

SESSION 11: Personality

Personality is the sum of ways in which an individual reacts to and interacts with others. This explains why some are quiet and passive while others are loud and aggressive. We most often describe personality in terms of the measurable traits a person exhibits.

Personality assessments have been increasingly used in diverse organizational settings. In India, several companies like Cognizant, Ford motors, TVS Sundaram and Deloitte use psychometric assessments for recruitment and competency mapping. The most common means of measuring personality is self-report surveys in which an individual evaluate themselves on a series of factors such as “I worry a lot about the future.”

Determinants of Personality

An early debate centered on whether an individual’s personality is the result of heredity or environment. Personality is basically the result of both; however, heredity has a slightly more significant influence than environment as per researches.

What are personality traits?

When someone frequently exhibits characteristics such as shy, aggression, submissiveness, laziness and so on and they are relatively enduring overtime and across situations, we call them personality traits.

Personality frameworks

Important theoretical frameworks and assessment tools help us categorize and study the dimensions of personality.

The most widely used and best known personality frameworks are the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Big Five Personality Model. Both gives complete frameworks of the personality. Dark triad and positive personality attributes are examples of frameworks that give explanation to a part of the complete personality.

Positive personality attributes relevant to OB

Core Self-evaluations (CSEs)

Bottom line conclusions individuals have about their capabilities, competence and worth as a person. People who have high positive CSEs like themselves and see themselves as effective and in control of their environment. Those with negative CSEs tend to dislike themselves, question their capabilities and view themselves as powerless over their environment.

Self-Monitoring

It is a personality trait that measures an individual’s ability to adjust his or her behavior to external, situational factors. High self-monitors show considerable adaptability to adjusting their behavior to external situational factors

Dark triad

Dark triad is the constellation of negative personality traits consisting of Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy. In big five, except neuroticism, we find all the four as desirable.

These negative personalities may not hinder one's daily life. This will be particularly manifested under stressful situations and they become unable to moderate any inappropriate responses.

- Machiavellianism: The degree to which an individual is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance and believes that ends can justify means is Machiavellianism.
- Narcissism: It is the tendency to be arrogant, have a grandiose sense of self-importance, require excessive admiration and possess a sense of entitlement.
- Psychopathy: it is the tendency for a lack of concern for others and a lack of guilt or remorse when actions cause harm. To test your Machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy check out the links

<https://openpsychometrics.org/tests/NPI/>, <https://openpsychometrics.org/tests/MACH-IV/>,
<https://openpsychometrics.org/tests/LSRP.php>, <https://openpsychometrics.org/tests/SMS/>

SESSION 12: Personality and Emotional Labor

Emotional labor is basically an employee's expression of organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions at work. It is a key component of effective job performance. We expect flight attendants to be cheerful is an example of desired emotion in the context of organization.

The way we experience emotions is obviously not always the same as the way you show it. To analyze emotional labor, we divide emotions into felt and displayed emotions. Felt emotions are our actual emotions. In contrast, displayed emotions are those the organization requires workers to show and considers appropriate in a given job. They are not innate; they are learned and they may or may not coincide with felt emotions. Emotional labor is carried out in two ways;

Surface acting: hiding feelings and foregoing emotional expressions in response to display rules

Deep acting: trying to modify one's true feelings based on display rules.

The employees feel a disparity when engaging in emotional labor and we call it emotional dissonance. This is inconsistencies between the emotions people feel and the emotions they project. As a result, bottled up feelings of frustration, anger and the resentment can lead to emotional exhaustion.

Emotional intelligence

Emotional Intelligence is a person's ability (1) to perceive emotions in the self and others (2) understand the meaning of these emotions and (3) regulate his or her own emotions accordingly. Simply put the ability to detect and to manage emotional cues and information. Unlike IQ, EQ (Emotional quotient) can be greatly enhanced through practice. Emotional intelligence has become very popular topic ever since Daniel Goleman published his book "Emotional Intelligence" in 1995. However the concept was first put forward by Salovey and Mayer in 1990.

Characteristics of emotionally intelligent people

They are able to recognize and diagnose their own emotions. Try to identify the emotions you feel as of now. Can you label it? Emotionally intelligent people are able to get in touch with and accurately diagnose their own internal feelings.

Emotionally intelligent people are also **able to regulate and control their own emotions.** They are less likely to blow up and lose control, less likely to experience debilitating depression and anxiety and more likely to manage their own emotional states than those with less emotional intelligence. Think of how you behave in a sporting event when someone yells at you or when someone appreciates you!! Emotionally intelligent people remain in control of their emotions whereas less emotionally intelligent people lose control. This ability does not mean being bland and indifferent. Instead, it just means that a person can control his or her emotions so that they are not unrestrained.

Emotionally intelligent people **are also able to accurately diagnose and empathize** with the feelings of others. They are sensitive to what others are experiencing and they can share in those feelings. Empathy refers to the ability to understand and connect with others' feelings. It doesn't mean sympathizing or adopting the same feelings and it is not based on a memory of having experienced the same emotions. If someone has experienced a tragedy or loss, emotionally intelligent people can empathize, share in, and understand those feelings even if they have never experienced something similar.

Emotionally intelligent people **also respond appropriately to the emotions of others.** Their responses match the emotions of other people feel, and they support and encourage emotional expressions. They endorse the emotional expression rather than censoring or suppressing the emotions.

