



ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR (THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)



Mas 264: ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR





- Introduction to the field of Organisational behaviour.
- WHY STUDY ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR



LECTURE 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE FIELD OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR





Lecture/Learning OBJECTIVES

After completing this lecture, you should be able to:

- Define organisations and describe its characteristics;
- Define organisational behaviour, work and understand their origins;
- Compare and contrast the major theoretical perspectives and conceptualisations for organisations and organisational behaviour;
- Explain why it is important to study organisations and organisational behaviour.



The field of organisational behaviour

- Organisational behaviour mainly involves understanding behaviour in organisations.
- However, understanding organisational behaviour begins with the understanding organisations.
- We know organisations are there because they touch us everyday.



The field of organisational behaviour

- Indeed, they are so common that they are taken for granted.
- For example, we hardly notice that we are born in a hospital, have our birth records registered in a government organisation, are educated in schools and universities, raised on food produced on private/government farms and turn to the police and fire departments when trouble erupts.



The field of organisational behaviour

- An organisation is not a building or sets of policies.
- Organisations are made up of people.
- Organisations also interact with customers, suppliers, competitors and other elements in the environment.
- That is why it has been said that competition in the 21st century's global economy is complex, challenging, and filled with competitive opportunities and threats.



KEY ISSUE 1: WHAT is an organisation?

➤ An organisation is:

“the collection of people who work together and coordinate their actions to achieve a wide variety of goals” (George and Jones, 2008).

“is a socially designed unit, or collectively, that engages in activities to accomplish a goal or set of objectives, has an identifiable boundary, and is linked to the external society”

(Bratton et al., 2007)



KEY ISSUE 1: WHAT is an organisation?

- The definitions implies that:
- Work organisations can be demarcated from other **social entities** or **collectivities** by some **four** common characteristics:



(a) Objectives/goal orientation:

(b) Identifiable/nominal boundaries

(c) Linked to the environment:

(d) Socially designed unit or collectivity:

THE FOUR CHARACTERISTICS:

Identifiable Boundary

Identifiable/nominal boundary: the existence of an identifiable boundary that establishes common membership distinguishing people who are inside and outside the organisation.

Objectives/Goal Orientation

- What *individuals* are trying to accomplish by being members of an organisation, e.g. enjoying a satisfying work experience, etc.
- What an *organisation* as a whole is trying to accomplish, e.g. providing innovative goods and services that customers want, etc.

Linked to Environment

A connection to external society – because organisational activities and action influence the environment or larger society – e.g. political, economic, social-cultural and technological etc.

Socially Designed Unit or Collectivity:

Organisations are always involved with people, and they are characterised by their members and *interactions and relationships between and among them.*





KEY ISSUE 1: WHAT is an organisation?

- Also, work organizations also vary in terms of their products or services; size, purpose, ownership, management, etc.
- Therefore, while some organisations are large, other are small, family-owned, and still others are non-profit organisations or government agencies.
- Some manufacture products such as flat-tv, or light bulbs, while others provide telecommunication services.





KEY ISSUE 1: WHAT is an organisation?

- Work organisations can traditionally also be distinguished in terms of two main groups:
 - **Public sector organisations** - are created by government, and tend not to have profit as their goal.
 - **Private enterprise organisations** - are owned and financed by individuals, partners, or shareholders in a joint stock company and are accountable to their owners or members.



KEY ISSUE 1: WHAT is an organisation?

- Some common classification of organisations (by their major purpose) also include:
 - Business firms (economic organisations)
 - Armies, trade unions and police force (protective organisations)
 - Clubs and societies (associative organisations)
 - Local authorities (public service organisations)
 - Churches (religious organisations)



The organisation & work

- With organisations come work.
- This is because organisations (in all sectors) need to be innovative, employ skilled and motivated people who can work as individuals, in teams, have leaders with foresight and vision, and make decisions that consider the interest of multiple stakeholders.



KEY ISSUE 2: WHAT is work?

- Work refers to physical and mental activity that is carried out at a particular place and time, according to explicit or implicit instructions, in return for remuneration’
(Bratton et al., 2007).
- The definition implies that:
- Work has can be explained by some *five* common characteristics:



KEY ISSUE 2: WHAT is work?

- (1) Work has an economic component. The notion of ‘physical and mental’ characteristic** in the definition suggest that a ‘carpenter’ and a ‘lecturer’ can be considered as work.
- (2) Work has ‘space and time’ component that locates work in a social context,** e.g. the specific location, ‘8 to 5’ work hours (in recent times, flexi-place and flexi-time - e.g. time zones - can be associated with work).



KEY ISSUE 2: WHAT is work?

- (3) Work always involves:
 - (a) **explicit instruction** - expresses terms that are usually **written down** and which govern the specific details of the employee contract of employment.
 - (b) **implicit instructions** - implied terms that are unlikely to be written down but which nevertheless are considered to be part of an employee contract (**psychological contract**)



KEY ISSUE 2: WHAT is work?

(4) Work always involves “**social relations**” between people: **between employer and employees, co-workers, management and trade unions, and between suppliers and customers.**

(5) **Work is “remunerated” (reward).**

There are two types
and extrinsic.





Organisation, work & organisational behaviour

- It has been noted that an organisation can achieve its competitive advantage only when there is the understanding of the **attitudes** and **behaviour** of employees.
- But understanding attitudes and behaviour begin with exploring and understanding the concept of organisational behaviour.



KEY ISSUE 3: WHAT is organisation behaviour?

➤ Organisational behaviour

“is the study of the many factors that have an impact on how people and groups act, think, feel, and respond to work and organisations, and how organisations respond to their environment” (George and Jones, 2008)

“ is the study of what people think, feel, and do in and around organisations”

(McShane and Von cGlinow, 2010)



KEY ISSUE 3: WHAT is organisation behaviour?

➤ Organisational behaviour

“a ***multidisciplinary*** field of inquiry, concerned with the systematic study of formal organisations, the behaviour of people within the organisation, and the important features of the social context that structures all the activities that occur inside the organisation”

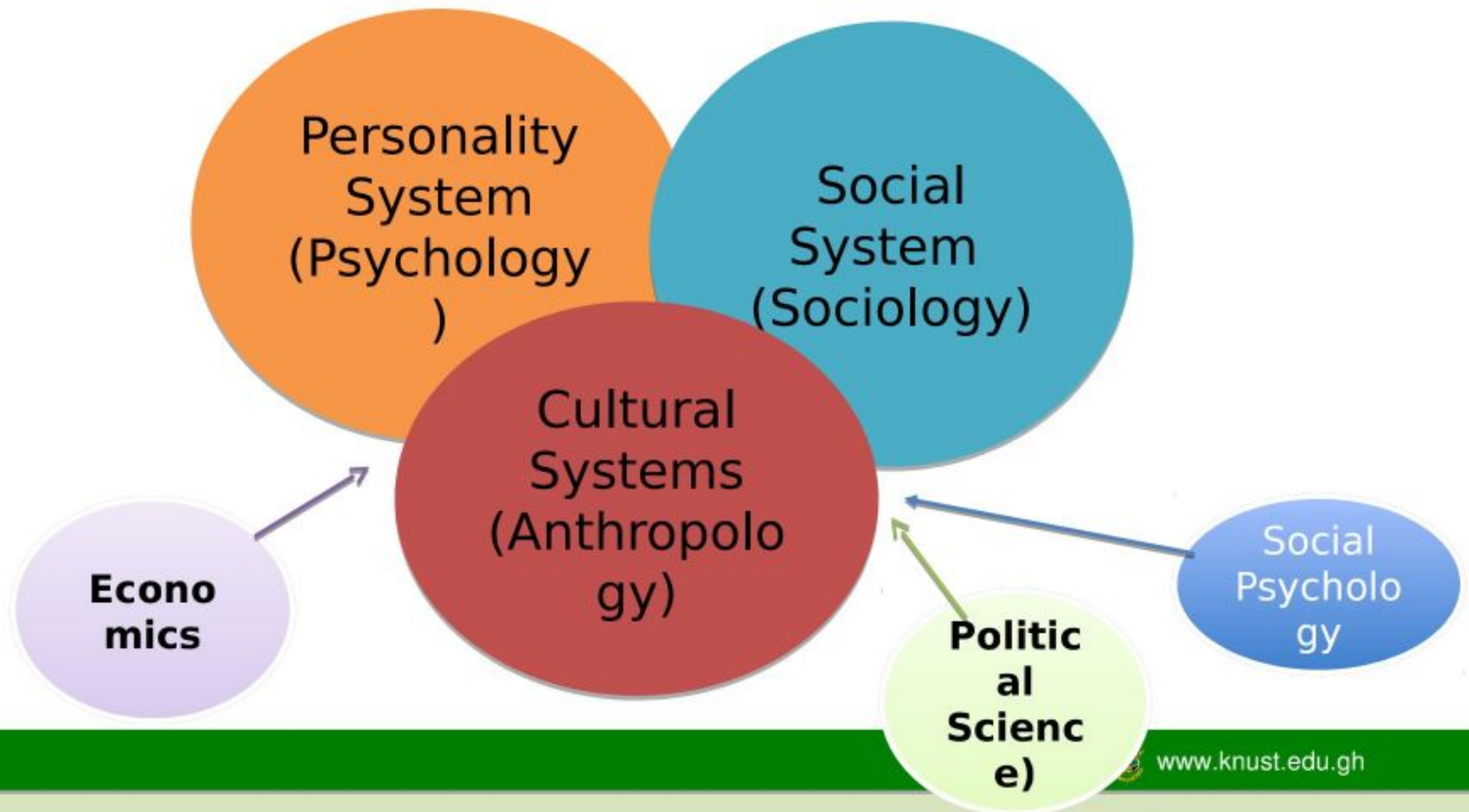
(Bratton et al., 2007)



KEY ISSUE 3: WHAT is organisation organisational?

- The definitions implies that:
- Organisational Behaviour (OB) is an ***applied science*** that is built on the contribution of a numbers of behavioural disciplines.
- It also means that OB draws on theories, principles and findings from a number of other disciplines, including:

MULTIDISCIPLINARY NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR





MULTIDISCIPLINARY NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **Psychology:** the systematic study of *behaviours and mental processes*.
- **Sociology:** the systematic study of the pattern of *social relationships* that develop between human beings.
- **Social Psychology:** is the scientific study of the *interaction of mental state* and immediate *social situations*.



MULTIDISCIPLINARY NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **Political Science** – the study of individual and group behaviour within a political system.
- **Anthropology** – the scientific study of mankind, especially of their ***societies and customs***. The focus is on cultural systems, the beliefs, ideas and values within a group or society.
- **Economics** – the study of ***production and the consumption of goods*** and the transfer of wealth to produce and obtain those goods.



KEY ISSUE 4: WHAT ARE THE LEVELS OF ANALYSIS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- Understanding the concept of organisational behaviour involves exploring the levels of analysis.
- The level of analysis will be looked at from two perspectives – the “levels” of influence and the “parameters” that influence behaviour.



KEY ISSUE 4: WHAT ARE THE LEVELS OF ANALYSIS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **The levels (3) of influence are:**
- **The individual:** organisations are made up of individuals. The individual is a central feature of organisational behaviour and a necessary part of any behavioural situation.
- **The group:** groups exist in all organisations and are essential to their working and performance.
- **The organisation:** Individuals and groups interact within the structure of the formal organisation.



KEY ISSUE 4: WHAT ARE THE LEVELS OF ANALYSIS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **The parameters (3) of influence are:**
- **The inputs:** they are the variables that influence processes and outcome. The inputs can be looked at from the individual, group and organisational levels.
- **The processes:** are the actions that are engaged in as a result of the inputs that influences the outcomes. The processes can be looked at from the individual, group and organisational levels.



KEY ISSUE 4: WHAT ARE THE LEVELS OF ANALYSIS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **The outcomes:** are the key variables that are used to explain and predict behaviour. The outcomes can be looked at from the individual, group and organisational levels.
- For example:



KEY ISSUE 4: WHAT ARE THE LEVELS OF ANALYSIS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **The individual level (and related topics)**
- (a) inputs such as diversity, personality and values.
- (b) processes such as perception, emotions and moods and motivation; and
- (c) outcomes such as attitudes and stress, task performance, citizenship behaviour and withdrawal behaviours



KEY ISSUE 4: WHAT ARE THE LEVELS OF ANALYSIS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **The Group level (and related topics)**
- (a) inputs such as groups and team dynamics,
- (b) processes such as communication, leadership, power and politics, and conflict and negotiations; and
- (c) outcomes such as group and team cohesion.



KEY ISSUE 4: WHAT ARE THE LEVELS OF ANALYSIS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- **The Organisational level (and related topics)**
- (a) inputs such as structure and culture,
- (b) human resource management and change practices; and
- (c) outcomes such as productivity.



KEY ISSUE 5: THE DEVELOPMENT OF WORK/ ORGANISATIONS / ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

➤ Traces the evolution of work from pre-industrial work, early capitalism to post-industrial times (e.g. agriculture employment, factory system, specialise occupations; clerical functions or knowledge work and knowledge work - internet-based/ “network society”)



KEY ISSUE 5: HISTORICAL APPROACHES TO STUDYING WORK/ ORGANISATIONS/ ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- Prior to the 20th century, the management literature tended to be based around the writings of individuals scholars who tried to bring their own perspectives and experience to the attention of a wider audience.
- The list of these people is almost ***endless.***



KEY ISSUE 5: HISTORICAL APPROACHES TO STUDYING WORK/ ORGANISATIONS/ ORGANISATIONAL

- (1) Scientific management (efficiency is everything).
- (2) Human Relations School of Thought (what about people).
- (3) System Theory (relationship the environment)
- (4) Contingency Theory (it all depends)
- (5) Postmodernism Theory (modern



(1) Scientific management

- **Scientific Management (Taylorism) (*Efficiency is Everything*)** - emphasises scientific determined jobs and management practices as the way to improve efficiency and productivity.
- It was pioneered by Frederick Taylor, who developed his ideas while working as a superintendent at a steel



Scientific management

- Taylor argued that efficiency, standardisation and discipline would result from a process of scientific management of work tasks.
- There is ***one best way of organising any set of tasks to be performed*** and it was management's responsibility to conduct exhaustive measurements in order to achieve this desired state



Scientific management

- He suggested that, for example:
 - (a) jobs should be ***standardised and simplified standardised to achieve maximum efficiency;***
 - (b) work should be divided into ***smallest possible skill elements*** possible.
 - (c) every worker should conduct a ***minimum of movements***, preferably



Scientific management

- (d) a clear ***distinction is made between planning a job, a management role and conducting the tasks, a worker's role;***
- (e) a scientific **selection** process that should identify the correct person to person the tasks.
- (f) A clear division of tasks and responsibilities.



Scientific management

- Some of these principles were based on his idea that he believed workers were ***motivated solely by money and were too stupid*** to develop the most efficient way of performing a task.
- Many modern organisations adopt similar principles in order to maintain or increase productivity.



Scientific management and Fordism

- Again, Taylor's thinking preceded the widespread adoption of mass production techniques, as demonstrated by Henry Ford in the USA.
- **For example, Fordism** was pioneered by Henry Ford (1863-1947), **who applied Taylor's principles** in his car assembly factories.



Scientific management and Fordism

- To this he added the idea of the assembly line, the **recording of job times** and the standardisation of commodities to gain economies of scale.
- **Fordism**: a **term used to describe mass production using assembly-line technology to achieve greater division of labour and motion management.**





After Scientific management (Taylorism) and Fordism

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- Many criticisms have been levelled at Taylorism and Fordism, such as:
 - ***Simplification of tasks led to boredom and dissatisfaction,*** leading to absenteeism and quick staff turnover.



After Scientific management (Taylorism) and Fordism

- The emphasis on **productivity** and **efficiency**, and the piece-rate pay system made workers feel **undervalued, dehumanized** and **exploited** - no room was left for trade unions to bargain.



(2) “HUMAN RELATIONS” SCHOOL OF THOUGHT

- ***What about People?*** - was as a result of early work on human relations and industrial psychology.
- Human relations is a school of management that emphasizes the importance of ***social processes*** in the organisation (data gathered at the Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric Companies - Elton Mayo and colleagues).



“HUMAN RELATIONS” SCHOOL OF THOUGHT

- It strove for a greater understanding of ***people’s psychological and social needs at work*** as well as improving the ***process of management***.
- This means that it places focus on the ***social context of work*** such as:
 - ***employee motivation,***
 - ***employee attitude and group dynamics,***



“HUMAN RELATIONS” SCHOOL OF THOUGHT

- It also recognises the importance of ***informal organisation*** which will always be present within the formal structure.
- It further demonstrates that ***people go to work to satisfy a complexity of needs and not simply for monetary reward*** and it gives recognition to the work organisation and the importance of



“HUMAN RELATIONS” SCHOOL OF THOUGHT

- A criticism of this theory includes: theorists conceptualised the ‘normal’ of the work organisation in harmonious terms, and forgetting that workplace conflict exists.



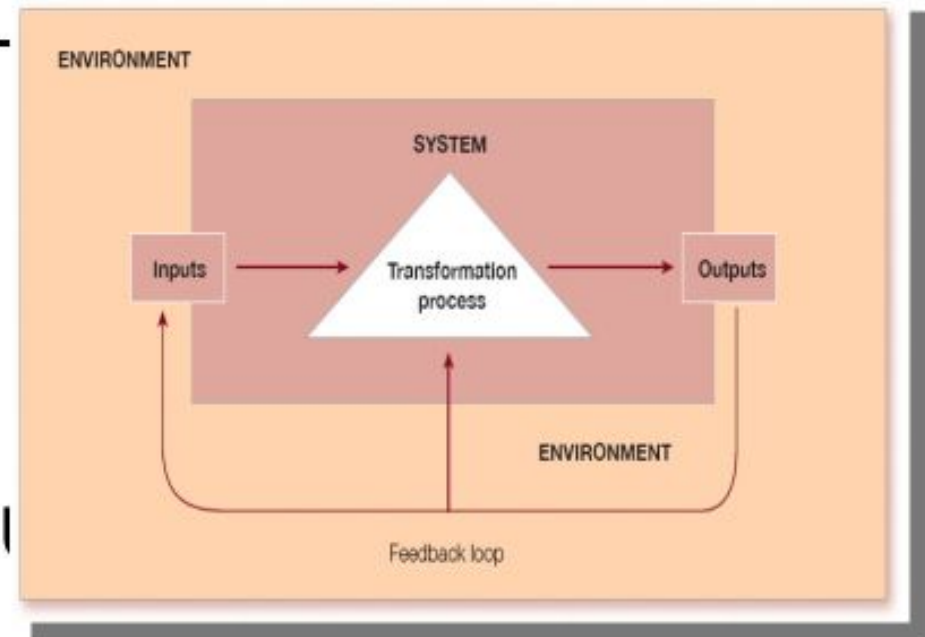
(2) THE SYSTEMS THEORY

- Systems theory (developed from earlier work developed in the biological sciences) involves an ***holistic explanation to social phenomenon.***
- It shows the relationship and interactions between elements and these in turn explain behaviour of the whole – e.g. it reflects how a number of elements or ***interdependent parts*** (called ***subsystems***) interact within a cohesive



THE SYSTEMS THEORY

- For example the input-processing-output (and feedback loop model) show that a set of interrelated and interdependent parts - systems that
 - takes inputs,
 - transform them and
 - produces some output





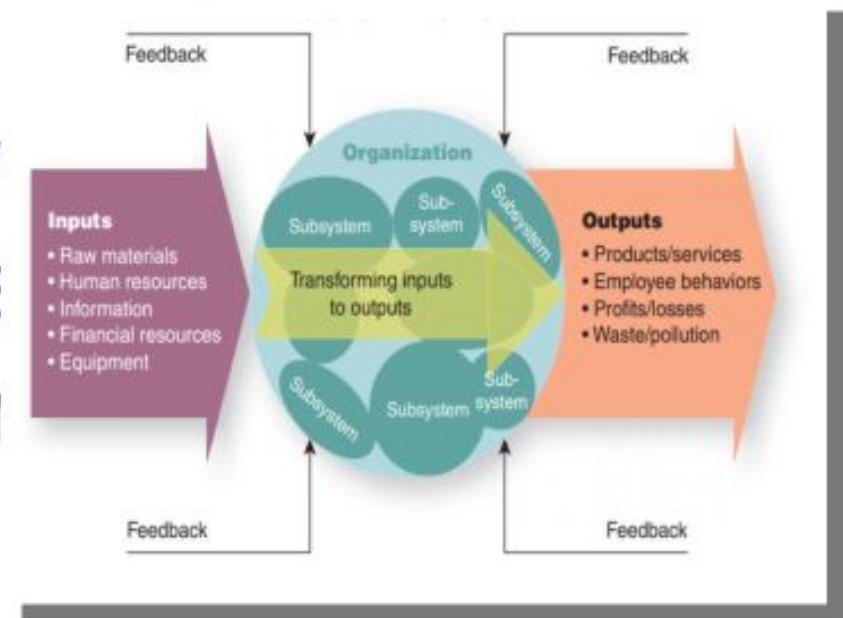
THE SYSTEMS THEORY

- Another feature of the systems theory is the “open systems” perspective.
- The open systems perspective view organisations as complex organisms that “live” within an external environment.
- This means that organisations can be seen as “open systems (dependence on the environment) and not closed systems (non-dependence on the environment)



