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MODULE 1

FOUNDATIONS OF HRM

- 1.1 HRM- Nature, Scope and Functions
- 1.2 HR policies
- 1.3 HR Planning Process Objectives
- 1.4 Job analysis and Job design.
- 1.5 Recruitment and Selection.
- 1.6 Placement and Induction
- 1.7 Concept of Training
- 1.8 Training methods and techniques

Resources

The resources of an organisation are classified into two: Physical resources (money, material, Machinery) and Human Resources.

Human resources:

Human resources is the most valid asset of all organisations. It is considered as a powerful capital which has three unique features:

- (a) Intellectual Capital (Knowledge & Skills),
- (b) Social Capital (Relationship & Sociability)
- (c) Emotional Capital (ambition, courage, and self-confidence)

Characteristics of Human Resource

1. **Heterogeneous (Diverse):-** Each person differs from another in needs, attitudes, values, personality, etc.
2. **Dynamic Character:** This reflects HR's adaptability and how individuals respond to situations, which are often influenced by experience and mood. Different people react differently to a particular situation. Even the same person reacts differently to the same situation on different occasions.
3. **Source of creative energy:-** HR Can produce unlimited ideas if properly motivated. Proper motivation strategies help employees to unlock their creative potential.
4. **Reactive:-** Being influenced by external factors like culture, education, and organisational climate emphasises HR's role in managing and understanding these influences.
5. **Proactive:-** This enables organisations to anticipate challenges, create positive conditions, and improve organisational climate and productivity.

Human Resource Management

'Human resources' describes two things: (a) the people who work for an organisation and (b) the department responsible for managing resources related to employees.

Human resources (HR) is the department concerned with recruiting, selecting and training job applicants and administering employee-benefit programs.

Human resource management (HRM or simply HR) manages human resources.

Edwin Flippo defines- HRM as "planning, organising, directing, controlling of the procurement, development, compensation, integration, maintenance and separation of human resources of the organisation."

Assumptions/Nature/Features/Importance of HRM

- 1) **Employees are Valuable Resources:** People bring essential skills and talents to the organisation. Recognising employees as valuable resources is essential for organisational success.
- 2) **Reservoirs of Skills and Creativity:** Employees possess valuable resources, including skills and creativity, that benefit the organisation when nurtured. This harnesses employees' skills, leading to innovation and growth.
- 3) **Unlimited Potential for Growth:** Human resources can be continuously developed and enhanced. The workforce continually enhances its capabilities by investing in training, leading to sustained development.

- 4) **Most Important Asset:** Employees are the organisation's most valuable asset. HRM manages these assets to contribute to long-term organisational success.
- 5) **Motivation through Challenges:** People are motivated by challenging and meaningful work. This keeps them engaged and allows them to perform at their best.
- 6) **Mutual Benefit:** HRM can be planned to benefit both employees and the organisation. This improves job satisfaction, loyalty, and productivity, making HRM a central function.
- 7) **Commitment through Belonging:** A sense of belonging fosters employee commitment. Employees who feel connected to the organisation are more likely to contribute positively.
- 8) **Satisfaction of Needs:** Employees are motivated when basic and higher-level needs (such as growth and recognition) are fulfilled. This satisfaction boosts morale, reduces turnover, and improves performance.
- 9) **Opportunity for Self-Discovery:** Providing employees opportunities to use their capabilities increases commitment and job satisfaction. This helps employees realise their potential.
- 10) **Opportunities to Increase Commitment:** Employees are more committed when they can use and develop their skills. Employees who feel they are growing within the organisation are more likely to contribute.

HRM: Functions, Scope and Objectives

Each of the managerial and operative functions defines the objectives and scope of HRM. When viewed as an objective, the functions align

with the purpose of HRM to develop a capable, motivated, and productive workforce, ensuring a positive workplace culture.

Functions of HRM

The functions can be broadly classified as managerial and operative functions.

Managerial functions

1. Planning

2. Organising

3. Staffing

4. Directing

5. Coordinating

6. Controlling

Operative functions

1. Manpower planning

2. Recruitment and selection

3. Training and development

4. Compensation

5. Human relations

6. Industrial relations

7. Counselling

8. Performance Appraisal

9. Career planning

10. Succession/exit planning

11. Redressal of grievances

I. Managerial Functions

Managerial functions involve planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, and controlling human resources.

1. Planning

This involves manpower planning to ensure an adequate workforce aligns with strategic goals. The objective is to anticipate future workforce needs and ensure no staff shortages. The scope includes workforce forecasting, setting recruitment goals, and assessing skill gaps.

2. Organising

This creates a structured HR department with defined roles and responsibilities. The objective is to set up a clear organisational structure. The scope defines job roles, organisational structure, and reporting hierarchies to organise HR functions.

3. Staffing

This involves recruiting, selecting, and placing employees to build a qualified workforce. The objective is to attract and retain the right talent and skills that align with job roles. It covers job postings, candidate screenings, interviews, and placement processes.

4. Directing

Directing guides and motivates employees to achieve their potential. The objective is to encourage employees to align efforts with organisational objectives. This involves leadership, communication, supervision, and goal-setting.

5. Coordinating

Coordination ensures seamless collaboration and cohesive operations. The objective is to synchronise HR activities with other departments. It aligns HR processes like training, appraisals, and rewards to support teamwork.

6. Controlling

Controlling, monitoring, and evaluating HR operations to maintain compliance with policies and standards. The objective is to ensure that HR activities adhere to organisational standards and legal regulations. This includes performance monitoring, policy enforcement, and compliance checks.

II. Operative Functions

Operational functions focus on day-to-day activities to smooth and efficient workplace operations.

1. Manpower Planning

This involves predicting and planning for future staffing needs to avoid shortages. The objective is to ensure the organisation has the right workforce size and skill mix. The focus is on workforce forecasting and aligning staffing levels with growth.

2. Recruitment and Selection

R&S manages the processes for attracting and selecting suitable candidates. The objective is to secure qualified employees who align with the organisation's skill requirements and culture. This covers job advertising, screenings, interviews, and selection procedures.

3. Training and Development

T&D focuses on skill enhancement and career growth for employees. The objective is to ensure that, employees have the necessary skills to perform their jobs. The scope includes onboarding, skill-building workshops, and leadership development programs.

4. Compensation

Compensation designs and manages pay structures, benefits, and incentives to retain talent. The objective is to provide competitive rewards that attract and retain employees. The scope involves salary structures, benefits, bonuses, and incentives.

5. Human Relations

HR builds positive employee relationships and maintains a supportive work environment. The objective is to promote a healthy, engaging, and respectful workplace. This covers workplace relationships, conflict resolution, and employee engagement activities.

6. Industrial Relations

HR manages relationships with labour unions and ensures compliance with labour laws. The objective is to foster cooperative and fair union relations, avoiding conflicts. The scope includes collective bargaining, dispute resolution, and compliance with labour regulations.

7. Counselling

HR provides support to employees facing work-related or personal challenges. The objective is to offer guidance and support for employees' mental and emotional wellbeing. The scope includes career guidance, mental health support, and wellness resources.

8. Performance Appraisal

HR evaluates employee performance to foster growth and reward high achievement. The objective is to assess and enhance individual performance through constructive feedback. The scope involves setting performance goals, conducting appraisals, and providing feedback.

9. Career Planning

This helps employees to plan and progress in their careers within the organisation. The objective is to support employees in achieving career growth and improving job satisfaction and retention. The scope includes career pathing, mentoring, and developmental planning.

10. Succession/Exit Planning

HRM prepares for smooth transitions in key positions and manages employee exits. The objective is to ensure continuity in leadership and manage workforce changes. It covers succession planning, knowledge transfer, and exit procedures.

11. Grievance Redressal

HRM handles employee complaints and disputes to maintain a fair work environment. The objective is to address and resolve employee grievances promptly and fairly. This involves grievance procedures and ensures timely, unbiased resolutions.

Evolution of HRM

The history of Human Resource Management is complex and rooted in the development of work and organisation.

1. Slavery System:

In the pre-industrialisation era (1400–1700), workers were seen as labourers with limited rights, performing only basic functions. Feudalism declined, freeing labour from land-based roles, but the creative potential was largely ignored.

2. Labor Market:

The Industrial Revolution shifted economies from agriculture to commerce, creating a labour market with a free employment relationship. Towns grew, a middle class emerged, and early personnel management forms began to develop.

3. Labor as a Factor of Production:

With the second phase of the Industrial Revolution, labour became a commodity in the factory system. This led to low wages, high turnover, and increased labor-management conflicts.

iv. Personnel Management:

In the 18th century, Robert Owen advocated for a humanitarian approach. At the same time, FW Taylor and Henri Fayol's classical management theories laid a foundation for personnel management as a field focused on both efficiency and human relations.

v. Human Resource Management:

The 1920s saw a shift in focus due to Elton Mayo's Hawthorne Studies, showing that productivity improves with better communication, cooperation, and involvement.

Following World War II, trade unions and labour conflicts highlighted the need for a more comprehensive approach to

workforce management, leading to modern Human Resource Management.

Evolution of HRM in India

Starting with the Royal Commission on Labour in 1929, establishing professional institutions shaped HRM into a strategic role in Indian organisations.

i. Royal Commission on Labor (1929):

HRM in India originated with the Royal Commission on Labor, which recommended appointing labour officers, forming trade unions, and implementing worker welfare and labour-management standards.

ii. Trade Unions (Post-Independence):

After independence, the Indian Constitution endorsed a socialistic economy, supporting worker rights through legislation. This led to rapid trade union growth and increased labour rights awareness.

iii. Functional Departments (1970s-1980s):

By the 1970s, organisations began establishing personnel and labour welfare departments. By the late 1980s, traditional personnel management had evolved into Human Resource Management (HRM).

iv. The Factories Act (1948):

This act mandated welfare officers in factories with over 500 employees, outlining their qualifications and duties to improve worker welfare.

v. Professional Institutions (1950s):

Institutes like the Indian Institute of Personnel Management (IIPM) and the National Institute of Labor Management (NILM) were established, eventually merging to form the National Institute of Personnel Management (NIPM).

vi. HRM as a Strategic Role (1990s):

Economic liberalisation brought foreign competition, prompting Indian companies to focus on strategic HRM practices to attract and retain talent.

HRM Vs Personnel Management

- 1) PM is a Conventional System.
- 2) HRM is a Modern system.
- 3) PM follows an administrative and bureaucratic approach.
HRM follows a human relations approach.
- 4) PM focuses on Scientific Management.
HRM focuses on the social and psychological needs.
- 5) PM considers people as factors of production.
HRM consider people as resources.
- 6) PM is reactive. HRM is proactive.
- 7) PM emphasis on rules and regulations.
HRM emphasises results through teamwork
- 8) PM is more rigid
HRM is more flexible.

9) Robert Owen is regarded as the father of PM.

Elton Mayo is the father of HRM.

10) PM is the outcome of the Industrial Revolution

HRM is the outcome of the human relations movement

11) PM is influenced by time and motion studies (1910s)

HRM is the impact of the Hawthorne Experiment (1924).

Qualifications & Qualities of HRM

Like Management, HRM is also not a full-fledged profession. Formal degrees are not a must to become an HR Manager. But these degrees are advisable for career development.

HR Qualifications

Masters degrees and PG Diplomas are offered by Universities.

Masters Degrees:

MBA with a specialisation in HR

MBA with specialisation in HRD¹

MHRM-Master of Human Resource Management²

MHROD -Master of HR and Organisational Development³

MA (HR) –Master of Arts in Human Resource⁴

MSc (HR) – Master of Science in HR

MSc (HRC) - Master of Science in H RM and Consulting⁵

¹ University of Delhi

² Andhra University

³ Indian Institute of Technology (IIT) Bombay

⁴ offered by the University of Madras

⁵ University of Bath, UK.

PG Diploma

PGDHRM –PG Diploma in HRM

PGDHRD - PG Diploma in HR and Organisational Development

Qualities of HRM

An effective HR manager should possess the following skills and qualities:

1. **Creative Thinking:** Ability to approach problems with fresh ideas.
2. **Analytical Skills:** Logical thinking to solve complex issues.
3. **Intelligence:** Using past experience and adapting to new situations.
4. **Presentation Skills:** Ability to clearly present information to different audiences.
5. **Communication Skills:** Strong verbal and written skills.
6. **Negotiation Skills:** Resolving conflicts among employees and management.
7. **Judgment:** Recognising high-quality solutions and ideas.
8. **Execution Skills:** Ability to act on decisions effectively.
9. **Leadership:** Guiding and influencing others.
10. **Listening Skills:** Patience to actively hear employees' concerns.
11. **Motivational Skills:** Inspiring employees to perform well.
12. **Emotional Stability:** Staying calm and balanced under pressure.

13. **Conflict Management:** Handling disputes productively.
14. **Objectivity:** Making unbiased, fair decisions.
15. **Multitasking:** Managing various issues and priorities daily.

HR Policies

Policies are general guidelines to address an issue. HR Policies are formal rules and procedures followed in the company. It dictates how certain matters should be addressed in the workplace.

1. **Prevent Conflicts:** HR policies help avoid conflicts between employees and management.
2. **Legal Protection:** Employees can take legal action if employers violate HR policies.
3. **Ensure Fairness:** Effective policies make sure all employees follow the same rules.
4. **Consistent Enforcement:** Management applies policies consistently, reducing bias.
5. **Prevent Discrimination:** Policies help eliminate any chance of unfair treatment.
6. **Clear Disciplinary Process:** Policies outline a standard approach for handling rule violations.
7. **Expert Input:** Policies should be developed with input from experienced staff and labour lawyers.
8. **Promote Transparency:** Clear policies build trust and transparency within the organisation.
9. **Boost Employee Morale:** Fair and consistent policies increase job satisfaction and morale.

10. **Align with Company Goals:** HR policies support organisational objectives and culture.

Types of HR Policies

I. Based on Origin

1. **Originated Policies:** Created by senior managers to guide team members.
2. **Implicit Policies:** Unwritten policies inferred from managers' behaviour.
3. **Imposed Policies:** Mandatory policies from external bodies like the government, trade unions, or associations.
4. **Appealed Policies:** Policies created upon requests from employees or subordinates.

II. Based on the Function

1. **General Policies:** Broad guidelines not specific to any issue.
2. **Specific Policies:** Target specific areas like recruitment, compensation, or conflict resolution.

III. Based on the Usage

A. Staffing/Hiring Policies

1. **Recruitment and Selection Policies:** Policies related to recruitment, promotion, and transfer aspects.
2. **Placement and Transfer Policies:** Policies related to initial job placement and subsequent transfers based on organizational needs and employee suitability.
3. **Promotion Policies:** Policies governing employee advancement based on merit, performance, and organizational requirements.

4. **Probation Policies:** Policies outlining the probation period and the criteria for assessing employee suitability for confirmation.
5. **Training & Development Policies:** Policies related to enhancing employee skills and competencies through structured learning programs.
6. **VRS/Resignation Policies:** Policies guiding voluntary resignation and retirement, including notice periods and exit procedures.
7. **Termination Policies:** Policies specifying conditions and procedures for termination, including notice requirements and compliance with legal norms.

B. Compensation Policies

1. **Performance & Appraisal Policies**
2. **Wage Policies:** Comply with laws like the Minimum Wages Act and the Equal Remuneration Act.
3. **Benefits Policies:** Cover gratuity, provident fund, pension, etc.

C. Leave Policies

1. **Leave Types:** Casual, Sick, Earned, Maternity, and Paternity Leave.
2. **Public Holidays & Work Weeks**
3. **Vacation and Long Leave Options:** With or without pay, depending on leave type.

D. Service Policies

1. **Employment Contracts:** Can be verbal or written, though written is recommended.

2. **Code of Conduct:** Outlines expected employee behaviour and reporting breaches.
3. **Working Hours & Overtime:** Limits on work hours and overtime pay rates.
4. **Confidentiality Policy:** Safeguarding sensitive company information.
5. **Workplace Safety:** Includes anti-harassment, anti-bribery, equal employment, and substance policies.
6. **Grievance Redressal:** Procedures for resolving employee complaints.
7. **Anti-Bribery Policies:** Set rules to prevent corruption and unethical behaviour in the workplace.
8. **Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Policies:** Ensure fair treatment and prevent discrimination in hiring and promotions.
9. **Workplace Policies on Smoking, Drugs, and Alcohol:** Regulate substance use to maintain a healthy and safe work environment.

Formulation of Policies

There are different stages in the formulation of a policy:

1. **Identify the need:** Identify and acknowledge the problem that needs to be addressed. E.g., there is a need for a policy on remote work or anti-harassment.
2. **Set Objectives:** Clearly define what the policy intends to achieve (e.g., fairness, safety, consistency).
3. **Consultation:** Involve stakeholders such as management, HR professionals, legal advisors, and employee representatives. This ensures policy is practical and inclusive.

4. **Policy Formulation:** Developing solutions to solve the identified problem through policy.
5. **Draft the Policy:** Write the policy in simple, unambiguous language. This includes purpose, scope, responsibilities, procedures, and consequences of violation.
6. **Adoption (Decision Making):** Making a formal decision to approve and adopt the policy.
7. **Implementation:** Putting the policy into action.
8. **Evaluation:** Assessing the policy's effectiveness and making adjustments or modifications if needed.

RESOURCE PLANNING

Resource planning involves determining the necessary resources—such as money, staff, equipment, and advisors—and planning how, when, and where to acquire them to ensure the successful completion of a project.

Resource Loading vs. Resource Levelling

1. **Resource Loading:** The process of assigning resources (people, money, equipment) to specific tasks in the project plan.
2. **Resource Levelling:** The process of adjusting project schedules to ensure resource demands are balanced with available resources, preventing over-allocation.

Human resource (Manpower) planning Concept

HRP is the process of identifying an organisation's current and future human resource needs. It involves job analysis, recruitment, selection, placement, training, and employee benefits.

“HRP is the process of moving an organisation from its current manpower situation to the desired one, ensuring the right people are in the right roles at the right time for long-term benefit to both the organisation and the individuals.” E.W Vetter

“A process to ensure that an organisation has enough qualified people at the right time, doing jobs that meet the organisation's needs and satisfy the individuals.” Dale S. Beach

Strategic HRP

It means working closely with employees to improve job quality, enhance work preservation, and maximise mutual benefits. It also involves key HR activities like hiring, discipline, and payroll. SHRP supports long-term business objectives.

Types of HR planning

There are many types of HRP. They help in managing the workforce effectively at various levels and stages within the organisation.

- a. **Strategic (Long Term) HR Planning:** Aligns the HR needs with the organisation's long-term goals. It ensures that the right talent is in place to support future business strategies.
- b. **Tactical (Short Term) HR Planning:** Focuses on the organisation's short-term goals. It addresses immediate HR needs like recruitment, training, and performance management to meet current operational requirements.
- c. **Operational (Day to Day) HR Planning:** Deals with day-to-day HR activities and ensures the smooth functioning of HR operations, such as staffing, compensation, and employee relations.

- d. **Succession Planning:** Identifies and develops internal candidates to fill key leadership and critical roles in the future. It ensures continuity in leadership and key functions.
- e. **Workforce Planning:** Involves analysing the current workforce, forecasting future human resource needs, and developing strategies to meet those needs, ensuring the organisation has the right number and type of employees.

Steps (Process) in HRP (HR planning process)

“HR planning includes job analysis, estimation, recruitment, selection, placement, training, and employee benefits.” This planning is a process. This forms a systematic approach to HR planning, ensuring the right people are in place to meet organisational goals.

1. Analysing Corporate Strategies

HR planning begins by understanding the company's overall strategies, such as expansion, mergers, or technology changes, to determine whether HR needs to align with these goals.

2. Designing Jobs

Jobs should be designed effectively to meet organisational objectives. This includes job analysis, job design, job descriptions, and job specifications.

3. Demand Forecasting

Based on the organisation's plans, estimate the number and types of employees needed.

4. Analysing HR Supply

Analyse internal (existing employees) and external (new hires from outside) sources to meet the HR demand.

5. Forecasting Manpower Gaps

Compare the forecasted demand and supply to identify if there are any shortages (deficits) or surpluses in manpower.

6. Recruitment

Actively search for candidates and encourage them to apply for roles in the organisation.

7. Selection

Choose the most suitable candidates through interviews, tests, and other selection processes.

8. Placement

Assign selected candidates to specific jobs with appropriate responsibilities and ranks.

9. Training

Provide necessary training to enhance employees' skills and improve their performance.

10. Fixing Remuneration and Benefits

Plan employee salaries and benefits to ensure they are competitive and fit within the organisation's budget.

11. Formulating HR Policies

Develop policies to guide HR practices, such as recruitment, discipline, and performance management.

12. Controlling and Review

Regularly assess and review the effectiveness of the HR plan and adjust strategies as necessary.

Objectives of HRP (Benefits/Need/ importance)

1. It helps to identify the **HR needs** of an organisation through job analysis.
2. It helps estimate the current and future **manpower requirements**, both near and distant.
3. It serves as a link between HRM and the overall **strategic plan** of an organisation.
4. It ensures the **adequate supply of manpower** as and when required.
5. It **ensures proper use of existing human resources** in the organisation.
6. It helps to **assess surplus or shortage**, if any, of human resources available over at a time.
7. It helps to **control** the human resources already deployed in the organisation.
8. It provides **lead time available to select and train** additional human resources.
9. It helps to develop **training and succession planning** for employees and managers.
10. It helps to develop **employee benefit** plans- both monetary and fringe benefits.
11. It also helps to **anticipate the vacancies** that may arise shortly.

12. It helps to provide better planning for **employee development**.
13. National-level HR Planning is required to **eliminate unemployment**:
14. It is required to **minimise the shortage of human resources** and to have **the required skills, qualifications, and capabilities to carry on work**.
15. HRP **ensures a smooth supply of workers without interruption**.
16. **Technological changes and globalisation** require HRP.
17. It helps to **assess the strengths and weaknesses** of its employees to improve the situation.

Levels of HR Planning

The levels of HRP help to ensure that the workforce is aligned with national, sectoral, industrial, and organisational needs.

1. National Level

At this level, the government plans HR. It focuses on population projections, economic development, educational and healthcare facilities, workforce distribution, and migration patterns across industries and regions.

2. Sector Level

HRP is done for various sectors, like agriculture, industry, and services, to forecast the manpower needs within each sector.

3. Industry Level

At this level, HRP is specific to individual industries, such as engineering, textiles, heavy industries, etc., to predict workforce demand for each industry.

4. Industrial Unit Level

This level focuses on the specific manpower needs of a single company or enterprise, determining how many and what types of employees are required.

Problems of HRP/Limitations of HRP

1. **Uncertain Future:** External factors like changes in technology, politics, and culture can impact employment, making HR planning less reliable.
2. **Forecasting Accuracy:** HR planning depends on accurate predictions of workforce demand and supply, which can be difficult to achieve.
3. **Lack of Support from Top Management:** For HRP to succeed, it needs full support from senior leadership.
4. **Job Insecurity:** Actions like layoffs or terminations to balance HR needs can create insecurity and erode employee trust.
5. **Time-Consuming:** Gathering detailed information about staffing requirements across departments can take much time.
6. **Costly:** HR planning can be an expensive process for organisations.
7. **Lack of Planning Culture:** In some regions, like India, HR planning is not widely recognised for its value and is considered unnecessary.

JOB DESIGN

Work: Work is a physical or mental activity that is performed to provide something. It includes all kinds of activities done by an employee.

Job: A job is a bundle of related tasks/works. It is performed in exchange for a specific fee for payment.

E.g. An occupation, profession, career or task.

Job Design

Job design is organising tasks and responsibilities to create a specific job role. It involves defining an employee's duties, authority, decision-making power, satisfaction, and productivity. Job design follows job analysis, Job Description, Job Specification, and Job Evaluation.

Job design defines roles; job analysis provides detailed information; job descriptions describe the role; job specifications outline qualifications; and job evaluation determines the job's value.

1. **Job Analysis:** Collecting information about the job to understand the tasks, responsibilities, environment, required skills, and tools. This helps create job descriptions and specifications and determine job value for pay and evaluation. Key areas of Job design include:

- **Duties and Tasks:** Information about what tasks are done, how often, and with what tools.
- **Environment:** Conditions under which the job is performed (e.g., physical requirements, risks).
- **Tools and Equipment:** Tools needed for the job.
- **Relationships:** Internal and external interactions.
- **KSA: Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities** required for the job.

The purpose of job analysis includes job design and redesign, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance

management, compensation and benefits, legal compliance, health and safety, and career planning.

2. **Job Description:** A detailed statement describing the job title, duties, location, equipment, supervision, and work conditions. It's based on the information gathered during job analysis.
3. **Job Specification:** A statement of the qualifications, skills, and knowledge required to perform the job effectively. It is derived from the job analysis.
4. **Job Evaluation:** Determining the value of each job to decide the rank, category, and pay scale. This is based on the job description and job specification.

Factors Affecting Job Design

Organisational structure, technology and tools, employee skills and abilities, work environment, workplace culture, nature of the job, job requirements, health and safety considerations, employee motivation and satisfaction, managerial philosophy, and external factors (e.g., labour laws, economic conditions) influence job design.

Methods of Job Analysis

Observation, job participation, interview, questionnaire, checklist, technical conference, diary method, critical incident technique, position analysis questionnaire (PAQ), functional job analysis (FJA), employee/manager feedback, etc., are used for job analysis.

Methods/techniques of job design

1. **Work Simplification:** Breaking a job into smaller tasks and assigning each to a worker, increasing productivity by focusing on specific duties.

2. **Job Rotation:** Moving employees between similar jobs to reduce boredom, broaden skills, and increase competency in various roles.
3. **Job Enrichment:** Adding more meaningful tasks to a job, giving employees more decision-making, planning, and control, making the work more engaging and challenging.
4. **Job Enlargement:** Expanding the job by adding more tasks of the same level, providing variety and increasing job scope.
5. **Task Identity:** Designing jobs so employees can see a complete product or outcome gives them a sense of accomplishment.
6. **Task Significance:** Ensuring the job clearly impacts others or the organisation, enhancing the employee's sense of purpose.
7. **Autonomy:** Giving employees more control over how and when they do their work, increases motivation and satisfaction.
8. **Skill Variety:** Designing jobs requires a range of skills, helping employees stay engaged and reducing monotony.
9. **Work Team Design:** Creating teams, collaborating on tasks, improving efficiency, creativity, and problem-solving.
10. **Ergonomic Design:** Designing jobs to fit employees' physical capabilities, reducing discomfort and increasing efficiency.
11. **Flexible Work Schedules:** Flexible working hours or remote work options allow employees to better balance work and personal life.

Methods of HR Demand Forecasting

Forecasting of quality and quantity of human resources is done through the following methods: -

1. Executive or Managerial Judgment: Managers estimate future HR needs based on their experience, often involving guesswork. This method can be approached in three ways:

- a) **Bottom-Up Approach:** Supervisors propose the number of employees needed, which is then adjusted and finalised by management.
- b) **Top-Down Approach:** Management sets the HR requirements, which lower-level employees then refine and finalise.
- c) **Participative Approach:** Both supervisors and management collaborate to determine HR projections through joint consultations.