Why Emotional intelligence? Is it significant?

Several studies suggest that EI plays an important role in job performance. Some reviews suggest that EI is related to groupwork effectiveness as well as deviant and citizenship behavior. South Korean managers with high EI tend to have better sales figures than those with low EI because they were able to create more cohesive stores and improved sales directed behavior. One study claimed that emotional intelligence differentiated successful leaders from unsuccessful leaders.

One reason that EI is so important is that generally the scores of EI is gradually deteriorating generation by generation, unlike the case of IQ. Emotional intelligence has also been found to be an important predictor of managerial success. In a study of managers on three continents, 74 percent of successful managers had emotional managers as their most salient characteristics whereas this was the case in only 24 percent of failure cases. A study at PepsiCo found that company units headed by managers with well-developed EI skills outperformed yearly revenue targets by about the same amount (Goleman, Boyatzi and Mckee, 2002).

How do you measure EI?

The number of instruments available to assess emotional intelligence is voluminous (more than 100) although only three or four have been scientifically validated and used in any systematic investigations. In particular, only Bar-On's EQ-1measure (Bar-On,1997) is a self-report instrument that defines EI as an array of noncognitive skills; Salovey's Multifactor EI scale (Salovey and Mayer, 1990)- a behavioral assessment that defines EI as "a form of social

intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action." Goleman and Boyatzis's Emotional competence inventory (Boyatzis et al., 2000)-a 360 degree assessment that defines EI as "the composite set of capabilities that enable a person to manage himself or herself and others." These are the major scientifically validated EI instruments.

Some of the freely downloadable scales are in the link <https://positivepsychology.com/emotional-intelligence-tests/>

Session 13: Emotion regulation

If you ever have tried to cheer yourself up when you are feeling down or calm yourself when you are feeling angry? Then you have engaged in emotion regulation. The emotion regulation is to identify and modify the emotions you feel. Not all are good at emotion regulation. Individuals who are high on neuroticism (emotional stability from Big five personality) have more trouble doing so. Similarly, people who are low on self-esteem have issues with emotion regulation.

The workplace environment influences individuals' tendency to regulate their emotions such as diverse work context makes people regulate their emotions than homogenous workplace. While regulating emotions may look beneficial, research suggests there is a downside to trying to change the way you feel. Changing your emotions takes effort and this effort can be exhausting.

Techniques to do emotional regulation

1. Emotional labor
2. Emotional suppression: suppression initial emotional responses to situations (used in crisis situations)
3. Cognitive reappraisal: reframing our outlook on an emotional situation (when there is no control on sources of stress)
4. Social sharing or venting: open expression of emotions can help individuals to regulate their emotions as opposed to keeping emotions bottled up. (used only when people accepting as venting affect people)
5. Mindfulness technique: receptively paying attention to and being aware of the present moment, events and experiences. This has roots in Buddha philosophy.

Motivation-Introduction

Motivation is a strong driving force. Hence, it is the most researched and worked topic in the organizational behavior. Motivation is the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal.

Here the goal is defined in the context of organization.

There are three major points in the definition of motivation. They are;

Intensity: how hard a person tries?

Direction: how the effort is channeled?

Persistence: how long a person can keep trying for the goal?

Motivation is an intangible concept which requires you to look at various theories to understand it is better.

Classification of motives

1. Primary Motives

Primary motives are essential for survival. They must be satisfied first before we can take up any other activity. Primary motives come to action when the physiological balance of the body is upset. This balance is called homeostasis. Examples are hunger, thirst, sleep, sex, maternal drive and so on

2. Secondary Motives

Human life has not only just biological aspect but also social aspect. Hence human behavior is activated by the following social motives. Achievement motive, Affiliation motives, Aggression motives, Power motives, Curiosity motives are some of the examples. These are called social motives since they develop as a result of relationships with people.

The **approaches/theories of motivation** is basically divided into two and they are; Content and process theories.

Content theories of motivation deal with what motivates an individual

Process theories of motivation deal with the process behind the motivation. In essence, it says, how it motivated someone.

Another way of classifying motivation is chronological mode; early theories and contemporary theories. However, the note here takes the former approach of dividing it into content and process theories.

i. Content theories of motivation

1. Hierarchy of needs theory

The popular theory of motivation is Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The theory postulates that within every human being, there is a hierarchy of five needs. Recently, a sixth need has been proposed for highest level-intrinsic values. The original five needs are;

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

Safety-security-Security and protection from physical and emotional harm

Social belongingness-Affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship

Esteem-Internal factors such as self-respect, autonomy and achievement and external factors such as status, recognition and attention

Self- actualization: Drive to become what we are capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving our potential and self-fulfillment.

The concept of **satisfaction progression** hypothesis-Moving up to higher-level needs based on satisfied needs.

With Maslow, satisfaction-progression plays an important part. Individuals move up the need hierarchy as a result of satisfying lower order needs. In Alderfer's ERG theory, this isn't necessarily so. The progression upward from relatedness satisfaction to growth desires does not presume the satisfaction of a person's existence needs.