THE SYSTEMS THEORY

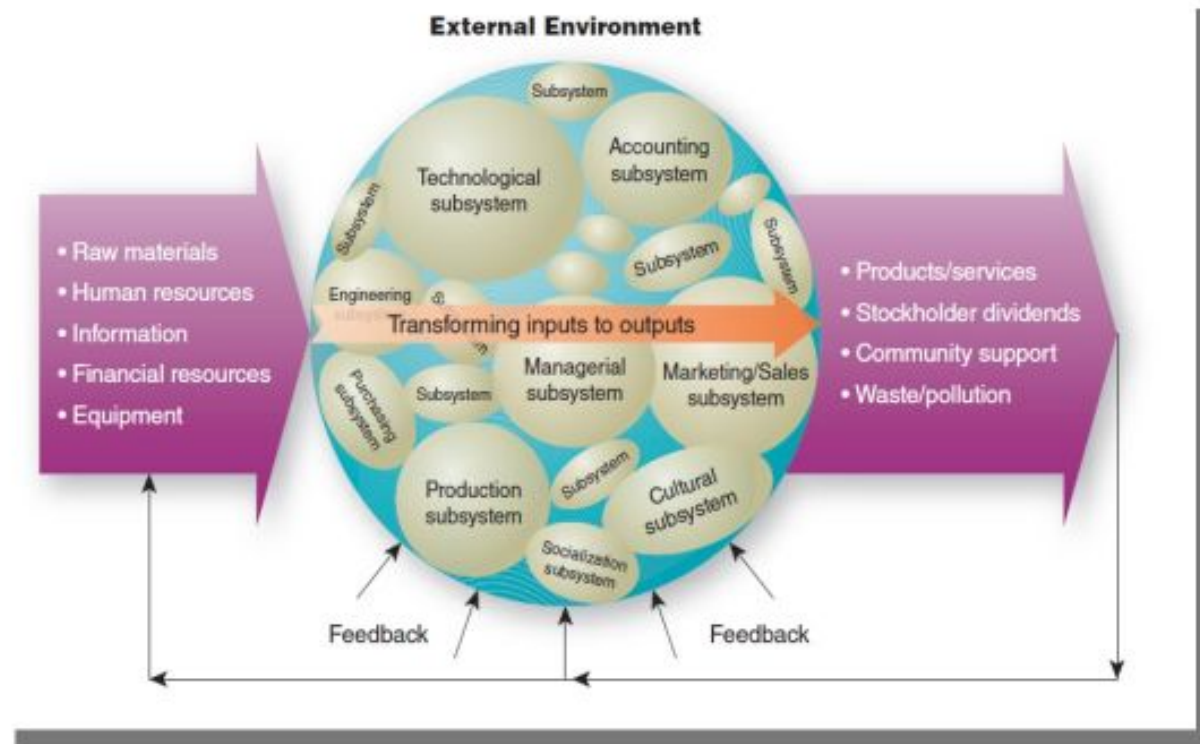
➤ This means that organisations acquire **inputs** from the environment (e.g. raw materials, money, employees, information and equipment), **transform** them into services or products, and discharges **outputs** (e.g. products, pollutants to the external environment)





THE SYSTEMS THEORY

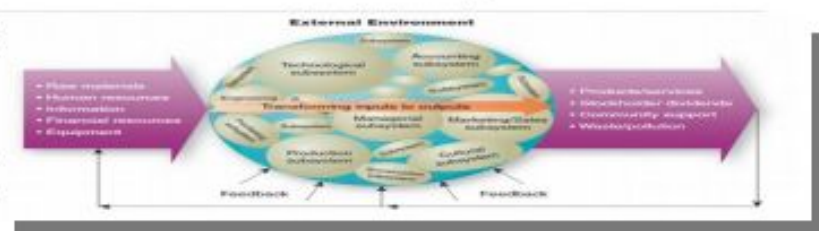
➤ This implies that organisations are effective when there is **organisational-environment fit** (O E Fit)





THE SYSTEMS THEORY

➤ So it has been argued that how well the organisation internally transform inputs into outputs and the subsystems coordinate with each other (internal organisational fit) and managing their external environment (external organisational fit) leads to issues relating to the concept of **sustainability**.....





(4) CONTINGENCY THEORY

- Contingency theory focuses on understanding the various contingencies and how organisations can be designed to fit the contingency factors **(It All Depends)**.
- Contingency, as it applies to work organisations, argues that the effectiveness of a particular contingency such as strategy, structure, managerial style, among others depends upon the



CONTINGENCY THEORY

- For example, the structure of the organisation and its 'success' are dependent, that is, **contingent upon**, the nature of tasks with which it is designed to deal and the nature of environmental influences.
- Consequently there are no single 'best' strategies, structures or styles and one best way of organising.



CONTINGENCY THEORY

- Management must be concerned above all with achieving ‘good fits’ or ‘best fits’,
- This is an implication that work organisations should emphasise **“best-fit”** as opposed to the **“best-practice”** approach.



(5) POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- Postmodernism theory is a sociological approach that attempts to explain social life in modern societies characterised by post-industrialisation, consumerism and global communication.
- An aspect of postmodernism is organisational theory - ***helps to explain what happened in the past, as well as what may happen in the future so that***



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- It can also be viewed generally as:
- “a way to see and analyse organisations more passionately and deeply than one otherwise would”.
- “the study of organisational designs and organisational structures, relationship of organisations with their external environment and the behaviour of managers and technocrats



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- For example, one theory that can be related to organisational theory is the “chaos theory”.
- In relation to the chaos theory, for time past (e.g. nineteenth and early twentieth centuries), mechanistic designs and closed-system thinking was predominant (suggest that the world functions as a well-oiled machine, where the environment is



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- Organisations became large and complex, and boundaries between organisational functional department and between organisations are distinct.
- Internal structure grew more complex and vertical and bureaucratic.
- Leadership was based on solid management principles and tended to be autocratic



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- Communication was primarily through formal memos, letters and reports.
- Managers did all the planning and “thought work”, while employees did in exchange for compensation.
- The environment for today’s companies, **however, is anything but stable.**



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- The ***chaos theory*** suggests that relationships in complex, open system- including organisations -are made up of many interconnections and divergent choices that create unintended effects and render the whole unpredictable.
- The world is full of uncertainties, characterised by surprise, rapid change and confusion



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- Understanding organisations (and organisational behaviour) has never been more important than it is today.
- Recent occurrences has brought to the forefront the challenges of managing organisations and working with and managing people during uncertain times.
- Some of the challenges include:



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- Globalisation: the notion that the world is getting smaller
- Intense Competition: global interdependence /
- Ethics and Sustainability: the public to hold their organisations and employees to high ethical and professional standards.



POSTMODERNISM THEORY

- Speed and responsiveness: organisations have to respond to rapid to environmental changes.
- The digital world: today's realm of the internet, social networking, etc.
- Diversity: as organisations increasingly operate in a global field, the workforce



KEY ISSUE 6: MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES - IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

- In line with some of these theories, a researcher has suggested that organisations can be looked at from multiple perspectives including viewing organisations as metaphor.
- Morgan(1986, 1997) draws attention to the idea that there are a number of competing metaphors for organisations.



MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES - IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

- A metaphor is ***a figure of speech in which a term is transferred from the object it ordinarily designates to another object it can designate by implicit analogy.***
- Some metaphors described by Morgan (1986, 1997)(he calls the different images of organisation) include:



IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

- **(1) organisations as machines-**
organisations are ***machines in which people are part*** (where they are expected to ***working to certain procedures and repeat that in a mechanical way*** (operate like clockwork - specialisation and standardization).

- This metaphor encompasses scientific management theories as scientific management views organisations as closed systems





IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

- (2) **Organisations as organisms**
(and therefore emphasise growth, adaptation, survival and environmental relations. It depicts organisations as open systems that focus on the human systems theory





IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

- (3) **Organisations as brains** - as *information processors that can learn* (learning organisations and decision making)(and therefore encompasses the learning theories):





IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

➤ (4) **Organisations as cultures** based on values, norms, beliefs, rituals, etc. and organisations are **mini-societies** with their own different subcultures within national cultures as well as the informal aspect of organisations.



➤ (5) **Organisations as systems of change and flux** can adapt and change, (change in systems, structures, rules hierarchies and culture).





IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

- (6) ***Organisations as political systems*** - interests, conflict, power and politics issues predominate, where the concepts of authority, power and superior-subordinate relationships dominate management and organisations.





IMAGES OF ORGANISATIONS

- (7) **Organisations as psychic prisons** in which people are trapped by their mindsets (employees living their lives as prisoners). This draws on psychoanalytical theories.



- (8) **Organisation as domination** with the emphasis on exploitation and imposing one's will on others (influence and domination).





KEY ISSUE 7: Why study organisational behaviour

- Almost all of **us** will work in an organisation, if not already working in a work setting and therefore the need to **understand, predict, and influence the behaviour of others** in organisational setting.
- The move towards more knowledge-based work and the growing acknowledgement that people are the key to sustainable competitive advantage **strengthens the case for behavioural studies in modern management education.**



KEY ISSUE 7: Why study organisational behaviour

- Studying organisational behaviour leads to among others:
- Better understand how organisations work.
- Understanding of the complexities of the world of work.
- Make sense of and predict the world in which we live



KEY ISSUE 7: Why study organisational behaviour

- Helps us get things done in organisations.
- Gives everyone more insight into how to prepare to become employees in the twenty-first-century.
- appreciate how decisions are made by people who control the organization and how such decisions affect the people in it, its performance, processes and shape events within an organisation.

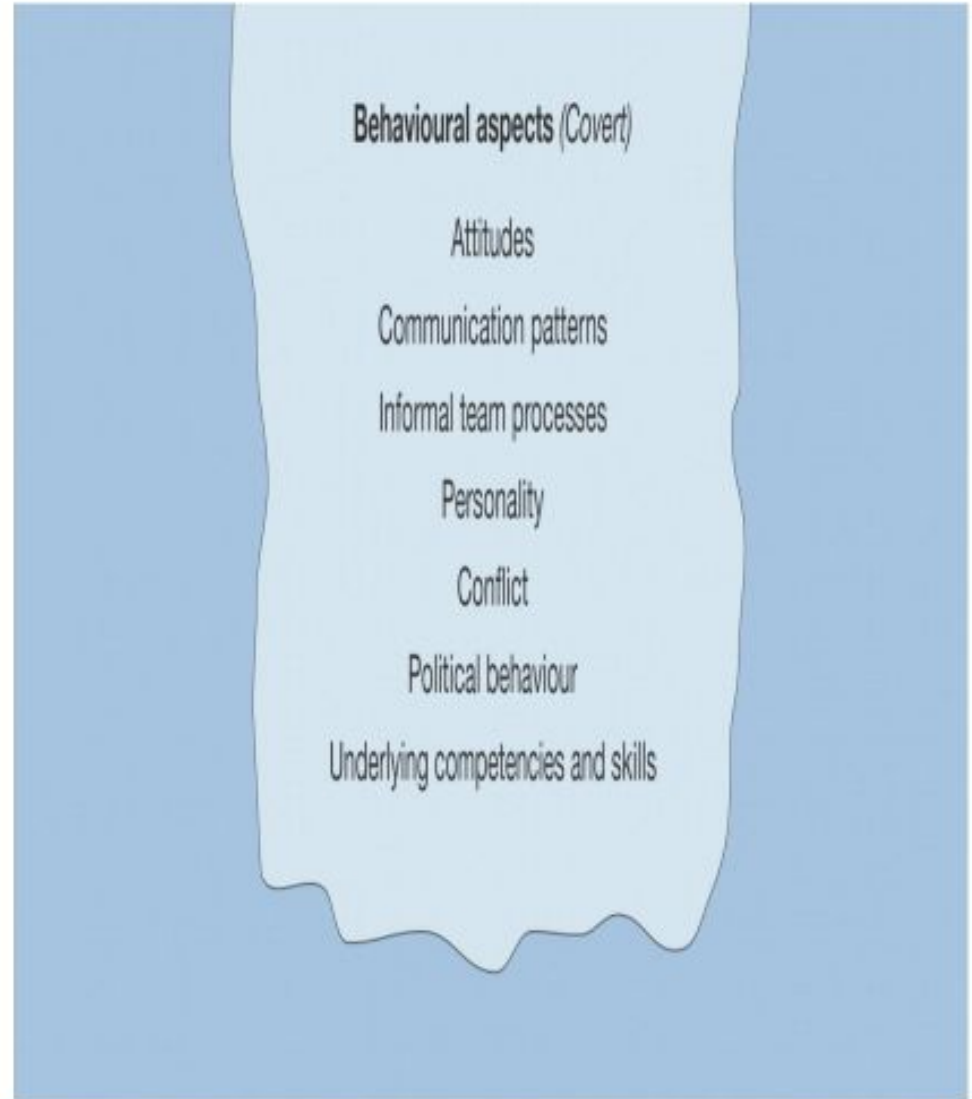
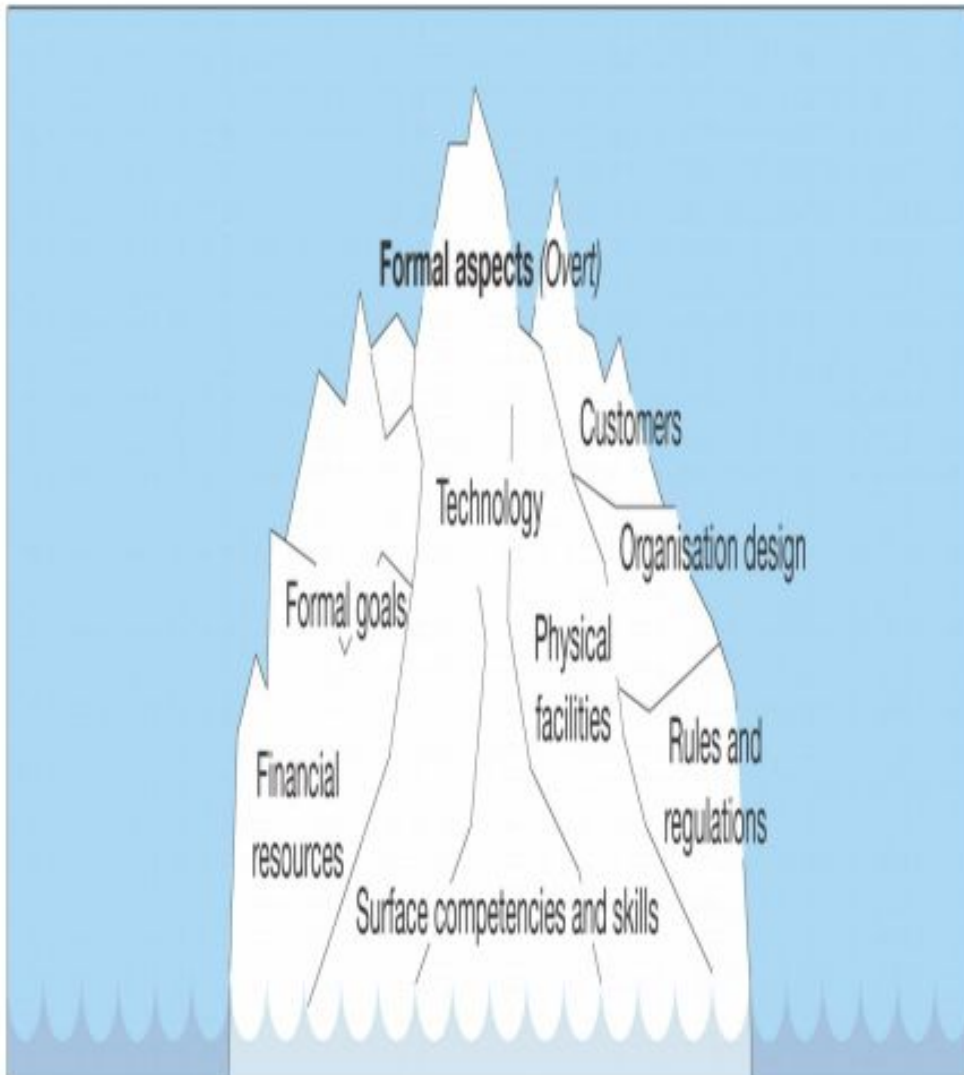


KEY ISSUE 7: Why study organisational behaviour

- **“one way to recognise why people behave as they do at work is to view an organisation as an iceberg. What sinks ships isn't always what sailor see, but what they can't see”.**



The iceberg







ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR (THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)



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DR. (MRS) FLORENCE ELLIS
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES &
ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
(KNUST SCHOOL OF BUSINESS (KSB))





Part (UNIT) Two: individuals in organisations

- DIVERSITY (individual differences)
- personality
- Perception and attribution
- The nature of learning/ATTITUDES, EMOTIONS AND MOODS
- The nature of motivation at work



LECTURE 2: diversity (individual differences)





LECTURE 2: diversity (individual differences)





Lecture/Learning OBJECTIVES

After completing this lecture, you should be able to:

- To examine the significance of valuing differences and diversity;
- Discuss the concept of diversity;
- Explain some organisational applications of individual differences.



Introduction

- Changing population demographics, rights gains made by women and other minorities have created organizations that are more and more heterogeneous.
- As organisations increasingly operate in a **multinational** and **multicultural** context, understanding how **diversity** in the composition of organizations and groups affects workplace behaviour and overall performance will be of increasing importance.



WHAT ARE THE KEY ISSUES SURROUNDING diversity (individual differences)

➤ KEY ISSUES:

- (1) WHAT IS THE MEANING OF DIVERSITY/INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE.
- (2) TYPES/LEVELS/APPLICATION OF DIVERSITY
- (3) MANAGING DIVERSITY
- (4) DIVERSITY AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR



KEY ISSUE 1: diversity

- Diverse workforce is a **fact of organisational life.**
- In principle, **diversity** refers to an almost **infinite number of dimensions**, ranging from age to nationality, from religious background to functional background, and from task skills to relational skills.
- It is not an issue of age, gender, race, heterosexual or protestant.



KEY ISSUE 1: diversity

- Diversity pertains the **host of individual differences** that makes us **unique and different from others**.
- Diversity is not synonymous with “differences”
- It encompasses both **differences** and **similarities**.
- Research findings have shown that the **concept of diversity** is bound up in complexity.



KEY ISSUE 2: WHAT IS DIVERSITY?

Definitions:

“the host of individual differences that makes people different from, and similar to, each other”.

(Kreitner et al., 2002)

“the distribution of differences among the members of a unit with respect to a common attribute, X”.

(Harrison and Klein, 2007:1199).



Virtue (Optimistic view) and vice (pessimistic view) of diversity

➤ The results of research on heterogeneity in groups suggests that diversity offers **both a great opportunity** for organizations as well as an **enormous challenge**.

➤ On the one hand, some research suggests that more diverse groups have the potential to consider a greater range of perspectives and to **generate more high-quality solutions** than less diverse groups



Virtue (Optimistic view) and vice (pessimistic view) of diversity

- This is based on the central view of diversity as the **“value in diversity”**
- On the other hand, the greater the amount of diversity in a group or an organizational subunit, the less integrated the group is likely to be, **and the higher the level of dissatisfaction and turnover.**



Virtue (Optimistic view) and vice (pessimistic view) of diversity

➤ Diversity thus appears to be a ***double-edged sword***:

➤ increasing the opportunity for creativity

➤ as well as.....

➤ the likelihood that group members will be dissatisfied and fail to identify with the group.



Types of diversity

➤ **Two-Factor Approaches:**

➤ **(1) Visible and Non-visible Differences (Jackson et al., 1995)**

➤ ***Visible differences*** include race, ethnic, age, gender, physical disabilities etc.

➤ ***Non-visible differences*** (or underlying attributes) includes education, skills, abilities, values and attitudes,



Types of diversity

- **Two-Factor Approaches:**
- **(2) Observable or readily detectable and Non-observable differences.**
- ***Observable or readily detectable:*** visible differences include race, ethnic, age, gender, physical disabilities, etc.
- ***Non-observable: differences in less visible or underlying attributes*** including cultural values, skills and



Types of diversity

- **Two-Factor Approaches:**
- **(3) “Surface-level diversity” and Deep-level diversity** (Harrison et al., 2002).
- **“Surface-level diversity”** or differences in ***overt demographic characteristics*** (also described these as visible dimensions), including age, sex, race/ ethnicity, marital status, (e.g. physical features)



Types of diversity

- **Other (Multiple) Approaches:**
- **(1) “Social Category” describes explicit differences among members of a group in social category membership and** include nationality, ethnicity, gender and age;
- **(2) Differences in Knowledge or Skills** include education, functional knowledge, information or expertise, training, experience, abilities;



Types of diversity

- **Other (Multiple) Approaches:**
- **(4) Personality differences:** cognitive style, affective disposition, motivational factors etc.;
- **(5) Organisation - community-status differences** include tenure or length of service and title;
- **(6) Differences in social and network ties** - work-related ties,



Types of diversity

➤ **Other Multiple Types of Differences:**

➤ **(7) *Physical description:*** such as height, weight, build, hair, colour, dress etc.;

➤ **(8) *Emotional description:*** such as gushing, withdrawing, nervous, aggressive;



KEY ISSUE 3: diversity theories

- Notably, the theories marshalled by authors to support the various types of individual differences or diversity are the basis of:
 - Self Categorisation/Social-Identity and
 - Similarity- Attraction Theory.
- However, for the purpose of this lecture, the focus is on the **Similarity-Attraction Theory.**



KEY ISSUE 3: diversity theories

- (3) Similarity- Attraction Theory (individual level), assumes that **similarity** on attributes such as attitudes, values and beliefs will attract **interpersonal attraction and liking** and vice versa(Newcomb, 1968).
- *Individuals are more attracted to others who they believe hold similar attitudes to themselves and are **likely to rate them as more intelligent, knowledgeable** etc. (e.g., Byrne. 1971).*



KEY ISSUE 3: diversity theories

- For example, research has supported the view that surface-level similarity tends to predict affiliation, affection and attraction.
- Also, it has been noted that in terms of cultural diversity, members of a culturally dissimilar groups were less likely to be attracted to one another and had more difficulty communicating with each other than a culturally homogenous groups did (Mannis and Neale, 2005).



