that is the only similarity they share. Punishment reduces unwanted behavior by either giving something bad or taking away something good. Extinction is simply when you take away the reinforcer for the behavior. This could be seen as taking away something good, but the *good* in punishment is not usually what is reinforcing the bad behavior. If a child misbehaves (the bad behavior) for attention (the PR), then with extinction you would not give the PR (meaning nothing happens) while with punishment, you might slap their behind (a PP) or taking away TV time (an NP).



1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Clarify the importance of Pavlov's work.
- Describe how respondent behaviors work.
- Describe Pavlov's classic experiment, defining any key terms.
- Explain how fears are both learned and unlearned in respondent conditioning.



1.3 Introduction to Spontaneous Recovery

You might have wondered if the person or animal will try to make the response again in the future even though it stopped being reinforced in the past. The answer is yes, and one of two outcomes is possible. First,

the response is made and nothing happens. In this case extinction continues. Second, the response is made and a reinforcer is delivered. The response re-emerges. Consider a rat that has been trained to push a lever to receive a food pellet. If we stop delivering the food pellets, in time, the rat will stop pushing the lever. The rat will push the lever again sometime in the future and if food is delivered, the behavior spontaneously recovers.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Define extinction
2. What is resistance to extinction.

1.4 Pavlov and His Dogs

You have likely heard about Pavlov and his dogs but what you may not know is that this was a discovery made accidentally. Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1906, 1927, 1928), a Russian physiologist, was interested in studying digestive processes in dogs in response to being fed meat powder. What he discovered was the dogs would salivate even *before* the meat powder was presented. They would salivate at the sound of a bell, footsteps in the hall, a tuning fork, or the presence of a lab assistant. Pavlov realized there were some stimuli that automatically elicited responses (such as salivating to meat powder) and those that had to be paired with these automatic associations for the animal or person to respond to it (such as salivating to a bell). Armed with this stunning revelation, Pavlov spent the rest of his career investigating the learning phenomenon.

The important thing to understand is that not all behaviors occur due to reinforcement and punishment as operant conditioning says. In the case of respondent conditioning, antecedent stimuli exert complete and automatic control over some behaviors. We see this in the case of reflexes. When a doctor strikes your knee with that little hammer it extends out automatically. You do not have to do anything but watch. Babies will root for a food source if the mother's breast is placed near their mouth. If a nipple is placed in their mouth, they will also automatically suck, as per the sucking reflex. Humans have several of these reflexes though not as many as other animals due to our more complicated nervous system.

1.5 Respondent conditioning

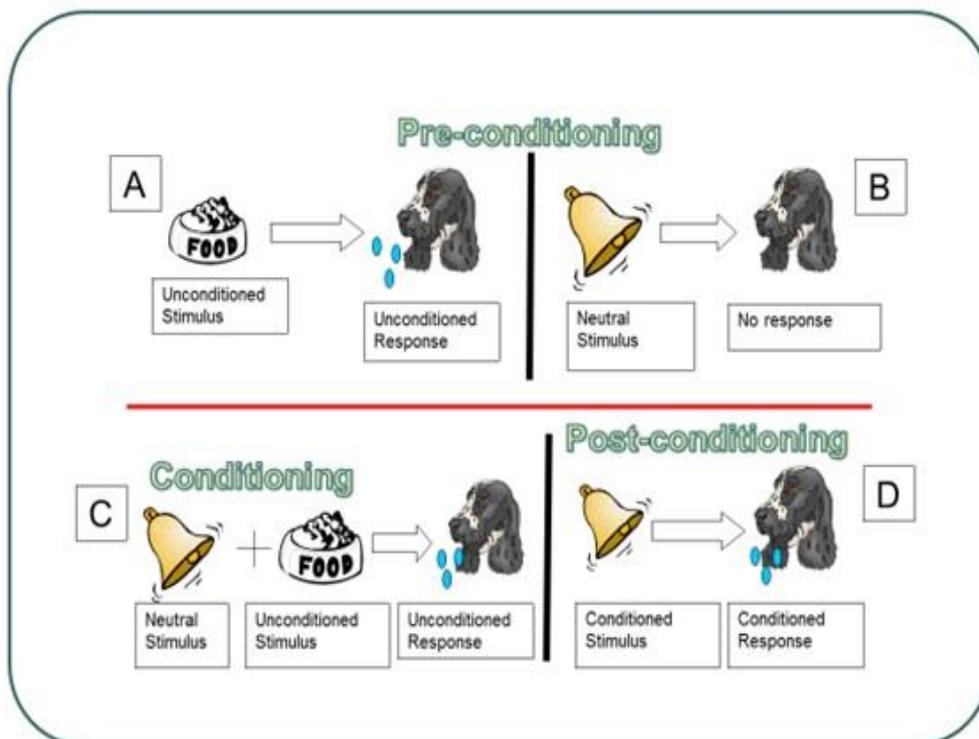
Respondent conditioning occurs when we link a previously neutral stimulus with a stimulus that is unlearned or inborn, called an unconditioned stimulus. In respondent conditioning, learning occurs in

three phases: preconditioning, conditioning, and postconditioning. Overview of Pavlov's classic experiment.