SESSION 14: Motivation content theories

2. ERG theory of Motivation

To bring Maslow's need hierarchy theory of motivation in synchronization with empirical research, Clayton Alderfer redefined it in his own terms. His rework is called as ERG theory of motivation. He re-categorized Maslow's hierarchy of needs into three simpler and broader classes of needs:

- **Existence needs**- These include need for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual's physiological and physical safety needs.
- **Relatedness needs**- These include the aspiration individuals have for maintaining significant interpersonal relationships (be it with family, peers or superiors), getting public fame and recognition. Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs fall under this class of need.
- **Growth needs**- These include need for self-development and personal growth and advancement. Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs fall under this category of need.

Existence needs are the most concrete, and easiest to verify. **Relatedness needs** are less concrete than existence needs, which depend on a relationship between two or more people. Finally, **growth needs** are the least concrete in that their specific objectives depend on the uniqueness of each person.

Frustration-regression hypothesis- If a higher level need remains unfulfilled, a person may regress to lower level needs that appear easier to satisfy. Frustration-regression suggests that an already satisfied need can become active when a higher need cannot be satisfied. Thus, if a person is continually frustrated in his/her attempts to satisfy growth, relatedness needs can resurface as key motivators.

3. Two factor theory

It is a theory that relates intrinsic factors to job satisfaction and associates extrinsic factors with dissatisfaction. It is also called motivation-hygiene theory.

What is intrinsic factor? Factors such as advancement, recognition, responsibility and achievement are referred to as intrinsic factors. If you look at them, they are all part of the job itself and not external to the job.

Extrinsic factors are the factors associated with supervision, pay, company policies, and work conditions. The factors which are not job related but externally associated to the job is extrinsic factors.

Intrinsic factors are also called as motivators and extrinsic factors are also called hygiene/maintenance factors.

The basic idea of two-factor theory is that, presence of motivator results in satisfaction/motivation and absence results in no satisfaction/motivation but it is not dissatisfaction. Hence, satisfaction is not the opposite of dissatisfaction. Satisfaction is opposed to no satisfaction. Similarly, dissatisfaction is opposite of no dissatisfaction.

The factors that lead to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who seek to eliminate factors that can create job dissatisfaction may bring about peace but not necessarily motivation. If we need to motivate people, we need to provide an environment for intrinsic factors.

4. **McClelland's theory of needs** (Early theories)

It is a theory that states achievement, power and affiliation are three important needs that help explain motivation. Basically, the theory helps us understand what dominates in motivating an individual.

Need for achievement (nAch): it is the drive to excel, to achieve in relationship to a set of standards

Need for power (nPow): It is the need to make others behave in a way they would not have otherwise.

Need for affiliation (nAff): it is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships

If you look at McClelland and subsequent researchers focused most of their attention on nAch. High achievers perform best when there is a 50-50 chance for succeeding. Based on prior nAch research, we can predict some relationships between nAch and job performance. They tend to exhibit positive moods and be more interested in the task at hand. Employees high on nAch tend to perform very well in high-stakes conditions on the job, like work walkthroughs or sales encounters

McGregor's theory X and theory Y

Douglas McGregor, through his well-known "Theory X and Theory Y," drew a distinction between the assumptions about human motivation which underlie these two approaches, to this effect:

1. Theory X assumes that people dislike work and must be coerced, controlled, and directed toward organizational goals. Furthermore, most people prefer to be treated this way, so they can avoid responsibility.
 - Theory Y—the integration of goals—emphasizes the average person's intrinsic interest in his work, his desire to be self-directing and to seek responsibility, and his capacity to be creative in solving business problems.

It is McGregor's conclusion, of course, that the latter approach to organization is the more desirable one for managers to follow.

SESSION 15: Process theories: Motivation

1. Expectancy theory

Best accepted theory of motivation is Victor Vroom's expectancy theory. This theory claims that the strength of our tendency to act a certain way depends on the strength of our expectation of a given outcome and its attractiveness.

In practical terms, employees will be motivated to exert a high level of effort when they believe that it will lead to a good performance appraisal, that a good appraisal will lead to organizational rewards such as salary increases and/or intrinsic rewards and that the rewards will satisfy their personal goals. The theory therefore focuses on three relationships:

- a) Expectancy: the effort-performance relationship- the probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance.
- b) Instrumentality: the performance-reward relationship-the degree to which the individual believes performing at a particular level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome.
- c) Valence-the rewards-personal goals relationship-the degree to which organizational rewards satisfy an individual's personal goals or needs and the attractiveness of those potential rewards for the individual.

Expectancy theories helps explain why a lot of workers aren't motivated on their jobs and do only the minimum necessary to get by. Let us look at the example;

First, if I give maximum effort, will it be recognized in my performance appraisal? For many employees, the answer is no. why? Their skill level may be deficient which means no matter how had they try, they are not likely to be high performers. Or the organization's performance appraisal system may be designed to assess nonperformance factors such as loyalty, initiative or courage which means more effort won't necessarily result in a higher evaluation. Another possibility is that employees, rightly or wrongly, perceive the boss doesn't like them. Thus, they expect a poor appraisal, regardless of effort. These examples suggest that people will be motivated only if they perceive a link between their effort and their performance.

Second, if I get good performance appraisal, will it lead to organizational rewards? Many organizations reward things besides performance. When pay is based on factors such as having seniority, being cooperative or "kissing up" to the boss, employees are likely to see the performance-reward relationship as weak and demotivating.