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- ***Workforce demographic/biographical characteristics;***
- As earlier indicated, increasing diversity in the workforce is seen especially in ***workforce demographics.***
- For example, biographical characteristics such as age, gender, race, disability and length of service are some of the most obvious ways that **employees differ.**



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- For example:
- **(a) Age distribution of employees**, where in some cases employers express mixed feelings about **older workers** despite the fact that they bring to their jobs such as experience, strong work ethics etc.
- For example, what effects does age actually have on turnover, absenteeism, etc. (e.g. age-turnover relationship/age-organisational citizenship behaviour relationship).



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- **(b) Gender distribution of the workforce- women** now constitute about half of the workforce, and the related issues of whether women perform as well as men do.
- **Sex roles** still affect people's perceptions – e.g. gender bias when selecting candidates for certain positions.



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- Research suggest that women believe sex-based discrimination is more prevalent that do male employees.
- Women have still not broken into the highest echelon of corporate businesses, board seats and management posit





KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- Because:
- Women continue to encounter “**glass ceiling**” – invisible barrier blocking women and minorities from top management positions.
- For example, historically, female employment was concentrated in relatively **low-paying and low-level occupations**.



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- However, it is believed that **women are still paid less than men even in traditional female roles (“the glass escalator” - men receive faster promotions in many female dominated occupations).**





KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- **(c) A number of people have disabilities** (an individual who has a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities) that range from mild to severe, are oftentimes prevented from taking part in full time society and the economy because of environmental and **attitudinal barriers.**



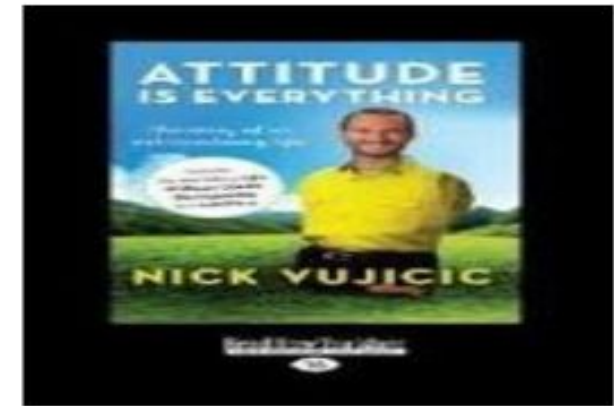
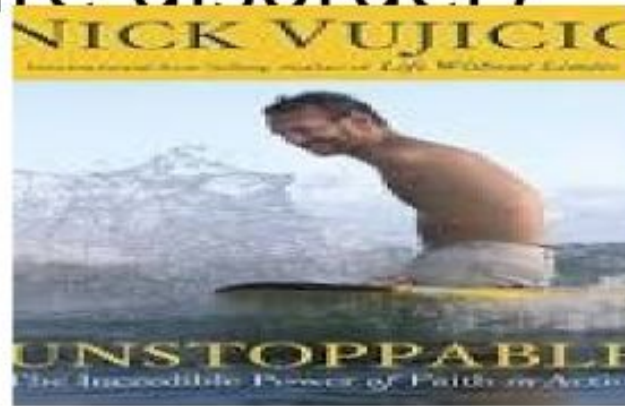
KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- Although some jobs obviously cannot be accommodated with some disabilities, increasing presence of other job opportunities such as computer technology is shattering traditional barriers to employment.



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- For example, Nicholas James Vujicic is a Christian American Australian evangelist, motivational speaker and author who was born without legs and arms (a rare disorder)





KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- Thus, although individuals with disabilities continue to experience discrimination, they are sometimes given preferential treatment in organisations.
- They also tend to be rated as having superior personalities qualities like dependability.
- With the passage of disability act, it is believed that the representation of individuals in organisations is likely to increase.



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- ***Other biographical characteristics include:***
- (d) Tenure e.g. seniority
- (e) Religion e.g. different religious faiths/spirituality
- (f) Intellectual abilities e.g. thinking, reasoning and problem solving.
- (g) Physical abilities e.g. muscular strength.



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- ***(h) Individuals with differing sexual orientation*** in the workforce. Individuals in today's workforce have widely varying lifestyles that can have work-related consequences.
- Some implications of this include: the potential of workplace conflict (where people with different lifestyle and orientation work together).





KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- Some of these issues have brought to fore issues relating to a **affirmative action** - focuses on achieving **equality in an organisation** (which is sometimes mandated by national/ employment laws).
- It has also been shown to **negatively** affect groups such as women and minorities because they feel stigmatised or unqualified or incompetent.



KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- This sometimes involves directive that bans ***workplace discrimination*** (allowing one's behaviour to be influenced by stereotypes about groups of people on the grounds of race, ethnic origins, disabilities, age, etc





KEY ISSUE 4: organisational application of diversity issues

- These forms of discrimination include:
- **Mockery and insults** (sometimes taken too far);
- **Exclusion** of certain individuals and groups from discussions and informal interactions;
- **Incivility**, which includes showing disrespect;
- **Intimidation**, which includes overt threats and bullying.



KEY ISSUE 5: Diversity management

- ***Managing diversity*** involves creating organisational changes that enable all people to perform up to their maximum potential.
- Organisations use a variety of variety of strategies to manage diversity.
- These include:





KEY ISSUE 5: Diversity management

- **(a) Improve employee attitudes** - need to improve on how people feel about other people.
- **(b) Increase creativity and innovation by encouraging workgroups and team performance** - since workforce diversity promotes creativity and innovation through sharing of diverse ideas, organisations can encourage diverse individuals working in groups and groups.



KEY ISSUE 5: Diversity management

- **(c) employing effective diversity programmes** - organisations are encouraged to develop more management practices and policies such as:
 - (i) improve recruitment and selection policies and practices at all levels and improve training;
 - (ii) development practices by focus on preparing diverse workforce for greater responsibility and advancement.



KEY ISSUE 5: Diversity management

- **(d) Incorporate diversity training in management.** Teach managers about legal framework and encourage equal treatment of all people regardless of their demographic characteristics.
- **(e) Dealing with employment issues such as work-life -balance** (occurs when people are able to minimise conflict between their work and nonwork) and the use of technology to perform jobs away from the traditional physical workplace (telecommuting or teleworking)



KEY ISSUE 5: Diversity management

- That is why valuing diversity is essential!!!
- “valuing diversity emphasises the awareness, recognition, understanding and appreciation of human differences.
- It revolves around creating an environment in which ***everyone feels valued and accepted***”.



KEY ISSUE 5: Diversity management

- “it means not just not just tolerating or accommodating all sorts of differences, but supporting, nurturing, and utilising these differences to the organisation’s advantage”
- Although this might not be easy, it helps to understand how to ***think, feel and do it in organisations.***



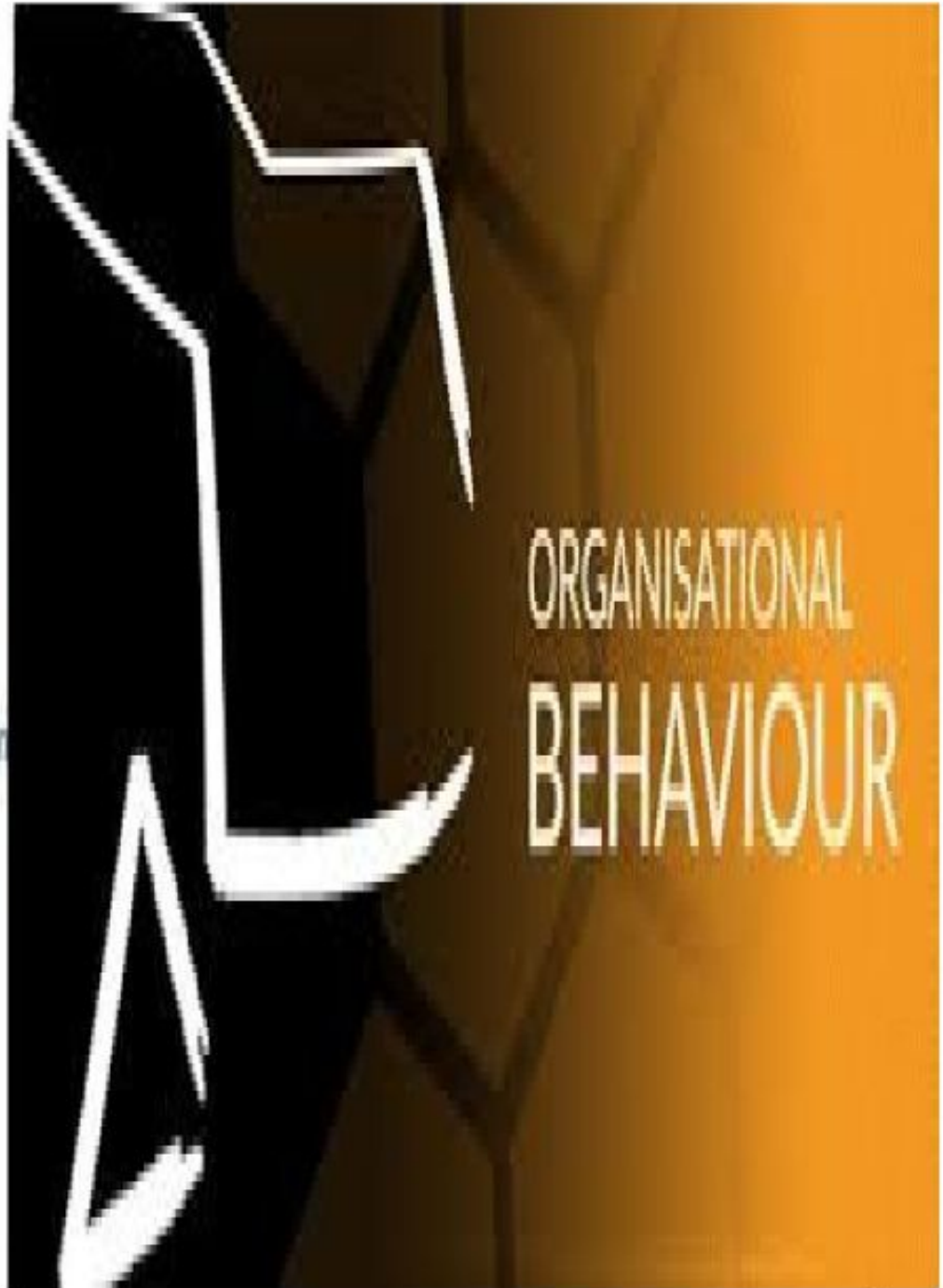
Education
religion or belief
values
beliefs
policy access
equal norms rights sex agency
empowerment legislation
disability gender race fair
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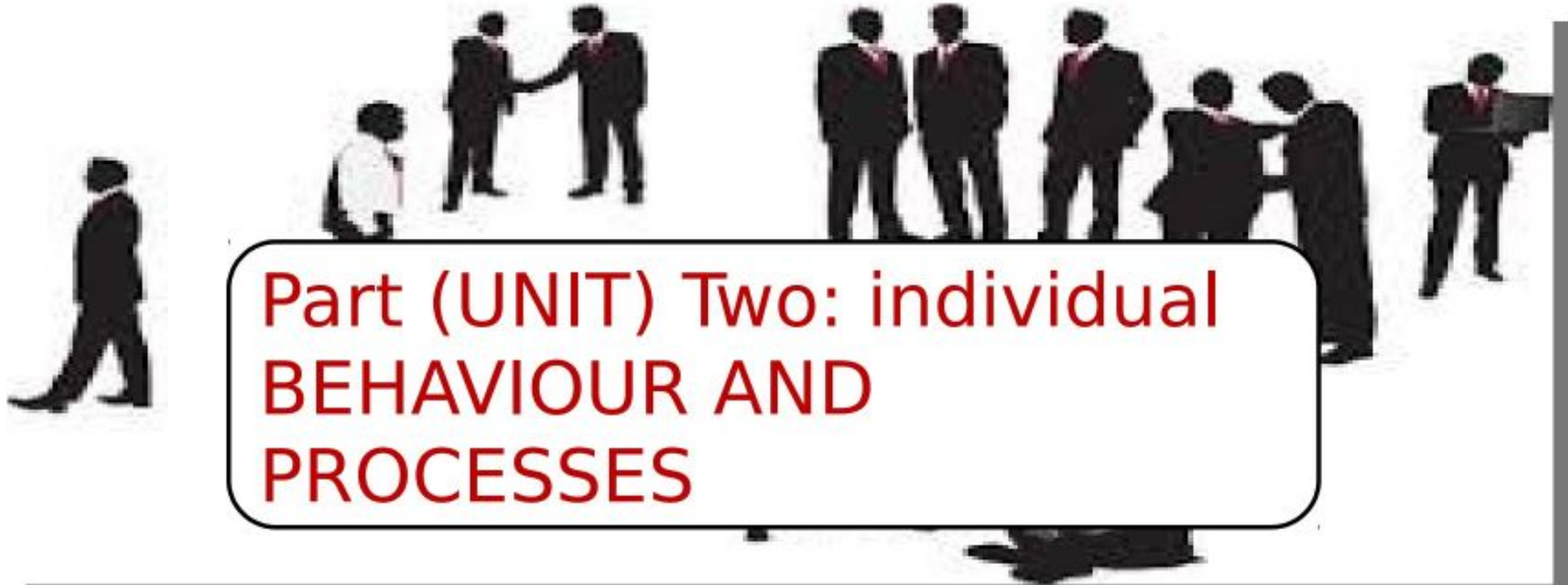


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**ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
(THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT
OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)**





Part (UNIT) Two: individual BEHAVIOUR AND PROCESSES

- DIVERSITY (individual differences) and personality
 - Perception and attribution
- The nature of learning/ATTITUDES, EMOTIONS AND MOODS
 - The nature of motivation at work

LECTURE 3: PERSONALITY



POPULAR SANGUINE
 The Talker
 "Where's the fun?!"
 Cheerful, Outgoing, Fun-loving
 Control by Charm.

POWERFUL CHOLERIC
 The Doer
 "Just do it!"
 Strong, Driven, Goal-oriented
 Control by Fear or Threat of Anger.

PEACEFUL PHLEGMATIC
 The Watcher
 "Keep the peace."
 Relaxed, Adaptable/Flexible
 Control by Procrastination.

PERFECT MELANCHOLY
 The Thinker
 "If it's worth doing, do it right."
 Detailed, Neat/Organised, Perfectionist, Reserved
 Control by Threat of Mood.

Lecture OBJECTIVES



- Discuss the concept of personality
- Explain the nature and determinants of personality
- Summarise the dimensions of personality
- Explain how the several dimensions of personality can be relevant to organisational behaviour and also applied to the management of an organisation's human resource.

Introduction



- Individual behaviour can be looked at from the bundle of characteristics that make us ***similar to or different from other people.***
- This leads to the following questions?
- What makes you you?
- What characteristics do you share with others?
- Which ones set you apart?
- This suggests that individuals have their way of thinking and acting, own unique style or ***personality.***

PERSONALITY DEFINED



- The notion of **personality** permeates popular culture and discussion in the workplace.
- The mass media also endlessly discuss “nice” **personalities**.
- We all use the term ‘**personality quite often**, and most people feel they understand it instinctively.
- But again, what exactly is personality?

PERSONALITY DEFINED

Personality is:

“is a **relatively enduring patterns of thoughts**, emotions, and behaviours that characterise a person, along with the psychological processes behind those characteristics”

(McShane and Von Glinow 2016: 28)

“a **relatively enduring pattern of thinking**, feeling and acting that characterize a person’s response to his or her environment”.

(Bratton et al., 2007: 193).

PERSONALITY DEFINED

“the ***pattern of relatively enduring ways*** that a person feels, think, and behaves.

(George and Jones, 2008:42).

“the ***relatively enduring individual traits*** and disposition that forms

a pattern distinguishing

one person from

all others.

(Vecchio, 2006:26).



PERSONALITY DEFINED

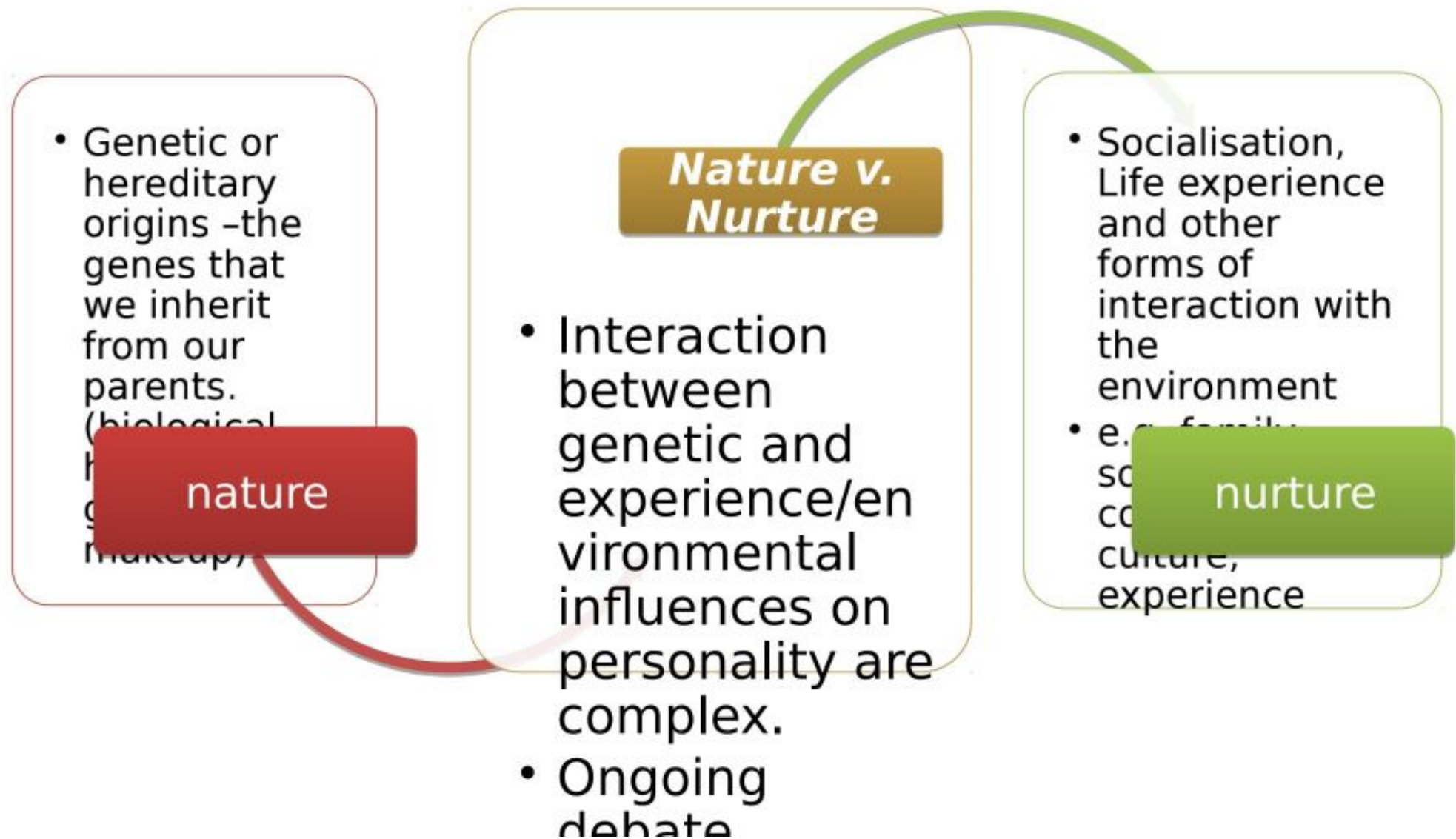
➤ ***The definitions suggest that:***

➤ The concept of personality refers to notion of ***individuality*** - people differ significantly in the ways they routinely think, feel and act.

➤ Personality refers to ***an enduring set of characteristics*** and tendencies of a person.

➤ Personality rests on the ***observation*** that people seem to behave somewhat ***consistently*** over time and across different life situations.

DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY



DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

➤ E.g. twin studies, where:

➤ one set of twins who have been separated for 39 years and raised 70 kilometres apart were found to drive the same model and colour car.

➤ They chain-smoked the same brand of cigarette, owned dogs with the same name and regularly holidayed within few kilometres from each other in a beach community.

➤ This shows that heredity has a very large effect on personality.

DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

✦ Studies indicate that up to 50% of variations and 30% of temperaments preferences can be attributed to a person's genetic characteristics

✦ In other words, **genetic code** not only determines the eye colour and skin tone; it also significantly influences attitudes.



DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

✧ Although they share the same genetic material, they may often have different life experiences.

✧ This reflects the influence of **nurture**/life experiences (e.g. socialization, life experiences, environmental/situational factors).

ISSUES SURROUNDING NATURE VERSUS NURTURE

- It is perceived that personality is stable over periods of time (e.g. from 5 to 10 years) because half of the variations is inherited from parents.
- Personality develops and changes when people are young.
- Some experts say it stabilises by about 30 years of age.
- Other believe personality development continues to occur through age 50 years.

APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF PERSONALITY

- There are several main theories/perspectives of including:
- Traditional Perspectives
- Psychodynamic Theory
- Other Personality Perspectives in Organisations



the TRAIT perspective

- **Trait theory**
- People exhibit a wide range of behaviours, yet within that variety are obvious patterns that is referred to as **personality traits**.
- For example, in describing the personality of an employee, one would probably make a number of **descriptive statements** such as:
- “she is extrovert. She likes to be the

the TRAIT perspective

- ‘She works very hard but she is generous with her time and a truly caring person’.
- Together, these statements describe **personality traits** – genetically inherited “behavioural tendencies” that reveal themselves in a particular pattern of human behaviour.

the TRAIT perspective cont'd

- “A trait is a **specific component** of personality that describes the particular tendencies a person has to **feel, think, and act** in certain ways such as shy or outgoing”
(George and Jones, 2008:46).

- “A trait is a **relative** personal characteristic



TRAIT theory

- ***Historical background.***
- Almost two thousand years ago, the ancient Greek used ***humoral theory*** to explain individual differences in personality.
- The body was thought to contain ***four*** humours or fluids: ***black bile, blood, phlegm, yellow bile.***
- The personality of individuals was classified according to the disposition supposedly produced by the ***predominance of one of these***



➤ e.g. Sanguine people, who has a ***predominance of b*** (sanguis), were cheerful and passionate.



- the sanguine is an extroverted, fun-loving, activity-prone, impulsive, entertaining, persuasive, easily amused and optimistic person.
- Also referred to as the “talker”

- Melancholic people, who had ***excess of black bile***, had a pessimistic temperament.
- The Melancholy is an intricate, logical, analytical, factual, private, lets-do-it-right person.
- Also known as the “thinker”



- Phlegmatic individuals, whose body systems contained an excessive proportion of **phle** were calm



and unexcitable.

- The phlegmatic is an introverted, calm, unemotional, easygoing, never-get-upset person.
- Also known as the “watcher”

➤ Choleric individuals, on the other hand, had excess of **yellow bile** and were bad-tempered and irritable.


➤ The Choleric is an extroverted, hot-tempered, quick thinking, active, practical, strong-willed and easily annoyed person.


➤ Also known as the “doer”



- Individuals in Eysenck (1916-1997) theory could be one of four main personality types; ***choleric, melancholic, phlegmatic and sanguine.***
- These personality types can be understood in terms of two basic factors;
(1)introversion - extroversion,
(2)stability - instability.

- These factors are ***polar dimensions***.
- ***Introversion*** is the opposite of ***extroversion*** and ***stability*** is the opposite of ***instability***.
- Each type would lead a ***predisposition of traits*** which, itself would lead to the likelihood of certain behaviours, e.g.:
- Introversion - Introverts ***tend to be shv.*** thoughtful. risk avoiders and

- 
- Extroversion - Extroverts **tend to be sociable**, spontaneous, thrive on change and willing to take risks.
 - The **stable person** is calm, even-tempered, carefree and reliable.
 - The **unstable/neurotic person** tends to worry, is anxious, moody and unstable.

- 
- The two dimensions led to the **four** temperaments:
 - **Sanguine:**
 - refer to people who are carefree, hopeful, in the moment, easily fatigued and bored.
 - **Phlegmatic:**
 - people display a lack of emotions, are steady, reasonable in interaction...

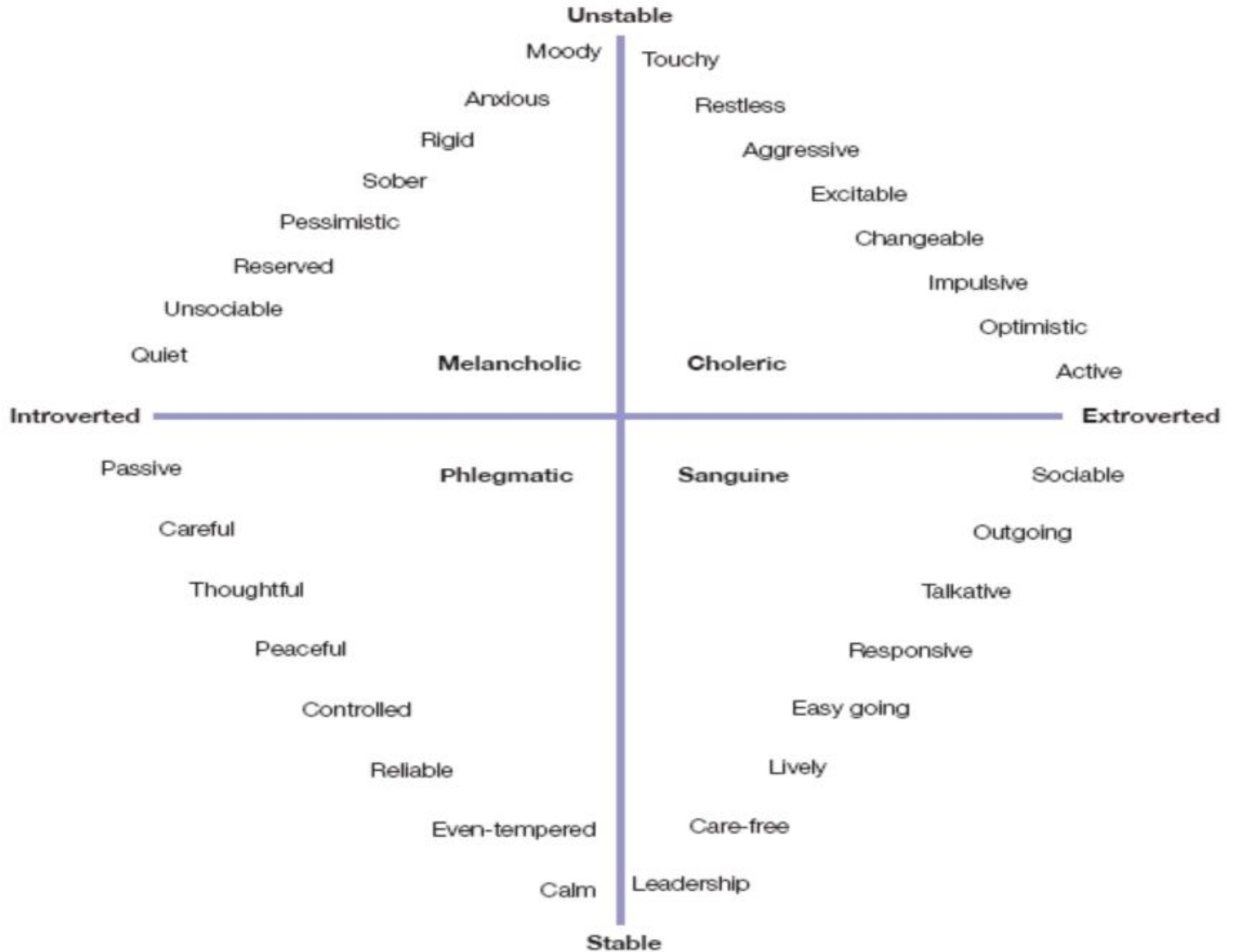


➤ **Melancholic:**

➤ describes people who are egoistic, anxious and pessimistic....

➤ **Choleric:**

➤ people who are seen as impulsive, quick-tempered yet easily calm down if opponents give in....



TRAIT THEORY : (3) THE BIG FIVE MODEL

- Sociable, anxious, dependable, talkative and hundred of other personal have been described over the years, so experts have tried to organise them into smaller clusters.
- The most researched clustering of personality traits is the **Five-Factor Model (FFM)** of Personality (**“The Big Five”**).

Dimension	Lower-order traits
Openness	Artistically sensitive, intellectual interests, reflective, insightful, curious, imaginative
Conscientiousness	Efficient, reliable, responsible, scrupulous, ethical, persevering, organized, self-disciplined
Extraversion	Talkative, outgoing, casual, adventurous, social, assertive, generous, energetic
Agreeableness	Good natured, forgiving, generous, non-critical, warm, gentle, cooperative, trusting, compassionate
Neuroticism	Anxious, self-pitying, nervous, tense, hostile, excitable, emotionally unstable, impulsive

TRAIT THEORY : THE BIG FIVE MODEL

- ***Openness to experience:*** this dimension addresses a range of interest – imaginative, creative, unconventional, curious, nonconforming, autonomous. Those at the other end are conventional.
- ***Conscientiousness:*** this dimension is a measure of reliability- organised, dependable, goal-focused, thorough, disciplined, methodical, industrious. Those at the other end are disorganized.

TRAIT THEORY: THE BIG FIVE MODEL



➤ **Extroversion:** this dimension captures one's comfort level – outgoing, talkative, energetic, sociable, assertive. Those at the other end tends to be reserved.

➤ **Agreeableness :** this dimension refers to an individual's propensity to defer to others - trusting, helpful, good-natured, considerate, tolerant, selfless, generous, flexible. Those at the other end tends to be cold.

TRAIT THEORY: THE BIG FIVE MODEL

➤ **Neurotism or Emotional Stability:** this dimension taps into a person's ability to withstand stress – calm, self-confident and secure. Those at the other end tends to be anxious, insecure, self-conscious, depressed, temperar

Dimensions	Lower-order traits
Openness	Artistically sensitive, intellectual interests, reflective, insightful, curious, imaginative
Conscientiousness	Efficient, reliable, responsible, scrupulous, ethical, persevering, organized, self-disciplined
Extroversion	Talkative, outgoing, candid, adventurous, sociable, assertive, gregarious, energetic
Agreeableness	Good-natured, forgiving, generous, non-critical, warm, gentle, cooperative, trusting, compassionate
Neuroticism	Anxious, self-pitying, nervous, tense, hostile, excitable, emotionally unstable, impulsive

TRAIT THEORY : THE BIG FIVE MODEL

It has been said that the Big Five Model can predict behaviour at work.

For example, it has been suggested that **conscientiousness** is related to job performance because it assesses personal characteristics such as:

dependability, careful, thorough, responsible, organised, hardworking, achievement-oriented and persevering are important attributes for accomplishing work tasks in all jobs.

PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY

- **Sigmund Freud** (1856-1939) developed the psychodynamic theory of personality- which claim that the ***dynamics interplay of inner psychological processes*** determines ways of ***thinking, feeling, and acting***.
- His theory proposed that an individual's personality is determined by **conscious, preconscious** and **unconscious** brain activity, with the **unconscious** part of the mind exerting great influence on the **conscious** and **behaviour**.

PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY

➤ This proposes that the personality is:

➤ A mix of conscious and subconscious process expressed as linking **id**, **ego** and **superego**.

➤ **(1) The Id** – (Latin word for it) is the unco portion of the personality.

➤ The id is the only structure at birth and functions in a totally irrational manner.

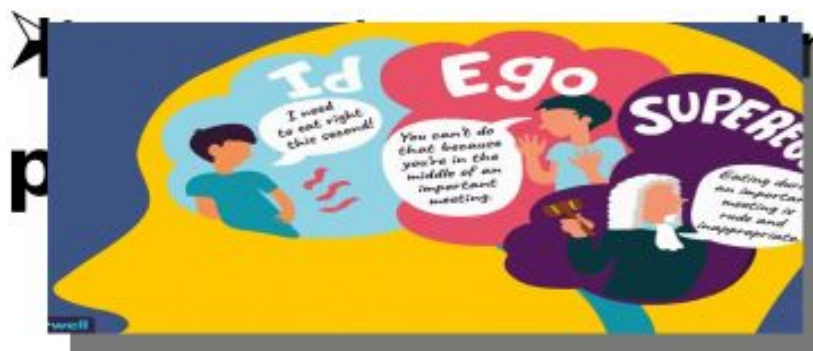
➤ The id operates on the **pleasure principle**, seeking the immediate gratification of impulses produced by innate drives such as aggression.



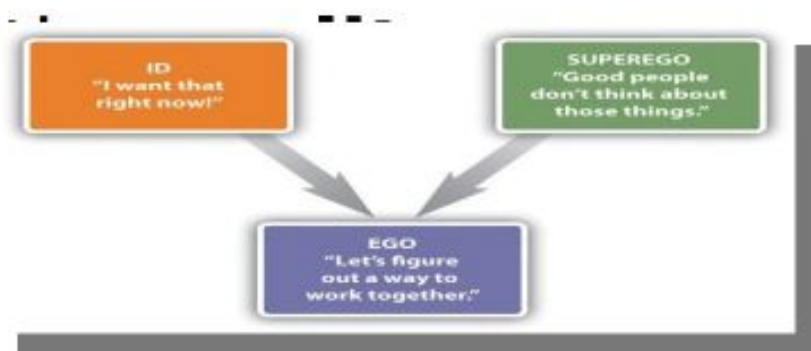
PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY

➤ **The (2) The Ego** - (Latin word for 'I') is the thinking, organising and protective self.

➤ It functions primarily at a conscious level, it **controls and integrates behaviour**.



ing to



PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY

✦ **(3) The Superego** – (Latin meaning ‘beyond’ or above the ego) which is subdivided into the conscience and the ego ideal, and tells us what one ***should do and should not***.

✦ The superego, the **moral arm of the personality**, determines which actions are permissible and punishes wrongdoing with guilt feelings.

✦ Like the ego, the superego strives to control the instincts of the id.

FREUDIAN DEFENCE MECHANISMS

✦ It sees **anxiety** as being formed by the **conflict of id and superego to control the ego**. It however serves as a signal, and motivates the ego to deal with the problem.

✦ Some of the defence mechanisms include:

(1) Repression: describes a process where the existence of something is **deliberately kept hidden from the conscious thinking level**

because it might be too painful or an active defence process through which anxiety.

FREUDIAN DEFENCE MECHANISMS

✦ **(2) Denial:** a defence mechanism in which the ego alters the perception of a situation in order to maintain a balance in the mind or a person **refuses to acknowledge anxiety-arousing aspects** of the environment.

✦ The denial may involve either the emotions connected with the event or the event itself.

FREUDIAN DEFENCE MECHANISMS

- **(3) Displacement:** an unacceptable or dangerous impulse is **repressed** and then directed at a safer substitute target.
- **(4) Rationalisation:** a person constructs a false but **plausible explanation or an excuse for an**



JUNGIan personality theory

- Jung proposed that personality is primarily represented by the individual's preference regarding ***perceiving and judging information***.
- ***(a) Perceiving***, which involves how people prefer to gather information or perceive through two competing orientation: ***Sensing (S)*** and ***Intuition (N)***
- ***(b) Judging*** – how people process information or make decisions: ***Thinking (T)*** and ***Feeling (F)***

JUNG AND COGNITIVE APPROACH

- **Dimensions within Jungian theory:**
- **Sensing:** people who prefer to deal with **hard information** in a structured context.
- **Intuiting:** people who dislike routine activities, but who **prefer to deal with possibilities** rather than certainty.
- **Thinking:** people who prefer the **use of logic and rationality** as the basis of solving problems, without the feelings of others entering into the process.
- **Feeling:** people who prefer to have **social harmony around them, get along with others** and have sympathy for those around them.

Other personality perspectives

Other personality traits that have been found to be highly relevant to organisational behaviour include:

These theories view personality as the **sum total of the cognitive habits and behaviours that develop as people learn through experience.**

For example, others argue that both **personality and environment** reciprocally determine the development of personality, e.g.

Other personality perspectives

➤ ***They include:***

➤ 1. Self- evaluation (which is derived from peoples **self- concept** – (the individual’s self beliefs and self evaluation: who am I?, how do I feel about myself?):

➤ For example:

➤ ***(a) Core self-evaluation:*** people differ in the degree to which they ***like or dislike themselves*** or whether they see themselves as effective.

Other personality perspectives

- Those with negative core self-evaluation **dislike themselves** and question their capabilities.
- Those who have positive core self-evaluation like **themselves and see themselves** as effective, capable and in control of their environment.
- **(a) Locus of control:** people differ in how much **control** they believe they have over situations.

Other personality perspectives

✕i) '**Internals**' or individuals with an **internal locus of control**, think that their **own actions and behaviours** have an impact on what happens to them. The strong inner locus of control is associated with workplace success.

✕ii) '**Externals**' or individuals with an **external locus of control** tend to believe that the environment or outside forces are largely responsible for their fate, and they see little connection between their own actions and what happens to them.

Other personality perspectives

➤ **(b) Self-efficacy:** a person's belief that he or she has the ability, motivation and resources to complete a task successfully.

➤ Those with high self-efficacy have a "can-do" attitude.

➤ **(c) Self-esteem:** refers to the extent to which people like, respect and are satisfied with themselves (represents a global self evaluation).

➤ Individuals high in self-esteem are less influenced by others, tends to persist in spite of failures and think rationally.

Other personality perspectives

➤ **Others include:**

➤ **(a) Machiavellianism (high Mach - Low Mach):** (often abbreviated Mach) (is named after Niccolo Machiavelli) are pragmatic, maintains emotional distance, and believes that the end “justifies the means”.

➤ High Machs manipulate more, win more and persuade other more than low Machs.

Other personality perspectives

- **(b) Narcissism;** a person who has a grandiose sense of **self importance**, require excessive admiration (likes center of attention), has a sense of entitlement and is arrogant. They are likely to emerge leaders.
- **(c) Risk taking:** people differ in their willingness to take risks. High risk takers make more quick rapid decisions and likely to use less information in making their choices than low risk takers.

Other personality perspectives

- **(d) Type A and B Personalities:**
- **“Type A Personalities”** - have intense desire to achieve, are extremely competitive, have a sense of urgency. They are therefore prone to high blood pressure and more likely to have coronary heart disease.
- **“Type B Personalities”** - relaxed and easygoing individuals.

TYPE A AND TYPE B PERSONALITY

TYPE A PERSONALITY TYPE B PERSONALITY

CHARACTERISTICS CHARACTERISTICS

High need for achievement

Low need for achievement

Aggressive



Types of Personalities

temper

Competitive

- Type A**
- Feel time pressure.
 - Easily angered.
 - Competitive and ambitious.
 - Work hard and play hard.
 - More prone to heart disease than rest of population.

- Type B**
- Relaxed and easygoing.
 - But some people fit in neither type.

sure time

Restless

Eas



ed

Alert Relaxed

Constantly feeling under pressure
pressure

Not usually feeling under

Impatient Patient

APPLYING PERSONALITY THEORIES IN THE WORKPLACE

- A variety of personalities in the workplace and personality attributes determine how people interact with other workers, whether they can work on their own without supervision, whether they are conscientious or just do the minimum to 'get by', how they respond to change etc.
- Personality is applied in the

APPLYING OF PERSONALITY THEORIES IN THE WORKPLACE

➤1) Holland (1985) work on the matching of personality and work characteristics.

➤It involved a **personality/job fit model** which included traits matched to occupations - six personality 'types': (realistic, investigative, social, conventional, enterprising and artistic).

➤Different **types of occupations** are better suited to certain **types of pe**

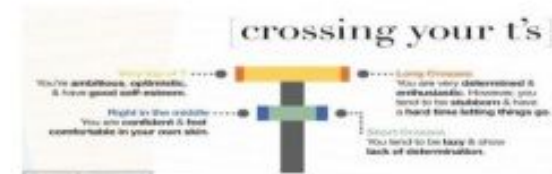
Personality type	Traits	Workplace characteristics	Congruent occupations
Realistic	Practical, shy, persistent, unobtrusive, stable	Defines physical activities that require skills and coordination	Mechanical engineers, farmer
Investigative	Analytical, curious, independent, reserved	Work involves thinking and analyzing	Mathematicians, biologists, systems analysts
Social	Sociable, friendly, outgoing, cooperative	Work involves helping and developing others	Social workers, teachers, counselors, nurses
Conventional	Dependable, orderly, well-disciplined	Work is nonspontaneous, rule-regulated, orderly	Accountants, bankers, administrators
Enterprising	Confident, ambitious, assertive, energetic	Defines leading others, verbal activities, result-oriented settings	Lawyers, salespersons, salespersons, financial planners/counselors
Artistic	Creative, flexible, imaginative	Values an unrigorous and unstructured activities	Musicians, artists, painters, designers

Applying personality to the workplace

- Employees in workplaces and occupations congruent with their **personality types should be more satisfied and more likely to remain with the organisation** than employees in incongruent occupations.

Personality type	Traits	Workplace characteristics	Organisational structure
Extroverts	Enthusiasm, outgoing, confident, assertive, sociable, energetic, independent, energetic	Active physical activities that require physical coordination and teamwork	Flat-based systems, formal
Introverts	Thoughtful, creative, independent, reserved, socially, socially outgoing, sensitive	Work involving thinking and developing ideas	Participative, collegial, informal
Teamwork	Teamwork, helpful, self-disciplined	Work in a supportive environment	Formal, middle manager, middle
Self-motivated	Self-motivated, ambitious, energetic, energetic	Work involving physical activities, work requiring energy	Autonomous, formal, clear
Teamwork	Teamwork, helpful, self-disciplined	Work in a supportive environment	Formal, middle manager, middle

2. Recruitment and selection: such as person-job fit, person-organisational fit, employment tests (including personality test, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), graphology), interviews, etc.



Summary: PERSONALITY

- These personality perspectives and theories helps to understand how the personality types relate to individual behaviour in organisations.





Uncompromising Self-made
Brave
Reliable Strong
Talented Powerful
Intelligent
Determined
Honest Generous Humble
Ambitious Kind
Fighter
Outspoken Good Practical
Elegant



**ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
(THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT
OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)**



Mas 264: ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR



Part (UNIT) Two: individual BEHAVIOUR AND PROCESSES

- Diversity/individual differences
- PERSONALITY
- Perception and attribution
- LEARNING
- The nature of motivation at work

Lecture 4: Perception and attribution



Lecture OBJECTIVES

- After studying this lecture, you should be able to:
 - understand the basic nature of perception and its influence on the nature of behaviour in organisations.
 - identify and define elements of the process of perception.
 - to discuss how knowledge of perception processes can generate insight into phenomena of particular significance such as stereotyping.
 - to understand and apply the attribution theory

KEY ISSUE 1: THE NATURE OF PERCEPTION

➤ “We are all unique, there is only one me.....and there is only one you”.