2. Statistical Techniques: These methods use statistical and mathematical tools to predict future HR supply and demand, offering a more data-driven approach.

3. Ratio-Trend Analysis: Historical data on employee numbers and workload levels are used to create ratios for each department. These ratios are extrapolated to project future HR requirements.

4. Work Study Method: This method focuses on the correlation between work volume and labour needs. It is useful for repetitive or manual jobs where work can be measured and standardised.

5. Delphi Technique: Gathering insights from a panel of experts to form a consensus on future HR needs. It is mainly used for long-term HR forecasting.

6. Computerised Models: These involve the use of software to simulate HR demands based on variables such as growth rates, turnover, and other organisational factors.

7. **Scenario Planning:** Forecasting HR needs based on various future scenarios (e.g., economic changes, technological advancements) to prepare for different possibilities.

8. **Trend Analysis:** Involves examining historical patterns in employee numbers and organisational growth to predict future HR demand based on past trends.

Recruitment, Selection, Placement, & Training

Recruitment, selection, placement, and training are key HR processes that help organizations hire the right people, assign them suitable roles, and develop their skills for effective **performance**.

Recruitment is the process of attracting candidates, selection is choosing the most suitable candidate from the pool, **placement** involves assigning the selected candidate to the appropriate job role, and **training** is providing the necessary skills and knowledge to perform the job effectively.

Recruitment

Recruitment is attracting, selecting, and appointing suitable candidates for an organisation's job. It involves identifying new employees' needs, finding potential candidates, and assessing their suitability for specific roles.

William Byars & Rue states, "Recruitment involves finding and attracting a group of people from whom qualified candidates can be selected to fill job vacancies."

Sources of recruitment

There are internal and external sources of recruitment. Organizations choose between the sources based on factors like the urgency of the vacancy, availability of qualified internal candidates, cost of hiring,

need for fresh talent or new ideas, and the organization's promotion or growth policies.

Internal sources	External sources
Employee Movement 1. Promotions 2. Transfers 3. Deputation 4. Employee Redeployment Work Arrangement 5. Work Arrangement 6. Succession Planning Employee Recommendations 7. Employee Referrals 8. Retrenched Employees 9. Retired Employees Internal Mobility 10. Internal Job Postings	Online Platforms 1. Job Portals and Websites 2. Online Agencies 3. Career Links on Company Websites 4. Social Media (LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter) Agencies and Consultants 5. Recruitment Agencies 6. Private Employment Agencies/Consultants 7. Headhunters Networking and Referrals 8. Employee Referrals 9. Relatives/Friends of Present Employees 10. Professional Associations 11. Trade Unions Direct Recruitment Methods 12. Campus Recruitment

	13. Job Fairs 14. Walk-ins Employment Exchanges 15. Public Employment Agencies 16. Public Employment Exchanges
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Innovative Recruitment Methods/Techniques

IRM refers to creative, new approaches that organisations use to attract, identify, and hire talent. These methods go beyond traditional recruitment techniques.

Technology-Driven Methods

1. **AI and Chatbots:** Screening candidates using AI tools.
2. **Predictive Analytics:** Using data to predict candidate success.
3. **Mobile Recruiting:** Facilitating applications and communication via mobile apps.
4. **Virtual Reality (VR):** Allows candidates to virtually explore the job environment or experience real job tasks.
5. **Augmented Reality (AR):** Provide a virtual workplace tour or show job-related tasks in real-time.

Interactive and Engagement-Based Methods

6. **Gamification:** Assessing candidates through games and challenges.

7. **Hackathons and Competitions:** Organising challenges to spot talents on real-world performance.
8. **Social Media Recruiting:** Using platforms like LinkedIn, Twitter, and Instagram.

Employee-Centric Methods

9. **Employee Referral Programs:** Encourage employees to refer candidates with incentives.
10. **Crowdsourcing:** Getting employees or the public to suggest candidates.
11. **Influencer Recruiting:** Partnering with influencers to attract candidates.

Candidate Pooling Methods

12. **Talent Pools:** Database of pre-qualified candidates for future roles

Selection

Choosing the right candidates from the pool of applicants is termed a selection. The goal is to identify candidates who best match the job requirements and fit the organisational culture.

Steps in the selection process/ Recruitment Process

- 1) **Job Analysis:** Define the job requirements, responsibilities, and qualifications needed for the role.
- 2) **Sourcing Candidates:** Attract candidates through internal or external recruitment methods.
- 3) **Screening of Applications:** Review resumes and applications to shortlist candidates based on qualifications and experience.

- 4) **Initial Interview:** Conduct a preliminary interview (phone or video) to assess candidates' basic skills and suitability.
- 5) **Testing:** Administer tests (skills, personality, cognitive) to evaluate candidates' abilities and potential.
- 6) **In-depth Interview:** Conduct face-to-face or detailed interviews to assess deeper qualities like problem-solving skills, experience, and cultural fit.
- 7) **Background Checks:** Verify candidates' references, employment history, and criminal record to ensure accuracy and integrity.
- 8) **Job Offer:** Make a formal job offer to the selected candidate, including compensation details.
- 9) **Onboarding:** Once the candidate accepts, begin onboarding to integrate them into the company.

Selection Techniques

Selection techniques are required to assess candidates' skills, qualifications, and fit for the role and organisation.

1. Interviews:

- a) **Structured Interviews:** The interviewer follows a set of predetermined questions for each candidate, ensuring consistency and fairness.
- b) **Unstructured Interviews:** More informal and conversational, allowing the interviewer to ask questions based on responses from the candidate.
- c) **Panel Interviews:** A group of interviewers evaluates the candidate, providing diverse perspectives.

d) **Stress Interview:** It assesses how a candidate handles pressure, stress, and challenging situations. The aim is not to intimidate the candidate but to evaluate their emotional resilience, problem-solving abilities, confidence, and behaviour under pressure.

In a stress interview:

The interviewer may act hostile, interrupt frequently, and ask rapid-fire or tricky questions. Situations may be created to make the candidate feel uncomfortable or confused.

It is often used for jobs that involve high-pressure environments, like sales, law enforcement, or customer service.

Example:

An interviewer may remain silent for long periods or challenge everything the candidate says to see how they react.

Advantages: Personal interaction provides insight into a candidate's communication skills, personality, and suitability for the role.

Disadvantages: This may be influenced by interviewer bias, and candidates may not always perform well in an interview setting.

2. Psychometric Testing:

a) **Personality Tests:** Assess the candidate's characteristics, preferences, and interpersonal behaviours.

b) **Aptitude Tests:** Measure the candidate's ability to perform specific tasks or solve problems (e.g., numerical reasoning, verbal reasoning).

c) **Skills Tests:** Assess specific technical or job-related skills (e.g., programming, typing speed).

Advantages: Provides an objective measure of a candidate's abilities and personality, helping reduce bias in hiring decisions.

Disadvantages: It may not fully reflect a candidate's on-the-job performance, and candidates may sometimes prepare to answer in a way that doesn't represent their true abilities.

3. Group Discussions:

A group of candidates is given a topic to discuss, and their communication, teamwork, and problem-solving abilities are evaluated.

Advantages: Helps assess a candidate's ability to work in a team, leadership skills, and how they handle pressure.

Disadvantages: Some candidates may dominate the discussion, making it harder to evaluate everyone fairly.

4. Assessment Centers:

A series of exercises, simulations, and tests designed to assess candidates' behaviour, decision-making skills, and potential for success in the role.

Advantages: Provides a comprehensive view of a candidate's capabilities in different situations.

Disadvantages: Expensive and time-consuming for the organisation to implement.

5. Work Samples/Job Simulations:

Candidates perform tasks or complete projects similar to those they would be doing in the actual role.

Advantages: Directly assesses job-related skills and capabilities.

Disadvantages: It can be time-consuming for both the candidate and the employer, and not all roles can be simulated effectively.

6. Reference Checks:

Contacting the candidate's previous employers or colleagues to verify their work history, performance, and behaviour.

Advantages: Provides external validation of a candidate's qualifications and experience.

Disadvantages: References may not always provide unbiased feedback, and candidates may give only professional references that are likely to provide positive feedback.

7. Background Checks:

Verifying the candidate's education, work experience, criminal record, credit history, etc., to ensure they meet the required qualifications and standards.

Advantages: Helps reduce the risk of hiring unqualified or dishonest candidates.

Disadvantages: It can be invasive and time-consuming, and candidates may be uncomfortable with the process.

Placement

Placement is assigning a selected candidate to a job role in the organisation. It is a process of assigning a specific job to each selected candidate. It involves assigning a specific rank and responsibility to an individual. It includes:

1. **Assigning the Role:** Placing the candidate in the right job.
2. **Job Responsibilities:** Explaining what the job entails.
3. **Orientation:** Introducing the employee to company policies and culture.
4. **Training:** Providing necessary skills and knowledge for the role.
5. **Support:** Offering feedback and helping the employee succeed

Induction

Induction is introducing the organisation to the new employee. It involves familiarising the new hire with the company's culture, policies, work environment, and their specific role. The focus is on helping the employee understand how the organisation operates, what is expected of them, and how they can integrate smoothly into the team.

Key Elements of Induction

1. Introduction to the Organization

- a) **Company Overview:** Sharing the organisation's history, values, ethics, philosophy, and mission.
- b) **Organisational Structure:** Explaining the organisational structure, departmental layout, interfaces, and key personnel roles.
- c) **Workplace Environment:** Overview of basic amenities (washrooms, food, parking, restricted areas, etc.), emergency procedures, and safety measures.
- d) **Employment Policies:** Pay, absenteeism, holidays, health insurance, pensions, security, dress codes, rights, and legal issues.
- e) **Health and Safety:** Emergency procedures, accident reporting, use of personal protective equipment, first aid, and other safety guidelines.

2. Job and Departmental Induction

- a) **Role-Specific Information:** Job description, duties, authority, scope, and expectations.

- b) **Team and Department Introduction:** Introduction to the local departmental structure, team members, personalities, and departmental functions.
- c) **Work Processes:** Explain workflow, customer service standards, departmental protocols, or unwritten rules.
- d) **Resources and Tools:** Use job-specific equipment, tools, materials, and storage procedures.
- e) **Support and Guidance:** Information on where to go for help, who to contact for support, and other resources available.

3. Policies and Procedures

- a) **Company Policies:** Review time and attendance systems, sickness, holidays, grievance procedures, and discipline procedures.
- b) **Legal Rights and Benefits:** Rights, legal issues, trade unions, career paths, training, and development opportunities.

4. Workplace Tour and Team Introduction

- a) **Office Tour:** To familiarise with the office layout, departments, and key areas.
- b) **Introducing Colleagues:** Introduction to colleagues and managers and their roles.

5. Training and Development

- a) **Job-Specific Training:** Providing tools, training, and resources to perform their job effectively.
- b) **Development Opportunities:** Offering learning opportunities, mentoring, career paths, appraisals, and rewards systems.

Objectives of Induction

1. **Familiarise employees:** Help them understand the company's culture, values, and structure.
2. **Clarify Roles:** Explain job responsibilities and expectations.
3. **Ease Transition:** Make employees feel comfortable and confident in their new role.
4. **Boost Engagement:** Make employees feel welcome and valued.
5. **Reduce Stress:** Provide clear information to ease any worries.
6. **Ensure Compliance:** Teach company policies and safety rules.
7. **Build Connections:** Introduce employees to colleagues and managers.
8. **Increase Productivity:** Give employees the tools and knowledge to start working effectively.

Succession Planning

This is identifying and developing future leaders to replace current leaders when they leave, retire, or pass away. It ensures leadership continuity, preventing power struggles and disruptions. The goal is to recruit and nurture employees to fill key organisational roles.

Principles of Recruitment

1. **Fairness:** It should be unbiased, ensuring equal opportunities for all candidates.
2. **Transparency:** The process should be clear, with open communication about job requirements and expectations.

3. **Job Fit:** Candidates should be selected based on their qualifications, skills, and experience, which match the job requirements.
4. **Timeliness:** Recruitment should be conducted efficiently to fill vacancies without delays.
5. **Confidentiality:** Candidates' personal information should be kept private.
6. **Legal Compliance:** The recruitment process should follow all relevant labour laws and regulations.
7. **Diversity and Inclusion:** Efforts should be made to recruit diverse candidates.
8. **Cost-effectiveness:** The recruitment process should be cost-effective, balancing quality with budget considerations.
9. **Consistency:** The same standards and procedures should be applied to all candidates to ensure fairness.

Realistic philosophy of recruitment:

This refers to providing candidates with a clear, honest, and accurate depiction of the job and work environment. This philosophy emphasises transparency about the role's positive and challenging aspects to help candidates make an informed decision. It aims to align candidates' expectations with the reality of the job, reducing turnover and improving job satisfaction.

Factors affecting recruitment

Nature of business, size of the organisation, recruitment policy, financial strength of the organisation, growth and expansion plans, brand of the organisation, industry practices, prevailing laws, availability of suitable candidates, organisational culture, economic

conditions, technological advancements, employee benefits and compensation, competition, recruitment channels, location, leadership and management, workforce demographics, job market trends, etc. are the factors affecting recruitment.

Concept of Training

The process of imparting specific skills. It is enhancing employees' skills, knowledge, and competencies to improve their performance in their current job roles. It involves planned activities designed to develop specific skills or knowledge needed for their tasks, enhance productivity, and prepare them for future responsibilities. Training aims to improve job performance, increase efficiency, and ensure employees meet the organisation's objectives.

Need and Importance of Training

1. **Skill Development:** Helps employees to acquire or improve job-specific skills.
2. **Improved Performance:** Helps to enhance the overall productivity of employees.
3. **Adaptation to Change:** Prepares employees to adapt to technological advancements and industry trends.
4. **Employee Motivation:** Provides employees the confidence to perform well, increasing job satisfaction and motivation.
5. **Increased Employee Retention:** Training contributes to career development and increases job satisfaction.
6. **Boosts Organizational Growth:** Trained employees contribute to the growth by improving innovation, quality, and customer satisfaction.

7. **Compliance and Safety:** Ensure employees are aware of legal and safety standards.
8. **Succession Planning:** Prepares employees for higher responsibilities.
9. **Reduces Supervision:** Trained employees are more self-sufficient, reducing the need for constant supervision.
10. **Cost Efficiency:** While training involves cost, reducing errors can lead to cost savings.

Organisation and Management of Training Function

This involves assessing training needs, designing programs, allocating resources, selecting trainers, delivering training, monitoring progress, evaluating effectiveness, providing post-training support, and ensuring continuous improvement.

1. **Training Needs Assessment:** Identify skill gaps and determine the training requirements to align with organisational goals.
2. **Designing the Training Program:** Create clear objectives and contents and select the right training methods to address the identified needs.
3. **Resource Allocation:** Ensure sufficient resources like budget, tools, and personnel are available for effective training delivery.
4. **Trainer Selection:** Choose qualified trainers based on expertise and the training requirements.
5. **Training Delivery:** Conduct the training using selected methods to engage employees and facilitate learning.

6. **Monitoring and Evaluation:** Track progress and assess the effectiveness of the training program through feedback and performance metrics.
7. **Post-Training Support:** Provide ongoing support to reinforce training and encourage skill application.
8. **Continuous Improvement:** Gather feedback and regularly update training programs to meet evolving needs and industry trends.

Training Methods and Techniques

Training methods are techniques used to impart knowledge and skills to employees. By combining on-the-job and off-the-job methods, organisations can provide comprehensive training in both practical skills and theoretical knowledge.

They are broadly classified into two categories:

A. On-the-Job Training (OJT)

On-the-job training takes place while the employee is working. This method is crucial for hands-on learning.

Methods of On-the-Job Training:

1. **Induction Training:** Induction introduces the organisation to new employees. It involves familiarising the new hire with the company's culture, policies, work environment, and their specific role.
2. **Orientation Training:** This is a longer-term process that helps new employees to familiarise themselves with the company's culture, policies, and procedures.
3. **Job Rotation:** This involves moving employees from one role to another to gain experience across different job functions.

4. **Coaching:** A supervisor or mentor provides continuous guidance, feedback, and support to help employees improve their skills and performance.

5. **Job Instructions (Step-by-Step Training):** The trainer demonstrates how to perform a task and then guides the trainee through it step-by-step, offering corrections as needed.

6. **Committee Assignments:** A group of trainees works together to solve an organisational problem, promoting teamwork and collaborative decision-making.

7. **Mentoring:** A mentor guides a less experienced employee, builds trust and provides career advice, feedback, and development support.

8. **Apprenticeship:** A formal system of training in which a trainee works under the guidance of an experienced professional while also receiving classroom instruction.

9. **Internship:** A temporary work experience, often for students or recent graduates, where employees gain practical skills and knowledge while being exposed to the workplace environment.

10. **Vestibule Training (Near-the-job Training):** A separate training space, often designed to mimic the actual work environment, trains employees without the pressure of actual work. E.g., pilot or cabin crew training.

11. **Programmed Instruction (PI):** A self-paced learning method where employees proceed through training materials at their own pace, often used for teaching machine operators.

B. Off-the-Job Training

Off-the-job training involves learning that takes place outside the work environment. It focuses on theoretical knowledge and skills development.

Methods of Off-the-Job Training:

1. **Case Study Method:** Trainees analyse real-world business problems and develop potential solutions.
2. **Role Play:** Trainees simulate real-life situations by assuming roles, interacting with others, and reflecting on their performance. This encourages empathy and problem-solving skills.
3. **In-basket Method:** Trainees are given a "basket" of tasks, such as complaints, memos, or reports, to prioritise, delegate, and respond to within a set time. This helps develop situational judgment and decision-making.
4. **Business/Management Games:** Employees are divided into teams and assigned simulated tasks to apply their learning to make decisions about production, marketing, pricing, etc.
5. **Grid Training:** Focuses on two key management behaviours: concern for people and concern for production. It involves teamwork, decision-making, and coordination to improve management skills.
6. **Outbound Training:** Employees are taken out of the work environment to participate in experiential learning activities, often outdoors, to build teamwork, problem-solving, and leadership skills.
7. **Simulation:** Trainees use specially designed equipment or software to practice job tasks in a safe, controlled environment that

mirrors real-world situations. For example, flight simulators for pilots.

8. **Sensitivity Training:** This program helps employees understand how to interact respectfully with others, fostering a positive workplace culture free from discrimination, harassment, and bullying.

9. **Conferences:** A group of individuals meet to discuss specific topics. Conferences promote idea exchange, problem-solving, and networking.

10. **Lectures:** A traditional method where an instructor delivers information to a group, often used in theoretical subjects. However, it can lack interactivity and engagement.

11. **Brainstorming:** A group activity where participants contribute ideas without judgment. It encourages creative thinking and problem-solving.

12. **Refresher Training:** Designed for existing employees to update them on new skills, technologies, or procedures, ensuring their skills remain current and relevant.

13. **Video-Based Training:** Utilises films, TV shows, or other audiovisual tools to convey information, often more engagingly and memorably than traditional methods.

Attitudinal Training

Attitude is a person's mental and emotional outlook toward people, objects, events, or situations. This shapes how they feel, think, and act toward something. Attitudes can be positive, negative, or neutral.

Attitudinal Training is a process to improve or change people's attitudes. The objective is to think positively and handle situations effectively.

Methods of Attitudinal Training include role plays, group discussions, self-reflection, case studies, workshops, seminars, positive reinforcement, feedback, etc. Short stories, the Jigsaw Method, Fish Bowl Exercise, Sensitivity Training, etc., are also techniques used to change attitudes.

Technical training

Technical training teaches the skills needed to do a specific job. This includes the skills of using tools, machines, software, etc.

Methods of Induction:

1. **Formal Induction:** Structured program with presentations, HR sessions, facility tours, etc.
2. **Informal Induction:** On-the-job introduction by supervisors or colleagues without a set plan.
3. **Individual Induction:** Tailored orientation for each employee, especially at higher levels.
4. **Group Induction:** Used when onboarding multiple employees together.
5. **E-Induction:** Online onboarding using digital tools and videos (common in hybrid/remote settings).

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Section A. Weight 1

1. What do you mean by Human Resource Management? 2017, 2016
2. What is a Human Resource Specialist? 2017
3. Why study Human Resource Management? 2016, 2013,
4. Define/What is HRM? 2015
5. What is Personnel Management? 2015
6. What are the basic functions of a human resource manager? 2014
7. What are the objectives of HRM? 2013
8. Describe Human resource functions. 2013
9. State the challenges faced by an HR Manager. 2013
10. Define Human Resources. 2012
11. Describe human resource activities. 2012
12. State the difference between HRM and personnel management.
2012
13. Define HR Policy 2022
14. What is a stress interview? 2022

Section B Weight 2

1. Is Human Resource Management a profession? Explain. 2017
2. Explain the role of the Human Resource Manager. 2017
3. Write down the responsibilities of the HR manager. 2018
4. State the importance of Human Resource Management. 2016
5. Explain the qualities of a Human Resource Manager. 2016

6. What are the qualifications and qualities of a good HR manager?
2018
7. Describe the scope of Human Resource Management. 2015
8. What are the most important functions of Personnel Management? 2015
9. Discuss the needs and limitations of HRM. 2014
10. Discuss the managerial and operative functions of Personnel Management. 2014
11. Human Resource Management plays a vital role in the whole system of management of an industrial organisation. Explain.
2013
12. "All executives must unavoidably be personnel managers." Explain the statement. 2013
13. Describe the different methods of induction. 2023

Section C Weight 5

1. What are the various functions of human resource management?
2017, 2016,
2. "Personnel management is not a fire fighting function, but an integral part of total management." Discuss. 2014
3. Explain the features of HRM. 2018
4. "Human resource management involves two categories of functions- management and operative" Describe these functions.
2022
5. "A job must be designed in such a way that it satisfies the higher order needs of the employees." Discuss the methods of job design based on the given statement. 2022

TACKLING ANALYTICAL QUESTIONS

E.g. 1: Personnel management is not a firefighting function but an integral part of total management.

Covered Under:

- Differences and relationship between Personnel Management and HRM

Build your answer by:

- Defining personnel management
- Explaining what "fire-fighting" means (reactive)
- Showing how HRM is proactive, strategic, and integrated into all areas of management
- Using examples like workforce planning, training, and organisational development

E.g. 2: A job must be designed to satisfy higher-order needs..."

Discuss methods of job design.

Covered Under:

- Job Design Methods are part of your notes
- Concepts of motivation and employee satisfaction are also indirectly discussed

Build your answer:

- Begin with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (higher-order = esteem & self-actualisation)
- Then, move to job design methods:
 - Job Enlargement, Job Enrichment, Job Rotation
 - Team-based job design, Socio-technical systems approach

Emphasise how each method meets the psychological/motivational needs of employees.

MODULE 2

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

- 2.1 Concept of HRD
- 2.2 Qualities of an HRD Manager
- 2.3 Employee Counselling
- 2.4 Impact of TQM, Quality Circles, and Kaizen
- 2.5 Performance appraisal
- 2.6 Job Evaluation

Human Resource Development

HRD is concerned with improving the employees' skills, knowledge, and confidence to contribute their best to the organisation's success. It attempts to improve current and future employee performance by increasing an employee's ability.

“HRD is the process of increasing knowledge, skills, capabilities and positive work attitude and values of all people working at all levels in a business organisation”. M.N. Khan

Training: The process of imparting specific skills. It is the application of knowledge that provides job experience.

Education: Theoretical learning in the classroom.

Development: Development is the formal man-making mechanism. Development is a process that helps people to improve their knowledge and skills in a structured way. It transforms an organisation into a vibrant human system.

L Nadler and RA Megginson define HRD as: "a series of organised activities, conducted within a specified time and designed to produce behavioural change."

Need and Objectives of HRD

HRD addresses challenges like skill gaps, new technology, and workplace changes while helping employees and the organisation achieve growth and success.

1. **Identify and Develop Talents:** Discover and develop hidden skills in employees.
2. **Close Skills Gaps:** Fix weaknesses in employees' knowledge or abilities.

3. **Improve Performance:** Help employees perform better and meet higher standards.
4. **Build Key Skills:** Teach employees what they need for their current and future roles.
5. **Adapt to Technology and New Jobs:** Train employees for new technology and job roles.
6. **Handle Change:** Prepare employees to adapt to organisational changes smoothly.
7. **Align Goals:** Match employees' personal growth with the organisation's objectives.
8. **Encourage Continuous Learning:** Create a workplace that promotes ongoing learning and improvement.
9. **Meet Customer Needs:** Equip employees to satisfy changing customer demands.
10. **Support Career Growth:** Provide opportunities for employees to advance in their careers.
11. **Boost Productivity:** Improve work efficiency while ensuring high quality.
12. **Respond to Policy Changes:** Train employees to adjust to new policies.
13. **Stay Competitive:** Make the organisation adaptable and innovative to succeed in a competitive market.

HRD – Mechanism

HRD mechanisms are tools and processes that help employees grow, improve their skills, and contribute to the organisation's success.

1. **Career Planning:** A structured, lifelong process that helps employees assess their strengths, explore opportunities, and grow professionally.
2. **Performance Appraisal:** Regular evaluation of employee abilities and contributions to identify strengths, weaknesses, and development areas.
3. **Rewards and Recognition:** Motivating employees through monetary and non-monetary rewards based on performance evaluations.
4. **Potential Appraisal:** Identifying employee capabilities to predict and prepare for future roles and contributions.
5. **Training:** Providing specific skills and knowledge to enhance current job performance.
6. **Development:** Focusing on long-term personal and organisational growth, including skills, attitudes, and adaptability.
7. **Feedback Mechanisms:** Continuous assessment and communication are needed to understand employee performance, needs, and areas for improvement.
8. **Employee Welfare:** Providing facilities and support beyond remuneration to improve work-life balance and wellbeing.

Assumptions of HRD

1. **Most valuable asset:** People are the most valuable asset in an organisation.
2. **Lifelong process:** Development is a continuous and lifelong process.

3. **Leads to Growth:** Learning leads to growth, both personally and professionally.
4. **Adapting to Changes:** Organisations must adapt to changing environments, and HRD helps this adaptation.
5. **Self-motivated:** Employees are motivated to learn and improve their skills with the right opportunities.
6. **Creation of a win-win Situation:** HRD benefits both individuals and the organisation by creating a win-win situation.
7. **The uniqueness of Individuals:** Different individuals require different approaches to development.

HRM Vs HRD

HRM is more focused on the administration and management of human resources in the organisation. HRD is focused on the development and growth of employees to foster future leadership and skill enhancement.

1. Focus:

HRM focuses on managing human resources to meet organisational needs.

HRD focuses on developing employees' skills, knowledge, and competencies.

2. Primary Goal:

HRM is to maximise employee performance.

HRD enhances employees' abilities and prepares them for future roles.

3. **Scope:**

HRM is administrative and operational functions related to employees.

HRD is developmental, focusing on education, training, and career growth.