Finally, if I am rewarded, are the rewards attractive to me? The employee works hard in the hope of getting a promotion but gets pay raise instead. Or the employee wants a more interesting and challenging job but receives only a few words of praise. Unfortunately, many managers are limited in the rewards they can distribute, which make it difficult to tailor rewards to individual employee needs. Some managers incorrectly assume all employees want the same thing, thus overlooking the motivational effects of differentiating rewards. In these cases, employee motivation is not maximized.

2. Equity theory/Organizational Justice

It is a theory stating that individuals compare their job inputs and outcomes with those of others and then respond to eliminate any inequities. According to equity theory, employees compare what they get from their job (their outcomes such as pay, promotions, recognition or a bigger office) to what they put into it (their inputs such as effort, experience and education). They take the ratio of their outcomes to their inputs and compare it to the ratio of others, usually someone similar like a coworker or someone doing the same job. If we believe our ratio is equal to those with whom we compare ourselves, a state of equity exists and we perceive our situation as fair.

Based on equity theory, employees who perceive inequity will make one of the six choices;

1. Change inputs-exert less effort if underpaid or more if overpaid
2. Change outcomes- individuals paid on a piece rate basis can increase their pay by producing higher quantity of units of lower quality.
3. Distort perceptions of self- I used to think I worked at moderate pace, but now I realize I work a lot harder than everyone else.
4. Distort perceptions of others- mike's job isn't as desirable as I thought.
5. Choose a different referent- I may not make as much as my brother in law but I am doing a lot better than my dad did when he was my age.
6. Leave the field-quitting the job.

Concerns about equity theory

It is not a well-supported approach due to certain concerns. First, inequities created by overpayment do not seem to significantly affect behavior in most work situations. Most cases, employees may rationalize by saying they work a lot harder. Second, not everyone is equity sensitive. There are entitled (I deserve more as I am worth it) and benevolent (people who prefer lower outcome-input ratios than the referent comparisons).

3. Goal setting theory

It is a theory stating that specific and difficult goals with feedback lead to higher performance. The theory is put forward by Edwin Locke and comes up with impressive empirical support to his claims. There are three personal factors influence the goals-performance relationship; goal commitment, task characteristics and national culture.

Goal commitment-goal setting theory assumes an individual is committed to the goal and determined not to lower or abandon it. The individual a) believes he or she can achieve the goal b) wants to achieve it. Goal commitment is most likely to occur when employees expect that their efforts will pay off in goal attainment, when accomplishing the goal is attractive to them and when they actively participate in goal setting.

Task characteristics- Goals themselves seem to affect performance more strongly when tasks are simpler than complex, and when the tasks are independent rather than interdependent. For interdependent tasks, group goals are preferable.

National culture- setting specific, difficult, individual goals may have different effects in different cultures. In collectivistic and high power distance cultures, achievable moderate goals can be more motivating than difficult ones.

Application of goal setting theory

MBO (management by objectives) is a systematic way to utilize goal setting. It was an initiative more popular in 1970s but still used today. MBO emphasizes participatively set goals that are tangible, verifiable and measurable. Below figure to understand how MBO works on the concept of cascading objectives.

The organizations' overall objectives are translated into specific cascading objectives for each level (divisional, departmental, and individual). But because lower unit managers jointly participate in setting their own goals, MBO works from the bottom up as well as from the top down. The result is a hierarchy that links objectives at one level to those at next. For the individual employee, MBO provides specific personal performance objectives.

Four common features of MBO

1. Goal specificity
2. Participative decision making
3. A explicit time period
4. Performance feedback

4. Reinforcement theory

Goal setting theory is a cognitive approach while reinforcement theory is a behaviorist approach where it says reinforcement conditions people behavior. Reinforcement theory sees behavior as environmentally caused. Reinforcement theory ignores the inner state of the individual and concentrates solely on what happens when she or he takes some action.

Operant conditioning and social learning theory holds true here. However, these theories are not strictly motivational theories as it doesn't talk about what initiates behavior but it does talk about what controls behavior.

SESSION 16: Groups

A **group** is two or more individuals interacting and interdependent who have come together to achieve particular objectives. Groups can either be formal or informal. A **formal** group is defined by the organization's structure with designated work assignments and established tasks. In formal groups, the behaviors that group members should engage in are stipulated by and directed toward organizational goals.

E.g. Six members of airline flight crew

Informal group is neither formally structured nor organizationally determined. Informal groups in the work environment meet the need for social contact.

E.g. Three employees from different departments who regularly have lunch or coffee together are an informal group.

Stages of group development

The process of learning to work together effectively is known as group development. Research has shown that groups go through definitive stages during development. Bruce Tuckman, an educational psychologist, identified a five-stage development process that most groups follow to become high performing. He called the stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Group progress through the stages is shown in the following diagram.

Most high-performing groups go through five stages of group development.

1. Forming stage

The forming stage involves a period of orientation and getting acquainted. Uncertainty is high during this stage, and people are looking for leadership and authority. A member who asserts authority or is knowledgeable may be looked to take control. Group members are asking such questions as “What does the group offer me?” “What is expected of me?” “Will I fit in?” Most interactions are social as members get to know each other.