➤ We all have our own unique picture of how we perceive the **real**

world.....a situation may be the same **but the interpretation of**

that situation

may be vastly



KEY ISSUE 1: THE NATURE OF PERCEPTION

➤Therefore to interact effectively, we must have a knowledge of what others are thinking, and feeling, including their attitudes and intention” (Mullins, 2006).

➤This means that perception is one of the most important psychological processes of human beings.



- It has been ***defined in different ways*** in various disciplines such as:
 - the process of ***selecting, organising and interpreting information*** in order to make sense of the world around us'. (Bratton et al., 2007)
 - the basic psychological systems associated with sensory modality, together with central brain processes which integrate and interpret the output from these physiological systems'
(Eysenck and Keane, 2005)

PERCEPTION cont'd



‘the process by which individuals ***select, organise, and interpret the inputs*** from their senses”

(George and Jones, 2008)

“a psychological process involving individuals selecting ***stimuli from their environment and processing this data*** to develop awareness and understanding about their environment and determine responses”

(Martin and Fellenz, 2010)

THE DEFINITIONS SUGGEST

~~THAT~~

- The perceptual process begins based on the dynamics of:
 - ✓ (a) receipt of stimulus
 - ✓ (b) selecting,
 - ✓ (c) organising of stimuli into meaningful patterns
 - ✓ (d) Interpretation of the significance of the stimuli
 - ✓ (e) response behaviour

THE DEFINITIONS SUGGEST THAT.

- Perception is a **cognitive process** that enables us to make interpret and understand our surroundings.
- This means that different people often perceive situations **differently**.
- Perception includes all these human **senses** by which an individual receive information about the environment – **Seeing, Hearing, Feeling, Smelling, Tasting**



THE DEFINITIONS SUGGEST THAT:

- Perception can be **(a) selective, (b) subjective and (c) automatic.**
- **(a) selective** - individuals employ **“selective attention”** - the ability of someone to focus on only some of the **sensory stimuli that reach them**, because he/she does not have the mental ability to fully comprehend all information.
- Attention (is the process of becoming **consciously** aware of something or

THE DEFINITIONS SUGGEST

— — — — —

✧ **(b) subjective** - how people interpret **what they perceive varies considerably**. People often perceive the same things in **different ways**, and their behavioural responses depend, in part on these perceptions (subjective).

✧ **(c) automatic** - Based on **prior knowledge**, individuals may respond in some way, which then become part of the environment, and so influence his/her own ongoing perceptions of what is happening (largely automatic).

THE DEFINITIONS SUGGEST THAT:

- Interpretations and meanings people attach to the external information that is received is influenced by people's existing knowledge such as their ***ideas, experience and background*** including our cultural origins.
- Therefore, as earlier indicated, the perceptual process follow the (1) receipt of stimulus; (2) selection of stimulus for attention; (3) organisation of stimulus into meaningful patterns; (4) interpretation of the significance of the stimulus; (5) response behaviour.

Key issue 3: THE main components OF PERCEPTION

- The **three main** components of perception are:
- **(a) The perceiver** – the person trying to interpret some observation that he/she has just made, or inputs from his/her senses.
- **(b) The target of perception** – whatever the perceiver is trying to make sense of (can be another person, a group of people, an event, a situation, an idea etc.).
- **(c) The situation**- the situation is the context in which perception takes place.

Key issues 4: THE factors influencing the Perceiver

- There are a range of ***internal factors*** to the perceiver that are likely to influence stimulus selection. They include:
 - (1) ***Sensory limits*** – selective attention.
 - (2) ***Psychological factors***: the needs of the individual e.g. personality, motivation, learning and past experiences. intelligence. ability.

internal factors cont'd

- **(3) Language:** language spoken has a fundamental influence on the way an individual would interpret the world.
- Also, different languages can frame meaning differently to give different ways of understanding of things (**linguistic relativity - e.g. homonyms** (*words with different meaning that share the same spelling and pronunciation and may or may not share the same spelling*)).

internal factors cont'd

- It can be argued we all share universal interpretations of the world but language **cues** will vary across the international sphere.
- This applies to '**body language**' too



internal factors

- **(4) Cultural differences:** culture (the “transmitted and created content and patterns of ***values, ideas, and other symbolic***) is a factor in the shaping of human behaviour (Hofstede, 2001).
- A culture into which a person is born or socialized determines many life experiences, and learned cultural differences influence the perceptual process.

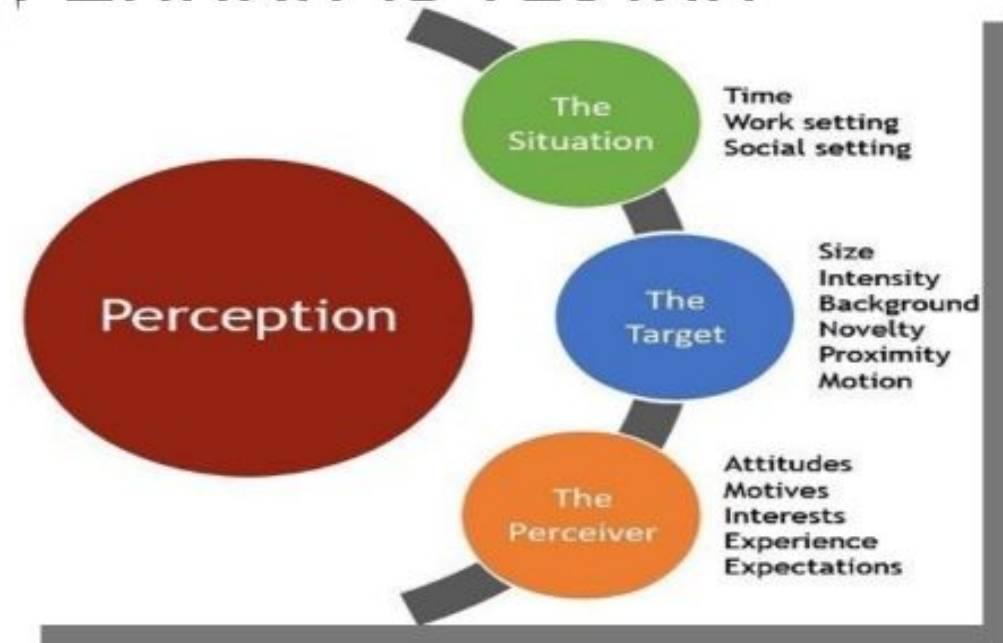
THE factors influencing the target

- There are a range of **external factors** to the **target of perception** that are likely to influence stimulus selection. They include:
 - (i) Nature: e.g. visual and involves pictures or people; (ii) Location: e.g. position; Intensity: e.g. bright, loud; size: e.g. large
 - **(iii) Other factors include:**
Movement Repetition

THE factors influencing the situation

- There are some other range of **external factors** that are likely to influence the **situation or context** within which perception is taking place.

- They include:
 - ✓ Time
 - ✓ Work setting
 - ✓ Social



Key issue 5: underlying theory

- A theory that can be used to explain the concept of perception is:
- ***Social Identity (Self) Theory***
- A theory that states that people define their own identities depend on social groups.
- ***This involves self-categorisation (self-identity)***, where individuals put ***themselves and others into salient social categories*** that allow comparison among the resulting

Key issue 6: Person perception

- **Person perception**, the process by which **individuals** attribute **characteristics or traits to other people** is of particular interest due to the significance of interpersonal interaction within the work settings.
- For example, individuals' perceptions of managers, colleagues and customers can have an impact on the effectiveness of the organisation.

Person perception cont'd

- In general, the components of person perception are the same as those that influence perceptual selection.
- In line with the earlier discussions, person perception has a **three-component** process.
- 1. **Perceiver-** perceiver characteristics
 - this includes the internal aspects of an individual that influence perception
 - personality traits, values, attitudes, past experiences, motivation, past

Person perception cont'd

- **2. *The person perceived***- the characteristics of the perceived person involves a wide variety of variables including age, physical appearance, facial expression, general appearance, physical appearance, voice and behaviour.
- It has been argued that the characteristics of the perceived person can either make a ***positive***

Person perception cont'd

- **3. *The situation variables*** - the situation is the context in which perception takes place.
- For example, meeting a someone for the first time in the company of someone you dislike, the room in which the meeting takes place.

SELF PERCEPTION

People hold a ***perception of themselves that influences and is influenced by their self identity*** (e.g. mature, sociable, knowledgeable).

Self perception can also be linked to personality, values and other attributes (self concept clarity) – core self evaluation - that closely reflects locus of control, emotional stability (self criticism) and self-esteem



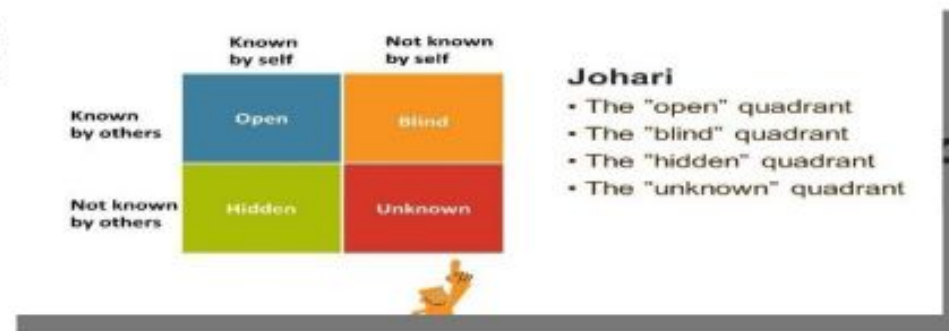
SELF PERCEPTION: Johari window

Self awareness can also be related to the Johari Window (Luft, 1970)

There are 4 areas of awareness about an individual:

(a) Public (Open) Area (Public Self)

- that which is known about an individual by other individual knows

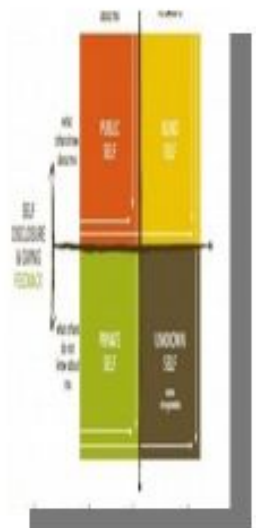


SELF PERCEPTION: Johari window

✦ **(b) The Blind Section (Blind Self)** – aspects of an individual behaviour, which may be known to other people but of which the individual is unaware.

✦ **(c) Hidden Section (Private Self)** – refers to facets of an individual that are known to the individual, but which are unknown to other people.

✦ **(d) The Unknown Area (Unknown Self)** – may lie in the subconscious.



Key issue 6: Perceptual errors: BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION

- The perceptual process may result in ***errors in judgement or understanding.***
- For example misjudging the characteristics, abilities, or behaviours of an employee during a performance appraisal review could result in the inaccurate assessment of the employee's current and future value of the firm.
- Some of the ***perceptual errors*** include:

BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION

- ***Stereotyping:*** is a ***perceived notion that suggests that all members of a particular category share a set of characteristics,*** i.e. judgements of others that are based on group membership,
- e.g. sex (is the belief that differing traits and abilities make men and women particularly well situated for different roles, e.g. women are more emotional), race, ethnic group, age, etc.

BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION cont'd

- ✧ **Projection:** a *psychological process of projecting onto others characteristics that we see in ourselves*. Therefore we tend to assume that everyone thinks and behaves in the same way we do.
- ✧ **Primacy effect (or first impression error):** The *initial pieces of information that a perceiver has about a target* have inordinately large effect on the perceiver's perception and evaluation.

BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION cont'd

- **Recency effect:** the last information that a perceiver receive about a target dominates the perceiver's perception and evaluation.
- **Contrast effect:** The perceiver's perceptions of **others** influences the perceiver's perception of a target.
- **Similar-to-me effect (same-as-me):** people perceives others who are similar to themselves more positively than they perceive those who are dissimilar.

BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION cont'd

- ***Different from me:*** people perceives others who are different from themselves more negatively than they perceive those who are similar.
- ***Selective perception:*** where a perceiver's needs, motivation, experiences etc. influence what the perceiver chooses to hear and want (due to selective attention).

BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION cont'd

➤ **Halo effect:** is introduced when the perceiver's positive impression of a target (**favourably**) influences his or her perception of the target on specific dimensions.



➤ **Horns effect:** attributing all the characteristics of a person in line with a single **negative** characteristic e.g.

everything

about a person is bad on the basis of a single negative attribute.



BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION cont'd

- **Harshness, leniency and average tendency:** Some perceivers tend to be overly harsh in their perceptions, some overly lenient. Other view most targets as being average.
- **Self-fulfilling prophecy:** a prediction that comes true because a perceiver expects it to come true (when a perceiver established stereotype causes one to behaves in a certain way).

BIASES AND PROBLEMS IN PERSON PERCEPTION cont'd

- ***Self-enhancement bias:*** the tendency to overestimate our performance and capabilities and to see ourselves in a more positive light than others see us.
- ***Self-effacement bias:*** the tendency to underestimate our performance and capabilities and to see events in a way that puts ourselves in a more negative light.

Key issue 7: ATTRIBUTION

➤ Social perception induces individuals to attribute **“explanatory causes to behaviour”**, attitudes and events of others or themselves.

➤ Basically, people make attribution in an **attempt to understand the behaviour of other people and of their environment**



Key issue 7: ATTRIBUTION

“ is the process by which we ***ascribe causes to events as well as to our and others' behaviour***” (Martin and Fellenz, 2010).

“refers to the process ways in which people come to understand the causes of others' and their own behaviours”

(Hellriegel et al., 1998)

ATTRIBUTION

➤ Attribution theory is a group of theories that describes how people ***explain the causes of behaviour.***

➤ Attribution theory tries to explain the ways in which we judge people differently, depending on the meaning we attribute to a given behaviour.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY: internal v. external causes

- It suggests that when we observe an individual's behaviour, we attempt to determine whether it is ***internally or externally caused.***
- ***Internal attribution*** (about the person)
or behaviour are those we believe to be ***under the control of the individual*** - assigns the cause of behaviour to some characteristics of the target such as

ATTRIBUTION THEORY: external causes/attribution rules

External attribution about the situation or behaviour is ***what we imagine the situation forced the individual to do so.***

Involves assigning the cause of behaviour to outside forces such as task difficulty; luck; organisational rules/policies and weather etc.



ATTRIBUTION biases

Some errors include:

Fundamental attribution error: the ***tendency to over-attribute behaviour to internal*** rather than to ***external causes.***

Actor-observer effect: the tendency to attribute the behaviour of ***others to internal causes*** and to attribute ***one's own behaviour to external causes.***

Self-serving attribution: the tendency to take ***credit for success*** and avoid blames for failures.

Key issue 8: Impression management

- In social interactions people are constantly, consciously and unconsciously, attempting to control the images that are in social interactions.
- This behavior is referred to as ***impression management***.
- ***Impression management*** is the process used by individuals to ***influence and control the view others form about them***.

Impression management

- The use of impression management by an individual is an attempt to ***manipulate or control the impressions that others form about the person.***
- There are a number of ways in which individuals may manage their impressions.
- A first distinction would be **verbal** and **nonverbal** impressions management tactics.

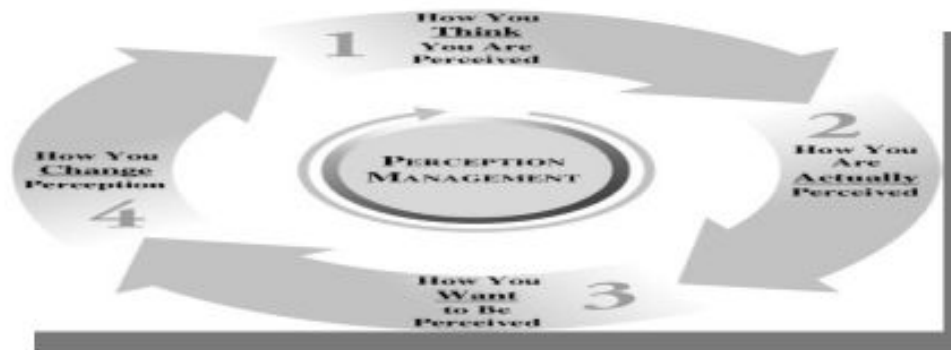


Improving PERCEPTIONs

- They include:
- **Awareness of perceptual biases**
e.g. diversity awareness training
minimises discrimination.
- **Improving self awareness** – being aware of our own beliefs, values etc. and better understanding of the biases.
- **Meaningful interactions** – any activity that in which people engage in values activity, eg. Working with others.

Improving PERCEPTIONs

➤ **Developing perceptions across borders** – global mindset – individual’s ability to perceive, know about and process information across cultures – develop appreciation of many culture and not to judge.



PERCEPTION theory AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR practice



✧ Work organisations represents a real challenge of our own ***perceptual abilities***.

✧ This is because issues such as changing and ambiguous situations including competitors, diverse people in multiple roles and motivations, all contribute to the complexity of what people make out of when they go to work each day.

PERCEPTION theory AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR practice

➤ This in turn become important influences on the ***nature of individual's behaviour and relations with each other as well as on the nature and fate of the whole organisation.***

➤ Specific applications in organisations include: **employment interview, performance expectations, performance evaluations.**

➤ **For example:**

PERCEPTION theory AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR practice

✦ **Career strategies:** employees create impression among those able to desired career outcomes in order to enhance career pros

✦ **Interview** (the selection process): during selection applicants try to make a good impression at a job interview because they are usually trying to project an image that reflects what they believe their prospective employer is looking for.



PERCEPTION theory AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR practice

✦ **Organisational image:** Organisations try to project an image concept by the imposition of requirements for particular characteristics.

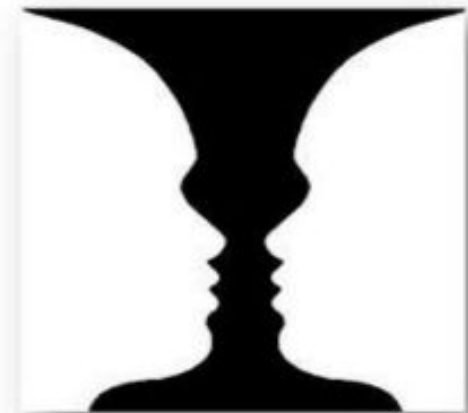
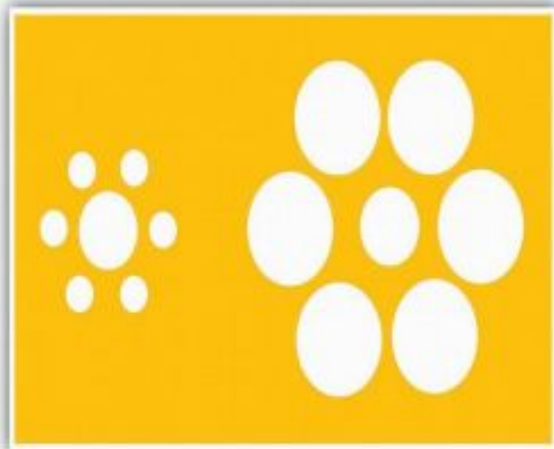
✦ e.g. airlines recruiting only young attractive people to work as hostesses for many years, deliberate management of corporate identity symbols such as uniforms and logos, design of an organizations premises and staff dress codes.

PERCEPTION theory AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR practice

- Our visual perception definitely goes beyond the physical information available to us, which is commonly referred to as '**optical illusions**'.
- It has been argued that artists and designers of everything from dresses to cars to home interiors make use of **optical illusions** to enhance the look of the product.

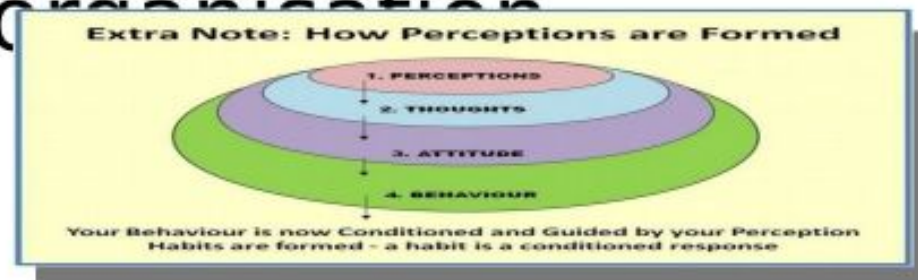
PERCEPTION theory AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR practice

- Managers rely on their **visual perception to form their opinions** about people and objects around them and to make sense of data presented in graphical form.



PERCEPTION theory AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR practice

- Also, words such as:
- “don’t judge a book by its cover”
 - draw our attention to issues related to perception.
- These in turn influence how individual behave when they are in and around the organisation



“What do I want
someone to
remember
about me?”

“How do I
want to be
perceived?”

“How can I **create**
the right
first impression?”