4. **Key Activities:**

HRM includes recruitment, selection, payroll, compliance, and performance management.

HRD is training, leadership development, career planning, and succession planning.

5. **Objectives:**

HRM efficiently manage the workforce, ensures legal compliance, and maintains smooth operations.

HRD is to empower employees for personal and professional growth,

6. **Time Frame:**

HRM is a short-term and ongoing task used to maintain the workforce.

HRD is a long-term focus on employee development and growth over time.

7. **Approach:**

HRM is transactional, dealing with day-to-day management.

HRD is transformational, focusing on employee potential and organisational growth.

8. Examples of Practices:

HRM- Hiring, employee relations, payroll, benefits administration.

HRD- Employee training programs, leadership training, mentoring, succession planning.

Qualities of HRD Manager

An HRD manager is key to supporting employee growth, improving efficiency, and building a positive workplace culture. Their qualities help create a strong learning environment, ensuring both employee satisfaction and organisational success.

1. **Communication Skills:** Ability to clearly convey ideas and listen effectively.
2. **Leadership Skills:** Inspires and guides employees to achieve organisational goals.
3. **Interpersonal Skills:** Builds strong relationships and resolves conflicts effectively.
4. **Decision-Making Skills:** Analyses situations and makes sound, timely decisions.
5. **Strategic Thinking:** Plans for long-term growth and aligns HR goals with goals.
6. **Empathy:** Understands and addresses employee concerns with compassion.
7. **Adaptability:** Quickly adjusts to changes in workplace dynamics or policies.

8. **Organisational Skills:** Manages multiple tasks efficiently and meets deadlines.
9. **Technical Knowledge:** Familiar with HR tools and technologies.
10. **Problem-Solving Skills:** Identifies challenges and implements practical solutions.
11. **Strong Technical Skills:** Including expertise in performance and potential appraisal, designing and executing training programs, career planning, and counselling.
12. **Managerial skills:** Skills in organising activities, coordinating effectively, motivating others, and managing change with expertise.
13. **Key personality traits** include initiative, faith in people's abilities, a positive attitude towards others, creativity, and a deep concern for excellence.

Principles of HRD

Principles are fundamental guidelines or rules that serve as the foundation for behaviour actions. Enhancing employee satisfaction and capability can ensure adherence to these principles of organisational success.

1. **Organisational Growth:** HRD strategies should support the mission and objectives of the organisation.
2. **Continuous Learning:** Foster a culture of ongoing personal and professional development.
3. **Employee-Centric Approach:** Focus on the growth and wellbeing of employees.

4. **Mutual Benefit:** Ensure HRD initiatives benefit both employees and the organisation.
5. **Inclusivity and Equity:** Provide equal growth opportunities and avoid discrimination.
6. **Flexibility:** Adapt HRD practices to changing needs and environments.
7. **Performance Orientation:** Link training and development efforts to improve employee performance.
8. **Empowerment:** Enable employees to take responsibility and initiative.
9. **Collaboration:** Promote teamwork and partnerships within and across departments.
10. **Evaluation and Feedback:** Regularly assess the effectiveness of HRD programs and make improvements based on feedback.

Employee Counselling

Employee counselling is a process that helps employees overcome personal or work-related issues. It involves listening to their concerns, understanding their problems, and offering guidance or solutions. It aims to provide guidance, improve morale, and resolve challenges effectively. Addressing emotional and technical challenges ensures a healthier and more productive work environment.

Employee Counselling - Concepts

Emotional and professional support, a problem-solving approach (rather than blaming), the well-being of employees, confidentiality, and constructive outcomes are the foundations for employee

counselling. This helps to create a positive and supportive workplace.

Employee Counselling – Need

Employee counselling is essential for maintaining a harmonious, productive, and mentally healthy workforce. Certain circumstances demand employee counselling:

1. **Poor Performance:** When an employee's performance declines due to personal or emotional issues, counselling can help to identify and resolve the underlying causes.
2. **Workplace Stress:** Employees struggling with stress or pressure may need counselling to cope with work-related challenges and regain balance.
3. **Interpersonal Conflicts:** When employees face conflicts with co-workers, counselling helps mediate and improve relationships.
4. **Emotional Issues:** Personal challenges such as grief, anxiety, or depression that affect an employee's focus require counselling.
5. **Adaptation to Change:** Employees having difficulty with organisational changes, new roles, or a shifting work environment can benefit from counselling.
6. **Low Job Satisfaction:** When employees show signs of disengagement, dissatisfaction, or loss of motivation, counselling can help to address the issues.
7. **Career Development Concerns:** Employees uncertain about career progression, skills development, or role clarity may seek counselling.

8. **Health-Related Issues:** Employees facing physical health problems or a poor work-life balance can benefit from counselling.
9. **Behavioural Problems:** If employees exhibit negative behaviours affecting team dynamics, counselling can help.
10. **Substance Abuse:** Employees struggling with addiction (alcohol, drugs, etc.) that affects their work performance or health may need counselling to recover.

Employee Counselling - Forms

Different counselling methods are used based on the employee's needs and the situation. They include:

1. **Directive Counselling:** The counsellor gives clear advice and solutions to the employee.
2. **Non-Directive Counselling:** The counsellor listens and helps employees find solutions.
3. **Supportive Counselling:** Focuses on providing emotional support during difficult times.
4. **Career Counselling:** Helps employees plan and develop their careers.
5. **Problem-Solving Counselling:** Helps employees identify problems and find ways to solve them.
6. **Crisis Counselling:** Provides immediate support during urgent or traumatic situations.
7. **Performance Counselling:** Addresses work performance issues and guide improvement.

8. **Peer Counselling:** Employees help each other by offering support and advice.
9. **Group Counselling:** Employees with similar issues discuss and solve problems together.
10. **Desensitisation:** A method to reduce fear or phobias by gradually replacing the fear response with relaxation through controlled exposure.
11. **Catharsis:** A technique to release pent-up emotions or tension. It can involve activities like music, art, writing, or even using a punching bag to express feelings.
12. **Insight Counselling:** The counsellor helps employees understand how past experiences and unconscious feelings affect their current behaviour and mindset. The goal is to achieve greater self-awareness and freedom to make better choices.

Employee Counselling - Steps

The steps in employee counselling can be summarised as follows:

1. **Preparation:** Identify the issue requiring counselling and gather relevant facts. Choose a private, comfortable setting to ensure confidentiality.
2. **Establishing Rapport:** Start the session with a warm, non-judgmental approach to make the employee feel at ease. Build trust to encourage open communication.
3. **Identifying the Problem:** Allow the employee to explain their concerns without interruption. Actively listen, ask clarifying questions, and ensure you understand the core issues.

4. **Analysing the Cause:** Discuss potential causes of the problem, whether work-related or personal. Explore factors like workload, interpersonal conflicts, or external pressures.
5. **Developing Solutions:** Collaborate with the employee to find realistic and actionable solutions. Focus on achievable goals and necessary support, such as training or resources.
6. **Discuss Alternative Solutions:** Evaluate each alternative and the constraints and select the best.
7. **Action Planning:** Develop a clear action plan by outlining the employee's steps to address the issue. Establish a timeline for implementation and schedule follow-up meetings to track progress.
8. **Providing Support and Motivation:** Offer encouragement, assurance, and any required resources. Show empathy and reinforce their strengths.
9. **Monitoring Progress:** Regularly review the employee's progress toward resolving the issue. Adjust the plan if necessary and provide ongoing feedback.
10. **Closure:** Conclude the counselling session positively, summarising key points discussed. Reaffirm your availability for future guidance if needed.

Human Capital

Human capital is the economic value of an individual's skills, knowledge, abilities, and qualities contributing to productivity. This includes education, training, health, intelligence, communication skills, and problem-solving abilities. Organisations and economies can enhance overall efficiency and output by investing in these

attributes. In essence, human capital represents the worth of a worker's experience and expertise.

Human Capital Index

The Human Capital Index (HCI), developed by the World Bank, measures how well countries build their people's health, education, and skills to boost economic productivity. The HCI shows how investments in health and education can improve a country's future productivity and living standards. The index ranges from '0 to 1'. A score of 1 means children born today will reach their full potential as adults. Lower scores indicate gaps in health, education, or skills. Its main components are:

1. **Survival:** The chance of children living to age five.
2. **Education:** The number of years children are expected to spend in school and the quality of learning.
3. **Health:** Measures like adult survival rates and childhood growth (e.g., stunting).

Emotional Quotient/Emotional Intelligence (EQ/EI)

Emotions are feelings of human beings such as happiness, sadness, anger, fear, surprise, pride, disgust, etc. Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognise, understand, and manage emotions in ourselves and others.

⁶EQ is a "set of skills hypothesised to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and others, the

⁶ <https://positivepsychology.com/emotional-intelligence-eq/>
<https://positivepsychology.com/emotional-intelligence-theories/>
<https://globalleadershipfoundation.com/deepening-understanding/emotional-intelligence/>

effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in one's life."

Components of EQ

Daniel Goleman's theory of EQ (1995) identifies the following four components of EQ: Self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

1. Self-Awareness:

Self-awareness includes recognising and understanding your own emotions. It includes how your emotions affect your thoughts and behaviour. Emotional self-awareness, self-assessment, and self-confidence are the components of self-awareness.

2. Self-Management: This includes controlling or redirecting disruptive emotions and impulses. It is also part of adapting to changing circumstances and staying calm under pressure. Self-management is comprised of five competencies: self-control, transparency (honesty and integrity), adaptability, achievement orientation and initiative.

3. Social Awareness: Social Awareness is comprised of three competencies: empathy, organisational awareness, and service orientation. Empathy relates to understanding others and taking an active interest in their concerns. Service orientation relates to recognising and meeting customers' needs.

4. Relationship Management: This means working well with others by inspiring and guiding them (**visionary leadership**), helping them improve through support and feedback (**developing others**), and communicating clearly with honesty (**influence**). It also involves leading changes (**change catalyst**), solving **conflicts**

together (**conflict management**), building strong **relationships (building bonds)**, and promoting teamwork **and collaboration**.

Mentoring:

A mentor is an experienced and trusted adviser⁷A mentor guides a less experienced person by building trust and modelling positive behaviours. **A good mentor is willing to teach what he/she knows and accept the mentee where they currently are in their professional development.**

A mentee wants to learn from someone who knows and seeks valuable advice to grow professionally and/or personally. He/She desires to gain from someone else's experience through a period of guidance and support.

Mentor-Mentee Relationship

It is a supportive partnership where the mentor shares knowledge, experience, and guidance. The aim is to help the mentee grow personally and professionally. The mentor provides advice, encouragement, and feedback. The mentee is open to learning, applies guidance, and takes responsibility for their growth. This relationship benefits both. The mentee develops skills and confidence. The mentor gets the satisfaction of helping others. It is built on mutual respect, trust, and open communication.

Kaizen

"The journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step" Lao Tzu

"Do small things with great love" Mother Teresa

⁷ <https://hr.ucdavis.edu/departments/learning-dev/toolkits/mentoring/relationship>

'Kaizen' is a Japanese business philosophy that encourages continuous improvement of working practices, personal efficiency, etc. Japanese words: 'Kai' means change, and 'Zen' means good. Kaizen means "change for the better."

1 Kaizen refers to activities that continuously improve all functions. It involves all employees, from the CEO to the workers. Kaizen aims to eliminate waste by the improvement of processes and functions. The word refers to any improvement, one-time or continuous, large or small. It can be applied to any kind of work or organisation. Kaizen is continuous improvement, and it works on the basic principle that 'change is for good.'

6 **Guiding principles of Kaizen:**

- (1) Good processes bring good results.
- (2) Go see for yourself to grasp the current situation.
- (3) Speak with data, manage by facts.
- (4) Take action to correct root causes of problems.
- (5) Work as a team and not as a 'group'
- (6) Kaizen is everybody's business.

Features:

1. Many small changes accumulated over time bring big results.
2. It does not mean that Kaizen equals small changes.
3. The majority of changes may be small.
4. Everyone is involved in making improvements.
- 5. Kaizen is a daily process, the purpose of which goes beyond simple productivity improvement.**

6. Focus on small ideas and improvements that can be implemented on the same day.
7. It is a humanised approach to workers and to increasing productivity.
8. People at all levels of an organisation participate in Kaizen.
9. Kaizen methodology includes making changes and monitoring results, then adjusting.
10. Smaller experiments replace large-scale pre-planning and projects.

Phases/Steps in Kaizen

Kaizen generates small improvements due to coordinated and continuous efforts by all employees. The following are some basic steps for doing Kaizen:

- 1. Identifying the Problem:** Pinpoint areas needing improvement. For this, gather feedback from employees, customers, or stakeholders.
- 2. Analysing the Current Process:** Understand the current situation thoroughly. Map the current process to identify inefficiencies or quality issues.
- 3. Setting Goals:** Define clear, measurable objectives for improvement and establish specific Key Performance Indicators (KPIs).
- 4. Developing Solutions:** Create actionable plans to address identified issues.

5. Implementing Changes: Execute the planned solutions. Pilot the changes on a small scale to test their effectiveness. Communicate changes clearly to all stakeholders.

6. Evaluating Results: Assess the impact of the changes made. Collect and analyse data to compare outcomes against KPIs.

7. Standardising the Improvements: Embed successful changes into regular processes.

8. Continuous Monitoring: Ensure the improvements are sustained and conduct regular reviews to identify new opportunities for improvement.

Practical Tips for Effective Kaizen Implementation

- 1) Replace conventional fixed ideas with fresh ones.
- 2) Start by questioning current practices and standards.
- 3) Seek the advice of many associates before starting a Kaizen activity.
- 4) Think of how to do something, not why it cannot be done.
- 5) Don't make excuses. Make execution happen.
- 6) Do not seek perfection.
- 7) Implement a solution immediately, even if it covers only 50 percent of the target.
- 8) Correct something right away if a mistake is made.

For example:

- A study conducted in 2009 found that when hospitals followed a simple checklist before a surgical procedure, death rates decreased by 40 percent.

- The checklist provided by the election commissioner largely reduces the burden of presiding officers.
- A simple checklist in the study room will reduce a lot of time.
- A master switch for the whole classroom's electrical fittings will save a lot of electricity.
- A simple smile or a word of appreciation will reduce tension.

Benefits of Kaizen

1. It brings in changes acceptable to all.
2. It improves employee participation in the change process.
3. It improves employee morale.
4. It helps to reduce costs and increase profit.
5. It increases customer satisfaction.

Total Quality Management (TQM):

TQM originated during the 1960s in Japan. TQM is a management approach to long-term success through customer satisfaction. In a TQM effort, all members of an organisation participate in improving processes, products, services, and the culture in which they work. TQM refers to a quest for quality that involves everybody in the organisation.

"TQM is a corporate business management philosophy which recognises the customer needs and business goals as inseparable with industry and commerce." British Quality Association

E.g. Quick repayment system of cancelled tickets by IRCTC, tracking your train status by Railway, 24-hour customer care, online fee payment system by MGU, One-time registration by Kerala PSC,

E-NET certificate by UGC, E-payment of bills by KSEB, etc. are TQM implemented recently.

The key aspects of TQM are:

- a) Continuous improvement -Kaizen.
- b) Customer satisfaction: Exceeding the customer's expectations.
- c) Participation of all employees.

Basic Approaches:

TQM requires six basic approaches

1. Committed and involved Top management:

Any company's fate is determined by how its top management manages it. Only a committed top management can inculcate the required culture.

2. Focus on customer:

Today's business starts and ends with the customer. The whole idea of TQM revolves around the customer and their satisfaction. Customers are treated as the God of the business.

3. Employee involvement:

The success of any organisation is always attributed to the involvement of the employees. Top management instils a sense of quality consciousness in employees.

4. Continuous Improvement:

Continuous and never-ending improvement in all aspects of the business is the key to initial success.

5. Partnership with suppliers:

The focus should be on quality rather than price. A good relationship with suppliers ensures a timely supply of goods to reduce lead time.

6. Performance Measures: -

Performance measures act as motivators for everyone in a company. Performance measures must be set objectively and used fairly.

Benefits of TQM

1. Great customer satisfaction.
2. Leads to customer loyalty.
3. Helps to reduce waste and inventory.
4. Improved quality of products and services.
5. Increases productivity.
6. Employee participation.
7. Teamwork and team spirit.
8. Improves creativity and innovation.
9. Increases employee satisfaction and motivation.
10. Increases profitability.
11. Increases goodwill of the firm.
12. Improves the quality of life of the society.

Quality Circle (Quality Control Circle)

Quality Circle is a participatory management technique that originated in Japan. It calls for the help of employees to solve problems related to their jobs. The main objective of Quality Circles is 'self and mutual' development. It creates cohesive teamwork. **QC**

is a group of employees who meet regularly to identify, analyse and solve work-related problems. The number of employees in the circle should not be too small or large. An ideal of 10 to 12 employees is advocated. They are engaged in continuous improvement activities. For this, QC meets at regular interval. E.g. IQAC of colleges.

Basic principles of quality circle

1. Every job is capable of being improved.
2. People do not resist change; they resist being changed.
3. Every employee is capable of attaining excellence in his work.
4. Every employee is capable of attaining the basic ability to improve the job.
5. People like to improve their jobs and derive satisfaction from it.
6. People welcome improvement if they are involved through human touch, recognition and reward for work.
7. People like to participate in groups and desire attention.
8. People have integrity and can be highly creative.
9. A man who does the job knows best about the job.
10. A worker at least knows the problems of the job.

Impact of TQM, Quality Circles, Kaizen on HRM.

TQM, QC, and Kaizen aim to enhance organisational performance through continuous improvement and employee engagement. The main impacts are:

1. Catalyse – attitudinal change.
2. Develop – a participative culture and team spirit.
3. Improve – employee and employer relationship.

4. Improve – the quality of the goods and services.
5. Improve – Human relations at the workplace.
6. Increase – productivity.
7. Leads – towards the better efficiency.
8. Reduce – work-related errors and costs.
9. Save – amount of time.

Benefits of the quality circle to the employees:

1. Advances – employee career & personal development.
2. Develop – latent problem-solving capabilities.
3. Encourage – employees to be involved in the common goal of the organisation.
4. Give – a sense of participation.
5. Improve – individual communication capability.
6. Involve – worker in decision making.
7. Provide- job interest.
8. Remove – frustration.

Performance appraisal

Performance is the action or process of performing a task or function.

The performance of an individual depends on his ability backed by motivation. Ability refers to the skill and competence of a person to complete a given task. A person's desire to accomplish the task is motivation. Organisations become successful when there are motivated employees with ability. Motivation is a psychological phenomenon that converts abilities into performance.

$$\text{Performance} = f(\text{ability} \times \text{motivation})$$

A performance appraisal is a formal assessment of an employee's productivity. It is a regular and periodic review of an employee's job performance. It is also known as an "annual review," "performance review or evaluation," or "employee appraisal". A performance appraisal evaluates an employee's skills, achievements, or lack thereof. It is one of the challenging concepts of human resource management.

Purpose/Significance of Performance Appraisal.

Performance appraisal serves two main purposes: administrative and developmental.

I. Administrative Purposes

1. **Guiding Employment Decisions:** Assists in decisions regarding hiring, promotions, transfers, and termination.
2. **Identifying Strong and Weak Performers:** Helps to recognise high performers and those needing improvement.
3. **Determining Rewards:** Guides decisions on raises, bonuses, and other employee incentives.
4. **Evaluating Training Effectiveness:** Assesses the success of the organisation's training and development programs.
5. **Assessing Hiring Outcomes:** Measures the success rate of recruitment and selection processes.
6. **Legal Documentation:** Provides records to justify decisions and defend against potential lawsuits.

II. Developmental Purposes

1. **Identifying Performance Gaps:** Highlights areas where employee performance falls short.
2. **Providing Feedback:** Delivers constructive feedback to employees to guide improvement.
3. **Enhancing Employee Growth:** Recognises individual strengths and training needs while improving communication and reinforcing organisational hierarchy.
4. **Enabling Leadership Coaching:** A platform for managers to mentor and coach employees.
5. **Discovering Future Opportunities:** Identifies career development pathways by leveraging employee strengths.

Career Development vs. Management Development

Career Development is employee-centric and helps all staff plan their career progression. **Management Development** is organisation-centric, focusing on building a competent leadership pipeline.

Aspect	Career Development	Management Development
Focus	Individual employee's long-term career path and growth	Enhancing skills of current/future managers and leaders
Purpose	Align individual goals with organisational opportunities	Prepare employees for managerial and leadership roles

Aspect	Career Development	Management Development
Scope	All employees across roles and departments	Specifically targeted at supervisory and managerial personnel
Methods	Job rotation, coaching, mentoring, training, self-assessment	Seminars, workshops, executive training, simulation, MDPs
Responsibility	Shared between employee and HR	Mostly organizational (HR + Top Management)
Time Horizon	Long-term career planning	Medium to long-term leadership development

Process of Performance Appraisal

1. Establishment of performance standards
2. Communicating the standard performance
3. Measurement of actual performance
4. Comparing actual performance with standards
5. Communication of appraisal results
6. Decision-making on training, transfer, promotion, etc.

Methods of performance appraisal

There are traditional and modern methods of performance appraisal. They are:

I. Traditional Methods:

Traditional methods focus on structured formats. They are often straightforward but may lack the depth of modern techniques. They include the Confidential Report, Narrative (Free Form/Essay) Method, Straight Ranking Method, Forced Distribution Method, Forced Choice Method, Graphic Rating Scale, Behavioural Checklist, Critical Incidents Method, Group Appraisal Method, and Field Review Method.

1. **Confidential Report:** The immediate supervisor will prepare a detailed report regarding the employee's performance. It is confidential, and the employee is unaware of the content written by his superior. This method is used in government.

2. **Narrative** (Free form/essay) Method: Here, the supervisor is free to write about the strengths and weaknesses of the employee. It is prepared in consultation with the employee. No structured form is used.

3. **Straight Ranking Method:** The organisation's employees are ranked based on their performance.

4. **Forced Distribution Method:** The supervisor distributes the employees into certain groups. For example, each employee will be placed under a group of high, low, moderate, etc., based on their performance.

5. **Forced Choice Method:** Here, the supervisor has to fill out multiple choices on different areas of employee performance. Examples include punctuality/not punctuality, creativity/not creative, individual performer/group performer, etc.

6. **Graphic Rating Scale:** Here, rating scales are used to assess the. For example, the supervisor rates the employees on a 10-point scale,

with 1 being the top and 10 being the least. Various aspects of performance, such as quality, skill, supervision, satisfaction, punctuality, etc., are rated.

7. Behavioural checklist: Here, the supervisor is required to fill out the 'checklists' on various job-related aspects of the employee.

For eg. attendance: above 80%, 60%-80%, 40%-60%, below 40%

8. Critical Incidents Method/Technique: Only critical incidents are observed and rated here. It highlights both positive and negative behaviours.

9. Group Appraisal Method: Here, instead of the individual appraiser, a panel of experts will review the performance of the employees.

10. Field Review Method: Here, the appraisal is done by a person from outside.

2. Modern Methods

The modern performance appraisal methods include Assessment Centre, BARS, Appraisal by Objectives, 360-degree Appraisal, Negotiated Appraisal, Self-Appraisal, Peer Review Method, and Psychological Appraisal.

1. Assessment Centre: Employees participate in exercises (like role-playing, group discussions, or presentations) to demonstrate their skills and abilities in different situations. Multiple observers then assess the results. This allows for a hands-on, real-time assessment of skills.

2. Behaviourally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS): Employees are rated based on specific behaviours tied to job performance. For example, punctuality, teamwork, and communication might be rated

on a scale with detailed descriptions for each level of performance. It gives more detailed and specific feedback based on real actions.

3. Appraisal by Objectives: Employees and managers set specific, measurable goals together in this method. Performance is then evaluated based on the achievement of these goals. This method focuses on achieving results based on MBO.

4. 360-degree appraisal: Employees receive feedback from multiple sources: their manager, colleagues, subordinates, and even sometimes customers. This gives a complete picture of their performance from different perspectives.

5. Negotiated appraisal: It utilises a mediator for performance appraisal. The mediator facilitates the process, allowing the employee to present their perspective first. The focus is on highlighting the employee's strengths before discussing areas for improvement. This helps to reduce defensiveness and constructive feedback. This method is useful in resolving conflicts between supervisors and subordinates.

6. Self-Assessment/Self-Appraisal: Employees evaluate their own performance by comparing their achievements with goals. This method encourages reflection and self-improvement. This encourages personal responsibility and self-awareness.

7. Peer Review Method: An individual's work group rates his performance. Employees are evaluated by their colleagues (peers) based on their work and teamwork. This gives insight into how employees collaborate and contribute. This encourages a collaborative and team-oriented approach to performance evaluation.

8. Psychological Appraisal: This method assesses employees' potential and future performance by evaluating their mental abilities,

personality, and potential to take on more responsibility. This helps identify future leaders and talents.

Job Evaluation

Job evaluation is a systematic process of determining the relative value of different jobs within an organisation. It helps to establish a rational basis for a fair and equitable pay structure. Jobs are compared based on their responsibilities, requirements, and contributions to organisational goals. It is based on job description and job specification. Job evaluation rates the job, not the workers.⁸

Objectives of Job Evaluation

1. **Determine Job Worth:** Establish the relative value of jobs to create a fair hierarchy based on responsibilities, skills, and contributions.
2. **Develop Salary Structures:** Provide a foundation for designing equitable and competitive pay scales.
3. **Eliminate Pay Inequalities:** Address wage disparities and ensure equal pay for equal work.
4. **Design Incentives:** Guide the development of performance-based incentives and reward systems.
5. **Resolve Wage Disputes:** Act as a reference point for addressing wage-related grievances.

⁸ <https://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/hrm/jobs/job-evaluation-concept-objectives-and-procedure-of-job-evaluation/35332>
<https://www.civilserviceindia.com/subject/Management/notes/job-evaluation.html>

6. **Support Recruitment:** Assist in hiring, selecting, and positioning employees based on job roles.
7. **Enable Career Planning:** Offer benchmarks for career progression and employee development.
8. **Employee Motivation:** Promote job satisfaction and reduce turnover by fostering fairness and transparency.
9. **Internal Equity:** Maintain a consistent and logical job hierarchy across the organisation.
10. **Achieve External Competitiveness:** Align pay structures with industry standards to attract and retain talent.
11. **Optimise Costs:** Balance financial resources by preventing overpayment or underpayment.
12. **Facilitate Job Evaluation Tool Development:** Serve as a basis for creating effective job evaluation methods and tools.

Process of Job Evaluation

All firms adopt no common procedure for job evaluation. It varies from organisation to organisation. In general, a job evaluation procedure may consist of the following steps:

1. **Form a Job Evaluation Committee:** Create a team of experienced employees and HR experts to manage the evaluation process.
2. **Identify Jobs to Evaluate:** Choose the roles that need to be assessed based on their importance to the organisation.
3. **Gather Data and Prepare Job Descriptions:** Collect relevant information and create detailed descriptions of each job's tasks and requirements.