2. Storming stage

The storming stage is the most difficult and critical stage to pass through. It is a period marked by conflict and competition as individual personalities emerge. Group performance may actually decrease in this stage because energy is put into unproductive activities. Members may disagree on group goals, and subgroups and cliques may form around strong personalities or areas of agreement. To get through this stage, members must work to overcome obstacles, to accept individual differences, and to work through conflicting ideas on group tasks and goals. Groups can get bogged down in this stage. Failure to address conflicts may result in long-term problems.

3. Norming stage

If groups get through the storming stage, conflict is resolved and some degree of unity emerges. In the norming stage, consensus develops around whom the leader or leaders are, and individual member’s roles. Interpersonal differences begin to be resolved, and a sense of cohesion and unity emerges. Group performance increases during this stage as members learn to cooperate and begin to focus on group goals. However, the harmony is precarious, and if disagreements re-emerge the group can slide back into storming.

4. Performing stage

In the performing stage, consensus and cooperation have been well-established and the group is mature, organized, and well-functioning. There is a clear and stable structure, and members are committed to the group’s mission. Problems and conflicts still emerge, but they are dealt with constructively. (We will discuss the role of conflict and conflict resolution in the next section). The group is focused on problem solving and meeting group goals.

5. Adjourning stage

In the adjourning stage, most of the group’s goals have been accomplished. The emphasis is on wrapping up final tasks and documenting the effort and results. As the work load is diminished, individual members may be reassigned to other groups, and the group disbands. There may be regret as the group ends, so a ceremonial acknowledgement of the work and success of the group can be helpful. If the group is a standing committee with ongoing responsibility, members may be replaced by new people and the group can go back to a forming or storming stage and repeat the development process. (Jennifer et al., 2014).

Punctuated Equilibrium model

Temporary groups with finite deadlines pass through a unique sequencing of actions (or inaction) called the punctuated-equilibrium model. The first meeting sets the group direction. A framework of behavioral patterns and assumptions through which the group will approach its

project emerges in its first meeting. These lasting patterns can appear as early as the first few seconds of the group's life. Once set, the group's direction becomes 'written in stone' and is unlikely to be reexamined throughout the first half of the group life. This is a period of inertia-that is, the group tends to standstill or become locked into a fixed course of action. Even if it gains new insights that challenge initial patterns and assumptions, the group is incapable of acting on these new insights in phase 1.

Each group experiences its transition at the same point in its calendar-precisely half way between its first meeting and its official deadline-despite the fact that some groups spent as little as an hour on their project while others spent six months. It was as if the groups universally experienced a midlife crisis at this point. The midpoint appears to work life like an alarm clock, heightening members' awareness that their time is limited and that they need to 'get moving.'

This transition ends Phase 1 and is characterized by a concentrated burst of changes, dropping of old patterns, and adoption of new perspectives. The transition sets a revised direction for phase 2. Phase 2 is a new equilibrium or period of inertia. In this phase, the group executes all the plans created during the transition period.

The group's last meeting is characterized by a final burst of activity to finish its work. To put it in a nutshell, the punctuated equilibrium model characterizes groups as exhibiting long periods of inertia interspersed with brief revolutionary changes triggered primarily by their members' awareness of time and deadlines. This model is **applicable only to temporary work groups** who work under a time constrained completion deadline. The stages in the model include the following;

1. The first meeting sets the group's direction
2. The first phase of group activity is one of inertia and thus slower progress
3. A transition takes place exactly when the group has used up half its allotted time
4. This transition initiates major changes
5. A second phase of inertia follows the transition
6. The group's last meeting is characterized by markedly accelerated activity

Session 17: Group dynamics

Why informal groups

Informal groups provide a very important service by satisfying their social needs. The members do things together due to close proximity or increase task interactions. The type of interactions affects the behavior and performance of group members. Why people join informal groups?

1. To protect themselves from being alone
2. To gain status (to feel significant)
3. Self-esteem
4. Affiliation: to fulfill social needs
5. Power

6. Goal achievement

Group dynamics: both formal and informal

Groups are not just unorganized mobs. It has a clear structure. Let us look at the structural variables;

Roles, Norms, status, group size, degree of group cohesiveness

Role: A set of expected behavioral patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit. All group members will have a role and they tend to act accordingly. Example: A doctor plays the role of a doctor in hospital, a spouse at home, a parent to the child and a social worker for an informal charity organization.

Role identity: Certain attitudes and behaviors consistent with a role. People have the ability to shift roles rapidly when they recognize that situation and its demands clearly require major changes. For instance, when union stewards were promoted to supervisory positions, it was found that their attitudes changed from pro-union to pro-management within a few months of their promotion.

Role perception: Our view of how we are supposed to act in a given situation is a role perception. Where do we get these perceptions? We get the stimuli from all around us-friends, books, movies and television. Many lawyers will be influenced by the series Law and order and The practice.

Role expectations: they are defined as how others believe you should act in a given situation. The role of a high court judge is viewed as having propriety and dignity, while a football coach is seen as aggressive, dynamic and inspiring to his players.

Role conflict: when an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations, the result is role conflict. It exists when an individual finds that compliance with one role requirement may make it more difficult to comply with another. You must be a senior manager at a popular MNC but you are the youngest daughter at home and this can result in a role conflict as former role requires you to be authoritative while the latter expects you to be respectful of authority.