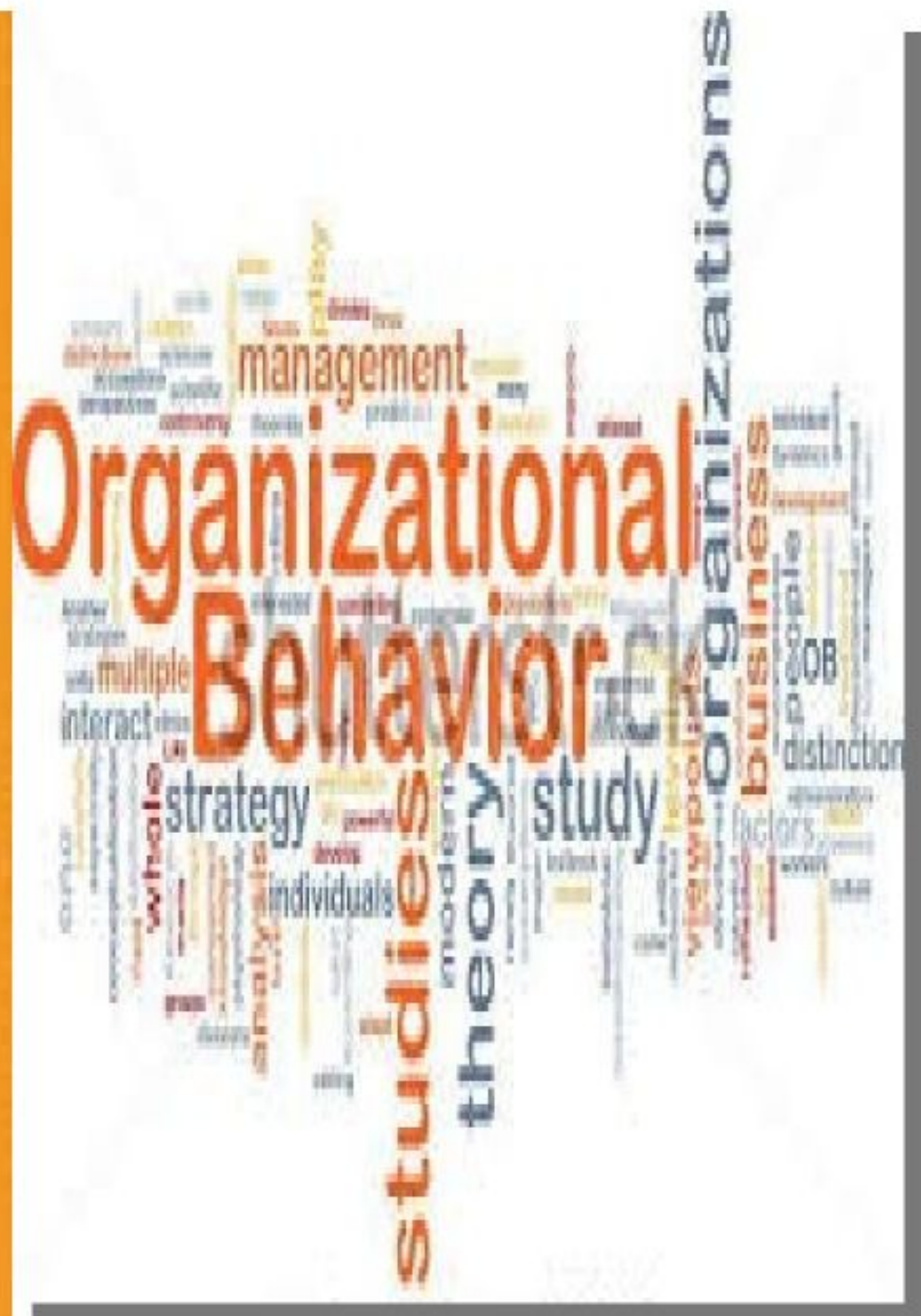
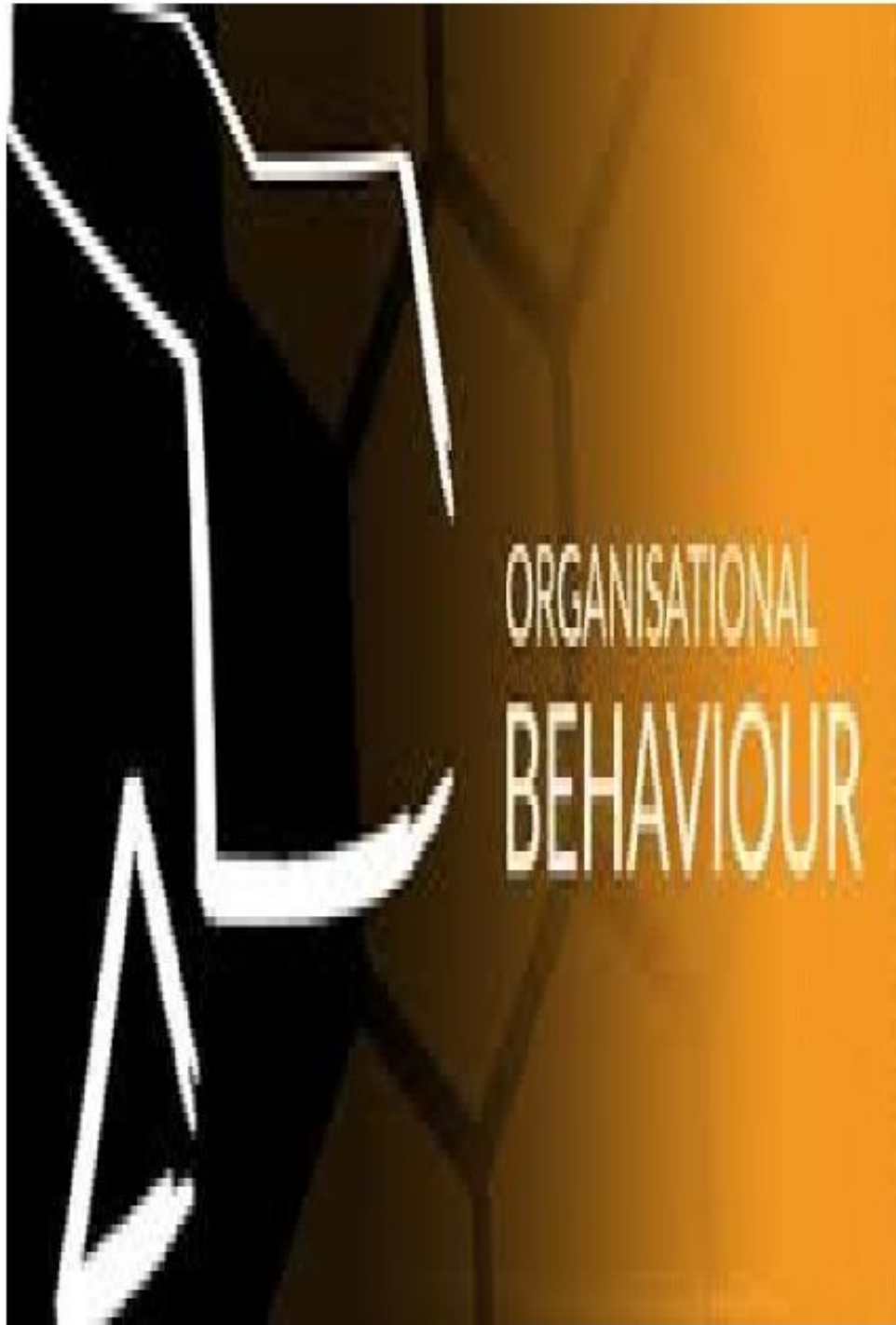
A graphic with a dark brown background on the left and a bright orange background on the right. On the left, there are white, stylized, angular lines that resemble a map or a network. On the right, the words "ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR" are written in a white, sans-serif font.

ORGANISATIONAL
BEHAVIOUR

**ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
(THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT
OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)**



Mas 264: ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR



Part Three: group/TEAM
PROCESSES (groups, teams and
interactions IN
ORGANISATIONS)



LECTURE 6: FOUNDATIONS OF GROUP BEHAVIOUR



Are you a Challenger?

- Questions goals and methods.
- Willing to disagree with the leader.
- Encourages the team to take well-conceived risks.
- Honest about progress and problems.
- Asks "why?" and "how?" and other relevant questions.

Candid

Brave

Adventurous

Questioning

Principled

Outspoken

Honest



Lecture OBJECTIVES



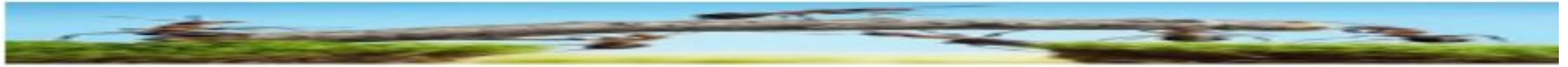
- After studying this lecture, you should be able to:
- examine the concepts of work groups and work teams.
- explain the influence of the design features on team effectiveness.
- describe the five stages of team development.
- Discuss team outcomes.
- Explain how to minimise social loafing

introduction



- Inside and outside of organisations, **groups and teams form a significant part of everyday experience of people.**
- Therefore, without doubt, everyone will find **himself or herself at some point in life to be a member of a group.**
- You probably already experienced work group membership through participating in **class group assignments, or study group.**

introduction



- In the same way, in many organisations, ***people are called upon to work in groups.***
- Workgroups influence the behaviour of members who compose them.
- For this reason, social psychologists study internal group dynamics (in line with the ideas of the **Human Relations School of Thought - The Hawthorne Studies**)

KEY ISSUE 1: WHAT IS THE MEANING WORK GROUPS



“any number of people who (1) interact with one another; (2) are psychologically aware of one another; and (3) perceive themselves to be a group; and (4) purposely interact towards the achievement of particular goals or aims” (Schein, 1985)

“ two or more individuals, interacting and independent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives. (Robbins et al., 2017)

Key issue 2: Classifying groups



- ✦ A group can be: **(1) formal** or
- ✦ **(2) informal.**
- ✦ (1) It is **formal** when the group is consciously created to **achieve specific organisational objectives** and are concerned with the **co-ordination of work activities.**
- ✦ It is therefore a characteristic of groups that are **task-oriented.**

Classifying groups



- They are defined by the organisation's structure with designated work assignments establishing tasks.
- The behaviours that group members should engage in are stipulated by and directed towards organisational goals.

Classifying groups



- **(2) Informal groups** are alliances that are neither formally structured or organisational determined.
- This implies that they are based more on **personal relationships and agreement of group members** than on defined role relationships.

Classifying groups

- The membership of informal groups can cut ***across the formal structure*** and may comprise individuals from different parts of the organisation and/or from different levels of the organisation.
- Thus, informal groups are defined by ***social interaction***



key issue 3: why do people form groups



- Certain tasks can be performed only through the **combined efforts** of a number of individuals.
- The **variety of experience and expertise among members of the group provide a synergetic effect** which can be applied to the increasingly **complex problems** of

why do people form groups



- Groups provide **companionship** and a source of mutual understanding and support from colleagues.
- Groups allow people to develop their many identities (social identity theory) (e.g. organisations, city, profession, ethnicity etc.
- The **group provides guidelines** on generally acceptable behaviour.

KEY ISSUE 4: Different types of groups found in organisations



- Groups found in organisations include:
- **Formal group** – established by the organisation to achieve particular objectives intended to contribute to achieving organisational goals.
- **Informal groups** – groups that arise through **interaction among** organisational members and serve their sociability needs without official recognition.

KEY ISSUE 4: Different types of groups found in organisations



- **Command group** - employees who report to the same manager.
- **Task forces - temporary groups** set up to deal with a particular issue or objective.
- Typically staffed with individuals from different departments or organisations.

Different types of groups cont'd



➤ **Friendship groups** – informal groups of members with **friendship ties** and positive attitudes towards each other.

➤ **Committees** - Groups that meet at regular intervals to consider issues of interest to different groupings and departments. Can be temporary or permanent.

Key issue 5: stages of group development



- **Group development** involves the distinctive processes that occur when individuals come together to form a group capable of achieving both task and member satisfaction.
- Tuckman & Jensen (1977) suggest a **Five Stage Model** of Group Processes: Forming/Storming /Norming/ Performing /Adjourning

Five Stage Model of Group Processes:



FIVE STAGE MODEL: forming

- **Forming stage** – individuals are brought together and there tend to be ambiguity about roles and tasks.
- Group members are **polite as they learn about each other and attempt to establish ‘ground rules’ for accomplishing the task(s)**.
- Dependency on the group leader is said to be high.

FIVE STAGE MODEL: forming

- This stage is characterised by introductions and socialising activities.
- In some groups, members may be somehow tentative and may not fully understand the purpose of the group.
- But in others, they may get right down to identifying what each member can contribute to meeting the objectives.

FIVE STAGE MODEL: storming



➤ **Storming stage** – individual members become **more proactive by taking on specific roles and responsibilities**.

➤ Frequently members **compete for positions** in the group, and **conflict may occur between individuals**, and/or alliances are formed between members (intragroup conflict).

➤ The **group leader** must be able to facilitate dialogue and handle conflict at this stage.

FIVE STAGE MODEL: storming



- ✦ This stage is characterised by individual assertiveness, hidden agendas, conflict and discomfort.
- ✦ Cliques may form and struggle for leadership may take place, and individual group members may be dissatisfied with group performance.
- ✦ When members begin to accept difference of opinion, conform to their roles, and cooperate (for instance sharing information), the group has reached a norming stage.

FIVE STAGE MODEL: norming

Norming stage - members really start to feel ***like they belong to the group***, and they develop close ties with one another.

➤ Feelings of friendship abound, and a well-developed sense of common purpose emerges in the group.

➤ Leadership may be shared among group members.

FIVE STAGE MODEL: norming

- Problems are addressed and **mutual** and not individual.
- Real progress towards the group's objective is made.
- By the end of this stage, group members agree on standards to guide behaviour.
- By the time stage 4 performing, is reached.

FIVE STAGE MODEL: performing/ adiourning

- **Performing stage** – the group is ready to **tackle tasks and work toward achieving its goals**. This is the stage at which the real work is done, so ideally, it should not take long to reach its goals.
- **Adjourning stage** – refers to individuals leaving the team and being replaced by others, or the group's disbandment.

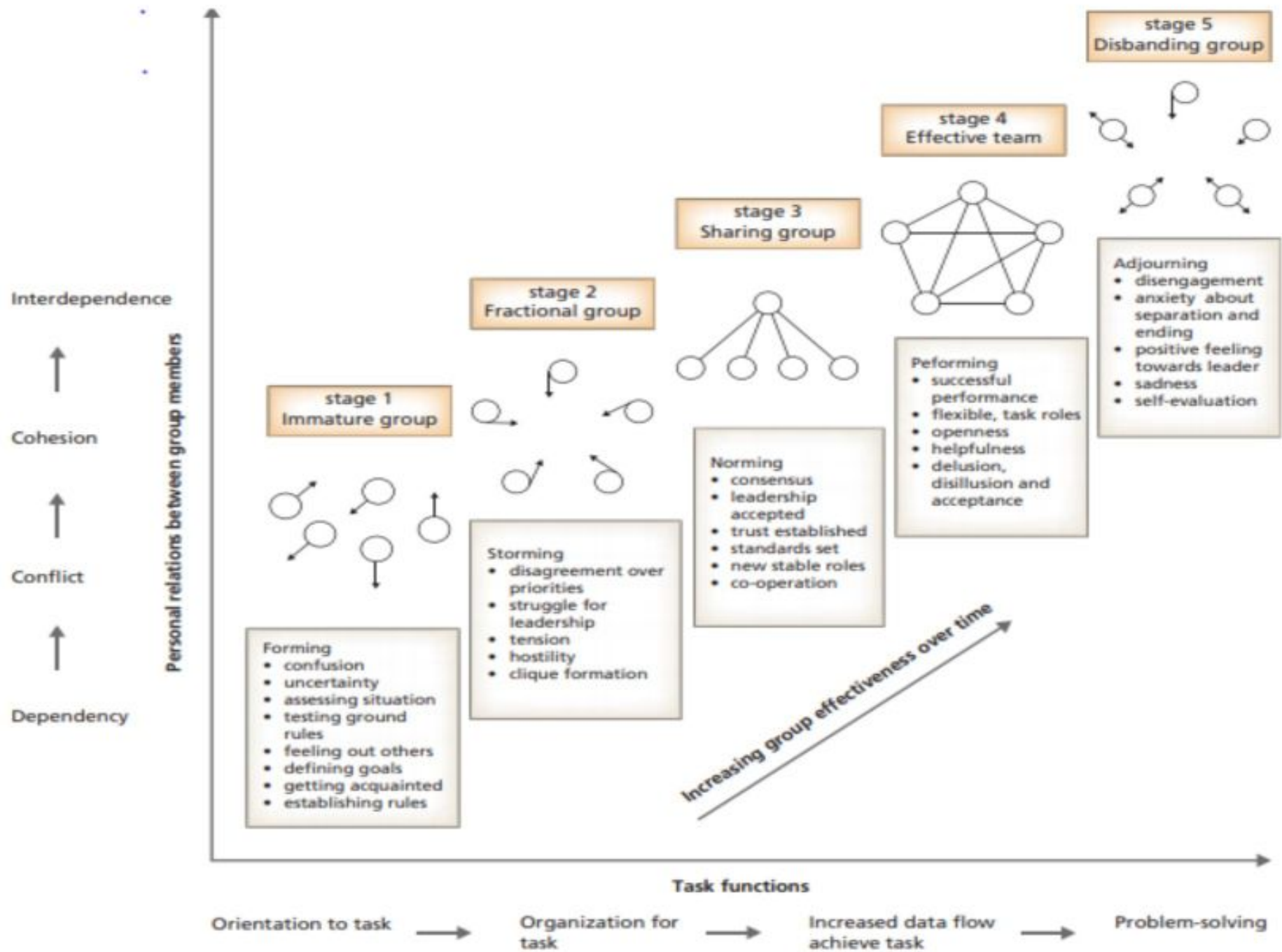


Figure 10.8: Stages of group development

Source: based on Tuckman and Jensen (1977) and Jones (1973).

Key issue 6: temporary groups with deadlines

- Temporary groups with deadlines don't seem to follow the usual five-stage model.
- They go through a pattern known as the ***punctuated-equilibrium model***.
- They have their sequencing of actions, such as: the first meeting sets the group's direction. Having periods of inertia, and then the groups last meeting being characterised by

Key issue 7: Group properties

➤ Workgroups have properties that shape the behaviour of members and makes it possible to explain and predict individual behaviour within a group. These properties include:

- (1) Roles (6) Diversity
- (2) Norms/Cohesiveness
- (3) Status
- (4) Size
- (5) Decision making

Group properties 1: roles

- **(1) Roles** – it is said that “all the world is a stage, and all the men and women merely players.
- This means that all group members are **actors**, each playing a role.
- By this it means that members in a group are expected to carry out certain functions when they interact with one another.

Group properties 1: roles

- **Role** is '*a set of behaviours that people are expected to perform because they hold certain positions in a group or organisation*'.
- **Formal role prescriptions** provide guidelines for expected behaviours e.g. written contracts of employment, rules and regulations, job descriptions.
- **Informal role** expectations may be imposed by the group itself, e.g. general conduct, means of communication,

Group properties 1: roles

- Members in a group may be required to play different roles, and behaviour varies with the role being played.
- Different groups impose different role requirements on individuals; e.g.
- **(1) Role expectations** - are prescribed formally and indicate what the **person is expected to do and their duties and**

Group properties 1: roles

- **(2) Role ambiguity:** occurs when **there is lack of clarity as to the precise requirements of the role** and the person is unsure what to do. May result from a lack of formally prescribed expectations.
- **(4) Role overload:** is when a person faces **too many separate roles or too great variety of expectations**. The person is unable to meet satisfactorily all

Group properties 1: roles

- **(4) Role stress:** the level of stress experienced by individuals as they act out the various roles allocated to them.
- **(5) Role conflict:** a situation in which a an individual is confronted by divergent roles.
- **(6) Role perception:** a person's view of he or she is supposed to act

Group property 2: norms

- **Group norms** – groups significantly influence their members' behaviour through the operation of **norms**.
- **Group norms are shared patterns of behaviour** within a group, which evolve around **work activities, attitudes and communications**.
- Group norms are also the **informal rules and expectations** that specify or shape appropriate human behaviour

Group property 2: norms

- **Conformity to group norms**
- Everyone has experienced **peer pressure at one time or another.**
- Group members often **conform** to **prevailing norms** because they identify with the group and want to align their behaviour with the group's values.
- **Group** norms develop as group members learn that **certain behaviours help them function**

Group property 2: norms

- Another influence on group norms is the ***beliefs and values that members bring to the group.***
- Norms are responsible for group socialisation.
- When strong, they create a ***cohesive group.***
- **Cohesive** is the extent to which members are ***attracted to a group and desire to remain in it.***

Group property 2: norms

- It also reflects the strength of mutual bonds and positive attitudes among members.
- However, there is a danger that they will evolve a **group-think mentality** (Janis, 1972), which represents a 'psychological drive to consensus' and can overrule dissent at all costs.
- Group-think causes group pressures for conformity and it deter the group from critically appraising unusually

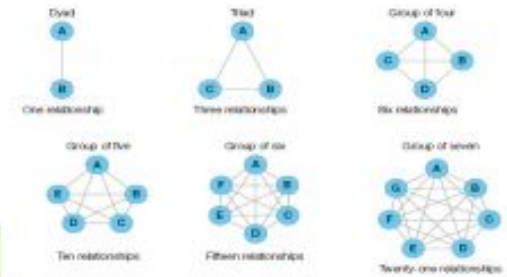
Group property 3: status

- **Status (social status)** - is a prestige ranking within a group that is independent of formal status or position.
- It is also the relative ranking that a person holds and the value of that person as measured by a group.
- **Status characteristics theory** - a theory which states that differences in status characteristics create status

Group property 3: status

- This is based on the power a person wields over others, a person's ability to contribute to a group goals and an individual's personal characteristics.
- It is important to for group member to believe that status hierarchy is equitable. Perceived **status inequality** creates disequilibrium.