4. **Select Evaluation Method:** Choose the appropriate method for evaluating jobs, considering factors like skills, responsibilities, and company needs.
5. **Rank Jobs Based on Value:** Organise jobs into a hierarchy based on their importance and complexity.
6. **Conduct Wage and Salary Surveys:** Research industry pay trends to ensure the organisation offers competitive salaries.
7. **Develop Salary Structures:** Create fair pay scales based on the job rankings and market data.
8. **Design Incentives and Benefits:** Develop performance-based rewards and benefits to motivate employees.
9. **Communicate and Implement the Plan:** Explain the job evaluation system to employees and apply it across the organisation.
10. **Review and Adjust as Needed:** Regularly review the system, gather feedback, and make necessary adjustments to keep it fair and effective.

Methods of Job Evaluation

There are Non-quantitative and quantitative methods of job evaluation.

1. Non-Quantitative Methods:

- (a) **Ranking Method:** Jobs are ranked from highest to lowest based on overall importance or difficulty.
- (b) **Job Classification (Grading) Method:** Jobs are grouped into predefined grades or categories based on job descriptions.

2. Quantitative Methods:

- (a) **Point Factor Method:** Assigns points to various job components (e.g., skills, responsibilities, effort) to determine job value.
- (b) **Factor Comparison Method:** Jobs are compared against key factors (e.g., education, experience) and ranked accordingly.

Limitations of Job Evaluation

1. **Prone to Bias:** Results may be influenced by human errors or subjective judgments.
2. **Market Disparities:** Wage patterns in the market may not align with the principle of equality (e.g., private sector salaries for teachers and nurses in India).
3. **Worker Skepticism:** Employees may have doubts or resistance, especially when introduced for the first time.
4. **Unscientific Methods:** Some evaluation techniques may lack accuracy.
5. **Challenges with Managerial Roles:** It is difficult to evaluate managerial jobs that rely heavily on skills and qualitative factors.
6. **Requirement for Updating:** Job enrichment strategies require updating of job evaluation and ranking.

Job enrichment

Job enrichment is a motivational strategy. It aims at enhancing a job's content by increasing the responsibilities, challenges, and opportunities for growth. It focuses on making jobs more meaningful. It is a powerful tool to enhance workplace satisfaction and efficiency.

Examples of Job enrichment:

- A teacher is given the freedom to design their curriculum and teaching methods.
- A customer service representative is empowered to resolve complaints independently.
- Allowing students to mentor juniors or assist teachers in administrative tasks.
- Giving students the freedom to choose their project topics.
- Giving students the freedom to choose elective courses based on their interests from online platforms.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Section A. Weight 1

- 1) What are the features of HR policies (2020)
- 2) What you mean by job design (2020)
- 3) What are applied policies and originated policies (2022)
- 4) Define HR planning (2022)
- 5) What is recruitment (2022)
- 6) Explain any five qualities of HR managers (2022)
- 7) Define HR policies (2022)
- 8) Explain the meaning of HRD and state any features of HRD
- 9) What are the advantages of quality circle (2022)
- 10) Write a short note on the critical incident technique used in job analysis (2023)
- 11) Distinguish between career development and management development (2023)
- 12) Define 360-degree appraisal.
- 13) What is Kaizen?

Section B. Weight 1

- 14) Explain the characteristics of HR management (2020)
- 15) Explain the nature and principles of HRD (2020)
- 16) Define mentoring and explain its need and importance (2020)
- 17) Discuss the role of emotional intelligence in HRD.
- 18) Explain the need and importance of HRD in the organisation (2022)
- 19) Explain five major components of EI (2022)

20) Describe the need and importance of employee counselling.

21) Describe the principles of HRD (2022)

22) Explain the steps for formulating HR policies (2023)

23) Explain the benefits of mentoring (2023)

24) Explain the basic principles of TQM (2023)

26) Explain any four techniques used in performance appraisal.

Section C. Weight 1

27) Describe the process of HR planning in detail (2020)

28) Write a brief note on HRD strategies. Explain the importance of HRD strategies (2020)

29) Explain various functions of HRM (2022), (2023)

30) What is TQM? How can human resources contribute towards TQM (2022)

Module 3

Introduction to Organisational Behaviour

3.1 Basic Concepts of OB

3.2 Role of organisational behaviour

3.3 Models of OB

ORGANISATION

An organisation is a group of people working together to achieve a common goal. Thus, an organisation requires individuals and objectives. E.g. family, university, college, school, temple, bank, panchayath, government, military, etc.

Organisational Behaviour

There are three dimensions of management: technical, conceptual and human. Among these, 'people/humans' are the key to the success of any organisation. But the behaviour of humans is much more complicated. There is a need for a theoretical understanding of the behaviour of employees in an organisational set-up. The result of this empirical research can be used to manage people effectively.

Behaviour is what a person does. It includes both overt and covert behaviour.

Overt behaviour: Behaviour exposed outside or shown openly.

Covert behaviour: Behaviour expressed inside or shown secretly.

E.g. Feelings, attitude, perception, etc. It shapes and influences overt behaviour.

Meaning of OB

Organisational behaviour (OB) is the academic study of how people act within groups. OB is the study of both individual and group performance within an organisation. This study examines human behaviour in a work environment. It determines the impact of OB on job structure, performance, communication, motivation, leadership, etc.

Definition of OB

"Organisational Behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organisations. It applies broadly to people's behaviour in all types of organisation such as business, government, schools, etc."

"OB is a study of human behaviour at work." *Keith Davis*

"OB is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on an organisation to apply such knowledge to improving an organisation's effectiveness".

Stephen Robins

"OB is a systematic study of actions and reactions of people working in an organisation to improve the overall organisational performance."

S. K. Kapur

"OB is a branch of social sciences that seeks to build theories that can be applied to predicting, understanding and controlling behaviour in a work organisation." *Aldag and Brief*

"OB is the study of human behaviour in organisational settings, the interface between human behaviour and the organisation, and the organisation itself."

Gregory and Rickey

In short, OB attempts to study:

- 1) The behaviour of individuals and groups.
- 2) The impact of organisational structure on human behaviour.
- 3) The application of knowledge to improve efficiency.

Features of OB

1. It is the study of behaviour in organisations
2. OB is a part of the general management

3. It represents a behavioural approach to management.
4. OB contains a body of theory, research and application.
5. It helps in understanding human behaviour in the workplace.
6. OB helps to predict individuals' behaviour.
7. OB is an interdisciplinary field of study.
8. OB synthesises knowledge drawn from various behavioural and social sciences.
9. OB involves three levels of behaviour analysis: individual behaviour, group behaviour, and behaviour of the organisation itself.
10. OB provides rational thinking about people and their behaviour
11. OB is both a science and an art.
12. OB seeks to achieve organisational objectives by fulfilling employees' needs.

Significance/Role/Importance of OB

In the modern world, organisations are complex. Employees are regarded as human resources and not as commodities. Their behaviour and hard work depend on several factors. They can be utilised fully to the organisational benefit only if motivated. Therefore, the study of individuals in the organisation is important. The importance/Role/Significance of OB includes the following:

- 1) OB studies the behaviour of individuals and groups.
- 2) It systematically describes how people behave under different conditions.
- 3) It helps to understand why people behave as they do.

- 4) It helps to understand the organisation and employees better.
- 5) It helps to predict the future behaviour of an employee.
- 6) It describes the impact of organisation structure on human behaviour.
- 7) It helps to control the employee behaviour.
- 8) It helps in improving industrial and labour relations.
- 9) It improves relations in the organisation.
- 10) It helps in the formulation of various approaches to management.
- 11) It covers various human resources like behaviour, training and development, change management, leadership, teams, etc.
- 12) It helps to improve decision-making.
- 13) It helps to respond to and control stress.
- 14) It helps to better communicate with others.
- 15) It brings a platform for sharing managerial experiences.

Scope of OB

OB can be divided into **three levels**:

- a. Micro Level: The study of individuals in organisations
- b. Meso-Level: The study of work groups.
- c. Macro Level - The study of organisations as a whole.

The scope of OB involves three levels of behaviour in organisations: individuals, groups and structure.

1. Individual Behaviour

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| (i) Personality | (ii) Perception |
| (iii) Values and Attitudes | (iv) Learning (v) Motivation |

2. Group Behaviour

- (i) Workgroups and group dynamics
- (ii) Dynamics of conflict (iii) Communication
- (iv) Leadership (v) Morale

3. Organisation Structure and Process

- (i) Organisational Climate (ii) Organisational culture
- (iii) Organisational Change (iv) Organisational Effectiveness
- (v) Organisational Development

Organisational conflict

When people in a workplace disagree or clash due to differences in opinions, goals, or interests. It can happen between individuals, teams, or departments and may be caused by poor communication, competition, or misunderstandings. While conflict can create tension, it can lead to better ideas, improved solutions, and stronger teamwork if handled properly.

Basic Concepts/ Determinants/Key elements of OB⁹

OB studies three determinants of behaviour in organisations: individuals, groups, and structure. OB starts with a set of fundamental concepts. They are related to the nature of people and organisations. The basic concepts are:

⁹ Keith Davis and John W Newstrom, 11(2002), Organisational Behaviour: human behaviour at work, Tata McGraw-Hill, New Delhi
2. Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge and Neharika Vohra, 18(2018), Organisational Behaviour, Pearson Education
3. John Newstrom and Keith Davis, 11 (2001), Organisational Behaviour: Human Behaviour at Work, McGraw-Hill Education.

1. The nature of people :

The related basic concepts are individual differences, perception, whole person, motivated behaviour, desire for involvement, and value of the person.

2. The nature of organisations:

The basic concepts related to this are social systems, mutual interest, and ethics.

1. Nature of People

1.1. Individual differences: The idea originated from psychology. Each individual is different and should be treated differently. At the same time, people have a lot in common. They become excited by an achievement.

1.2. Perception: People tend to act on the basis of their perception. Perception differs with individual experiences.

1.3. Whole Person: Organisations want to employ only the required skills. However, the person appointed may also have other engagements. For example, home life cannot be totally separated from work life.

1.4. Motivated Behaviour: People are motivated by what they think. Because of this nature of motivated action, two options can motivate people: Certain (a) actions that increase their need fulfilment and (b) actions that reduce/threaten their need fulfilment.

1.5. Desire for Involvement: People generally want to share what they know. They also like to learn from their experience. Thus, people seek opportunities to be involved in decision-making.

- 1.6. **Value of the Person:** People want to be treated with respect, dignity and care. They want to be valued for their skills and abilities. They also want opportunities to develop them.

2. Nature of Organisations:

- 2.1. **Social Systems:** Organisations are social systems. People have psychological needs, social roles, and statuses. Two types of social systems exist in an organisation: formal and informal.
- 2.2. **Environment:** It means the social, legal, economic, political and technological environment influences an organisation.
- 2.3. **Mutual Interest:** Organisations need people, and people need organisation. Thus, mutuality of interest should be obtained through the efforts of individuals and employers.
- 2.4. **Ethics:** Ethical treatment is necessary for attracting and retaining valuable employees. Establishing ethical standards, code of conduct, reward systems for notable performance, etc., are helpful. A good ethical environment helps individuals, organisations and society.

Foundations of OB

Fundamental concepts, assumptions, basic forces, and contributing disciplines form the foundations of OB.

I. The fundamental concepts of OB:

1. Individual Differences and perception differences.
2. Personal life is not detached from his working life.
3. Individual needs motivate the behaviour.
4. The desire for involvement in decision-making.

5. The value of the person.
6. Recognition of human dignity.
7. Organisations are social systems.
8. Mutuality of Interest (people need organisation, and organisation need people).

II Assumptions of HB

1. Human behaviour is caused. So it can motivate and direct.
2. He is affected by others' behaviour, and he affects others' behaviour.
3. Psychology: Behaviour has three aspects- cognition (awareness), affection (feeling about), and conation (acting after the feelings).
4. Personality: Unique and organised system of all behaviour of a person.
5. Preference for one activity over another.
6. Attitude: State of readiness, experience

III Basic Forces Affecting OB

1. People-Individual and Group
2. Structure- Jobs and relationships
3. Technology
4. Environment – External and Internal

IV Contributing disciplines to OB

Organisational behaviour is an applied behavioural science that is built upon contributions from a number of behavioural disciplines.

The dominant areas include Psychology, Sociology, Social Psychology, Industrial Psychology, Social Work, Anthropology, Political Science, Philosophy and Ethics, Economics, Management, Technology, and Communication.

1. Psychology

Psychology focuses on individual behaviour and mental processes. Topics like motivation, perception, personality, learning, emotions, training, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, job stress, decision-making process, performance appraisals, attitude measurement, etc., are central to OB.

2. Sociology

While psychology focuses on the individual, sociology studies people in relation to their fellow human beings. It studies the social system in which individuals fill their roles. Sociology examines group behaviour and social structures. It contributes insights into group dynamics, organisational culture, and socialisation processes.

3. Social Psychology

It bridges psychology and sociology to understand how individuals influence and are influenced by others in a group. It is crucial for studying teamwork, communication, and interpersonal relationships.

4. Social Work

Social work is a distinct discipline branch focused on helping individuals, families, groups, and communities enhance their well-being and address social issues. It is a practice-based academic discipline that promotes social change, social development, social cohesion, empowerment, and people's liberation.

5. Anthropology

Anthropology studies human societies, cultures, and their development. It provides a deeper understanding of organisational culture, rituals, and symbols. It helps to understand the differences in fundamental values, attitudes, and behaviour between people in different cultures.

6. Political science

Political science explores power dynamics, governance, and conflict resolution within organisations. It helps in understanding leadership, power structures, and organisational politics.

7. Economics:

Economics is a social science that determines the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. It is the study of scarcity, the study of how people use resources, or the study of decision-making.

8. Communication: It analyses how information is transmitted and understood within organisations. Effective communication strategies are vital for leadership, teamwork, and organisational change.

9. Philosophy and Ethics

It addresses moral principles and values guiding behaviour in organisations. It informs practices related to corporate social responsibility, ethical leadership, and organisational justice.

10. Management

Management integrates principles and practices from various disciplines to improve organisational effectiveness. It covers areas such as strategic planning, leadership, and organisational design.

11. Communication: Analyses how information is transmitted and understood within organisations. Effective communication strategies are vital for leadership, teamwork, and organisational change.

12. Technology:

It encompasses the study, design, development, implementation, support, and management of computer-based information systems, including software applications and computer hardware. It is used for communication, remote area working, training and development, work from home, etc.

Characteristics of Human Behaviour

Many factors, including age, personality, motivation, and the environment influence human behaviour. It can be simple or complex, depending on the situation. Behaviour is a mix of thoughts, feelings, and actions working together.

1. **Influenced by Multiple Factors:** Human behaviour is shaped by a variety of internal and external influences:
 - **Simple Behaviours:** Often habitual or reflexive. *Example: responding to a loud sound.*
 - **Complex Behaviours:** Involve analysis and decision-making in response to complex situations.
2. **Varies in Complexity:** Behaviour can range from simple, routine actions to highly complex decisions requiring deep thought and judgment.
3. **Influenced by Diverse Factors**
 - **Individual Variables:** Age, sex, personality, perception, learning, motivation, attitude, and past experiences.

- **Situational Variables:** Organisational structure, nature of the job, and work environment.
- 4. **Individual Behaviour:** People behave uniquely due to their distinct traits, values, and backgrounds.
- 5. **Individual Differences:** People differ due to:
 - **Physiological Factors:** Age, sex, and physical health.
 - **Socio-psychological Factors:** Personality, perception, learning ability, motivation, and attitude.
- 6. **Individual and Group Differences:** Behaviour differs not only between individuals but also between groups due to cultural, social, and environmental influences.
- 7. **Purposeful Nature:** Behaviour is generally goal-oriented, directed toward fulfilling specific needs or objectives.
- 8. **Changeable:** Human behaviour can be modified over time through learning, experiences, training, and adaptation to new environments.
- 9. **Stable Yet Flexible:** While certain behaviours show consistency over time (due to habits or personality), others may change with circumstances.
- 10. **Integrated and Holistic:** Behaviour reflects a unified response to internal and external stimuli shaped by the integration of thoughts, emotions, and actions.

Challenges and Opportunities of OB.

Organisations face numerous challenges and opportunities that impact their effectiveness as they evolve. Organisational behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about human behaviour

within an organisation. The following are some of the significant challenges:

1. Managing Workforce Diversity

Workforce diversity refers to the presence of differences among employees in an organisation. These differences can be based on age, gender, race, ethnicity, religion, nationality, disability, sexual orientation, education, socio-economic background, and cognitive diversity, like differences in perspectives, problem-solving styles, and thought processes. It means recognising, respecting, and valuing the uniqueness of every individual in the workplace.

Challenge: The modern workplace is increasingly diverse, incorporating various cultures, ethnicities, genders, and age groups. This diversity can lead to communication barriers, cultural misunderstandings, and employee conflicts.

OB helps to develop inclusive policies and training programs for effective diversity management.

2. Technological Advancements

Adapting to rapid technological advancements and probable employee resistance to new technologies, fear of job displacement and struggling with the learning curve is a challenge. For example, implementing AI and automation in an office can lead to resistance from workers and worries about job security.

OB helps to balance technology with the human touch through training and development programs to upskill employees.

3. Globalisation

Globalisation presents challenges in managing a geographically dispersed workforce, dealing with different legal systems, and adapting to diverse economic environments.

OB can help in making strategies for effective global team management by understanding and respecting cultural differences and leveraging global talent for competitive advantage.

4. Employee Well-being and Mental Health

Increasing work pressures, long hours, and high expectations contribute to stress, burnout, and mental health issues among employees, leading to high employee turnover.

OB recognises the importance of work-life balance and mental health support and helps to create policies to promote a healthy workforce and productivity and retention.

5. Dual Career Couples:

Dual-career households are composed of couples in which both members are working. Both are committed to their professional occupations. They are generally concerned with issues like relocation, adjustment issues, stress/conflict-making situations, etc.

Opportunities in Organisational Behaviour

1. Improving People Skills

Effective communication enhances collaboration, reduces misunderstandings, and improves organisational efficiency. Implementing open communication channels in a project team can lead to better coordination and project success.

2. Enhancing Leadership Development

Investing in leadership development programs builds a strong leadership pipeline, ensuring effective management and strategic direction. A company can offer leadership training programs to develop a cadre of competent leaders ready to take on future challenges.

3. Promoting Employee Engagement

Engaged employees are more productive, motivated, and committed, leading to better performance and lower turnover rates. An organisation that actively engages employees through recognition programs and career development opportunities sees higher retention rates and productivity.

4. Fostering a Positive Organisational Culture

Organisation culture means the shared values, beliefs, attitudes, and ways of working that shape how people behave in a workplace.

Simply put, "It is the way things are done in an organisation."

It affects how employees interact with each other, how decisions are made, and how work gets done. A positive culture makes people feel motivated and happy at work.

A strong, positive culture enhances employee satisfaction, attracts talent, and drives organisational success. For eg. a company with a collaborative and innovative culture attracts top talent and retains high-performing employees.

6. Coping with Temporariness

In the modern world, change is an ongoing activity for most managers. The concept of continuous improvement implies constant change. So, workers need to continually update their knowledge and

skills to perform new job requirements. Employees must learn to cope with temporariness.

7. Stimulating Innovation and Change

Successful organisations must foster innovation and be proficient in the art of change. Otherwise, they will be vanished from their field of business. Victory will go to those organisations that maintain flexibility, continually improve their quality, and beat the competition in the marketplace with a constant stream of innovative products and services.

8. Emergence of the e-organization: This means e-commerce and e-business.

9. Improving Ethical Behaviour: Managers must evolve a code of ethics to guide employees through ethical dilemmas. The top-level management should clearly define right and wrong conduct. It should develop a fair policy and appropriate system to increase confidence and trust in the organisation.

10. Helping the employees to manage work-life conflicts: An individual has two sides of life- one is professional life, and the other one is family life. Flexible working hours, reporting time, creating employee opportunities, job security, and designing workplaces and jobs.

Organisational Theory (OT)

Organisational theory studies organisations' structure, functioning, and performance and the behaviour of groups and individuals within them. It is the sociological study of formal organisations. Organisational Theories are categorised into Classical, Human relations movement/Neo-classical, modern, and Contemporary theories.

I. Classical Theories

Bureaucratic Theory, Scientific Management Theory, and Administrative Theory

II. Human Relations Movement

Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne Studies and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

III. Modern Theories

Systems Theory, Contingency Theory, Resource Dependence Theory, Decision-making theory¹⁰

IV. Contemporary Theories

Institutional Theory, Network Theory, Complexity Theory

OB and OT – Difference

SI	Basis	OB	OT
1	Focus	Focuses on individual and group behaviours within organisations.	Focuses on the structure, design, and overall functioning of organisations.
2	Scope	Deals with topics like motivation, leadership, team dynamics, and communication.	Addresses broader issues such as organisational structure, culture, strategy, and environment.

¹⁰ Decision-making theory. Herbert A. Simon (1978, the Nobel Prize, mainly based on this theory) regards organisation as a structure of decision makers.

3	Level of Analysis	Primarily focuses on micro-level analysis (individuals and groups).	Involves macro-level analysis (entire organisations and their environments).
4	Objectives	Aims to understand and improve individual and group performance and satisfaction.	Seeks to understand and optimise organisational efficiency, effectiveness, and adaptability.
5	Methods	Utilises psychological and sociological principles to study behaviour within organisations.	Employs theories from management, economics, sociology, and systems theory to analyse organisational structures and processes.

MODELS OF OB

OB models are the techniques that help us to understand complex things and ideas clearly. Each model is based on certain assumptions about the people working in that organisation. The autocratic, Custodial, supportive, Collegial, etc., are some common models of OB.

1. The Autocratic Model

The autocratic model was the first model, and it had roots in the Industrial Revolution. Douglas McGregor developed this model in his 'Theory X'. This model leads to tight control of employees at work. The authoritarian model is also found in the theory of scientific

management developed by F.W. Taylor. It is the conventional view of management.

Under autocratic conditions, employees perform better either because of their achievement drive, their personal liking for the boss, or some other factor.

Features:

- 1) The base of this model is the 'power' of the boss.
- 2) Power is the ability to get things done, sometimes over the resistance of others.
- 3) The managers give orders, and the employees have to obey the orders.
- 4) The employees are oriented towards obedience and dependence on the boss.
- 5) The employee need that is met is 'survival'.
- 6) The performance result is minimal.
- 7) The organisation is authority oriented.
- 8) This authority is delegated by the right of command over the people.
- 9) Management believes employees must be directed, persuaded, and pushed to perform.
- 10) Management does the 'thinking' and employees 'obey' the orders.
- 11) Employee's orientation is obedience to the boss.
- 12) The employees are paid minimum wages for minimum performance.

Merits:

- 1) Minimum performance can be ensured because the employees have to satisfy their own survival needs and those of their families.
- 2) Some employees perform better because of a drive to overcome challenges.
- 3) The model is successful in situations where the workers are actually lazy.
- 4) It is also suitable for time-bound work.

Demerits

- 1) Employees may obey him, but they do not need to respect him.
- 2) Managers generally use the threat to withhold wages if the workers do not obey them. Nowadays, this model is not applicable because most countries have minimum wage laws.
- 3) The leadership is negative because the employees are uninformed, insecure and afraid.
- 4) If the workers are educated and organised, they cannot be dictated to by the managers all the time.

2. The Custodial Model

The insecurity and frustration felt by the workers under the autocratic model sometimes led to aggression towards the boss and their families. To dispel this feeling of insecurity and frustration, a model that would improve employer-employee relations was developed. The progressive managers used the custodial model to overcome the shortcomings of the Autocratic model. This model begins to build on McGregor's Theory of Y.

Features:

- 1) This model emphasises the economic rewards and benefits.
- 2) The success of the Custodial Model depends upon the economic resources (money).
- 3) The employees depend upon the organisation rather than their boss.
- 4) The employer looks to security needs as a motivating force.
- 5) This introduces welfare programmes to satisfy the security needs of employees.

Merits

- a) Under this model, the employees are satisfied and happy.
- b) It brings security and satisfaction to the employees.
- c) This introduces welfare programmes to employees. E.g., an On-site daycare centre or a free transport facility.
- d) Welfare programmes lead to employee dependence on the organisation.
- e) The basis of this model is economic resources.

Demerits

- a) It depends upon material rewards only to motivate the employees.
- b) It ignores the psychological needs of employees.
- c) Employees are not strongly motivated. So they give only passive cooperation.
- d) The performance result is passive cooperation.

- e) Employees are not motivated to increase their capacities of which they are capable.
- f) Though the employees are satisfied, they do not feel motivated.
- g) Happy employees are not necessarily the most productive employees.

3. The Supportive Model

The supportive model has originated from the 'Principles of Supportive Relationships' by Rensis Likert. The supportive model is founded on leadership, not on money or authority. The managerial leadership style provides an atmosphere to help employees grow and accomplish their tasks. The workers are by nature not passive and disinterested in organisational needs. They are made so by an inappropriate leadership style. The supportive model believes that a change in the leadership style will prepare the workers to share responsibility and develop a drive to contribute and improve themselves. Thus, under a supportive approach, the management's orientation is to support the employee's job performance to meet both organisational and individual goals. This model also begins to build on McGregor's Theory of Y.

Features:

- 1) This model is an improvement over the earlier two model models and custodial.
- 2) It is assumed that the workers are not lazy and work shirkers by nature.
- 3) The Supportive Model depends on leadership instead of power or money.

- 4) The basis of this model is leadership with a managerial orientation of support.
- 5) The employees are oriented towards job performance and participation.
- 6) Management supports the employees' job performance and provides monetary benefits.
- 7) The employee need that is met is 'status and recognition.'

Merits.

- a) A favourable organisational climate is created with the help of leadership.
- b) Employees are helped to grow to greater capacities in compliance with the organisational goals.
- c) Workers are assumed to take responsibility and improve themselves if given a chance.
- d) Workers can be self-directed and creative in the organisation.
- e) This model takes care of the psychological needs of the employees.
- f) Supportive behaviour helps in creating friendly superior-subordinate interaction.
- g) It develops a high degree of confidence and trust.
- h) The employees are oriented towards job performance and participation.

Demerits

- a) This model is effective only in affluent (developed) countries. It is effective when the workers are more concerned about their

psychological needs, such as high self-esteem, job satisfaction, etc.

- b) It has limited application in undeveloped and developing countries, where most workers are below the poverty line. For them, the most important requirement is the satisfaction of their physiological needs and security. They are not very concerned about the psychological needs.
- c) The supportive model is more useful and effective in developed nations. It is less effective in developing nations because of employee's less awakening in developing nations.

4. The Collegial Model

The collegial model is an extension of the supportive model. The Dictionary meaning of collegial is 'a body of persons having a common purpose'. This model is based on the partnership between employees and management. This model also begins to build on McGregor's Theory of Y.