Norms: All groups have established norms: this is acceptable standards of behavior that are shared by the groups' members. Norms tell members what they ought and ought not to do under certain circumstances. From an individual's standpoint, it tells what is expected of you in certain situations. When agreed to and accepted by the group, norms act as a means of influencing the behavior of group members with a minimum of external controls. Norms differ among groups, communities and societies but they all have one.

Types of norms

Performance norms: explicit cues regarding how hard they should work in a group

Appearance norms: appropriate dress, loyalty to the organizations, when to look busy and when it is acceptable to goof off.

Social arrangement norms: norms come from informal work groups and primarily regulate social interactions within the group. With whom group members eat food, friendships on and off the job, social games and so on.

Allocation of resource norms: these norms can originate in the group or in the organization and cover things like pay, assignment of difficult jobs and allocation of new tools and equipment.

Conformity: Adjusting one's behavior to align with the norms of the group. As a member you desire acceptance by the group. So you are susceptible to conforming to the group's norms. There is considerable evidence that groups can place strong pressures on individual members to change their attitudes and behaviors to conform to the group's standard.

However, individuals will not conform to the norms of all groups they belong. They conform to the norms of only reference groups. What is reference group?

Important groups to which individuals belong or hope to belong and with whose norms individuals are likely to conform. Reference groups are the groups that are characterized as important for the person, one defines himself/herself as a member or would like to be a member and feels this group is very significant to the one.

Status: A socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others. Status is a major motivator for human beings. Status has been shown some effects on norms say, high status members enjoys a freedom from appearance norms or performance norms.

Size: the number of members in a group. Evidence says that smaller groups finish their job fast while larger groups are better at innovating. However, groups of 7 members seem to be doing a good job.

One of most important drawback is found to be **social loafing** in group work. Social loafing is the tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually.

Group cohesiveness: it is the degree to which group members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group. Groups differ in their cohesiveness. If the members have spent a great deal of time together, or if the group size is smaller or if the group has faced external threats that have brought the group members come together. Cohesiveness is important because it brings people together and has a positive impact on productivity.

The studies show that the relationship of cohesiveness and productivity depends on the performance related norms established by the group. If the performance norms are high, a cohesive group will show high productivity. Also, if cohesiveness is high, norms are low, productivity will be low. The figure shows all other scenarios.

Session 18: Group and teams

Work groups and Work teams

Work group: a group that interacts primarily to share information and to make decisions to help each group member perform within his or her area.

Work team: a group whose individual efforts result in performance that is greater than the sum of the individual inputs.

Groups and teams are not the same thing. Groups was defined as a set of two or more individuals interacting and interdependent who have come together to achieve particular objectives.

Workgroups have no need or opportunity to engage in collective work that requires a joint effort. So their performance will be mere summation of each group member's individual's contribution. There is no positive synergy that would create an overall level of performance that is greater the sum of inputs.

A work team generates a positive synergy through coordinated effort. Their individual efforts results in a level of performance that is greater than the sum of those individual inputs.

Types of teams

There are four common types of work teams; problem solving teams, self-managed work teams, cross functional teams and virtual teams.

Problem solving teams: Groups of 5-12 employees from the same department who meet for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving quality, efficiency and the work environment.

Here members share ideas or offer suggestions on how work processes and methods can be improved; although they rarely have the authority to unilaterally implement any of their suggested actions. For example; Merill Lynch created a problem solving team to specifically figure out ways to reduce the number of days it took to open up a new cash management account.

Self-managed work teams: Groups of 10-15 people who take on responsibilities of their former supervisors. Typically, that includes planning, scheduling, of work, assigning tasks to members, collective control over the pace of work, making operating decisions, taking action on problems and working with suppliers and customers. Fully self-managed work teams can select their own members and have the members evaluate each other's performance. As a result, supervisory positions take on decreased importance and may even be eliminated.

Cross-functional teams: teams made up of employees from about the same hierarchical level, but from different work areas, who come together to accomplish the task. The Boeing Company created a team made up of employees from production, planning, quality, tooling, design engineering and information systems to automate shims on the company's C-17 program. Cross-functional teams are effective means for allowing people from diverse areas within an organization to exchange information, develop new ideas and solve problems and coordinate complex projects. But it goes through a difficult process of group development because diverse views create a chaos.

Virtual teams: all the previous types of teams do their work face to face. Virtual teams use computer technology to tie together physically dispersed members in order to achieve the common goal. They allow people to collaborate online-using communication links like wide area networks, video conferencing or email-whether they are only a room away or continents apart.

Best example is our classes now.

Group decision making

Many decisions in organizations are made by teams, groups or committees. Hence it is very important to learn about the intricacies of it.

Pros and cons of group decision making

Pros

1. Groups generate more complex information and knowledge
2. Group bring more input into decision making process
3. Groups generate high quality decisions
4. Increased acceptance of solution since all are participated in arriving at the solution
5. Better support for the decision made

Cons

1. Time consuming
2. Conformity pressures in groups
3. Group decision can be dominated by one or two members
4. Group decisions suffer from ambiguous (unclear) responsibilities

Group think and Group shift

Two byproducts of group decision making have received a considerable amount of attention by practitioners and researchers because of its potential to affect a groups' ability to appraise alternatives objectively and to arrive at quality decision solutions.