Group property 4: size



- **Group size** - the **size** of a group plays a critical role in how group members interact with each other. **It has been argued that the size of the group changes the dynamics.**
- The general rule is that groups should be **large enough to provide the necessary competences and perspectives to perform work**, yet **small enough to maintain efficient coordination and meaningful**

Group property 4: size

- One of the important findings related to group size is **social loafing (or free-rider effect)** - the tendency for **individuals to exert less effort when they work in a group than when they work alone.**
- Social loafing is dominated by **self-interest.**
- When social loafing occurs, actual group **performance is lower** than

Group property 4: size

- Causes of social loafing includes:
- (a) The belief that others in the group are not carrying their fair share
- (b) the dispersion of responsibilities.
- It leads to the sucker effect – occurs when group/team members who were not originally inclined to social loafing lower their efforts when they observe other group/team members loafing

Group property 4: size

- ***Ways to reduce loafing includes:***
- Setting group goals.
- Making individual contribution identifiable.
- Engage in peer evaluation, so that each person evaluates each other's contribution.
- Making individuals feel that they are making valuable contribution.
- Keeping the group/team as small as

Group property 5: decision making

- Groups such as committees are requires to make decisions (the belief that two heads are better than one).
- A strength of group decision making is that groups generate more complete information, leading to a more acceptance of the situation.
- A weakness of group decision making is that it is time consuming, groups can be dominated by on or few members.

Group property 5: decision making/techniques

- In terms of effectiveness, group decisions are more accurate.
- Group decision-making **techniques** include:
 - **Interacting Groups** - typical groups in which members interact with each other face-to-face
 - **Brainstorming** - an idea generation process that specifically encourages any or all alternatives while

Group property 5: decision making techniques

- ***Nominal group techniques*** – a method in which individual members meet face-to-face to pool their judgements in a systematic but independent fashion.

Group property 6: diversity

- Diversity influences group performance.
- Group diversity has both costs and benefits.
- One side effect is ***faultlines*** – the perceived division that ***split*** groups into two or more subgroups based on individual differences such as sex, race, age, work experiences and education.

The trouble with groups

- With much talk about the advantages of groups, there are also some problems that seems to indicate that groups and group work are not always needed.
- It includes:
- (1) groups certainly bring together ideas and information that one person rarely possesses alone, yet there are also **times when a quick, decisive action by one person is more**

UNDERSTANDING WORK TEAMS



- Although the term groups and teams can be used interchangeably, groups and teams are not the same thing.
- Work teams have so popular because as organisations have restructured themselves to compete more effectively and efficiently, they have turned to teams as a better way to use employee talents.

KEY 8: UNDERSTANDING WORK TEAMS

- ***Teamwork in organisations has significantly*** become a growing phenomenon in recent years.
- This is because many organisations are relying on teams to quickly respond to ***technological and market changes in an attempt to enhance their competitiveness and effectiveness***, and improve their chances of survival in this present dynamic and turbulent market

WHAT IS THE MEANING OF WORK TEAMS

➤ a team 'is a **small group of people** with **complementary skills** who are committed to a **common purpose, sets of performance goals and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable**' (Katzenbach and Smith, :



WHAT IS THE MEANING OF WORK TEAMS

➤ Salas et al. (2005) defined it as “a set of ***interrelated thoughts, actions and feelings of each team member*** that are needed to function as a team and that combine to facilitate coordinated, adaptive performance and task objectives resulting in value-added outcomes”.

TYPES OF WORK TEAMS

- **Cross-functional teams** – teams staffed with a mix of specialists (e.g. marketing, production, engineering) are formed to accomplish a specific objective. Usually temporary, but are sometimes used permanently to increase communication.
- **Problem-solving teams** – groups of employees (5-12) from the same department who meet for few hours each week to discuss ways of improving

TYPES OF WORK TEAMS

- **Project Teams:** a team formed specifically to design a new product or service. Members are assigned by management on the basis of their ability to contribute to success. The team **disbands after task completion.**
- **Virtual Teams:** they use advanced computer and telecommunications technology to link members who are geographically dispersed- often world-wide (cross functional teams).

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS

- ***Characteristics that related to team effectiveness include:***
- ***(1) Leadership and structure:*** agreeing on specifics of work and how they fit together to integrate individual skills requires team leadership and structure.
- ***(2) Climate of trust:*** members of effective teams trust each other.

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS

- Trust refers to the **positive expectations one person has toward another person in situations involving risk.**
- Trust is ultimately perceptual – people trust others on the basis of our beliefs about their ability and integrity.
- Trust is also an emotional event. People experience positive feelings toward those they trust.

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS

- **(3) Performance evaluation/reward systems-** how team members get to be individually and jointly accountable may influence team overall performance.
- **(4) Team composition:** composition – can compose of members who work together in order to accomplish group's objective.

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS

- Diversity of group members may be **homogenous** (groups whose members have similar technical expertise, ethnicity, experiences, or values) or **heterogeneous** (groups whose members have diverse personal characteristics and backgrounds).
- **(5) Personality of members** - personality influences members

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS

- For example, conscientious people are good at backing up others, and they are good at sensing when others need help (perhaps, one bad apple can spoil the whole bunch!!).
- **(6) Allocation of roles:** teams have different needs and therefore people should be selected for a team to ensure that all roles are filled

➤ e.

Action roles	Social roles	Thinking roles
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Shaper• Implementer• Completer-Finisher	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Coordinator• Teamworker• Resource investigator	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Plant• Monitor-Evaluator• Specialist

3)

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS: Belbin team role theory

- 9 Team Roles (Belbin, 1993, 2003)
- **the Planter** – they are original thinkers, they generate new ideas;
- **the Resource Investigator** – they are creative, they like to take ideas and run with them;
- **the Co-ordinator** – they are highly disciplined and controlled;
- **the Shaper** – they are very achievement-oriented, they like to be challenged

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS:

Belbin team roles

- ***the Monitor Evaluator*** – they analyse and balance weight, they are objective thinkers;
- ***the Team Worker*** – they are supportive and cooperative and diplomatic;
- ***the Implementer*** – they have good organisational skills;
- ***the Completer*** – they check details, they are painstakingly conscientious;

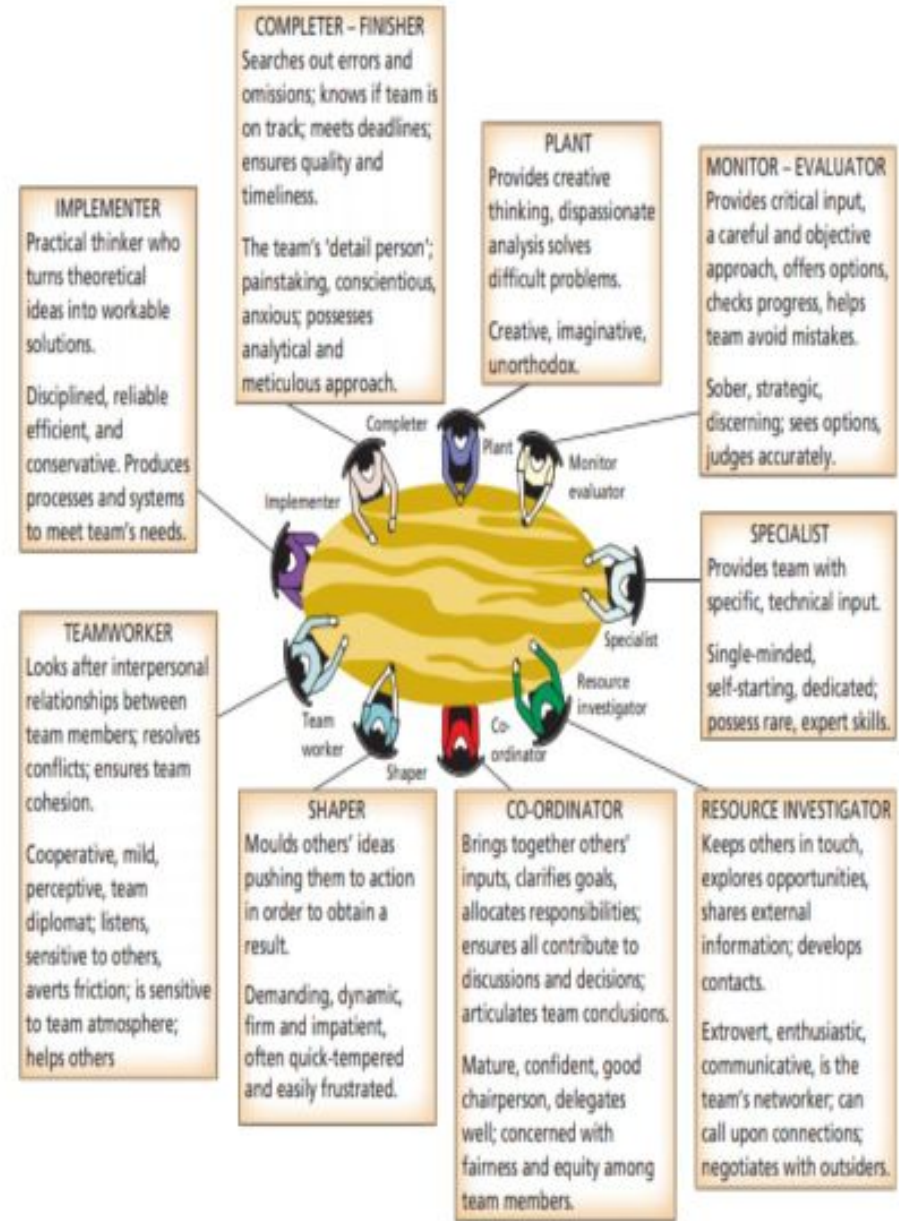
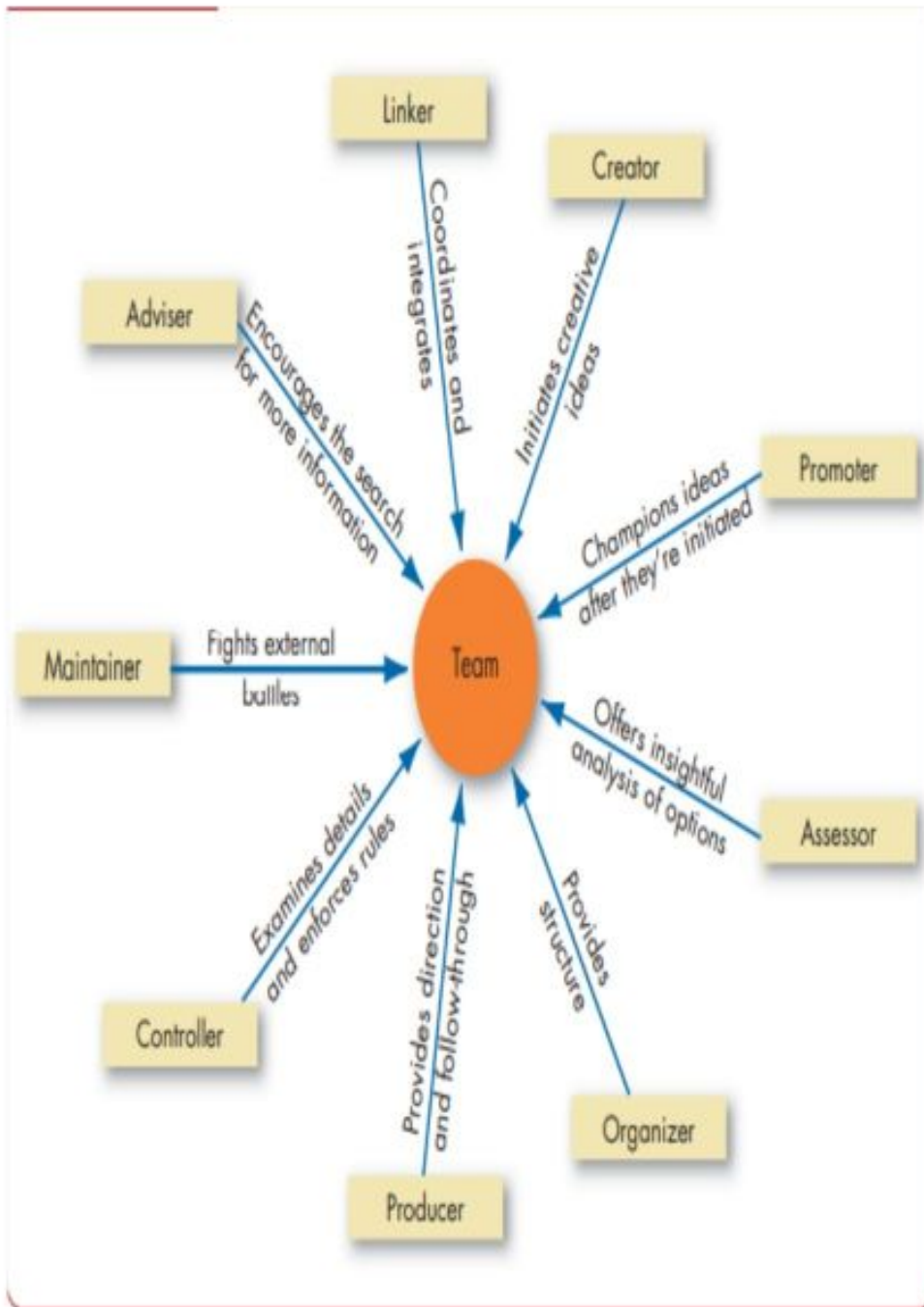


Figure 11.5: Belbin's team roles

Source: adapted from Matthewman et al. (2009); based on Belbin (1981).

CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS: other team roles

- In addition to Belbin (2003) other components of team roles are:
- (1) Contributors
- (2) Collaborators
- (3) Communicators
- (4) Challengers

Group development: other team roles

- **(1) Contributor - get the team focused on the immediate task.**

Are you a Contributor?

Enjoys providing good technical information and data.
Pushes for high performance standards.
Helps the team use its time and resources.
Freely shares all relevant information with the team.

Dependable

Responsible

Organized

Efficient

Pragmatic



Clear

Systematic

Group development: other team roles

- **(2) Collaborators - emphasise the overall purpose of the team.**

Are you a Collaborator?

Helps the team establish goals and clarify tasks.

Sees the "Big Picture."

Reminds the team to stay on track and focused on the target.

Pitches in to help out other team members when needed.

Flexible and open to new ideas.



Group development: other team roles

➤ (3) Communicators - encourages interpersonal relationships and group pi

Are you a Communicator?

- Emphasizes team process.
- Believes in an interpersonal "glue".
- Listens well and periodically summarizes discussion.
- Encourages everyone to participate.
- Helps team members relax and have fun.



Group development: other team roles

➤ (4) Challenger - asks tough questions and pushes the team to



Creating effective teams

- **(7) Team size**- keeping teams small is a key to improving group effectiveness.
- **(8) Team processes** - such as member commitment to a common purpose, establishment of specific goals, team efficacy, task interdependence, a managed level of conflict and minimisation of social loafing among others leads to team

Groups and teams in organisations

- As earlier indicated, the definitions of groups and teams seem to be the same, but they are different.
- Many organisations are in recent times using teams such as cross functional teams because they are relying on teams to quickly respond to ***technological and market changes in an attempt to enhance their competitiveness and effectiveness,*** and improve their chances of survival

Group and teams dynamics and behaviour

- It has been said that professionalism and academic excellence is inherently collaborative.
- This implies that nobody accomplishes anything significant alone.
- Everybody needs to learn to work together
- Teamwork is a skill – it is developed and acquired.

Group and teams dynamics and behaviour

- Group/ team interactions and activities influences thinking, feelings and actions, when they are in and around the organisations.
- It is therefore not surprising that, it has been said

“madness is the exception in individuals but the rule in groups”

Friedrich Nietzsche

- “So what kind of a group/team member



TEAMWORK

Share Victory. Share Defeat.



**ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
(THE EFFECTIVE
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN
BEHAVIOUR)**



Mas 264: ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Part (UNIT) Three: group/TEAM PROCESSES (groups, teams and interactions IN ORGANISATIONS)



- Group/Team dynamics
- Leadership

lecture 8: LEADERSHIP



**A leader is one who knows the way,
goes the way, and shows the way.**

John C. Maxwell

Lecture OBJECTIVES



After completing this lecture, you should be able to:

- discuss the meaning of, and distinction between management and leadership.
- assess the contribution of the theoretical approaches to the study of leadership.
- discuss the meaning of, and distinction between leadership.

INTRODUCTION

- Leadership matters, that is why on a day-to-day basis, organisational leaders profoundly affect where ***paid work is performed, how it is performed, how people are managed, how people experience their work, and how managers and co-workers interact*** and respond to each other.
- It is therefore not surprising that leadership is a highly sought-after and

INTRODUCTION

- Therefore, a number of scholars and practitioners have attempted to define leadership without universal consensus.
- This implies that there are many ways of looking at leadership and many interpretation and its meaning.
- Thus, coming up with a ***precise definition of leadership is difficult.***

WHAT IS THE MEANING OF Leadership

- For example:
- Leadership is:
“influencing, motivating, and enabling others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation for which they are members”.

(McShane and Von Glinow, 2010)

WHAT IS THE MEANING OF

Leadership

Leadership is:

“the process wherein an individual member of a group or organisation influences the interpretation of events, the choice of objectives and strategies, the organisation of work activities, the motivation of people to achieve objectives, the maintenance of cooperative relationships, the development of skills and confidence by members, and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the

WHAT IS THE MEANING OF Leadership

Leadership is:

“the process wherein an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.
(Northouse, 2002)

The definitions suggest that:

- **Leadership is a process** – leaders affect and are affected by followers
- **Leadership involves influence** – it is concerned with how leadership affects followers
- **Leadership occurs in groups** – groups are the context in which leadership takes place.
- **Leadership includes attention to common goals** – leaders direct their energies toward individuals who are

Leadership and management

- The term ***leadership*** and ***management*** are frequently used interchangeably, but are they the same?
- Leadership involves influence as does management.
- So is a manager automatically a leader? and
- Do leaders always manage?

Leadership and management

- Kotter (1990) argued that the two concepts are dissimilar.
- The primary functions of management were **planning, organising, staffing and controlling;**
- This means that the overriding function of management is to provide **order and consistency** to organisations;
- Whereas the primary function of

Leadership and management

- Management is about seeking **order and stability**;
- While leadership is about seeking adaptive and **constructive change**.
- To **manage** means to accomplish activities and master routines;
- While to **lead** means to influence others and create visions for change.

Leadership and management

- Hollingsworth (1999) also suggested **six** fundamental differences:
 1. A manager administers – a leader innovates;
 2. A manager maintains – a leader develops;
 3. A manager focuses on systems and structure – a leader focuses on people;
 4. A manager relies on control – a leader inspires trust;
 5. A manager keeps an eye on the bottom line – a leader has an eye on the

LEADERSHIP in organisation – theoretical approaches

- There are a number of approaches to assessing leadership and they include:

Traits theories
(traditional leadership models);

Behavioural theories;

Situational and Contingency theories;

Contemporary approaches/perspectives to leadership

LEADERSHIP in organisation - theoretical approaches

➤ There are a number of approaches to assessing leadership and they include:

- ✓ **Traits theories;**
- ✓ **Behavioural theories;**
- ✓ **Situational/Contingency theories;** and
- ✓ **Contemporary approaches to**



LEADERSHIP – theoretical approaches – trait approach

- There are a number of ***trait theories*** and they include:
- (1) Traditional theories
- (2) Great Man Theory



LEADERSHIP – theoretical approaches – trait approach

➤ ***(1) Traditional theories***

- The traits approach was one of the first systematic attempts to study leadership.
- In the early 20th century, leadership traits were studied to determine what made certain people great.

LEADERSHIP – trait approach

- The ***traditional theories*** assume that leadership was a ***set of qualities*** or ***personal characteristics*** and that distinguishes leaders from followers and effective from ineffective leaders.
- For much of history, it was assumed that leadership was a set of qualities or ***personal characteristics*** (traits)

Trait approach

- These include:
 - ✓ Internal locus of control and emotional stability
 - ✓ Specific need structures (moderately high need for achievement and need for power)
 - ✓ Integrity, and self-awareness and self-confidence.

Trait approach

- ✓ Interpersonal abilities and skills.
- ✓ Physical attributes (particularly height, but also perceived strength and attractiveness).
- ✓ High social status background.
- ✓ Intelligence, insight, responsibility, sociability.
- ✓ Cognitive abilities, extraversion, openness
- ✓ Motivation, agreeableness etc.

Trait approach

- (2) The **Great Man Theory** is a 19th-century idea that can be largely explained by the impact of "great men", or heroes or highly influential individuals.
- Who, due to either their: **personal charisma, intelligence, wisdom, or political skill utilized their power** in a way that had a historical impact.