Features:

- 1) The basic foundation of the collegial model lies in a feeling of partnership with employees.
- 2) The feeling of partners creates a favourable climate in the organisation.
- 3) Under a collegial approach, employees feel needed and useful.
- 4) Workers see the managers as joint contributors and not as bosses.
- 5) The collegial model relates to teamwork/concept.

- 6) Both the management and workers accept and respect each other.
- 7) The workers accept responsibilities because they find it their obligation to do so and not out of threat.

Merits

- 1) The collegial model inculcates the team spirit in an organisation.
- 2) This helps in developing a system of self-discipline in the organisation.
- 3) Feeling responsible, backed by self-discipline, creates a feeling of teamwork.
- 4) In the collegial environment, the workers have job satisfaction, job involvement, job commitment and some degree of fulfilment.
- 5) The collegial model is especially useful in research laboratories, educational institutions and similar work situations.
- 6) This approach produces improved results in appropriate situations.

Demerits

- a) The Model is not suitable where workers are not educated.
- b) It is not suitable in all situations
- c) It is not suitable in undeveloped nations

Comparison of OB Models

	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial
Basis	Power	Economic Resources	Leadership	Partnership
Orientation	Authority	Money	Support	Teamwork
Employee needs met	Survival	Security	Status & Recognition	Self Actualisation
Impact on Employee	Dependent on boss	Dependent on Organisation	Participation	Self Discipline
Performance	Minimum	Passive Cooperation	Awakened Drives	Moderate enthusiasm
Assumption	Employees are lazy	Employees feel insecure	Workers are not lazy	Quality Workers
Suitability	Undeveloped Nations	Developing Nations	Advanced societies	Well advanced societies

5. Other Models:

Several approaches can also classify some models of organisational behaviour. A few of these models are as explained below:

(i) Normative Models:

The normative models seek to find out what should be done to produce optimum results. While preparing the plans and policies, the

management is more concerned with what should be done by the managers and the employees and what should not be done.

(ii) Empirical Models:

Empirical models describe the activities the employees actually perform. Organisational behaviour is concerned with what is actually taking place in the organisations and how people actually behave.

(iii) Ecological Models:

All the functions of the organisation are affected by the environment. This interaction between the organisation and the environment is known as ecological interaction.

(iv) Non-Ecological Models:

As the name suggests, this model is the opposite of the ecological model. The non-ecological models assume stability in the environment. In the modern world, when environmental factors are important, this model is not very useful.

(v) Ideographic Models:

The models that are developed to deal with specific cases or unique situations are called ideographic models. This model deals with situations like single nation, single organisation, single group, individual, biography, historical episode, etc. When the organisational behaviour is concerned with micro-level analysis, this model is generally used.

(vi) Nomothetic Models:

These models deal with general situations. These are concerned with generalisations, laws, and hypotheses, which indicate regularity of behaviour and correlation between variables. These models deal with

situations like cross-country, cross-organisation, cross-group, and individual analysis of the organisational system.

Interpretation of Different Models:

It becomes very clear that no single model is best suited to the requirements of all organisations. The managers will have to use a combination of models depending on the circumstances of the case. However, considering the emergence of professional management, supportive and collegial models will be more effective than the autocratic and custodial models.

Although there are four separate models, almost no organisation operates exclusively in one. There will usually be a predominant one, with one or more areas overlapping in the other models. The collegial model should not be considered the last or best model but the beginning of a new model or paradigm.

- (i) As soon as the understanding of human behaviour develops or social conditions change, the model is bound to change. No one model is best for all times.
- (ii) Models of organisational behaviour are related to the hierarchy of human needs. As society advances on the need hierarchy, new models are developed to serve the paramount higher-order needs.
- (iii) The present tendency is towards more democratic models of organisational behaviour.
- (iv) Different models will remain in use, though new models will dominate.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Section A. Weight 1

1. Describe the objectives of Organisational Behaviour. (2021)
2. How is organisational theory related to organisational behaviour?
3. Define Organisational Behaviour. What are its goals?
4. Explain how OB is related to sociology. (2021)
5. Write a note on collegial models of OB? (2021)
6. Write a note on basic concepts of organisational behaviour. (2022)
7. State briefly the process of behaviour. (2021)

Section A. Weight 2

1. Identify the key environmental challenges for OB. (2021)
2. Explain different models of organisational behaviour.
3. Discuss how various disciplines contributed to the development of organisational behaviour.
4. Distinguish between organisational behaviour and organisation theory (2022).
5. Examine the role of Organisational behaviour in the organisation. (2023)
6. Discuss the scope of organisational behaviour.
7. State the autocratic model of OB.
8. Explain workforce diversity.
9. What do you understand by organisational culture?

Section A. Weight 5

1. Critically evaluate the models of OB (2021)
2. Discuss and compare the models of OB (2022)
3. Explain the contributing disciplines to organisational behaviour. List their contribution at the individual, group and organisational level. (2023)
4. Discuss the challenges and opportunities of organisational behaviour.
5. Discuss the general conclusions you draw from the models of organisational behaviour.
6. Behaviour is a function of its consequences". Comment.

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Module 4

Individual Behaviour and Motivation

4.1 Concept of Human Behaviour

4.2 Personality

4.3 Perception

4.4 Learning & Reinforcement

4.5 Theories or models of motivation

4.6 Contemporary theories of motivation

Concept of Human Behaviour

Behaviour is what a person does. Human behaviour refers to the range of behaviours exhibited by humans. A number of factors, such as culture, attitudes, emotions, values, ethics, authority, rapport, persuasion, social norms, core faith, attitude, coercion, genetics, individual traits, etc. influences them. Behaviour, in general, is not directed at other people. It is considered as having no meaning. It is the most basic human action. Social behaviour is behaviour specifically directed at other people. The acceptability of behaviour is evaluated relative to social norms. They are regulated by various means of social control.

There can be overt behaviour and covert behaviour. Observable and measurable behaviour is called overt behaviour. Non-observable and non-measurable aspects of behaviour are called covert behaviour. Covert behaviour influences and shapes overt behaviour. Hence, both are important. The academic disciplines of psychiatry, psychology, social work, sociology, economics, and anthropology study the behaviour of humans.

Core faith can be perceived through the religion and philosophy of that individual. It shapes the way a person thinks, and this, in turn, results in different human behaviours. Attitude can be defined as "the degree to which the person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question." Your attitude highly reflects the behaviour you will portray in specific situations. Thus, human behaviour is greatly influenced by the attitudes we use on a daily basis.

Characteristics of Human Behaviour

Humans follow social rules that shape their behaviour. Some behaviours are common, while others are rare. Some are acceptable, and others cross the line. What is acceptable or unacceptable can vary across different societies and cultures.¹¹

1. Complexity:

Simple behaviour: Influenced by a few factors. For example, if a boy reads a novel in a quiet room and his mother calls him loudly, he immediately reacts. Here, the only factor affecting his behaviour is his mother's voice.

Complex behaviour: Influenced by many factors. For instance, if someone makes fun of a boy walking on a road. His reaction could depend on his mood, personality, past experiences, and the situation.

2. Adaptability:

Humans can adapt their behaviour based on new information, experiences, and environmental changes. This helps individuals navigate different situations and challenges.

3. Variability:

Human behaviour can vary widely between individuals and within the same individual over time. Physiological factors (hunger, thirst, etc.), age, gender, mood, context, personality, and cultural background all contribute to this variability. For example, a young child's behaviour in an ice cream parlour may differ from that of his late childhood and teenage years.

¹¹ <https://www.psychologydiscussion.net/behaviour/human-behaviour/9-general-characteristics-of-human-behaviour-psychology/2817>

4. Influence by Social Norms:

Societal rules and expectations often guide human behaviour. What is acceptable or unacceptable can vary depending on cultural, social, and situational contexts. For example, the way people dress for different occasions. Formal events like weddings require more conservative or formal attire in many cultures. People who prefer casual clothing will likely dress according to these social norms to fit in and be perceived appropriately.

5. Goal-Oriented:

Specific goals or objectives drive many human behaviours. People tend to act in ways that help them achieve their desired outcomes, whether those are physical, emotional, or social goals.

6. Learning and Experience:

Human behaviour is shaped by learning from past experiences. People adjust their actions based on the outcomes of previous behaviours, leading to more effective decision-making over time. This changeability enables a child to become an adult, a bad man to become a good man and a good man to become a bad man. This characteristic helps people to adjust to new surroundings.

7. Emotional Influence:

Emotions play a significant role in shaping human behaviour. How a person feels can strongly influence their actions and reactions in various situations.

8. Interpersonal Influence:

Interactions with others often influence human behaviour. Relationships, social networks, and communication with others can affect how people behave.

9. Individual Differences:

Everyone has different backgrounds and experiences, so people react differently to the same situation. For example, if ten students see a cat, each might react in their way.

10. Similarities:

Even though people are different, they often behave in similar ways in certain situations. For instance, most people will try to get dust out of their eyes. These similarities come from shared experiences and environments.

11. Shows Stability:

While people's behaviour can change, some aspects remain consistent. For example, your grandmother might still prefer traditional ways even though she lives in a modern world.

12. Behaviour is Integrated:

People's behaviour is organised and purposeful. Each person acts in a way that makes sense to them overall, rather than behaving unpredictably.

Models of Man

Models are tools of cognition/reasoning that allow the presence of many complex features or processes in a simple, transparent way. A model explains a complex phenomenon in a simple manner. The models of man are the basic assumptions on which the managers tried to motivate their employees. (1) Rational Economic Man, (2) Social Man, (3) Organisational Man, (4) The Self Actuating Man, and (5) Complex Man.

1. Rational Economic Man:

The Rational Economic Man theory suggests that people are primarily motivated by money. This old-fashioned idea assumes that:

Employees are selfish and only care about earning more.

Companies can control workers by offering higher pay.

Emotions and feelings don't matter in the workplace.

Advantages of this theory:

1. Motivates people to work harder for more money.
2. Reduces conflict between employers and employees.

Disadvantages of this theory:

1. Outdated and doesn't fit modern workplaces.
2. Money only motivates people up to a certain point.
3. Ignores the importance of employee satisfaction and well-being.
4. Doesn't accurately predict how people will behave.

In conclusion, while money is important, it's not the only thing that motivates people. Modern businesses need to consider other factors like job satisfaction, work-life balance, and employee recognition.

2. Social Man:

This school considered the worker as a social man. Workers are influenced by social relationships and group dynamics. He seeks satisfaction of the needs related to the maintenance of his social relationships. This thought is associated with Elton Mayo as a result of his Hawthorne studies during 1927-32. The basic assumptions are:

1. People are motivated by social needs, not just money.

2. They work to build and maintain social relationships.
3. Social pressures from their group have a stronger impact than management controls.
4. Social relationships are often valued more than economic incentives.
5. Social norms within their group influence workers' performance.
6. People generally act as group members rather than as individuals.
7. Opportunities for individual creativity are important.
8. Employees need their growth needs met to work effectively.

3. Organisational Man:

It is an extension of social man. William Whyte introduced this concept. The focus is on loyalty to the organisation and cooperation with colleagues. The basic idea is to agree with Henry Fayol, who suggested that individual interest should be subordinated to the general interest. The basic assumptions are:

1. Individuals are less effective alone; they are more productive in groups.
2. People need to belong to families, friends, colleagues, and society.
3. Conflicts between individual and group needs can be resolved using scientific methods.
4. Individual interests should be subordinated to the group's interests if conflicts arise.

4. The Self Actuating Man:

This concept is a further extension of social man and the organisation man models. The assumptions of the model are:

- a) Desire to Create: People want to use their skills to create and achieve things.
- b) Unmet Needs Drive Motivation: Unfulfilled needs push people to act and improve.
- c) Self-Actualisation as the Goal: Realising one's full potential is the highest goal.
- d) Growth through Self-Actualisation: People grow from immaturity to maturity as they work towards self-actualisation.
- e) Self-motivation: People are mainly motivated by their internal drive rather than external incentives. Once they reach a certain level, external rewards or controls have little effect.
- f) Maximum Effort When Free: If given freedom, people will put in their best effort.

5. Complex Man:

This model accepts that people are complicated, with changing needs, motivations, and behaviours that depend on the situation. Many complex variables determine human behaviour. These variables are quite unpredictable. So, a behaviour that is based on these variables cannot follow a set pattern.

Factors Influencing Individual Behaviour

Several factors influence individual behaviour, shaping how people think, feel, and act. These factors can be broadly categorised into personal, environmental, and organisational factors.

1. Personal Factors

- a) Biological Factors: Genetics, physical health, and brain chemistry.
- b) Demographic factors: Age, gender, religion, marital status, income level, level of education, technological skills, etc.
- c) Psychological Factors: Personality traits, emotions, perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, and past experiences.
- d) Cultural Background: Values, traditions, and social norms that shape behaviour.

2. Environmental Factors

- a) Physical Environment: Living conditions, workspace, and geographic location.
- b) Social Environment: Influence of family, friends, and societal norms.
- c) Economic Environment: Financial status, economic conditions, and access to resources.
- d) Political environment: political ideology, political stability, corruption, etc.
- e) Legal Environment: Prevailing laws, adherence and attitude to laws.

3. Organisational Factors

- a) Workplace Culture: The values, norms, and practices within an organisation.
- b) Leadership and Management Style: How leaders influence employee behaviour and motivation.

- c) Job Design and Role Clarity: The structure of tasks, responsibilities, and the clarity of expectations.
- d) Organisational Policies: Rules, regulations, and incentives that guide behaviour within the organisation.
- e) Organisation Structure: reporting system, lines of communication, etc.

These categories help in understanding how various aspects of a person's life, environment, and work context interact to influence their behaviour.

Personality

The word personality originated from the Latin word 'persona', which means 'theatrical mask'.

Personality refers to the individual differences in patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving. These sets of behaviours, cognitions, and emotional patterns are evolved from biological and environmental factors. It makes a person different from other people.

Personality means an "individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotions and behaviour, together with the psychological mechanisms behind those patterns."

"Personality is a stable, organised collection of psychological traits in the human being that influences his interactions with the social and physical environment surrounding them."

Randy Larsen and David Buss

Determinants of Personality

Several factors, like the brain, physical, social, cultural, religious, heredity, etc, influence a person's personality.

Personality Traits

Personality traits are enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that distinguish individuals from one another. They are relatively stable over time and across situations, contributing to a person's overall personality. The Five-Factor Model is the most widely recognised model for understanding personality traits, also known as the "Big Five". These five broad traits are considered fundamental dimensions of personality. Features of these personality traits are consistency, stability, and individual differences.

Big Five Personality Theory:

Eysenck develops this model. As per this model, there are five major personality traits¹² - Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. Each trait represents a range. It can be high, low, or middle for each trait. Personality traits are relatively stable over time. They gradually change across the lifespan.

1. Openness to Experience:

- **High Openness:** Imaginative, curious, open-minded, and eager to explore new ideas and experiences. They tend to be creative and appreciate art, adventure, unusual ideas, and variety.
- **Low Openness:** Prefer routine, are pragmatic, and are often sceptical of new ideas. They tend to focus on practical, straightforward solutions and may be less interested in abstract thinking or artistic pursuits.

¹² <https://nobaproject.com/modules/personality-traits>

2. Conscientiousness:

- **High Conscientiousness:** Organised, reliable, disciplined, and goal-oriented. They are thorough, efficient, and capable of delaying gratification to achieve long-term goals.
- **Low Conscientiousness:** More spontaneous and less driven by structure or plans. They may be more flexible and adaptable but can also be seen as careless or unreliable in some contexts.

3. Extraversion:

- **High Extraversion:** Sociable, outgoing, energetic, and assertive. They enjoy being around others, are often talkative, and are typically enthusiastic and positive.
- **Low Extraversion (Introversion):** Reserved, reflective, and more comfortable with solitude. Introverts may prefer quiet environments, deep conversations, and fewer social interactions.

4. Agreeableness:

- **High Agreeableness:** Compassionate, cooperative, trusting, and empathetic. They tend to be kind, generous, and considerate, often putting others' needs ahead of their own.
- **Low Agreeableness:** More competitive, sceptical, and sometimes less concerned with others' feelings. They may prioritise their own goals and be seen as tough-minded or critical.

5. Neuroticism:

- **High Neuroticism:** Prone to experiencing negative emotions like anxiety, anger, or depression. They may be more sensitive to stress and tend to worry.

- **Low Neuroticism (Emotional Stability):** Calm, secure, and less easily upset. They tend to be resilient in the face of stress and are less likely to experience mood swings.

Other Personality Traits

1. **PEN Model of Personality Traits:** This model is developed by Hans Eysenck. Here:
 - **P** for Psychoticism: a tendency toward aggressiveness, impulsivity, and antisocial behaviour.
 - **E** for Extraversion
 - **N** for Neuroticism

} Same as in **Big Five**
2. **Honesty-Humility:** This trait, part of the HEXACO model of personality, reflects sincerity, fairness, and modesty. High scorers are less likely to exploit others or be motivated by self-interest.
3. **Locus of Control:** This trait reflects the degree to which individuals believe they control events in their lives. Those with an internal locus of control believe they can influence outcomes, while those with an external locus of control believe external forces or fate are responsible.
4. **Optimism vs. Pessimism:** Optimists tend to expect positive outcomes and focus on the bright side of situations, while pessimists anticipate negative outcomes and may focus on potential problems or setbacks.
5. **Self-Esteem:** This trait reflects how individuals feel about themselves, encompassing self-worth and self-respect. High self-esteem is associated with confidence, while low self-esteem can lead to insecurity and self-doubt.

Perception:

Perception is how a person experiences the world. This is a cognitive (intellectual) process. Perception is the process by which our brain interprets and makes sense of the information it receives from our senses. It's how we understand and interpret the world around us, turning raw sensory data (like sights, sounds, smells) into something meaningful, like recognising a friend's face or understanding that a loud noise is thunder.

Process of perception

The perception process is how our brain takes sensory information from the world and turns it into something meaningful. There are mainly five stages:

1. **Stimulus:** Something happens in the environment, like a sound, light, or smell.
2. **Sensation:** Our sensory organs (eyes, ears, nose, tongue, skin) detect the stimulus.
3. **Transduction:** The process of converting physical stimuli into electrical signals in the nervous system. This is how the sensory information is converted into signals the brain can understand.
4. **Processing:** The brain Analyses the signals, comparing them with past experiences and knowledge.
5. **Perception:** The brain creates a meaningful interpretation, like recognising a voice or identifying a smell.

The perception process is how we make sense of the world by interpreting sensory information.

Factors Influencing Perception

Sensory, internal, cultural, social, contextual, and symbolic factors can influence the perception of individuals.

1. Sensory Factors

- a) Intensity of Stimuli: Brightness, Loudness, or Strong Smells
- b) Contrast: Difference from Background
- c) Movement: Moving Objects
- d) Size: Larger Objects
- e) Repetition: Frequent Exposure
- f) Novelty: New or Unusual Stimuli

2. Internal Factors

- a) Past Experiences: Memories and Knowledge, Expectations
- b) Motivation and Needs: Desires and Goals
- c) Emotional State: Mood, Motivation
- d) Attitudes and Beliefs: Personal Values, Expectations
- e) Personality: Individual Traits
- f) Attention: Focus and Concentration, Selective Attention, Perceptual Set

3. Cultural and Social Factors

- a) Cultural Background: Beliefs and Values, Language
- b) Social Influences: Group Dynamics, Social Norms

4. Contextual Factors

- a) Context: Environmental Factors, Surrounding Stimuli

b) Biological Factors: Sensory Abilities, Age and Health

5. Symbolic Factors:

- a) Cultural Symbols: Items like flags or religious icons.
- b) Personal Symbols: Objects with personal meaning, like souvenirs.
- c) Social Symbols: Symbols related to social status, e.g. Uniforms or brand logos.
- d) Emotional Symbols: Items or symbols that evoke personal emotions based on past experiences.
- e) Language and Metaphors: The way we describe things can shape how we perceive them.
- f) Art and Media: Visual and media representations can influence how we understand and react to things.

Perceptual errors.

Perpetual error is the inability to judge fairly and accurately. Bias, prejudice, etc., will lead to perceptual errors.

1. **Illusion:** A wrong interpretation of a perception. For example, a child perceives tree branches at night as if they are goblins.¹³
2. **Hallucination:** It means a sensory experience that appears real but is created by the mind.¹⁴
3. **Stereotyping:** It is an over-generalised belief about a particular category of people. It can be positive or negative. For example,

¹³ (കുട്ടിച്ചാത്തൻ; വേതാളം; ഹുനാംപേച്ചി; ഭൂതം.)

¹⁴ (ഭ്രമം, മായാദൃശ്യം; ഇല്ലാത്ത അനുഭവം ഉള്ളതായ തോന്നൽ; മതിഭ്രമം; വിഭ്രാന്തി)

Politicians are corrupt, government employees are lazy, Boys are brighter, etc.

4. **Recency Bias:** Recency is the tendency of individuals to be most influenced by something that has happened recently, compared to old events.

For example, while assessing songs, an average singer may get a better score if he comes after some below-average singers.

5. **Primacy effect:** Tendency of making an opinion about one person based on first impression. E.g. assessing a person based on his dress.

6. **Contrast effects:** There are two types of contrast effects: positive and negative. A 'positive contrast effect' would occur if something was perceived as better than it is. It is because it was compared to something worse. For example, an average student may be rated as a bright student in a worse group. A bright student may be rated as an average student in the best group.

7. **Halo/Horn effects:** These are cognitive biases. Here, perception is unduly influenced by a single trait. When a negative trait influences it, it is the horn effect. When a positive trait influences it, it is a halo effect.

E.g. Halo effect: Impression on celebrities, own religious leaders, and political leaders.

Horn effect: Impression on opponent religious leaders, political leaders.

8. **Similarity-Attraction Effect:** People tend to be attracted to others who are similar to themselves in certain respects. E.g., attitudes,

values, activity preferences, and attractiveness. "birds of a feather".

9. **Attribution Error:** It is a cognitive bias. People tend to explain someone's behaviour in terms of their personality. For example, Mr X failed an examination. Y presumes that it was because of his inability to learn (internal attribution). Mr. X explained that he had failed because he had been affected by a fever that day. He blames the situation rather than himself. (external/situation attribution)

A few years back in Kerala, Madhu was killed by a mob who suspected him as a thief, though poverty was the reason.

10. **Self-fulfilling prophecy:** Pre-conceived expectations and beliefs determine the perception. e.g. when a teacher labelled a kid as stupid (because he has illegible handwriting). Soon, the kid believed in the teacher and behaved like one.
11. **Status effect:** Give better appraisals to those in higher-level positions than those at lower levels. For example, a playback singer in the cinema or a reality show may get a higher score in a music competition than an ordinary student who sings better.

12. Selective Perception

This happens when we only notice what we expect or want to see. For example, if you believe "all cats are aggressive", you might only remember the times a cat scratched you and ignore the times a cat was friendly.

Attitude¹⁵

"Attitude is a little thing that makes a big difference."

-Winston Churchill

¹⁵ <https://www.iedunote.com/attitude-definition-characteristics-types>

Attitude refers to emotions, beliefs, viewpoints, mindsets, and behaviours toward a particular object, person, or event. Attitudes are primarily our response to people, places, things, or events in life. Attitudes are the result of experience. They can have a powerful influence over behaviour.

Attitude is how you think or feel about something, affecting your actions. For, if you like something, you'll be positive about it; if you don't like it, you'll be negative.

Features of Attitude

These features help explain why we feel and act the way we do toward different things.

- 1. Direction:** Positive, Negative, Neutral, or Mixed: You can like something (positive), dislike it (negative), have no opinion, or have both good and bad feelings about it (mixed).
- 2. Strength:** Strong or Weak: Attitudes can be powerful, hard to change, mild, or easily influenced.
- 3. Stability:** Stable or Unstable: Some attitudes stay the same over time, while others change, especially if you have mixed feelings.
- 4. Accessibility:** Easy or Hard to Recall: Some attitudes come to mind quickly, while others are less noticeable, especially if you're neutral.
- 5. Affect:** Emotional Component: Your attitude involves feelings, like being happy, angry, or indifferent (neutral) toward something.
- 6. Cognitive Component:** Beliefs and Thoughts: Your attitude is shaped by what you think or believe about something, whether those thoughts are positive, negative, or mixed.

7. Behavioural Component: Actions or Reactions: Your attitude often influences how you act, whether you do something positive, negative, or nothing at all (neutral).

Types of attitude

Attitudes can be categorised in various ways. These different types of attitudes can interact with each other. It shapes a person's overall disposition toward life, work, relationships, and various other aspects of their environment. Some common types of attitudes are:

1. Positive Attitude

A positive attitude involves a constructive and optimistic outlook toward situations, people, or tasks. E.g. confidence, enthusiasm, gratitude, and resilience.

2. Negative Attitude

A negative attitude reflects a pessimistic and often critical perspective. E.g. cynicism, pessimism, hostility, and resentment.

3. Neutral Attitude

A neutral attitude is one where an individual has no strong feelings or opinions toward a situation or object. E.g. indifference, apathy.

4. Sceptical Attitude

A sceptical attitude is characterised by doubt or questioning, often requiring proof before accepting something as true. E.g. Critical thinking, cautiousness, questioning.

5. Ambivalent Attitude

Ambivalence occurs when an individual has mixed feelings or contradictory attitudes toward the same object, person, or situation. E.g. a love-hate relationship, mixed emotions.

6. Cognitive Attitude

Cognitive attitudes are based on beliefs, knowledge, or thoughts about something. E.g. belief in the importance of education and understanding the health benefits of exercise.

7. Affective Attitude

Affective attitudes are based on emotions or feelings toward an object, person, or situation. E.g., fear of public speaking or a love for a hobby.

8. Behavioural Attitude

Behavioural attitudes reflect how an individual intends to behave or act toward something. E.g. decide to boycott a brand or volunteer for a cause.

9. Explicit Attitude

Explicit attitudes are those that individuals are consciously aware of and can easily articulate. E.g. stating a preference for a particular political party.

10. Implicit Attitude

Implicit attitudes are unconscious beliefs or feelings that influence behaviour without conscious awareness. E.g. unconscious biases and automatic preferences.

Values

Values are basic and fundamental beliefs that guide human behaviour. The values of people are associated with the values of their culture. Personal values exist about cultural values. Values guide behaviour, decision-making, and how individuals or societies assess good, bad, right, or wrong. They are often deeply held beliefs

that influence attitudes and actions. A culture is a social system that shares a set of common values. Such values permit social expectations and collective understandings of the good and bad.

Values can be Personal Values (Moral & Aesthetic Values), Achievement Values, Cultural Values (Traditional & Modern Values), Social Values (Altruistic & Interpersonal Values), Economic Values (Material & Work-related Values), Political Values (Democratic & Authoritarian Values), Religious/Spiritual Values (Faith-based & Spiritual Values), and Universal Values (Human Rights & Environmental Values)

Learning

Learning is a behaviour change influenced by previous behaviour. Learning is a key process in human behaviour. The individual is constantly interacting with his environment. This experience makes him modify his behaviour. The skills, knowledge, habits, attitudes, interests and other personality characteristics result from learning. All learning involves either physical and/or mental activities. They may be simple or complex.