Preconditioning. Notice that preconditioning has both an A and a B panel. Really, all this stage of learning signifies is that some learning is already present. There is no need to learn it again as in the case of primary reinforcers and punishers in operant conditioning. In Panel A, food makes a dog salivate. This does not need to be learned and is the relationship of an unconditioned stimulus (UCS) yielding an unconditioned response (UCR). Unconditioned means unlearned. In Panel B, we see that a neutral stimulus (NS) yield nothing. Dogs do not enter the world knowing to respond to the ringing of a bell (which it hears).

Conditioning. Conditioning is when learning occurs. Through a pairing of neutral stimulus and unconditioned stimulus (bell and food, respectively) the dog will learn that the bell ringing (NS) signals food coming (UCS) and salivate (UCR). The pairing must occur more than once so that needless pairings are not learned such as someone farting right before your food comes out and now you salivate whenever someone farts (...at least for a while. Eventually the fact that no food comes would extinguish this reaction but still, it would be weird for a bit).

Pavlov's Classic Experiment



Postconditioning. Postconditioning, or *after* learning has occurred, establishes a *new* and not naturally occurring relationship of a

conditioned stimulus (CS; previously the NS) and conditioned response (CR; the same response). So the dog now reliably salivates at the sound of the bell because he expects that food will follow, and it does.

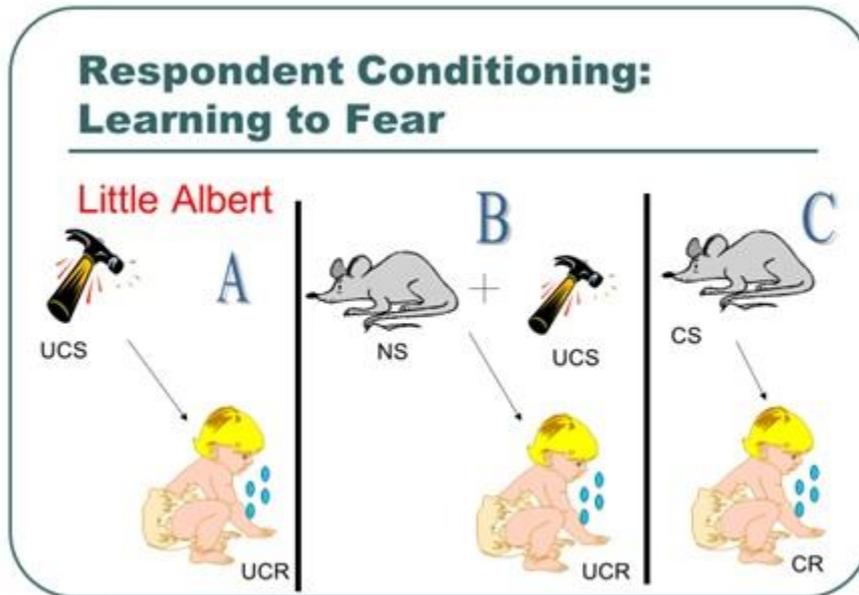
Comprehension check. A lot of terms were thrown at you in the preceding three paragraphs and so a quick check will make sure you understand. First, we talk about stimuli and responses being unconditioned or conditioned. The term *conditioned* means learned and if it is *unconditioned* then it is unlearned. Next, a *stimulus* (or stimuli) is an event/object in your environment that you detect via your five sensory systems – vision, hearing, taste, touch, and smell. A *response* is a behavior that you make due to one of these stimuli. Finally, *pre* means before and *post* means after, so *preconditioning* comes before learning occurs, *conditioning* is when learning is occurring, and *postconditioning* is what happens after learning has occurred. Be sure to keep these terms straight; this explanation is an easy way to do so.

1.6 Learning (and unlearning) Phobias

One of the most famous studies in psychology was conducted by Watson and Rayner (1920). Essentially, they wanted to explore “the possibility of conditioning various types of emotional response(s).” The researchers ran a 9-month-old child, known as Little Albert, through a series of trials in which he was exposed to a white rat to which no response was made outside of curiosity (NS–NR not shown).