Group think is related to norms.it is the phenomenon in which the norm for consensus overrides the realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action and the full expression of deviant, minority or unpopular views. It describes a deterioration in an individual's mental efficiency, reality testing and moral judgment as a result of group pressures.

Group think symptoms

1. An illusion of invulnerability: Members ignore danger, take extreme risk and are overly optimistic.
2. Collective rationalization: Members discredit and explain away warning contrary to group thinking.
3. Belief in inherent morality: Members discredit and explain away warning contrary to group thinking.
4. Stereotyped views of out-groups: The group constructs negative stereotypes of rivals outside the group.
5. Direct pressure on dissenters: Members pressure any in the group who expresses arguments against the group's stereotypes, illusions, or commitments, viewing such opposition as disloyalty.
6. Self-censorship: Members withhold their dissenting views and counter-arguments.

7. Illusion of unanimity: Members perceive falsely that everyone agrees with the group's decision; silence is seen as consent.
8. "Mind guards" are appointed: Some members appoint themselves to the role of protecting the group from adverse information that might threaten group complacency.

(source: Little book of behavioral investing by James Montier)

Examples: Columbia and challenger space shuttle disaster is an example of group think was particularly evident.

Group shift is a change in decision risk between group's decision and the individual decision that members within the group would make, can be either toward conservatism or greater risk.

What appears to happen in groups is that the discussion leads to a significant shift in the positions of members toward a more extreme position in the direction in which they were already leaning before the discussion.

Group shift can also be viewed as a type of group think. The shift can be seen as dominant group norm for decision making

Group decision making techniques

Brain storming: An idea- generation process that specifically encourages any and all alternatives, while withholding any criticism of those alternatives.

- Generating as many ideas as possible, suspending evaluations until all of the ideas has been suggested.
- Emphasis of imagination in the ideas generated.
- To overcome pressures for conformity (as conformity retards creativity).
- 6-10 people participates in the brainstorming
- the leader states the problem in a clear manner, then he/she records all alternatives for further discussion and analysis.
- Drawbacks
 - Production blocking-listening to others results in distraction from our point.
 - Evaluation apprehension: fear that other group members might respond negatively.
 - As a result, electronic brainstorming comes to place.

Nominal group technique: a group decision making technique in which individual members meet face to face to pool their judgments in a systematic but independent fashion.

- Restriction of discussion and interpersonal communication during the decision making process.
- Members are physically present, but they operate independently.
- Steps;
 - Individuals silently list their ideas
 - It is collected by the leader and noted in a chart
 - Discussion is allowed only to clarify the points. No criticism is allowed.
 - A written vote is taken on those points.
- It avoids evaluative apprehension

- Promote independent thinking by avoiding production blocking

Electronic meeting: a meeting in which members interact on computers allowing for anonymity of comments and aggregation of votes.

- Blend of nominal group technique with the sophisticated technology.
- Issues are presented to the participants and they respond on to the computer screen.
- Aggregate votes are displayed on to the screen.
- Advantages
 - Anonymity is maintained
 - Less of fake responses as the anonymity is maintained
 - Time saving
- Disadvantages
 - Need to type fast their responses
 - Thus, people with good ideas may not be able to shine

Delphi technique: it refers to the systematic forecasting method used to gather opinions of the panel of experts on the problem being encountered, through the questionnaires, often sent through mail. In other words, a set of opinions pertaining to a specific problem, obtained in writing usually through questionnaires from several experts in the specific field is called as a Delphi technique.

- In order to get opinions of experts related to the topic of discussion.
- It differs from nominal group technique as the physical presence is not required.
- Steps involved are:
 - A questionnaire is distributed to the experts
 - Responses are collected from the experts residing in various places
 - Coordinator summarizes all the responses and sent back to them to get the final voting.
- Advantages
 - Able to generate a number of independent judgments without meeting face to face.
 - This method can be used for decision making among geographically scattered groups.
 - Cost saving as we do not have to bring all the experts to a central location.
- Disadvantages
 - Time consuming, not applicable for a situation where a speedy action is needed.
 - They may not generate rich array of alternatives as in nominal technique.

Quality circle

- Small groups that voluntarily meet to provide input for solving quality or production problems.
- Quality circles are often generated as bottom up because they often advise to managers.
- But top management still retains the decision making authority.
- Quality circles are not empowered to implement their own recommendations.

- Quality teams (unlike quality circles), they are developed as top down and are empowered to act on their own recommendations. It is a part of total quality management in the organization.

SESSION 19 : Communication

Communication encompasses the transference of information and understanding the meaning of it. Communication acts to control member behavior in several ways. It fosters motivation by clarifying to employees what is to be done, how well they are doing and what can be done to improve performance if it is subpar. It provides a release for the emotional expression of feelings and for fulfillment of social needs. It facilitates decision making.

Process of communication

The steps between a source and a receiver that result in the transference and understanding of meaning are;

- 1) the sender
- 2) encoding
- 3) the message
- 4) the channel
- 5) decoding
- 6) the receiver
- 7) noise
- 8) feedback

Types of communication

Communication can be divided based on the direction and based on medium in which communication is passed.

Direction of communication: they are downward, upward and lateral communication. Communication that flows from one level of a group or organization to a lower level is downward communication.

Medium: oral communication is in the form of speeches, formal one to one, group discussions, informal rumor (grapevine) and so on. Written communication includes memos, letters, fax, e-mail, instant messaging, whatsapp, and other social media means.