Learning is "any relatively permanent behaviour change that occurs as a result of practice and experience".

Learning is "the function based on how a person processes and reasons information".

People are capable of learning new motives through their organisational experiences.

Elements of learning:

- a. Learning is a **behaviour** change—good or bad.

- b. Learning is a change that takes place through **practice or experience**. A change due to growth is not learning.
- c. Change in behaviour must be **relatively permanent**.

Process of Learning

According to behaviourist theories, there are four stages of learning: Stimulus, responses, motivation, and reward.

1. Drive/Stimulus:

This stage involves a stimulus that prompts a response. Drives can be physiological (like hunger or thirst) or psychological (like curiosity or fear). The stimulus initiates the learning process by creating a need or desire that drives behaviour.

E.g. A loud noise (stimulus) might cause someone to turn their head (response). A feeling of hunger (drive) might lead someone to seek out and eat food.

2. Response:

This is the action or behaviour that follows the stimulus. Responses can be physical actions or changes in attitudes, perceptions, or behaviours.

E.g. when hungry, a person might cook or buy food. When it rains, a person might use an umbrella.

3. Reinforcement:

Reinforcement is crucial for strengthening the behaviour associated with the response. It increases the likelihood that the behaviour will be repeated in the future. Reinforcements can be positive (rewards) or negative (removal of an unpleasant stimulus).

E.g. receiving praise or a reward for completing a task reinforces the likelihood of repeating the behaviour.

4. Retention:

This refers to the ability to maintain learned behaviour over time. Factors like repetition, reinforcement, and the relevance of the learned material influence retention. Forgetting is the opposite of retention.

e.g. after learning a new skill or piece of information, how well it is retained can vary; some details may be remembered for a long time, while others may be forgotten.

Types of Learning:

The types of learning offer a more detailed and nuanced understanding of how we acquire different kinds of skills and knowledge. The following are the types of learning with associated learning mechanisms and theories.

- 1. Motor learning:** Activities that involve muscular coordination. E.g. walking, running, skating, driving, climbing, etc.
- 2. Verbal learning:** This involves our languages and other communication devices. It centres on the acquisition and use of language and communication tools. This includes learning words, symbols, signs, and other forms of communication. E.g. signs, pictures, symbols, words, figures, sounds, etc.
- 3. Concept learning:** It is the form of learning that requires higher-order mental processes like thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc. E.g. the concept of a wild animal, domestic animal, family, temple, church, etc.

4. **Discrimination learning:** Learning to differentiate between stimuli and respond appropriately to these stimuli. E.g. the horns of different vehicles like buses, cars, ambulances, etc.
5. **Learning of principles:** Principles always show the relationship between two or more concepts. This type helps in generalising knowledge and applying it to different situations -E.g. formulae, laws, associations, correlations, grammar, etc.
6. **Problem-solving:** This higher-order learning requires the use of cognitive abilities such as thinking, reasoning, observation, imagination, generalisation, etc. This is useful to overcome problems - E.g. overcoming stress related to a complex situation.
7. **Social Learning:** Focuses on learning that occurs in social contexts and involves interactions with others. It encompasses both observational learning and learning through social networks and communities.

E.g. New employees learn job skills by watching experienced workers, learning holiday traditions by observing family and community, learning of rituals.
8. **Attitude learning:** Involves forming and modifying attitudes based on experiences and beliefs. Attitudes influence behaviour and reactions toward people, objects, and situations. Learning in this area can affect how we interact with others and perceive the world. Our behaviour may be positive or negative depending upon our attitudes- E.g. attitudes towards the poor, pets, etc.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement is used to increase a behaviour by either giving a reward (positive reinforcement) or removing something unpleasant (negative reinforcement). For example, Giving a child an ice cream

for doing their homework is positive reinforcement, while removing the restriction to play games to finish their work early is negative reinforcement.

Reinforcement Theory of Motivation

Skinner

Reinforcement shapes behaviour by controlling the consequences that follow it. According to the "law of effect," behaviours followed by positive outcomes are more likely to be repeated, while those followed by negative outcomes are less likely to be repeated. There are four types of reinforcement:

1. **Positive Reinforcement:** This involves giving a reward when someone displays positive behaviour, increasing the chance that the behaviour will be repeated. E.g. giving a child an ice cream for being quiet during a shopping trip.
2. **Negative Reinforcement:** This involves removing something unpleasant when the desired behaviour occurs. E.g. lifting restrictions from a child who follows the rules.
3. **Punishment:** This involves applying a negative consequence to decrease the likelihood of an undesired behaviour. E.g. suspending an employee for breaking company rules.
4. **Extinction:** This involves stopping rewards for a behaviour to reduce its occurrence. Eg. If an employee no longer receives praise for good work, they may stop performing well.

Behaviour Modification

This involves various techniques to change behaviour. It includes reinforcement, punishment (adding or removing consequences), and strategies like modelling (showing the correct behaviour) and

shaping (gradually rewarding progress). These methods aim to encourage or discourage certain behaviours.

Classical Conditioning (Pavlovian Theory) of Behaviour Modification:

Proponent: Ivan Pavlov

Associations between stimuli influence behaviour. An involuntary response is triggered by a neutral stimulus that has become associated with a meaningful stimulus. For example, a dog salivates at the sound of a bell paired with food.

Motivation

The word motive comes from the Latin word *motivus*, meaning "to move." It came into English through Old French with the meaning of 'something that drives a person to act'. An individual's performance is influenced by both their ability (skills and competence) and their motivation (desire to accomplish the task). The formula is: $\text{Performance} = \text{Ability} \times \text{Motivation}$.

Abraham Maslow's theory explains that motivation arises from fulfilling five basic needs: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualisation, which shape behaviour.

Being "happy" at work (satisfaction and well-being) is distinct from being "motivated" (the drive to perform well).

Objectives of Motivation

The objectives of motivation are to:

1. **Increase willingness to work** – Motivated employees are more eager to perform tasks and responsibilities.

2. **Enhance job performance** – Motivation transforms skills into higher performance and encourages employees to seek better ways to complete their tasks.
3. **Improve quality** – Motivated workers tend to be more quality-focused, paying extra attention to details in their work.
4. **Achieve organisational goals** – Motivation drives individuals toward achieving goals with greater discipline, pride, and confidence, aligning their efforts with organisational objectives.
5. **Boost job satisfaction** – Increased motivation leads to higher job satisfaction, enhancing productivity and overall performance.
6. **Strengthen employee loyalty** – Motivated workers are more loyal to the organisation, increasing retention and reduced turnover.
7. **Improve public image** – A motivated workforce enhances the organisation's reputation, as motivated employees project a positive image.
8. **Reduce grievances** – Motivation helps lower the number of complaints and grievances, promoting a more harmonious work environment.

Types of Motivation

Out of 7.5 billion (750 crore) people in the world - no two people have exactly the same filters. There are two main types of motivation:

1. Intrinsic Motivation

Motivation that comes from within an individual, driven by personal satisfaction, interest, or the enjoyment of the task itself.

Examples:

Learning a new skill because you enjoy the challenge, Engaging in a hobby for the pleasure it brings, Completing tasks for a sense of accomplishment or personal growth.

2. Extrinsic Motivation

Motivation comes from external factors, such as rewards or avoiding punishment.

Examples:

Working for a salary or promotion, completing a project to receive praise or recognition, and following rules to avoid negative consequences, such as penalties or fines.

In addition to these, some specific forms of motivation include:

- a) **Positive Motivation:** Encouraging behaviour by offering rewards, praise, or incentives.
- b) **Negative Motivation:** Driving behaviour using fear, punishment, or the threat of loss.
- c) **Achievement Motivation:** The drive to reach goals, excel, and gain success.
- d) **Power Motivation:** The desire to influence, lead, or control others.
- e) **Affiliation Motivation:** The need to belong, form relationships, and be part of a group.

Motivational skills

Motivational skills are abilities that help inspire and encourage people to take action, stay focused, and work toward achieving goals. These skills include clear communication, goal-setting, providing positive reinforcement, problem-solving, and building confidence, all of which help boost motivation in yourself and others. Eg. a manager praises an employee for completing a difficult project on time.

Attitude & Motivation:

Attitude refers to a person's mindset, feelings, or perspective towards something, such as work, life, or a specific task. A positive attitude leads to enthusiasm, optimism, and a willingness to engage in tasks. A negative attitude results in lack of interest, disengagement, or resistance.

Motivation is the drive or desire that pushes a person to take action or achieve goals. It can be intrinsic or extrinsic. High motivation leads to better performance, persistence, and dedication. Low motivation results in procrastination and lack of effort.

The connection between Attitude & Motivation:

A positive attitude boosts motivation, while a negative attitude lowers motivation.

E.g. an employee with a positive attitude toward their job will feel motivated to perform well, seek improvement, and contribute to the team, while a negative attitude might result in poor engagement and lack of effort.

Theories of Motivation

There are several approaches to motivation. These approaches help us to understand the nature of motivation better. There are three major types of motivation theories:

1. **Content Theories** (Need approaches) of Motivation: They focus on What motivates us.

A. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs - 1943

B. Clayton Aldefer's ERG Theory -1969

C. Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y - 1960

D. Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory - 1968

E. McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory - 1940

F. William Ouchi's Theory of Z - 1980

2. **Process Theories** of Motivation: They focus on **WHY** and **HOW** motivation occurs. They try to answer **Why** people choose certain behavioural options to satisfy their needs and **How** they evaluate their satisfaction after they have attained their goals.

A. Edwin Locke's Goal Setting Theory -1960

B. John Stacey Adams' Equity Theory/Social Comparison - 1963

C. Victor H. Vroom's Expectancy Theory -1964

3. **Reinforcement Theory**

It focuses on HOW outcomes influence behaviours.

a. B.F. Skinner's Operant Conditioning - 1920/38

b. Edward Thorndike's Law of Effect - 1898

c. Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory - 1960

I. Content Theories (Need approaches) of Motivation:

They focus on what motivates us.

1. Maslow's need hierarchy model:

A THEORY OF HUMAN MOTIVATION

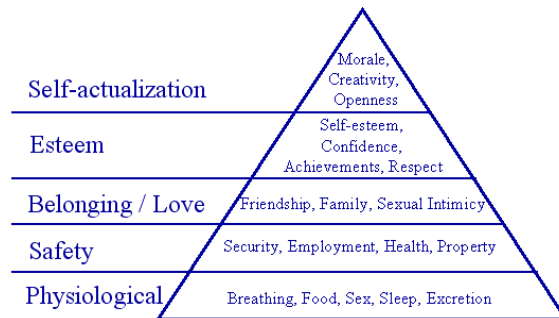
Abraham Harold Maslow¹⁶ (1908-1970) was an **American psychologist**, who is best known for his '**need hierarchy model**.' The model was published in the book 'Motivation and Personality'

Human beings always have desires; once one desire is met, a new one arises. Their behaviour is influenced by unsatisfied needs, not those already fulfilled. Human needs can be arranged in a hierarchy, from basic needs to more complex ones. A person only moves to the next level of needs after their lower-level needs are at least somewhat satisfied.

These needs are divided into five levels: physiological (basic survival needs), safety, belongingness (social needs), self-esteem, and self-actualisation (achieving one's full potential).

¹⁶AH Maslow was the first of seven children born to his parents, who themselves were uneducated Jewish immigrants from Russia. He did his BA, MA, and PhD, all in psychology, from the University of Wisconsin. He served as a professor at Brooklyn College in New York City. The best-known books are *Toward a Psychology of Being* (1968), *Motivation and Personality* (1954), and *The Further Reaches of Human Nature* (1971). Finally, there are many articles by Maslow, especially in the *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, which he cofounded.

The model



The Basic Needs

a) Physiological Needs:

The most basic motivation for human beings comes from physiological needs like hunger, thirst, and sex. They are the strongest of all needs. When a person is extremely deprived of everything, their main focus is on satisfying these physiological needs, especially hunger. In such a state, nothing else—such as love, respect, or freedom—matters until their basic need for food is met. A person in extreme hunger thinks only about food and sees other concerns as unimportant.

b) Safety or Security Needs:

Once physiological needs are satisfied, safety needs become important. These include security, stability, protection, and freedom from fear and chaos. Safety becomes a priority over other concerns, even basic needs, which may be overlooked once they are fulfilled. People only focus strongly on safety during real emergencies, such as wars, natural disasters, crime waves, or social disorder. In such situations, the need for safety and protection can become very urgent.

c) **The Belongingness and Love Needs** (Social or Affiliation Needs):

Once physiological and safety needs are satisfied, the need for love, affection, and belongingness emerges. A person will strongly feel the absence of friends, a partner, or family and will strive to build affectionate relationships. These needs involve both giving and receiving love. It is important to note that love is not the same as sex; while sex is a basic physiological need, love involves emotional connection and mutual care.

d) **Esteem Needs:**

All people have a need for self-esteem and the respect of others, which can be divided into two types:

- (a) the desire for personal strength, achievement, competence, independence, and confidence.
- (b) the desire for recognition, respect, status, and appreciation from others.

When these self-esteem needs are satisfied, they lead to confidence, self-worth, strength, and a sense of being useful and capable.

e) **Self-Actualisation needs:**

Even if all these needs are satisfied, a new restlessness will soon develop unless the individual does what he is fitted for. A musician must make music; an artist must paint; a poet must write if he is to be ultimately at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. He must be true to his own nature. This need we may call self-actualisation. It refers to man's desire for self-fulfilment. The tendency for him to become actualised in what he is potentially. Eg.

desire to be an ideal mother, paint pictures or be involved in inventions. At this level, individual differences are greatest.

Evaluation of Maslow's Theory of Motivation

1. This is the most popular and highly appreciated theory of motivation.
2. The model is simple, common, and human.
3. Giving more of the same reward may have a diminishing impact on motivation.
4. It accounts for interpersonal variations in human behaviour. Employees may belong to varying levels of Maslow's needs hierarchy.
5. Need hierarchy model is dynamic, and motivation is presented as a constantly changing force.
6. Man is never satisfied; the individual will typically redirect his efforts to higher needs.
7. Maslow's approach is based on existential philosophy.¹⁷

Criticisms

1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs cannot be directly applied to work motivation.
2. The hierarchy does not exist among needs. At all levels, needs are present at a given time.
3. There are differences in the hierarchy of needs across countries.

¹⁷ Existential philosophy emphasises individual existence, freedom and choice. Humans define their own meaning in life and try to make rational decisions despite existing in an irrational universe. The basic tenet is that man is healthy, good, and creative, capable of working out his own destiny.

4. Individuals differ in the relative intensity of their various needs.
5. The assumption of psychological health is not widely accepted. Many individuals may stay content with lower-level needs- physiological and safety needs.

2. ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer (1940 - 2015)

This theory is the simplified version of Maslow's need hierarchy theory. Alderfer's ERG theory condenses Maslow's five human needs into three categories: Existence, Relatedness and Growth.

- 1) Existence needs (physical well-being) - They are equal to Maslow's physiological and safety needs.
- 2) Relatedness needs (satisfactory relations with others) - They are equal to Maslow's social and esteem needs.
- 3) Growth needs (development of competence and realisation of potential)- They are equal to Maslow's self-actualisation needs.

Frustration Regression Principle

According to ERG theory, people have multiple needs that can be satisfied simultaneously, meaning more than one need can be active simultaneously. If a higher-level need is frustrated, a person might focus on fulfilling lower-level needs instead. For example, a person might seek more money if social needs are unmet. This is called the frustration-regression principle, which impacts workplace motivation.

Additionally, factors like education, family background, and cultural environment can influence which needs are more important to an individual.

Criticisms:

The theory does not offer a clear-cut guideline. For eg. To determine the three needs that an employee wants to satisfy at a given time.

3. McGregor y's Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor explains this theory in his book (1960s) "The Human Side of Enterprise". They refer to two management styles – authoritarian (Theory X) and participative (Theory Y).

Theory X

Theory X is based on negative assumptions about the average worker. It assumes that employees lack ambition, avoid responsibility, and are primarily motivated by their goals or money. Managers with this mindset believe workers are lazy and less intelligent, leading to a "command-and-control" environment where authority is centralised and little trust is placed in employees.

Key assumptions of Theory X include:

1. People dislike work and will avoid it when possible.
2. Most employees are not ambitious and prefer to be directed.
3. They lack creativity in solving problems.
4. Motivation is limited to basic physiological and security needs.
5. Employees are self-centred, resist change, and must be controlled or threatened to work.

Theory Y

Theory Y is optimistic about employees, assuming they are self-motivated, enjoy work, and seek responsibility. It acknowledges individual differences and encourages workers to develop their

skills, aligning personal goals with organisational goals. This leads to a participative, decentralised management style.

Key assumptions of Theory Y include:

1. Work can be as natural as play when conditions are favourable.
2. People are self-directed and creative in achieving work objectives.
3. Commitment to goals increases when rewards meet higher-level needs.
4. Creativity and imagination are common in employees.
5. Given the right conditions, people will seek responsibility.

The theory concludes that while some initial control may be necessary, it can be gradually relaxed as employees mature and develop.

4. Herzberg's Two-factor theory (1968)

(Dual factor/ motivation-hygiene theory)

This theory was formulated based on a survey of 200 accountants and engineers. The theory focuses on the fact that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite poles. According to Herzberg, the opposite of "Satisfaction" is "No satisfaction", and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction" is "No Dissatisfaction". This theory identifies that there are two sets of factors that influence job satisfaction:

Satisfaction is affected by 'motivator factors' and dissatisfaction by 'hygiene factors'.

A. Hygiene Factors (Prevent Dissatisfaction)::

Hygiene factors are important for keeping employees from feeling dissatisfied, but they don't create positive satisfaction. If these factors are missing, they lead to dissatisfaction. They include Fair Salary/Pay, Clear and fair Policies and guidelines, Job Security, Safe and comfortable work environment, Interpersonal Relationships, Quality of management and Supervision, Work-life Balance or Reasonable work hours, and Status or the position or rank within the organisation.

B. Motivator Factors (Increase Satisfaction):

Motivational factors create positive satisfaction and encourage employees to perform better. These factors are directly related to the work itself and are called satisfiers. They include recognition for good work, achievement of meaningful tasks and goals, responsibility over tasks and decisions, advancement for career growth or promotion, work itself: engaging that is interesting or challenging, personal growth: opportunities for learning and skill development, autonomy: freedom to make decisions and manage one's own work.

To achieve motivation, managers should cope with both 'hygiene factors' and 'motivators'

Traditional View

Dissatisfaction-----Satisfaction

Two-Factor View

Absent

Present

Dissatisfaction ----- (Hygiene Factors) -----No Dissatisfaction

No Satisfaction ----- (Motivators) ----- Satisfaction

According to the Two-Factor Theory, there are four situations:

1. **High Hygiene + High Motivation:** Employees are motivated and have few complaints, which is ideal.
2. **High Hygiene + Low Motivation:** Employees have few complaints but are not very motivated; they see the job mainly as a paycheck.
3. **Low Hygiene + High Motivation:** Employees are motivated but have many complaints, often about poor pay or work conditions.
4. **Low Hygiene + Low Motivation:** In the worst case, employees are unmotivated and have many complaints.

Criticisms

1. **Method Issues:** People take credit for success and blame outside factors for failures, which affects the results of Herzberg's method.
2. **Focus on Satisfaction, Not Work Output:** The theory looks at job satisfaction but doesn't consider how productive employees are.
3. **Doesn't Consider Different Situations:** The theory overlooks how different workplace conditions can impact motivation.
4. **Overlap Between Factors:** Both motivators and hygiene factors can cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction, so they aren't completely separate.

5. McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory - 1940

McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory explains three main needs that drive people:

1. Need for Achievement (nAch): People who want to succeed and take on challenging tasks. They set high goals, take risks, and like feedback on how they're doing.
2. Need for Power (nPow): People who want to lead and influence others. They like being in control and enjoy situations where they can show leadership.
3. Need for Affiliation (nAff): People who value close relationships. They want to be liked, prefer teamwork, and avoid conflict to keep good social connections.

In simple terms, people are motivated by achievement, power, or relationships, and understanding this helps managers give tasks that suit their employees' motivations.

6. William Ouchi's Theory of Z - 1980

Theory of Z combines American and Japanese management styles. It emphasises job security and employee well-being to build loyalty and commitment. Key points of theory z include job security, team decision-making, gradual promotion, employee care, and strong culture. Theory Z aims for a balanced approach that values productivity and employee happiness.

Contemporary Theories of Motivation

"Contemporary" refers to something that is current, modern, or existing simultaneously with the present. It provides a modern understanding of what drives individuals to act in certain ways. These theories often emphasise the complexity of motivation, considering a combination of personal, psychological, and environmental factors.

1. Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET)

Founders: Deci and Ryan in 1975

CET explains how external rewards (like money or praise) can affect people's natural, internal motivation to do something for enjoyment or personal satisfaction. The theory explains how external rewards affect motivation:

1. **Controlling Rewards:** If people feel they're only doing something for a reward (like money), they might lose interest in the activity. E.g. a child who loves drawing might stop enjoying it if they get rewarded every time and start focusing only on the reward.
2. **Informational Rewards:** Rewards that recognise someone's ability (like praise for doing a good job) can increase motivation because they make people feel skilled and valued.
3. **Perception of Control:** People need to feel in charge of their actions and capable of success. If rewards make them feel controlled, their motivation drops. If rewards make them feel competent and free, their motivation increases.

2. Goal setting Theory (1968)

Edwin A. Locke

The theory explains how setting clear, specific, and challenging goals helps people stay motivated and improve performance. Setting specific, challenging goals makes people more focused, motivated, and productive. Key Ideas of the theory include:

Specific Goals: Clear and specific goals are better than vague ones.

Example: "Increase sales by 10%" works better than "Try harder."

Challenging but Achievable: Goals should push one to work hard but still be possible to reach.

Example: Learning a new skill for a job is challenging but doable.

Commitment: One must be committed to the goal and believe in its importance to stay motivated.

Feedback: Regular feedback helps track progress and keeps you motivated.

Task Complexity: For complicated goals, break them into smaller steps to make them more manageable.

Why It Works:

Focus: Goals help you concentrate on what's important.

Motivation: Challenging goals push you to do your best.

Better Performance: Clear goals lead to better results

3. The Equity-Expectancy Model

It combines two separate but related motivation theories: Equity Theory by J. Stacy Adams and Expectancy Theory by Victor Vroom. Together, these theories help explain how perceptions of fairness and expectations of outcomes influence motivation in the workplace.

3a. Equity Theory of Motivation.

J. Stacey Adams

Adams' Equity Theory says that people want fairness in their work relationships. They compare:

Inputs: What they contribute, such as effort, time, skills, and loyalty.

Outputs: What they get in return, like pay, benefits, recognition, and job security.

People need to feel that:

They are fairly rewarded for their efforts.

Their rewards are similar to what their peers receive.

If they think they're being treated unfairly, they will feel upset and may try to change things to restore fairness.

3b. Expectancy model.

Victor Vroom (1932)

It is a process theory of motivation that states that a person's motivation is shaped by their expectations for the future. It is based on three key factors: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy.

Valence: This is how much a person values the potential rewards. It reflects the idea that someone finds an outcome desirable based on their own preferences.

Expectancy refers to how much a person believes their effort will lead to the desired results. It's about self-confidence and belief in their abilities, often influenced by past experiences and the difficulty of the goal.

Instrumentality: This is the belief that achieving the desired results will lead to actual rewards. It reflects the idea that if someone accomplishes a task, they expect to receive the promised rewards.

Why Equity Theory and Expectancy Theory are given together

It is because they provide a complete understanding of motivation. Equity Theory highlights the importance of fairness in how rewards

are distributed based on effort and contribution, while Expectancy Theory focuses on how people's beliefs about their abilities and the relationship between effort and rewards influence their motivation. Together, they show that for individuals to be truly motivated, they need to feel that they are being treated fairly and that their efforts will lead to meaningful rewards.

II. Reinforcement Theories

It focuses on HOW outcomes influence behaviours.

1. B.F. Skinner's Operant Conditioning - 1920/38

It is a learning theory by B.F. Skinner that explains how rewards and punishments shape behaviour.

Key ideas:

1. **Positive Reinforcement:** Rewarding good behaviour makes it more likely to happen again. Eg: Praising someone for a job well done.
2. **Negative Reinforcement:** Removing something unpleasant to encourage behaviour. Eg: Taking away extra chores when tasks are completed on time.
3. **Punishment:** Giving a negative consequence to stop bad behaviour. Eg: Giving a warning for breaking rules.
4. **Extinction:** Ignoring a behaviour until it stops because it's no longer rewarded. Eg: Not responding to a tantrum can make it go away.

In simple terms, behaviour can be shaped by using rewards to encourage good actions and punishments to discourage bad ones.

2. Edward Thorndike's Law of Effect - 1898

The theory states behaviours followed by positive outcomes are more likely to be repeated, while behaviours followed by negative outcomes are less likely to occur.

Key points of the Law of Effect:

Positive Consequences: If an action leads to a satisfying or rewarding result, the likelihood of repeating that behaviour.

Negative Consequences: If an action results in discomfort or an unfavourable outcome, the behaviour is less likely to be repeated.

The Law of Effect explains that people tend to repeat actions that bring good results and avoid bad ones.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Section A. Weight 1

1. What are the characteristics of human behaviour? (2021)
2. Write a note on Complex Man? (2022)
3. What do you mean by perception? Explain its nature. (2021)
4. What characteristics of the perceiver affect perception?
5. Briefly explain the figure-ground principle of organisation in 'perception theory. (2022)
6. Mention any four Motivating Factors of Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. (2022)

Section B. Weight 2

1. Distinguish between the Organisation Man Model' and the self-actualising Man Model."
2. How does the social environment of an individual influence his behaviour?
3. 'Models of Man' helps to understand the behaviour of individuals. Discuss
4. How do biological factors influence personality?
5. What personality traits are relevant from the point of view of OB?
6. Perception is a process consisting of many subprocesses. Explain?
7. Mention any four criticisms of Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory.
8. Family and social groups shape a person's personality through the process of socialisation and identification. Explain? (2022)
9. Explain any four characteristics of Motivation? (2022)
10. What do you understand by the term values? How do values differ from attitude?
11. Mention any four Maintenance Factors of Herzberg's Two Factor Theory.

12. Distinguish between Equity Theory and Expectancy Theory.

Section C. Weight 5

1. Discuss the major personality traits that influence organisational behaviour and explain their impact on employee performance. (2022)
2. Briefly discuss the steps in Behaviour Modification. Critically examine its uses and limitations.
3. Examine the factors determining personality by citing relevant examples.
4. What is meant by Organisational Behaviour Modification? Explain the steps involved in the process.
5. What do you mean by Maslow's hierarchy of needs? Do financial incentives increase employees commitment to organisations. Explain. (2021)
6. Discuss the process of learning and explain how learning influence an individual behaviour. (2021)
7. "Perceptual Interpretation is more complex than perceptual selection and perceptual organisation" Explain.
8. The motivation of each individual is very personal, and general theories of motivation cannot apply to an individual". Critically evaluate the statement.
9. According to equity theory, how might an individual who is overpaid feel and behave? What might such a person due to alleviate this inequality? (2022)
10. Discuss the Expectancy model of Motivation. Explain the implications of this model for managers and organisations.