In Panel A of Figure 6.4, we have the naturally occurring response to the stimulus of a loud sound. On later trials, the rat was presented (NS) and followed closely by a loud sound (UCS; Panel B). After several conditioning trials, the child responded with fear to the mere presence of the white rat (Panel C).

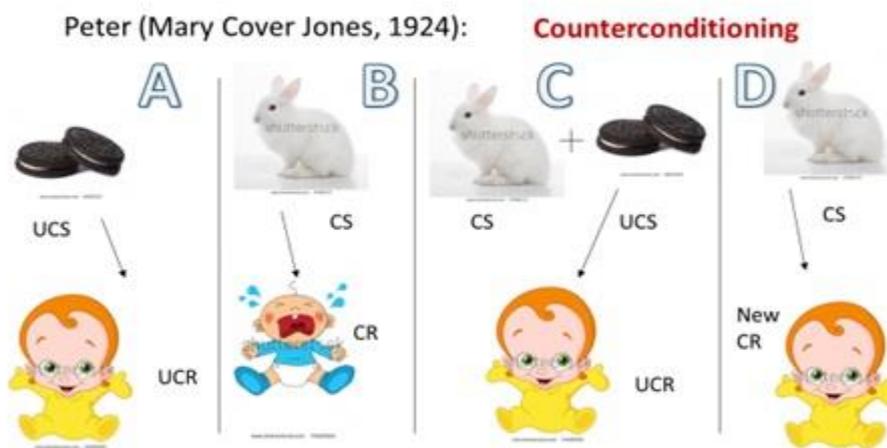
Learning to Fear



As fears can be learned, so too they can be unlearned. Considered the follow-up to Watson and Rayner (1920), Jones (1924; Figure 6.5) wanted to see if a child who learned to be afraid of white rabbits (Panel B) could be conditioned to become unafraid of them. Simply, she placed the child in one end of a room and then brought in the rabbit. The rabbit was far enough away so as to not cause distress. Then, Jones gave the child some pleasant food (i.e., something sweet such as cookies [Panel C]; remember the response to the food is unlearned, i.e., Panel A). The procedure in Panel C continued with the rabbit being brought in a bit closer each time to eventually the child did not respond with distress to the rabbit (Panel D).

Unlearning Fears

Unlearning Fears



This process is called **counterconditioning**, or the reversal of previous learning.

Another respondent conditioning way to unlearn a fear is what is called **flooding** or exposing the person to the maximum level of stimulus and as nothing aversive occurs, the link between CS and UCS producing the CR of fear should break, leaving the person unafraid. That is the idea at least and if you were afraid of clowns, you would be thrown into a room full of clowns. Though you may be nervous and likely terrified at first, when nothing bad happens over time, you will eventually calm down and no longer feel fear (CR) due to the presence of clowns. The association of clowns (CS) and something bad happening (UCS) would have been broken. It should be noted that for this fear to have developed, there was likely an event earlier in life that caused it. The functional assessment should help in identifying this event.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Clarify the importance of Pavlov's work.
2. Explain respondent conditioning/



1.7 Summary

By the end of this unit, you will be able to clarify the importance of Pavlov's work, describe how respondent behaviors work, describe Pavlov's classic experiment, defining any key terms, explain how fears are both learned and unlearned in respondent conditioning.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to SAEs

These are the answers to the SAEs within the content. Arrange the answers in accordance with the way the SAEs appear in the content. For example

Answers to SAEs 1

1. **Extinction** is when something that we do, say, think/feel has not been reinforced for some time. As you might expect, the behavior will begin to weaken and eventually stop when this occurs.
2. Intermittent or partial reinforcement meaning the behavior does weaken gradual.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. What he discovered was the dogs would salivate even *before* the meat powder was presented. They would salivate at the sound of a bell, footsteps in the hall, a tuning fork, or the presence of a lab assistant. Pavlov realized there were some stimuli that automatically elicited responses (such as salivating to meat powder) and those that had to be paired with these automatic associations for the animal or person to respond to it (such as salivating to a bell). Armed with this stunning revelation, Pavlov spent the rest of his career investigating the learning phenomenon.

The important thing to understand is that not all behaviors occur due to reinforcement and punishment as operant conditioning says. In the case of respondent conditioning, antecedent stimuli exert complete and automatic control over some behaviors.

2. **Respondent conditioning** occurs when we link a previously neutral stimulus with a stimulus that is unlearned or inborn, called an unconditioned stimulus. In respondent conditioning, learning occurs in three phases: preconditioning, conditioning, and postconditioning