Nonverbal communication involves anything other than verbal. It can be glance, a smile, frown, a provocative body movement, emoji and so on.

Organizational communication

The difference between interpersonal communications from organizational communication is the nature of formality and the topic of the message. Some of the types of organizational communication involve formal small group networks, grapevine, computer-aided mechanisms used by organizations to facilitate communication and evolving topic of knowledge management.

Formal small group networks: this can include hundreds of people and a half dozen or more hierarchical levels. There are three types of formal networks. They are; chain, wheel and all channel.

Grapevine: it is the organization's informal communication network. It has three main characteristics; it is not controlled by management, second, it is perceived by most employees as being more believable and reliable. Third, it is largely used to serve the self-interests of the people within it.

Computer aided communication: this involves E-mail, instant messaging, intranet and extranet links, video conferencing.

Knowledge management: the process of organizing and distributing an organization's collective wisdom so the right information gets to the right people at the right time.

Barriers of effective communication

They are;

Filtering: A sender's manipulation of information so that it will be seen more favorably by the receiver is filtering

Information overload: a condition in which information inflow exceeds an individual's processing capacity.

Communication apprehension: Undue tension and anxiety about oral communication, written communication or both.

Other than that, emotions, perceptions, language, gender differences, cultural impacts are also barriers.

SESSION 20: Leadership

What is leadership?

The ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals is leadership. The source of influence may be formal such as that provided by the possession of managerial rank in an organization. However not all leaders are managers. However, all managers are not leaders too. There is a concept of no sanctioned leadership where it reflects the capacity to influence beyond formal authorities.

Difference between leader and manager

When you are promoted into a role where you are managing people, you don't automatically become a leader. There are important distinctions between managing and leading people. Here are nine of the most important differences that set leaders apart:

1. Leaders create a vision, managers create goals.
2. Leaders are change agents, managers maintain the status quo.

3. Leaders are unique, managers copy.
4. Leaders take risks, managers control risk .
5. Leaders are in it for the long haul, managers think short-term.
6. Leaders grow personally, managers rely on existing, proven skills.
7. Leaders build relationships, managers build systems and processes.
8. Leaders coach, managers direct.
9. Leaders create fans, managers have employees.

(Source:Forbes,n.d)

Leadership theories

Trait approach: Throughout the history, strong leader have been described by their traits. This trait theory has set out to identify the differences between leaders from non-leaders. Trait theories focus on personal qualities and characteristics.

Behavioral theories: These theories propose that behaviors differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Since behavior can be trained, leadership can be trained. Studies from Ohio state identified that two behaviors which are relevant for leadership. They are initiating structure and consideration. Leadership studies undertaken at the University of Michigan came up with two dimensions of leadership behavior; employee-oriented and production-oriented. Employee oriented leaders emphasize interpersonal relations; taking a personal interest in the needs of employees and accepting individual differences among members. Production oriented leader is who emphasize technical or task aspects of job.

The managerial grid: Developed by Robert R Blake and Jane Mouton (1964), managerial grid (now called leadership grid) is a graphic portrayal of two dimensional leadership styles. This grid is made based on two leadership style; “concern for people” and “concern for production”, which essentially represent the Ohio state dimensions and Michigan state dimensions.

The grid has nine possible positions along each axis creating 81 different positions in which the leader’s style may fall. The grid doesn’t show results produced but rather, the dominating factors in a leader’s thinking in regard to getting results.

Based on the findings of Blake and Mouton, managers were found to perform best under a 9,9 style as contrasted to any other options. However, this grid lacks research evidence to support the claim.

Behavioral theories are successful in finding the link between leadership behavior and group performance. However, situational elements are missing which can possibly influence the effectiveness of the group.

Contingency theories: A leadership that works in tough times will not work when things are easy.

2. Fiedler's model: According to Fred Fiedler, it appears that under certain conditions a certain leadership style would be appropriate.
3. Robert House's Path-Goal Theory: The path-goal theory is a little easier to comprehend than Fiedler's model. House's theory is based on the idea that a follower's motivations are based on three assumptions
4. The Situational Leadership Model: This model places followers into four different groups based on their maturity and assigns a particular leadership style to each group.

Leadership styles

Transformational Leadership

One type of effective leadership style is transformational leadership. Transformational leaders work with the goal of transforming their teams and organizations so that they're constantly improving.

Democratic Leadership

Democratic leaders include their team members in their decision-making process. While they are ultimately responsible for making final decisions, they often ask team members what they think and try to take their thoughts and opinions into account

Autocratic Leadership

On the other end of the effective leadership styles spectrum, autocratic leaders make all decisions on their own without consulting with team members.

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Leaders who practice this style are known for giving their team members a lot of freedom. They provide support and resources for team members when it's necessary, but they don't constantly micromanage employees.

Top of Form

Bottom of Form

Bureaucratic Leadership

Bureaucratic leaders are all about rules. They may set strict procedures that they follow precisely, and they expect their team to do the same.

Servant Leadership

Servant leaders work hard to meet the needs of their team. They're often seen as charismatic and generous.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership focuses on the idea that accepting a job is a sort of transaction. By agreeing to take a job, workers have accepted that they have to complete the outlined task and follow their leader's instructions.