Module 5

Group Behaviour and Leadership

5.1 Transactional Analysis

5.2 Group behaviour

5.3 Stages of Group Development

5.4 Teams and Types of teams

5.5 Authority and Power

5.6 Leadership

5.7 Theories of Leadership

Group Behaviour

Group behaviour refers to the collective actions, interactions, and dynamics within a group, shaped by norms, roles, cohesion, and factors like social facilitation and social loafing.

Leadership involves guiding and influencing group members toward achieving common goals. Effective leadership is crucial in shaping group dynamics, fostering collaboration, improving decision-making, and motivating members.

In essence, leadership and group behaviour are interconnected, with leadership influencing the group's performance, cohesion, and overall success.

Models to Improve Interpersonal Behaviour

Transactional Analysis (TA) and the Johari Window are communication models that help improve group behaviour and leadership. Both models focus on how people communicate and understand themselves. TA shows how people interact in different ways (like a parent, adult, or child) and how good leaders use calm, logical communication. The Johari Window helps to learn more about themselves by sharing and getting feedback, which builds trust in the group.

Transactional Analysis (TA):

Developed by Eric Berne in the 1950s

TA is a psychological model to analyse human behaviour and communication. TA is based on the idea that people have three distinct ego states: Parent, Adult, and Child. This influences how they interact with others. It is basically the concept of Sigmund

Freud's concept of the human psyche- id, ego, and superego.¹⁸. These ego states represent patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving. These ego states help explain how individuals interact and respond based on their past experiences and learned behaviours.

Id: According to Freud, we are born with our **Id**. The id is an important part of our personality because it is the basic, instinctual drive prevailing in all. It is the only component of personality that is present from birth.

For example,. When a child is hungry, the id wants food, and therefore it cries. When the child is uncomfortable or just wants attention, the id speaks up until his/her needs are met. The id doesn't care about reality, about anyone else's needs, only its satisfaction.

Ego: The ego deals with reality. It tries to meet the id's desires in a socially acceptable way. The ego recognises that other people also have needs and wants, and that being selfish is not always good for us in the long run. Thus 'ego' is ready to behave as per the society's accepted way.

For example, She was interested in the 'liquor' during the party but waited for the drinking water.

He was really in need of money, but he was not ready to steal.

Superego: The superego develops last, based on morals and judgments about right and wrong. Even though the superego and the ego may reach the same decision about something, the superego's reason for that decision is more based on moral values. In contrast, the ego's decision is based more on what others will think or what the consequences of an action could be.

For example,. She was really interested in the 'liquor' during the party, but she waited for the drinking water because she believed that taking 'liquor' was a bad habit as well as a wrong model for his children.

He was really in need of money, but he was not ready to steal. He knew that stealing was wrong, even though no one would know about it.

Parent (Exteropsyché): This state reflects behaviours and thoughts learned from parents or parental figures. People may mimic how these figures acted in their own childhood. They are often manifesting as controlling or nurturing. Parent states include positive aspects like caring, loving, or supportive behaviour and negative aspects like Critical, punishing, or judgmental behaviour.

E.g. A person may shout at someone in frustration because they learned that behaviour from a role model during childhood.

Adult (neopsyché): The adult state functions as the rational, logical part of the personality, making data-driven decisions. It processes information logically and objectively. It provides no chance for emotional reactions.

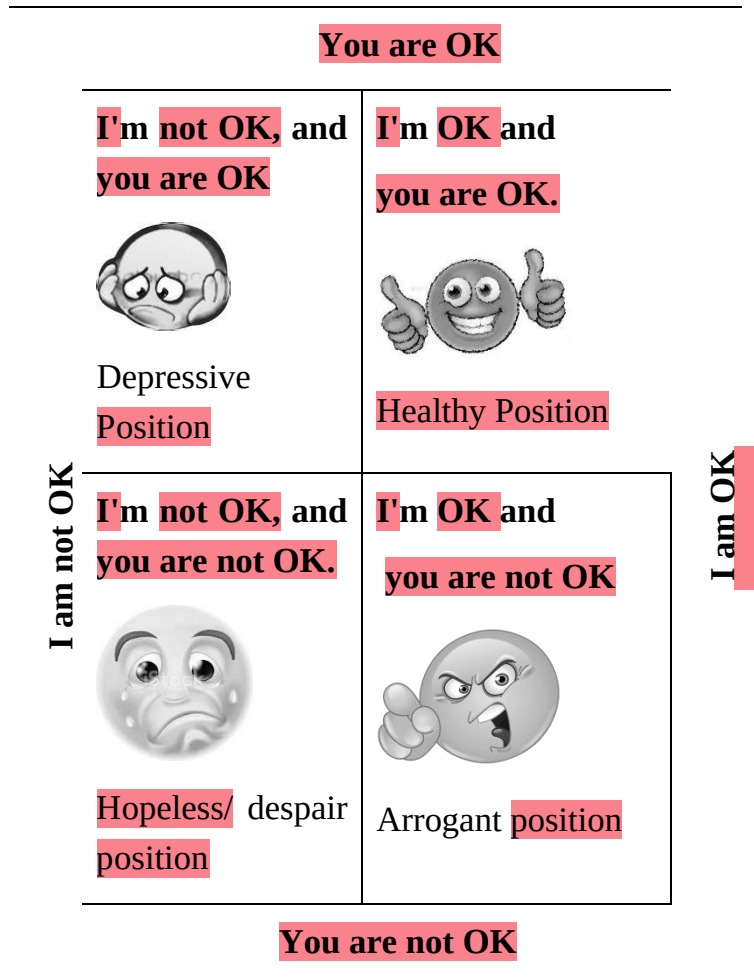
Eg. The adult in the neo psyche is someone who responds to life's complexities with reflection, deliberation, and self-awareness, grounded in reasoning and adaptive behaviour.

Child (archaeopsyché): It is the child ego state in TA. The child's ego state represents the emotional and spontaneous side, often shaped by past experiences and impulses. This state expresses feelings, instincts, and experiences from childhood rather than logic. Child state can be natural (curious, creative, open, fun-loving) or adaptive (fearful, guilty, afraid, anxious, prideful, dependent).

Life Position Quadrants

In TA, Life Positions represent fundamental beliefs about oneself and others that influence behaviour and interactions. These positions are often depicted in a quadrant model, with two axes: one for self-worth (I'm OK vs. I'm not OK) and one for the worth of others (You're OK vs. You're not OK).

Life Position Quadrants



The four life positions are:

- a) **I'm OK, You're OK:** This is the healthiest position. It means you feel good about yourself and believe others are capable, too. You're ready to engage positively with others.

b) I'm OK, You're Not OK: Here, you feel good about yourself but see others as flawed or inferior. This mindset is usually unhealthy and can lead to feelings of superiority over others.

c) I'm Not OK, You're OK: In this position, you see yourself as weak and accept mistreatment as normal. You have low self-esteem and often prioritise others over yourself, wanting to please them.

d) I'm Not OK, You're Not OK: This is the worst position. You feel bad about yourself and believe the world is also negative. It leads to feelings of hopelessness and lack of support.

Importance/Applications of TA

By using TA, people can improve communication, self-awareness, and relationships. Practical applications of TA include:

1. Therapy and Counselling:

Self-awareness: Helps people recognise which ego state they're using in interactions, leading to healthier behaviours.

Conflict Resolution: Identifies misunderstandings by analysing communication styles.

Life Script: Explores personal life patterns that may be unhelpful to change negative behaviours.

2. Education:

Teacher-Student Communication: Teachers can improve classroom interactions by staying in the Adult state, promoting respect and understanding.

Conflict Resolution: Helps to resolve conflicts by understanding the ego states involved, encouraging better communication.

3. Organisations and Leadership:

Effective Leadership: Leaders can enhance workplace communication by recognising their and their team's ego states.

Team Dynamics: Analyses group behaviour to prevent issues and promote open communication.

Performance Feedback: Encourages constructive feedback by focusing on facts and reducing emotional responses.

4. Personal Development:

Improving Relationships: Helps individuals understand and improve patterns in their interactions.

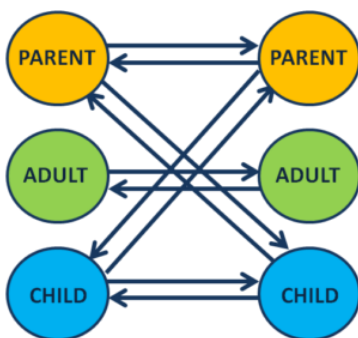
Decision-Making: Promotes rational decision-making by encouraging the use of the Adult state.

5. Conflict Management:

Helps identify mismatched communication styles in conflicts for better resolution.

Transactions between Ego States

In TA, transactions refer to interactions between different ego states (Parent, Adult, Child) in communication. Understanding these transactions helps identify how people relate to each other and why misunderstandings or conflicts arise.



1. Complementary Transaction:

One person's ego state directly corresponds to the other's, leading to smooth interactions. Eg. Parent to Child: A parent says, "You need to do your homework," and the child responds, "Okay, I'll do it."

Or Adult to Adult: Two colleagues discussing a project logically and respectfully.

2. Non-complementary/Crossed Transactions:

In crossed transactions, the response comes from an unexpected ego state, leading to misunderstandings or conflict. Eg. For Adult to Child: A manager asks an employee to provide an update, but the employee responds defensively, saying, "Why are you always picking on me?"

Parent to Parent: Two people trying to control each other, leading to arguments.

3. Ulterior Transactions:

These transactions involve hidden meanings or motivations where the surface message differs from the underlying message. For example. A person saying, "I'm just trying to help," while feeling superior in controlling the situation, even though they present it as a supportive adult statement.

Or A Child expressing anger in a way that seems playful but carries deeper hurt.

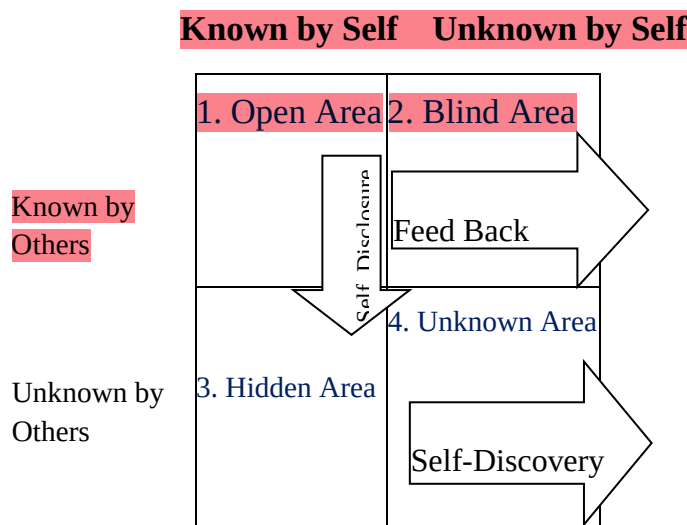
The Johari Window

Developed by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham in 1955.

The Johari Window is a tool for enhancing self-awareness and communication within groups. It has four quadrants:

1. Open Area: What is known to both oneself and others.
2. Blind Area: What others know about a person that they do not.
3. Hidden Area: What a person knows about themselves but hides from others.
4. Unknown Area: An area that is unknown to both the individual and others.

In group behaviour and leadership, this model promotes transparency and feedback. Effective leaders aim to increase the 'open area' to build trust and collaboration. They can reduce the 'blind area' through feedback. This fosters group cohesion and personal growth.



The Johari Window is important because it helps people become more self-aware and improves group communication. By sharing feedback, individuals can build trust, strengthen relationships, and promote personal growth, which is key for effective teamwork and leadership.

Application of Johari Window

The Johari Window is applied in various fields to improve communication, self-awareness, and interpersonal relationships. Here are some common areas of application:

1. **Organisational Development:** Enhances team trust and collaboration through open communication.
2. **Leadership Development:** Helps leaders become more self-aware and transparent.
3. **Personal Development and Counselling:** Encourages self-discovery and openness in personal growth.
4. **Communication Skills Training:** Improves interpersonal communication by addressing blind spots.
5. **Education and Classroom Settings:** Promotes better student-teacher interaction and peer feedback.
6. **Human Resources and Performance Appraisals:** Encourages open feedback to improve employee performance.
7. **Group Dynamics and Team Building:** Builds trust and openness among team members for better collaboration.
8. **Coaching and Mentoring:** Strengthens the mentor-mentee relationship through open feedback.
9. **Cross-Cultural Communication:** Reduces misunderstandings by promoting openness in cultural exchanges.

Groups in organisation

From birth, a person becomes part of a family, which is their first group. In the family, a child learns social norms, values, and the rules of society. This makes the family the primary group, playing a major

role in shaping a child's personality and social development. Later, other groups like neighbours, school, peers, and clubs also influence a person's growth. Throughout life, people are always part of some group, and their group shapes their behaviour at any given time.

Group

A group is a collection of two or more people who interact, share common goals, and influence each other's behaviour. A group is made up of two or more people who interact and influence each other's behaviour. Groups are formed to offer mutual support and work together to achieve a common goal.

"Groups consist of two or more persons engaged in social interaction. The group has some stable structure, interdependence, and common goals, and they recognise that they are, in fact, part of a group." Barone and Byrne (1988)

Nature of Group

A group has the following characteristics:

1. It consists of more than one person.
2. Group members must interact with each other.
3. Members are interdependent in some way.
4. They share a common goal or purpose.
5. They meet to achieve this shared purpose.
6. Relationships between members are stable.
7. A group is a social unit.

Being in the same place, like in a cinema or on a bus, doesn't make a group. There must be a shared purpose or goal for it to be considered

a real group. A brief conversation between strangers doesn't form a group either. A group requires a common purpose.

What makes a group?

The term "group" is used in various contexts, such as:

a) Physical Proximity: People sitting, talking, or walking together may be called a group.

b) Virtual Proximity: Social media platforms allow people to form virtual groups, even if they are not physically together.

c) Common Characteristics: People with shared traits, like taxpayers, merchants, students, or social workers, may be considered a group, even if they don't interact.

d) Members of an Organisation: Groups formed within political, religious, or club organisations.

e) Common Goal: Groups formed to achieve a specific goal, like a festival committee or inquiry commission, dissolve after the goal is met.

f) Shared Identity: Members feel a sense of belonging and see themselves as part of the group (e.g., cultural or national groups like Lions/Rotary Club).

g) Roles and Responsibilities: Members may have specific roles or duties contributing to the group's goals (e.g., program coordinators).

h) Emotional Connection: Many groups have emotional bonds to support each other during challenges (e.g., family or friends).

Reasons for Group formation:

(a) **Member's Point of View:** Companionship, Identity, Information, Security, Esteem, sense of belongingness, Outlet of

frustration, Perpetuation of cultural values, Generation of new ideas, Self-evaluation, Job satisfaction, Power, etc.

(b) **Organisation's point of view:** Delegation, Lightening responsibility, Filling gap of managerial ability, Careful planning, Medium of information, etc.

Kinds of group¹⁹

1. Basic Groups

Family Groups: The first and most fundamental group formed at birth.

Friendship Groups: Formed based on personal connections and social interactions.

2. Peer-Based Groups

Peer Groups: Consist of individuals of similar age or status who interact regularly.

Buddy Groups: Smaller, close-knit peer groups providing emotional support and companionship.

3. Interest-Based Groups

Interest Groups: Formed around common interests, hobbies, or goals.

Pressure Groups (Lobby): Advocate for specific issues or influence public policy.

4. Formal and Structured Groups

Formal Groups: Established by organisations for specific purposes, such as committees and commissions.

¹⁹ <http://www.psychologydiscussion.net>

Task Groups: Formed to complete specific tasks or projects within an organisation.

Command Groups: Defined by the organisational structure, with a clear hierarchy.

Committees: They are groups formed to discuss problems and recommend solutions, with members chosen regardless of hierarchy (e.g., purchase committee, inquiry committee).

Commissions: They are government bodies set up, either temporarily or permanently, to advise or provide solutions on specific issues (e.g., Kothari Commission).

5. Special Purpose Groups

Social Clubs: Groups formed for recreational purposes or social activities.

Professional Associations: Groups formed by individuals in the same profession to network and promote their interests.

6. Group Dynamics

Autocratic Groups: Groups led by a single leader making decisions for the members.

Democratic Groups: Groups where decisions are made collectively by all members.

7. Comparisons

In-groups: Groups to which individuals feel they belong and identify with.

Out-groups: Groups that individuals do not belong to and may perceive as different or outside their own.

8. Interaction Types

Face-to-Face Groups: Groups that interact directly in person.

Co-acting Groups: Groups that work together but may not interact directly, such as in a shared workspace.

9. Social Structures

Cliques: Exclusive groups within a larger group, often formed around shared interests or social connections.

Caste Groups: In societies where caste systems exist, individuals are born into specific social strata with defined roles, privileges, and responsibilities.

10. Affiliation Groups

Membership groups: They are defined by formal criteria for joining. E.g. Rotary/Lions Club

Reference groups: These include individuals or groups that influence our opinions, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours—E.g. Family members, relatives, friends, etc.

Group Dynamics

Group dynamics is the study of the forces operating within a group. It refers to the attitudinal and behavioural characteristics of a group. It is concerned with why and how groups develop. Group dynamics can be used as a means for problem-solving and teamwork and to become more innovative and productive as an organisation. There are several theories as to why groups are formed and developed.

Theories of Group Formation

1. Festinger's Propinquity Theory
2. New Comb's Balance Theory

3. Tajfel's Social Identity Theory
4. Homans' Social Systems Theory
5. Kelley's Social Exchange Theory

1. Festinger's Propinquity (Convenience) theory:

The term propinquity means closeness or nearness. It refers to the idea that physical or geographical proximity between people significantly influences the likelihood of forming friendships or relationships. Key concepts of the theory are proximity leading to interaction, increased exposure, and convenience of access.

Propinquity theory was proposed by the psychologists Leon Festinger, Stanley Schachter, and Kurt Back, based on a study carried out in 1950 in the Westgate student apartments on the MIT Massachusetts, USA campus.²⁰

2. Homans' Social System Theory

George C. Homans, in 1950, in his book "The Human Group."

Homan's theory is based on three concepts: **activities, interactions and sentiments**, which are directly related. The theory explains how social group activities, interactions, and sentiments are connected. This helps us to understand how relationships and group dynamics form and grow.

Activities: These are the activities people in a group do together, like working on a project or socialising. When people share more activities, they naturally interact more.

Interactions: This is how group members communicate and respond to each other. Interaction is key to forming social bonds. The more

²⁰ Festinger, L., Schachter, S., Back, K., (1950) "The Spatial Ecology of Group Formation", in L. Festinger, S. Schachter, & K. Back (eds.), **Social Pressure in Informal Groups**, 1950. Chapter 4.

people interact, the more they get to know each other, leading to shared feelings.

Sentiments: These are group members' feelings or emotions for one another, like affection or loyalty. More interactions lead to stronger emotions and a sense of belonging.

How they are connected:

1. More shared activities lead to more interactions.
2. More interactions lead to stronger sentiments (feelings) among group members.
3. Stronger sentiments encourage more activities and interactions.

3. New Comb's Balance theory (Symmetry Model):

Theodore M. Newcomb in 1953

The theory explains how people try to maintain harmony in their relationships through communication and shared attitudes. It looks at relationships between two people and a shared object (an idea, topic, or third person, let 'x'). Balance: If both people agree on the object ('x'), their relationship is balanced and harmonious. However, if they disagree, there is tension or imbalance. To fix the imbalance, people either:

Change their own opinion about the object.

Try to change the other person's opinion.

Adjust their feelings about the other person.

In short, people communicate and adjust their attitudes to keep their relationships balanced and harmonious.

4. Kelley's Social Exchange theory

Harold H. Kelley 1959, in the book "The Social Psychology of Groups."

The theory explains relationships like a cost-benefit analysis, where people try to maximise rewards and minimise costs. The key Points are:

Relationships as Exchanges: People in relationships give and receive things like affection, support, or favours. They evaluate if they are getting more than they are giving.

Maximise Rewards: People want relationships that give them positive outcomes, like happiness, trust, or satisfaction.

Minimise Costs: They try to avoid adverse outcomes, such as conflict, stress, or effort.

Comparison: Individuals compare their relationship to other options or past relationships to decide if they are getting a good deal.

In simple terms, people stay in relationships that feel rewarding and fair while avoiding costly or unbalanced ones. For example, sex may be extremely rewarding for members of a newly married couple but may decrease over the years.

5. Tajfel's Social Identity Theory²¹

Henri Tajfel, in 1970, in his book Social Identity Theory (SIT)

The theory explains how people define themselves and others based on their social groups and how this influences behaviour and attitudes. Key points include:

²¹ www.simplypsychology.org/

Social Identity: People derive part of their identity from the groups they are a part of, such as nationality, religion, or political affiliation. Being in a group gives individuals a sense of belonging.

In-groups vs. Out-groups: People tend to see the group they belong to (the in-group) positively and may see other groups (the out-groups) negatively. This can lead to favouritism toward in-group members and discrimination against out-groups.

Self-esteem: People want to feel good about the groups they belong to. A strong, positive group identity can boost self-esteem, while a negative identity can lead to low self-esteem.

Group Comparison: Individuals compare their group to others to feel superior. This comparison helps maintain positive self-identity but can also cause prejudice and conflict between groups.

For example, a person might feel proud to be an Indian (their social identity) and view their national group positively (in-group) while viewing citizens of another country less favourably (out-group). This can lead to national pride but also to prejudice against the out-group.

In short, Social Identity Theory shows that being part of a group shapes self-esteem and interpersonal relationships. Sometimes, this group identity can lead to unfair treatment of people in other groups.

Factors Influencing Group Behaviour

Several key factors influence group behaviour. This determines how individuals act within a group. Some of the most important factors include:

1. Norms:

Norms are the informal rules that guide how people in a group behave. They set expectations for what is acceptable and help keep the group organised.

Types of Norms:

Descriptive: What most people in the group do.

Prescriptive: What the group expects you to do.

Proscriptive: What the group says you should not do.

When someone does not follow the norms, they might face pressure from the group to change their behaviour.

2. Cohesiveness:

Cohesiveness is how connected and united the group members feel. A cohesive group works well, and its members are motivated to achieve common goals. Shared goals, positive relationships, and smaller group sizes increase cohesiveness:

A cohesive group is more likely to be productive, but sometimes, it can lead to groupthink, where the desire to get along prevents people from thinking critically.

In short, norms shape group behaviour, and cohesiveness affects how closely the group works together.

3. Leadership:

The type and quality of leadership greatly influence group behaviour. A strong, supportive leader can motivate the group, while poor leadership can lead to disorganisation and dissatisfaction.

4. Group Size:

The size of the group affects dynamics. Smaller groups often have stronger bonds and better communication, while larger groups may struggle with coordination and experience social loafing (members exert less effort).

5. Diversity:

Diversity in the group's background, skills, and perspectives can influence creativity and problem-solving. However, too much diversity without proper management can lead to misunderstandings or conflict.

6. Roles:

Roles define specific tasks and responsibilities within the group. Clear roles help the group function efficiently, while role ambiguity can lead to confusion and frustration.

7. Communication:

Effective communication is crucial for group success. Open, clear, and honest communication helps members share ideas, resolve conflicts, and make decisions.

8. External Environment:

The group's environment, including external pressures such as deadlines, competition, and available resources, can impact how the group behaves and performs.

Group Cohesiveness

Cohesion means unity. Group cohesiveness means unity of the group members. A cohesive group will have more trust in their leader and group members. Generally, the more difficult it is to obtain a group membership, the more cohesive it will be.

Stages of Group Development

The stages of group development are commonly described through a model proposed by psychologist Bruce Tuckman in 1965. He identified five key stages that groups typically go through as they develop and work together.

1. Orientation (Forming Stage):

This is the initial stage when the group is first brought together. Members are polite, cautious, and somewhat reserved. They try to understand the group's purpose, set boundaries, and get acquainted with each other.

The focus is establishing the structure, clarifying roles, and building trust.

2. Power Struggle (Storming Stage):

As members become more comfortable, conflicts and competition may arise. Differences in opinions, personalities, and working styles can lead to disagreements. Power struggles and resistance mark this stage as members negotiate roles and responsibilities. The less challenging members stay in their comfort zone.

The focus is on addressing conflicts, clarifying roles, and developing interpersonal relationships.

3. Cooperation and Integration (Norming Stage):

The group begins to resolve conflicts and establish norms. Members develop a sense of cohesion and unity and start working together more effectively. Trust builds, and they create shared goals and agreed-upon methods for reaching them. At this stage, the group becomes fun

The focus is on Solidifying roles, establishing norms, and enhancing collaboration.

4. Synergy (Performing Stage):

Synergy is the creation of a whole greater than the simple sum of its parts. (1+1+1=6). The term synergy comes from the Greek word 'synergia' meaning "working together". At this stage, the morale is high. A sense of belongingness is established. Synergy is created. The group remains focused on the group's purpose and goal. Members are flexible, interdependent, and trust each other. The group can now operate with minimal supervision.

The focus is on achieving goals, maintaining high productivity, and continuous improvement.

5. Closure (Adjourning Stage):

This stage of a group can be confusing. This stage is usually reached when the task is successfully completed. At this stage, the project is coming to an end. Members reflect on their accomplishments and share feedback. The team members are disbursed. Some may feel a sense of loss as they part ways.

The focus is on closure, celebrating achievements, and providing feedback.

Group Structure

Group structure refers to the arrangement of roles, norms, status hierarchies, and patterns of interaction among group members. This structure helps determine how the group functions, communicates and meets its objectives. Roles are the responsibilities each member takes on. Norms are shared expectations about behaviour. Status defines each member's level of influence. Communication patterns

shape how information flows within the group. A well-structured group fosters productivity and helps members work together efficiently.

Group Decision making

When a group of individuals are brought together to determine a solution to a problem, it is called GDM. Effective GDM requires encouraging open dialogue, valuing diverse viewpoints, and ensuring all members feel comfortable voicing their opinions. There are mainly four main methods of GDM: NGT, Delphi technique, Brainstorming and Didactic interaction, Consensus Decision-Making, Multi-Voting, and Fishbowl Technique.

1. Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

The Nominal Group Technique (NGT) is a structured method for group decision-making. Members first generate ideas individually and write them down. Then, these ideas are shared and discussed as a group. After discussion, each idea is ranked or rated, helping the group reach a collective decision. This approach minimises the influence of dominant members and ensures that everyone's ideas are considered.

The NGT method has the following steps:

1. **Idea Generation:** Members independently write down their ideas in silence to encourage individual creativity without influence from others.
2. **Collection of Ideas:** A group coordinator collects and displays the written ideas on a large board for everyone to see.

3. **Discussion:** The group discusses each idea individually, allowing participants to comment for clarification and improvement.
4. **Evaluation:** After the discussion, the group evaluates the merits and drawbacks of each idea.
5. **Voting:** Each member votes on the ideas to express their preferences.
6. **Ranking:** Ideas are ranked based on the votes to prioritise potential solutions.
7. **Final Selection:** The idea with the highest ranking is chosen as the final solution.

This structured approach helps ensure that all voices are heard and that the best idea emerges through collective evaluation.

ii. Delphi Technique:

This technique is the modification of the NGT. The experts are physically separated from each other and unknown to each other. This ensures undue influence of group members on others. However, the process is very time-consuming.

1. Experts provide potential solutions to a problem using a series of questionnaires.
2. Each expert completes and submits the first questionnaire.
3. The coordinator compiles the responses and prepares a second questionnaire based on the feedback.
4. Each expert receives a summary of the responses along with the second questionnaire.

5. Experts review the summary and respond to the second questionnaire.
6. This process repeats until a consensus is reached among the experts.

iii. Brainstorming:

In brainstorming, a small group of 5 to 10 members shares ideas freely without judgment, aiming to generate as many ideas as possible. The process includes the following key points:

1. The primary focus is on generating ideas, not evaluating them.
2. Ideas are encouraged without criticism, fostering creativity and open thinking.
3. All ideas are written on a board for everyone to see, promoting transparency and participation.
4. After generating ideas, the group discusses and improves upon them collaboratively.

This method helps harness collective creativity and can lead to innovative solutions.

iv. Didactic Interaction:

Didactic interaction is used in situations that require a "yes or no" decision. Experts are divided into two groups: one discusses the pros, and the other discusses the cons of a particular solution. Afterwards, both groups meet to share their findings and reasoning. This exchange of ideas helps members understand opposing viewpoints and can lead to mutual acceptance of the best solution.

v. Consensus Decision-Making: The group works together to find a solution everyone can accept, even if it is not their first choice. This

approach fosters unity and commitment to the decision but can take longer to reach agreement. Steps include:

1. Define the Issue,
2. Facilitate Open Discussion,
3. Explore Alternatives,
4. Identify Emerging Consensus,
5. Address Concerns and Modify Proposal,
6. Test for agreement by voting,
7. Formally Adopt the Decision,
8. Assign Responsibilities for implementation,
9. Evaluate the Process

vi. Multi-Voting: Members are given a limited number of votes to cast on a list of ideas. This helps narrow down options and identify the most favoured choices quickly.

vii. Fishbowl Technique: In this method, a small group discusses an issue while the larger group observes. Afterwards, the observers can join the discussion to share their perspectives. This can lead to more focused discussions and greater participation.

Teams

A team is a group of interdependent individuals who work toward a specific goal. Team members share a common goal.

Types of teams

Teams can be divided into four main groups: functional teams, cross-functional teams, self-managed teams, virtual teams, operational teams, leadership teams, and task forces.

1. **Functional teams** are employees of the same department who work for a shared goal. The manager or department head is the team leader. E.g., the marketing team, the R&D team, etc.
2. **Cross-functional teams** are made up of individuals from various departments. For example, a product development team with members from marketing, engineering, and R&D.

3. **Self-managed teams** are groups operating without direct supervision, managing their tasks and responsibilities.

For example, a team of employees can organise their schedules to complete a project.

4. **Virtual teams** work together from different locations, using technology for communication.

E.g. A remote team of software developers via virtual platforms.

5. **Operational teams** focus on day-to-day operations and activities within an organisation. They are responsible for implementing processes and ensuring that work is done efficiently.

For example, a customer service team will handle inquiries daily.

6. **Leadership teams** consist of leaders from different departments. They focus on strategic decision-making and guiding the organisation towards its goals. They set direction, align resources, and ensure the effective execution of strategies.

E.g. An executive leadership team to discuss policy change.

7. **Task Forces** are temporary teams formed to address a specific issue.

For example, a task force is created to improve customer service processes.

Group Vs Teams

Group	Team
1. A collection of individuals	1. A group who share a common goal.
2. May not have any common goal	2. Have a specific goal to achieve.
3. Focus on individual goals	3. Focus on common goals.
4. Individual accountability	4. Individual and group accountability
5. Individual success or failure is possible.	5. Only group success or failure is possible.
6. May not have inter-dependency	6. Members are interdependent.
7. The level of trust and commitment is low	7. The level of trust and commitment is high
8. Synergy is neutral or negative.	8. Synergy is positive
9. May not have the active participation of all members.	9. Active participation of all members
10. The chances of conflicts are higher.	10. The chances of conflicts are less.

Authority

Authority is the right to make decisions and give orders. Authority often comes with a position or role. E.g. a teacher or a police officer.

Fayol defines authority as:

“The right to give orders and the power to exact obedience.”

Responsibility involves being accountable. Authority and responsibility go together. They are two sides of the same coin.

Power

Power is the ability to get things done, sometimes over the resistance of others. It comes from having control, strength, or influence.

Authority Vs Power

Authority is about legal permission, whereas power is about capability.

Authority and Power

Authority is about legal permission, whereas power is about capability.

Authority and Power

Authority	Power
1. Legal right to make decisions and give orders.	1. the ability to influence or control others' actions
2. It comes from a position, law, role, or accepted rules.	2. Comes from law, strength, resources, or personal influence
3. It is generally accepted and respected by others.	3. Always need others' acceptance; it can be forced.
4. Granted by an organisation or society to make it legitimate.	4. It may or may not be legitimate or fair.
5. Tends to be more stable	5. Can be temporary
6. Linked to a specific role or position.	6. Based on the situation.

Sources of Power

There are several bases/sources of power. They can be classified into positional power and personal power.

A. Positional Power

Comes from a job title or role, like a manager or president.

1. **Legitimate Power:** Comes from holding a formal position, like a principal, president, or CEO. People follow because of the position, not necessarily the person. This power disappears when the title is lost.
2. **Reward Power:** Based on the ability to give rewards. If people expect rewards like raises, promotions, or praise, they are more likely to do what is asked.
3. **Coercive Power:** Comes from the ability to punish. Using threats or punishments can control others but can also be misused.
4. **Informational Power:** Stems from controlling valuable information. It can be used to assist others or to influence them as a bargaining tool.

B. Personal power

They stem from an individual's characteristics, skills, and qualities rather than their position.

1. **Expert Power:** This power comes from having specialised skills and knowledge. People trust and respect knowledgeable individuals, leading them to seek their advice and leadership.
2. **Referent Power:** This power is based on a person's likability and charm. Celebrities and well-respected colleagues can influence others, but they may misuse this influence for personal gain if they lack integrity.
3. **Charismatic Power:** Charismatic people can inspire and influence others without a formal title. Their charm and personal qualities can significantly impact situations.

4. **Moral Power:** This power comes from strong ethical values like integrity and fairness. These values can vary among individuals and cultures but can significantly influence others.

Tactics used to gain power

Tactic means using a source of power to achieve a strategic objective. Tactics are methods individuals use to turn their sources of power into actions. The following are some examples:

1. **Bargaining:** Negotiating benefits to gain more advantages, especially for those with stronger bargaining power.
2. **Friendliness:** Being humble and friendly to influence others and gain power.
3. **Coalition:** Forming temporary alliances with others to achieve common goals.
4. **Competition:** Groups compete for limited resources and try to influence how those resources are shared.
5. **Cooperation:** Sharing important roles with other groups ensures collaboration and reduces conflict.
6. **Reason:** Using facts and logical arguments to persuade others and gain influence.
7. **Assertiveness:** Being direct and forceful, such as demanding compliance or giving orders.
8. **Higher Authority:** Seeking support from superiors to strengthen requests made to subordinates.
9. **Sanctions:** Using rewards and punishments, like offering promotions or demotions, to influence behaviour.

10. **Pressure:** Using aggressive tactics, such as threats from trade unions or management, to gain power.
11. **Expertise:** Gaining influence through specialised knowledge or skills.

Status

Status is the relative social or professional position of a person. It is the position of an individual about another. It can be of two types: Ascribed status and achieved status.

Ascribed status is assigned at birth or assumed involuntarily later in life. It is typically based on race, ethnicity, gender, family heritage, or caste—E.g. family member, Indian, malayalee, parents, etc.

Individuals attain achieved status through their efforts, choices, or accomplishments. It is earned based on merit, skills, education, or hard work—E.g. Doctor, Teacher, student, clerk, farmer, etc.

Status system

A status system is a structured social hierarchy categorising individuals based on their status. This system can be explicit (like job titles) or implicit (like social circles) and varies across cultures and communities.

E.g. Explicit status system

CEO → Vice President → Manager → Executive

Professor → Associate Professor → Assistant Professor

General → MG → Colonel → Lt Colonel → Major → Captain → Lieutenant

Brahmins → Kshatriyas → Vaishyas → Shudras

King/Queen → Prince/Princess → Duke/Duchess → Lord/Lady

E.g. Implicit status system

Popular, Students, Athletes, Artists, Musicians

Billionaires, Millionaires, Middle-Class, Working-Class

Social Media Influencers, celebrities, vlogger, youtuber

Problems caused by status system²²

1. **Social Inequality:** Status systems can perpetuate inequality, as individuals in higher statuses may have greater access to resources, opportunities, and privileges, while those in lower statuses may experience marginalisation.
2. **Discrimination and Prejudice:** Individuals from lower-status groups may face discrimination or bias from those in higher-status positions, leading to social tensions and conflicts.
3. **Mental Health Issues:** The pressure to conform to a certain status or the stigma of being in a lower status can lead to mental health challenges, such as anxiety, depression, or low self-esteem.
4. **Reduced Mobility:** Status systems can create barriers to social mobility, making it difficult for individuals to move up in status due to systemic issues like lack of education or economic resources.
5. **Conflict and Division:** These systems can foster division within communities or organisations, as individuals may form factions based on status, leading to conflict and a lack of collaboration.

²² <https://www.apa.org/monitor/2015/02/class-differences>

6. **Stifled Innovation and Diversity:** A rigid status system can discourage diverse perspectives and innovative ideas, as those in lower-status positions may feel silenced or undervalued.
7. **Cultural Homogeneity:** Status systems often promote conformity to certain cultural norms, leading to a lack of diversity in thought and behaviour within a society or organisation.

Leadership

Leadership is the ability to guide and inspire others towards a common goal. It involves influencing the behaviour of a group to work together effectively. More than just a position or authority, leadership is about motivating and encouraging people to achieve their best. As John Quincy Adams said, "If your actions inspire others to dream more, learn more, do more, and become more, you are a leader." True leaders persevere without constant rewards and maintain a strong connection with their followers.

Features of Leadership (Traits, Qualities, Characteristics, Attributes)

"Features" refer to the distinct qualities, characteristics, or attributes of something. When describing leadership, features are the specific traits or aspects that define what leadership is and how a leader behaves. These features help identify what makes a leader and how they effectively guide and influence others.

1. **Influence:** A leader can influence others' actions and decisions.
2. **Motivation:** Leaders inspire and encourage people to achieve goals.

3. **Communication:** Leaders communicate ideas effectively to others.
4. **Decision-making:** Leaders make decisions and solve problems for the group.
5. **Integrity:** A leader is honest and maintains strong moral principles.
6. **Empathy:** Leaders understand and consider others' feelings and perspectives.
7. **Adaptability:** A good leader adjusts to changing situations and challenges.
8. **Responsibility:** Leaders are accountable for their actions and that of their team.
9. **Inspiration:** Leaders inspire people to improve and grow.
10. **Honesty and Integrity:** Great leaders are truthful and uphold strong moral values.
11. **Confidence:** They believe in themselves and their decisions.
12. **Accountability:** They take responsibility for their actions and their team.
13. **Vision:** They clearly know what they want to achieve and how to get there.
14. **Decisiveness:** They make informed and confident decisions promptly.
15. **Resilience:** They remain strong and positive in challenging situations.
16. **Humour:** Great leaders maintain a sense of humour and find joy in various situations.

17. **Courage:** Courageous leaders inspire confidence in their team.
18. **Self-Control:** Great leaders can manage emotions and behaviours, especially in challenging situations.
19. **Sense of Judgment:** They can make wise decisions and form sound opinions.
20. **Charisma:** Great leaders have a compelling presence that attracts and inspires loyalty from others.
21. **Teamwork:** Effective leaders can transform a group of individuals into a cohesive and collaborative team.

Leadership styles.

Leadership style is the way a person uses power to lead other people. These leadership styles illustrate the various ways leaders can influence their teams. Understanding these styles can help individuals to adapt their approaches to suit different situations.

1. Autocratic Leadership

One person makes decisions with little input from others. Quick decision-making is emphasised. This style limits creativity and employee involvement, leading to low morale and reduced motivation.

Types:

- a) **Hard-boiled Autocratic:** Strict leaders using negative motivation (e.g. Adolf Hitler).
- b) **Benevolent Autocratic:** Leaders use positive reinforcement (e.g. Queen Elizabeth I).
- c) **Manipulative Autocratic:** Leaders give the illusion of participation (e.g. Napoleon Bonaparte).

2. Democratic Leadership

Democratic leadership involves including team members in decision-making, encouraging open communication, and valuing everyone's input. It boosts team motivation and creativity by valuing everyone's ideas and contributions. But, the decision-making can be slow due to the need for group discussions and consensus.

For example, Franklin D. Roosevelt valued input from his advisors and the public.

3. Strategic Leadership

This leadership style expresses a long-term vision and motivates others to achieve long-term goals. It helps organisations stay competitive and achieve long-term success. However, it can overlook immediate challenges by prioritising long-term goals.

For example, Ratan Tata has guided the Tata Group with a strategic vision.

4. Team Leadership

It involves guiding and motivating a group to work collaboratively towards common goals. It encourages collaboration and leverages the strengths of each team member. It can lead to conflicts if not managed well, as differing opinions and roles may clash.

For example, a project manager manages a team of managers for a new marketing campaign.

5. Cross-Cultural Leadership

Cross-cultural leadership involves managing and guiding a diverse team from different cultural backgrounds. It fosters innovation and creativity by incorporating diverse viewpoints from different

cultures. It can lead to conflicts if cultural differences are not effectively appreciated.

For example, CEOs of MNCs who navigated various cultures effectively.

6. Facilitative Leadership

Facilitative leadership involves leading a group by fostering collaboration, encouraging participation, and helping members reach their conclusions. It empowers team members to take ownership of their work and develop their skills. It can lead to a lack of direction if the structure is inefficient.

For example, Gandhi advocated for Satyagraha and facilitated mass movements like the Salt March in 1930. Initiatives like the Khadi Movement emphasised the need for communal harmony, etc.

7. Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is a hands-off approach where leaders provide minimal guidance and allow team members to make decisions and take responsibility for their work. It fosters creativity and independence, as team members can explore their ideas. However, it can lead to a lack of direction and accountability, resulting in inconsistency in team performance.

For example, Vikram Sarabhai, founder chairman of ISRO, exhibited characteristics of laissez-faire leadership, particularly in encouraging innovation and independence among his team members.

8. Transformational Leadership

This style inspires and motivates team members to prioritise the organisation's goals over their own. It encourages creativity and innovation. This creates a positive environment for change. It

encourages personal and professional growth among team members. The high expectations and constant drive for improvement may overpower team members.

For example, Mahatma Gandhi inspired significant social change.

9. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is a style focused on structured tasks and clear exchanges. Here, leaders provide rewards or penalties based on the performance. It provides clear expectations and rewards, ensuring efficiency and consistency in achieving short-term objectives. It limits creativity and initiative, emphasising routine tasks and long-term growth.

For example, Bill Gates focused on structured goals, clear expectations, and reward-based performance during his leadership at Microsoft.

10. Coaching Leadership

This style focuses on guiding, supporting, and developing team members by providing regular feedback, encouragement, and personalised training. It enhances individual growth and skill development, leading to long-term improvement and job satisfaction. It requires significant time and effort from the leader, which can be challenging.

For example, Mahatma Gandhi's approach was transformational and coaching in the sense that he guided and mentored people.

Nelson Mandela, former President of South Africa, was renowned for his approach to mentoring others and empowering the next generation of leaders.

11. Charismatic Leadership

This is a style where leaders inspire and motivate followers through personal charm, convincing communication, and emotional appeal. They often create a strong emotional connection with their team. It fosters deep loyalty and enthusiasm among followers. But, if the leader leaves or fails, it may lead to instability for the group.

For example, APJ Abdul Kalam, whose charisma motivated the people of India,

12. Visionary Leadership

This style focuses on creating a compelling vision for the future. They inspire others to work towards achieving that vision. They focus on fostering innovation and change. The leaders can transform their visions into reality. This motivates followers by providing a clear sense of direction and purpose. However, it may overlook practical details and immediate concerns, leading to potential implementation challenges.

For example, Mahatma Gandhi, Dr A.P.J. Abdul Kalam, Vikram Sarabhai, Steve Jobs, etc., had a clear vision and inspired their team.

13. Situational Leadership

This style thinks that effective leaders adapt their style based on the situation. This is a flexible style that adapts to the needs of the team. This helps the leaders to choose the most effective approach based on the maturity and competence of their followers. It can lead to inconsistencies in leadership approaches, confusing team members.

For example, Indira Gandhi demonstrated situational leadership, particularly during the Emergency period (1975-1977) when she made controversial decisions to maintain stability in the country. She

adjusted her leadership style according to the political climate and challenges of the time.

Narendra Modi has shown situational leadership by adapting his strategies to address various national issues, such as economic reforms, the COVID-19 pandemic, and social issues. His ability to communicate directly with citizens and adjust policies based on public sentiment is a hallmark of situational leadership.

Situational Leadership Model: Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard developed this model based on the varying needs of employees:

D1: Directing style for low competence, high commitment.

D2: Coaching style for some competence, low commitment.

D3: Supporting style for moderate to high competence, variable commitment.

D4: Delegating style for high competence high commitment.

Theories of Leadership Styles

What allows authentic leaders to stand apart from the masses? Many have tried to answer this. There are many theories on leadership. Theories are based on how they define the leadership. The widespread theories are Great Man Theory, Trait Theory, Behavioural Theories, Contingency Theories, Transactional Theories, and Transformational Theories.

I. **Great Man Theory** (1840s) by Thomas Carlyle

Book "On Heroes, Hero-Worship, and The Heroic in History"

The Great Man theory assumes that the traits of leadership are intrinsic. This means that great leaders are born; they are not made.

II. Trait Theory (1948 - 1974) by Ralph Stogdill and Bernard Bass.

Books "Leadership, Membership and Organization"

"Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership"

The trait theory says that leaders are either born or are made with certain qualities (intelligence, sense of responsibility, creativity, etc.). These qualities make them excel in their leadership roles. These qualities make a good leader.

III. Behavioural Theories (1940's - 1950's)

They focus on the behaviours of the leaders. Leaders are made, not born. As per this theory, leaders are of two categories: Those concerned with tasks and those concerned with people.

Eg. The Managerial Grid Model, Theory of X and theory of Y*, 3D model, Licker's system of Management, Social Learning Approach

*refer to page 19 of the previous module

IV. Contingency/Situational Theories (1960's)

The theory suggests that there is no single way of leading. Leadership style should be based on situations because different situations require different leadership styles. A style that works well in one context may not work in another. This explains why some very successful leaders can make poor decisions at times. The key idea is that a leader's effectiveness depends on various factors, such as their preferred leadership style, their skills, and the behaviours of their followers.

For example, Fiedler's contingency theory, Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory, Path-goal theory, Leader participation model, and 3D model.

V. Transactional (Exchange) Theories (1970s)

This approach is based on a system of rewards and punishments. Leaders provide clear structures and guidelines. Leadership is a transaction between leaders and followers, focusing on short-term tasks.

For example, Bass' Transactional Leadership Theory -1981, Robert House's Path-Goal Theory -1971, Dansereau's Leader-Member exchange (LMX) Theory- 1975

VI. Transformational Leadership Theories (1950-1970s)

The theory emphasises inspiring and motivating followers to achieve their full potential and embrace change for the greater good. Effective leaders create a vision for the future and encourage followers to exceed expectations.

For example, Burns' Transformational Leadership Theory 1978, Bass's Transformational Leadership Theory 1985, and Avolio's Full Range Leadership Model 1991.

Explanation of Some Models

Behavioural theories, such as the Managerial (Leadership) Grid Model by Robert Blake, the Four Systems of Management by Rensis Likert, the 3D Model of Leadership by Reddin, and the Social Learning Approach by Albert Bandura, along with situational theories like Contingency Theory by Fred Fiedler and Path-Goal Theory by Robert House, are elucidated below:

1. Managerial (Leadership) Grid Model by Robert Blake in the 1960s.

Blake and Mouton created the Managerial Grid Model in the 1960s. The theory helps us understand different leadership styles based on

two main factors: concern for people and concern for production (or tasks). They are represented as grids on a graph.

1. Concern for People (Y-axis): Measures how much a leader cares about their team members' needs and well-being.
2. Concern for Production (X-axis): Measures how much a leader focuses on achieving tasks and goals.

Grid Structure:

The grid is a 9x9 matrix where each axis goes from 1 (low) to 9 (high), showing various leadership styles based on the balance between the two concerns.

The Managerial Grid Model is a tool to evaluate leadership styles based on the balance between caring for people and achieving tasks. It helps leaders enhance their effectiveness and create better team environments.

Leadership Styles

1. Impoverished Management (1, 1): Low concern for people and production.
2. Country Club Management (1, 9): High concern for people, low concern for production.
3. Task Management (9, 1): High concern for production, low concern for people.
4. Middle-of-the-Road Management (5, 5): Moderate concern for both.
5. Team Management (9, 9): High concern for people and production.

Applications

Leadership Development: Helps leaders assess their styles and improve.

Training Programs: These are useful in training to develop effective leadership.

Team Dynamics: Improves communication and collaboration within teams.

2. Lickert's Four Systems of Management

Rensis Likert in 1960s

This framework categorises management styles based on the level of participation between managers and employees. This model outlines valuable insights into how management styles impact employee engagement and organisational effectiveness. There are four Systems:

System 1: Exploitative Authoritative

Top-down decision-making with little to no input from employees. High levels of control, and managers use threats and punishments. Communication is primarily one-way, from managers to employees. Impact: Low employee morale and motivation. Limited creativity and innovation.

System 2: Benevolent Authoritative

Managers still make decisions but show some concern for employee welfare. Use of rewards rather than threats to motivate employees. Communication is somewhat two-way but still controlled by managers.

Impact: Improved morale compared to System 1, but still not fully engaging employees.

System 3: Consultative

Managers involve employees in decision-making processes, seeking their opinions and feedback. Communication is more two-way, with a focus on cooperation and collaboration. Managers retain final authority but value employee input.

Impact: Higher employee satisfaction and motivation. Encourages creativity and innovation.

System 4: Participative

High levels of employee involvement in decision-making. Managers and employees work together as a team. They share information and responsibilities. Open and transparent communication flows freely in both directions.

Impact:

High morale, motivation, and commitment. Strong collaboration fosters creativity and problem-solving.

Applications: It is used for organisational assessment, leadership development, change management, etc.

3. 3D Model of Leadership

by Reddin in 1983

Reddin's 3D model is a combination of Grid theory and Contingency theory. The theory presents a three-dimensional framework for understanding leadership effectiveness. It is based on task orientation, relationship orientation, and self-orientation. It identifies four primary leadership styles: Directive (high task, low

relationship), Supportive (high relationship, low task), Delegative (low on both), and Achievement-Oriented (high in both).

4. Social Learning Approach

by Albert Bandura 1960

The theory emphasises that people learn behaviours and attitudes through observing and imitating others rather than solely through direct experience or reinforcement. Bandura introduced the concept of observational learning, which suggests that individuals can acquire new skills and behaviours by watching role models, such as parents, peers, or media figures. This approach highlights the importance of social context, modelling, and the influence of cognitive processes in learning, indicating that behaviour is shaped not just by rewards and punishments but also by social interactions and environmental factors.

5. Fiedler's Contingency Theory:

Fred Fielder (Management Psychologist)

This is a theory of 'leadership effectiveness'. Accordingly, there is no best style of leadership. Leadership effectiveness is based on the situation. It depends on two factors: (a) the style of leadership and (b) the control over a situation.

Fiedler's model suggests that:

Task-oriented leaders perform best in highly favourable (good leader-member relations, structured tasks, strong position power) or highly unfavourable (poor leader-member relations, unstructured tasks, weak position power) situations.

Relationship-oriented leaders excel in moderately favourable situations with a balance between leader-member relations, task structure, and position power.

6. Path-Goal Theory

Robert House in 1970

The theory suggests that a leader's primary role is to help followers achieve their goals by clarifying the path and providing the necessary support. The theory identifies four leadership styles—directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented. Each can be effective depending on the employees' needs and the work environment's characteristics. By adapting their style to the situation, leaders can enhance employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance. This ultimately leads to greater organisational success.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

Section A. Weight 1

1. Explain the use of the Johari Window.
2. Explain the concept of work teams.
3. Define leadership.
4. Discuss the advantages of group decision-making.
5. Write a short note on group cohesiveness.
6. Explain the term virtual team.
7. Define the term status.
8. Discuss the theories of leadership.
9. Explain trait theory leadership.
10. Analyse different types of teams.
11. Explain the qualities of a good leader.
12. Explain laissez-faire leadership.
13. Explain transactional analysis and its significance.
14. Discuss various factors influencing group behaviour.

Section B. Weight 2

1. Write a short note on group cohesiveness.
2. Explain the group norms and their types. How do the norms develop?
3. Explain the concept of work teams.
4. Define leadership styles.
5. Distinguish between authority and power.
6. Describe the components of transformational leadership.
7. Prepare a note on transactional analysis and give one example for each type of transaction.
8. Write about the uses of the Johari Window.
9. Discuss the development levels of followers under situational leadership.

10. Write a short note on ego states in TA.
11. Define the term group.
12. Describe the stages in the development of groups.
13. Compare transformational and transactional leadership

Section C. Weight 5

1. Describe leadership and the qualities of a successful leader.
2. Comment on power in organisations. Explain the different sources of power.

TACKLING ANALYTICAL QUESTIONS

Discuss the development levels of followers under situational leadership.

Hersey & Blanchard Leaders should adjust their style based on the follower's competence and commitment:

D1 – Low Competence, High Commitment

- New or inexperienced, but enthusiastic.
- **Leader style:** Directing – clear instructions, close supervision.

D2 – Some Competence, Low Commitment

- Gaining skills, but confidence drops; may feel frustrated.
- **Leader style:** Coaching – guide + motivate.

D3 – High Competence, Variable Commitment

- Skilled but not always confident or motivated.
- **Leader style:** Supporting – encourage participation and build confidence.

D4 – High Competence, High Commitment

- Experienced, confident, and self-motivated.
- **Leader style:** Delegating – full responsibility and autonomy.

Conclusion

Situational leadership is flexible. Leaders must assess each follower's level and adapt to improve performance and engagement.