Trait approach

- **“Great man’ theory** also focused on identifying the **innate qualities** of and characteristics possessed by great social, political, and military leaders.
- The theory further suggests that in every situation, particularly **in times of crisis**, “great men” (with the same characteristics as successful leaders) would emerge to lead through the difficulties (as at that

Leadership competencies

- It has been noted that effective leaders possess specific **personal characteristics**.
- In line with this, a number of leadership **competencies** (skill, knowledge, aptitudes and other personal characteristics that lead to superior performance.
- These include:
- (a) **Personality** such as the

Leadership competencies

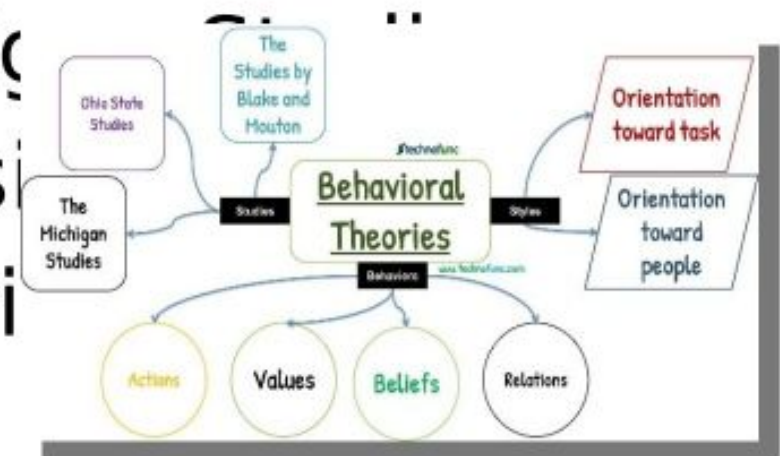
- (b) Self-concept such as positive self-evaluation
- (c) Drive or inner motivation leaders possess to pursue their goals and encourage others to move forward with theirs.
- (d) Integrity – involves truthfulness and consistency of words. Qualities that are related to honesty and ethicality.

Leadership competencies

- (e) Leadership motivation – strong desire or motivated to lead others such as a strong need for socialized power.
- (f) Knowledge of the business – tacit and explicit knowledge of the business environment.
- (g) Emotional intelligence – high level of emotional intelligence (able to perceive and express emotions, understand and reason with emotions, regulate emotions in themselves and

LEADERSHIP in organisation – theoretical approaches – behavioural approach

- The **behavioural approach** to leadership emphasises the behaviour of the leader.
- They include:
 - (1) University of Michigan
 - (2) Ohio State University
 - (3) The Managerial Grid



LEADERSHIP in organisation – theoretical approaches – behavioural approach

- The ***behavioural approach*** to leadership emphasises the behaviour of the leader.
- The approach focuses exclusively on what leaders do and act.
- This ***behavioural approach*** shifted the focus away from ***personal traits*** in leadership – the notion that leaders are born – ***toward the investigation***

behavioural approach

- This led to the ***Ohio State University and the University of Michigan Programmes*** of research (***two leadership styles***):
- The ***behavioural approach*** to leadership include:
 - ✓ The Ohio State University Studies;
 - ✓ University of Michigan Studies;
 - ✓ The Managerial Grid;

behavioural approach

- ***Two dimension*** emerged for the ***University of Michigan University studies***:
 - ✓ **Production (task) -oriented behaviours**
 - ✓ **Employee (people) -oriented behaviours**
- Production oriented (or task behaviour, 'productive-centred' and 'task-centred') ***focuses on the degree to which a leader emphasises the***

Behavioural approaches

- **Employee-oriented behaviour** ('employee-centred', 'relationship oriented and 'person-centred') or leadership styles describes the ***extent the leader is concerned about his or her followers as people:***
- Their needs, development and problems, looks after subordinates welfare and nurtures supportive relationships.

Behavioural approaches

- Similar studies - **Ohio State University** identified.
- **Ohio State University** identified two dimensions:
- (1) Initiating structures
- (2) Consideration



Behavioural approaches

- **Initiating structures:** describes the *degree to which a leader defined and structures his or her own role* and the roles of group members/ followers toward attainment of the group's assigned goals.
- The initiating structures leadership style is essentially the *job-centred or task leadership style* - focuses on



Behavioural approaches



- **Consideration:** describes the **degree to which a leader's behaviour is aimed at nurturing warm relationships, work relationships, and encouraging mutual trust and respect** (friendly, approachable and treats all group members as equals) between the leader and followers.
- The style is essentially the same as the **employee centred** or **relationship related** leadership style – focuses on

Behavioural approaches

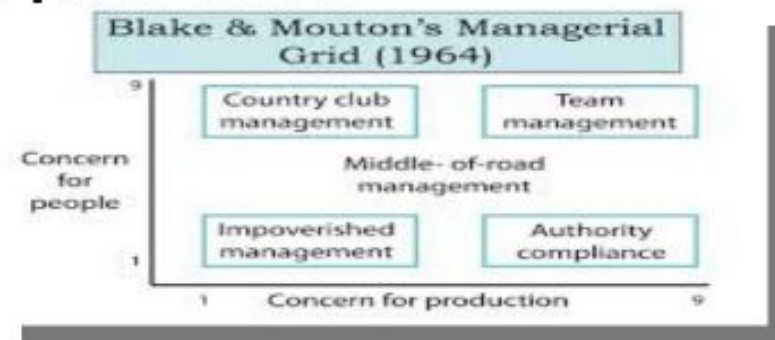
- (3) Another leader behavioural dimension is provided the basis for the well known '**managerial grid**' model of leadership (Blake and Mouton, 1964).
- This model is based on the idea that differences in leadership approach are the function of two factors which they named - **concern for people** and **concern for production**.
- **The 5 leadership styles are:**

Behavioural approaches

- i. ***Impoverished management*** – low concern for both people and production.
- ii. ***Authority-compliance management*** – high concern for production but low concern for people.
- iii. ***Country-club management*** – very high concern for people but with lower concerns for production.

Behavioural approaches

- iv. **Middle of the road management** - a medium level of concern for both people and production.
- v. **Team management** - very high concern for both people and



Situational/contingency approaches

- **Situational/Contingency Leadership theories** - takes the view that the best style of leadership depends ***upon the factors active in the specific situation.***
- They include: Hersey and Blanchard's situational (1982) leadership theory; Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) Continuum; Fieldler's (1967) Contingency Model; House's Path-Goal Leadership Theory.

Situational/contingency approaches

- Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) ***Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)*** focuses on the followers.
- Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) model employs two dimensions: ***task behaviour*** and ***relationship behaviour***:
- Also include: the ***degree of followers maturity (or readiness)***, which refers to followers' ***ability and***

Hersey and Blanchard's situation theory

- ✓ Telling (high task-low relationship): the leader defines roles and tells people what, how, when, and where to do various jobs.
- ✓ Selling (high task-high relationship): the leader provides both directive and supportive behaviour
- ✓ Participating (low task-high relationship): the leader and followers share in decision making; the role of the leader is facilitating and

Hersey and Blanchard's situation theory

✓ Delegating (low task-low relationship): the leader provides little direction and support.

➤ Which is further linked to follower readiness:

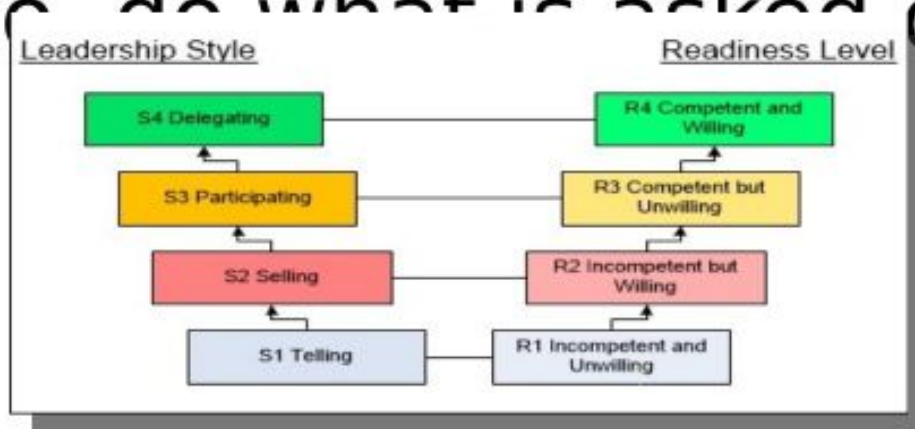
R1- People are both **unable and unwilling** to take responsibility for doing something. Followers are not competent or confident.

R2- People are **unable but willing** to

Hersey and Blanchard's situation theory

R3- People are **able but unwilling** to take responsibility for doing something. Followers are competent but don't want to do something.

R4- People are **both able and willing** to do what is asked of them



Contemporary approaches to leadership

- ***Contemporary approaches to leadership include:***
- (1) Transactional Leadership
- (2) Transformational Leadership
- (3) Charismatic Leadership
- (3) Value-Based Leadership such as Authentic Leadership, Servant Leadership, Ethical leadership etc.
- **But the focus is** – Transactional and Transformational leadership theory;

contemporary: charismatic leadership

- A known sociologist (Burns, 1978) differentiated between **transactional leadership** and **transformational leadership**
- The scholar attempted the roles of leadership and followers.
- He wrote of leaders as **people who tap into the motives followers** in order to better reach the goals of the organization.



transactional leadership

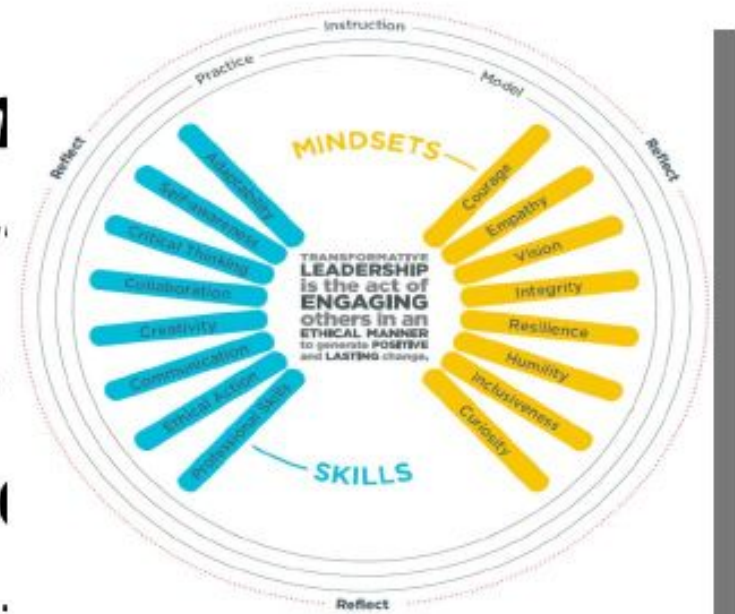
- **Transactional leadership** occurs when a leader motivates followers: ***purely on exchanging rewards for good performance and noticing and reprimanding subordinates for mistakes and standard performance.***
- This type of leadership is based on some sort of ***contractual exchange*** (often implicit) b leader and follower.
- Characteristics include:

transactional leadership

- Characteristics include:
- **Contingent reward:** contacts exchange of rewards for effort, promises reward for performance, recognises accomplishment.
- **Management by exception:** watches and searches for deviation from rules.
- Transactional activities include allocation of work, making routine decisions, monitoring performance and interacting with other functions within

transformational leadership

- **Transformational leadership** – an exceptional form of influence that *moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them* – ties followers and their self-concepts to the organizational identity



Transformational leadership

- **Transformational leadership** – occurs when a leader transforms, or changes his or her followers in **four important** ways:
- (a) that together enable followers to trust the leader and
- (b) performing behaviours that contribute to the achievement of organisational goals.



Transformational leadership

- **Inspirational Motivation:**
establishing an attractive **vision of the future**, the use of ***emotional arguments***, and exhibition of optimism and enthusiasm.
- **Idealized Influence**
includes behaviors such as ***sacrificing for the good of the group***, being a role model, and displaying high ***ethical standards***;

Transformational leadership

- **Individualized Consideration** entails behaviors associated with ***providing tailored*** support, encouragement, empowerment, and ***coaching*** to followers;
- **Intellectual Stimulation** involves behaviors that encourage followers to question the ***status quo*** and seek ***innovative and***

Transformational leadership

Inspirational Motivation:

- establishing an attractive **vision of the future**, the use of emotional arguments, and exhibition of optimism and enthusiasm.

Idealized Influence

- includes behaviors such as sacrificing for the good of the group, being a role model, and displaying high ethical standards

Individualized Consideration

- entails behaviors associated with providing tailored support, encouragement, empowerment, and coaching to followers

Intellectual Stimulation

involves behaviors that encourage followers to question the status quo and seek innovative and creative solutions to problems

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Idealized Influence + Inspirational Motivation + Intellectual Stimulation + Individualized Consideration

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Contingent Reward
+
Management-by-Exception

Expected Outcomes

**Performance
Beyond
Expectations**

followership

GREAT LEADERS START
OFF AS GREAT FOLLOWERS



- Many theorists agree that leadership is a relationship that is jointly produced by leaders and followers, and therefore important the role of followers in explaining organizational success.
- Followership refers to the behavior of followers that results from the leader-follower relationship. (Lussier and Achua, 2007:225)
- A follower is a person who is being influenced by a leader.

followership



- Followers may have a number of characteristics.
- For example, it is said that some are seen as being **passive** yet independent, **critical thinker; active but unassertive**, noncritical thinker; exhibits neither critical, independent thinking nor active participation; is both an independent, critical thinker and a very active member of the group – depending on which **style fits the**

followership

- Others are seen as:
- (a) Isolates – a formal relationship
- (b) Bystander – observes the leader but does not participate in any interaction.
- (c) Participant – is more engaged and clearly favours or disfavor the leader.
- (d) Activist – has strong emotional feelings about the leader
- (e) Diehards – most engaged with leaders. Ready to die for the cause of their leader.

followership

- It is also believed that followers are supposed to actively participate in the pursuit of organisational goals – which means that followers are to work independently, be accountable for their own actions and taking ownership of their own tasks.
- No matter the characteristic, they influence and are influenced leader.



Importance of leadership

- Leadership is important at all levels within the organisation. It includes
- Leadership is the ***moral and intellectual ability*** to visualise and work for what is best for the ***organisation and employees...*** and therefore the most vital thing a leader does is to create team spirit around and near him.

Importance of leadership

- Leadership helps to develop ***teamwork and the integration*** of individual and organisational goal.
- It aids intrinsic motivation by emphasising the importance of the work people do.
- Leading involves mentoring (a senior employee who sponsors and supports a less-experienced employee).

Importance of leadership in relation to organisations



- Organisations need to find and create effective. This involves ***selecting leaders*** (the process organisations go through to fill management positions).
- Training leaders - these take many forms - e.g. leadership development, teach skills such as trust building etc.

leadership



- Like all conditions, leadership is also not permanent. This is because:

**Nothing stays.
Nothing is
permanent.
Feelings, people,
circumstances.
They all change.
That's not being
negative, that's
being realistic.**

Leadership/followers

- Leaders behaviour influence their followers and followers behaviour also influence leaders and both in turn influence individual and group's thinking, feelings and actions when they are in and around organisations



LEAD

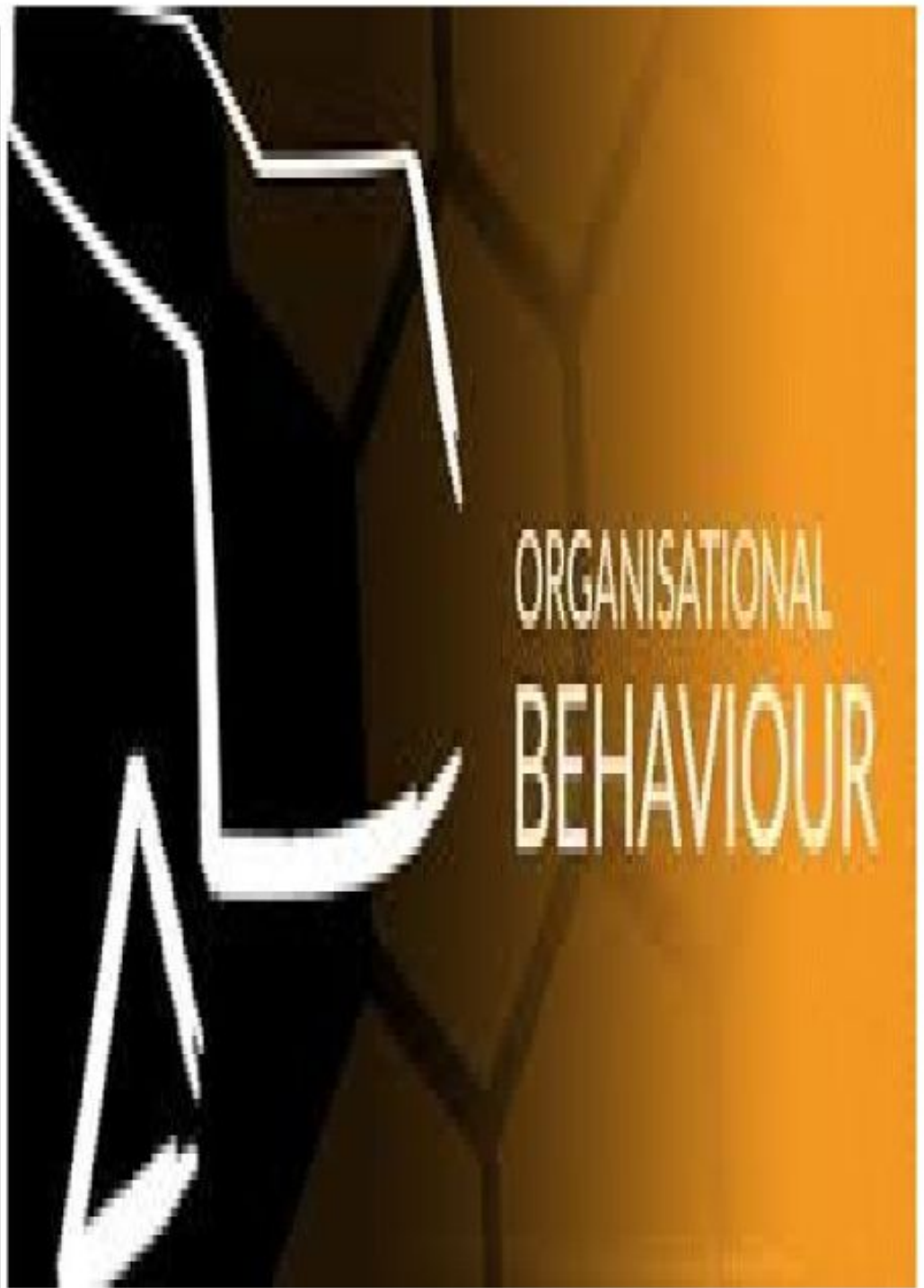
“...take the **front** line when there is **danger**. Then people will appreciate **your leadership**”

—Nelson Mandela





**ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
(THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT
OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)**





Part (UNIT) THREE (B):
GROUP/ TEAM AND informal
systems and dynamics within
ORGANISATIONS

LECTURE 8: POWER, INFLUENCE, POLITICS AND CONFLICT



LECTURE OBJECTIVES



After completing this lecture, you should be able to:

- Recognise and explain key debates concerning the concept of power and influence in the context of the organisational behaviour field.
- Determine the sources of power
- Assess the differences and similarities between the concepts of power, influence and authority.

LECTURE OBJECTIVES

After completing this lecture, you should be able to:

- Outline the concept of conflict
- Outline the sources of conflict in organisations
- Explain the major conflict handling strategies used in organisations.

Introduction

- Although the concept of power often evokes ***negative impressions***, power, influence, politics and conflict almost always exists in organisations.
- This is because, they are extremely significant and pervasive processes in work groups and organisations.
- The concepts – power, influence, politics and conflict are closely intertwined with the topics of group processes such as leadership.

Introduction



- ✦ For example, leaders use their power and influence to achieve organisational goals and they often act politically to gain and hold their powerful leadership positions.
- ✦ Individuals may also engage in politics to improve their positions in organisations.

Introduction

➤ That is why it has been said that recognising and managing power, influence, politics and conflict can be very healthy for organisations and personnel.

➤ This shows that power, influence, political and conflict behaviours are inevitable part of organisations, and can be used for better or worse.

key issue 1: What is POWER

- Power is a term defined in multiple ways:
Some of the definitions include:
 - “is the capacity of a person, team or organisation to influence others”
McShane and Glinow (2016)
- “is the potential ability of an agent to influence a target”.
(French and Raven, 1959).
- “a capacity that **A** has to influence **B** so that **B** acts in accordance with A’s wishes”
(Robbins et al., 2015)

The definitions suggest that:

- 'Power – is the ***ability of one person or group to cause another person or group*** to do something that they otherwise might not have done (a principal means of directing and controlling organisational goals and activities).
- Power can be described *as a property of the individual* – as something one possess (e.g. endurance, formal position)

The definitions suggest that:

- Power can be described as a property of a relationship (e.g. relational, interaction).
- Power as a property of social and organisational structures (e.g. woven into the fabric of our society, rules that are normally followed)
- Power may exist, but not be used.

Key issue 2: SOURCES OF POWER - THE SIX BASES OF POWER/ social power in organisations

- The theorists, French and Raven (1959) and Raven (1965) went on to develop the six **bases** of interpersonal power (***reward, coercive, referent, expert, information and legitimate***).
- Bases of power can be defined as the ***“resource and characteristics a person has in order to be able to influence others”***.

THE SIX BASES OF POWER

- **(1) Reward power** -rely on *others believing that the agent can provide them with the desired reward*, e.g. pay raises, promotions, praise, interesting projects, and other rewards to subordinates.
- When employees do a good job, they should be rewarded.
- Catching people doing things right and rewarding them is a great motivator to continue behaviour.



THE SIX BASES OF POWER:

✦ **(2) Coercive power** - rely on others believing that the agent can punish them.

✦ Punishment can range from suspension to demotion, termination, unpleasant job assignments or even withholding of praise and goodwill.

✦ The use of coercive power involves punishment and withholding rewards and therefore appropriate to maintain ***discipline and enforcing***



THE SIX BASES OF POWER:

✦ **3) Referent power** – People who gain power and influence in a group/team because they are ***liked, admired, and respected.***

✦ People with referent power are ***liked*** because of ***who they are.***

✦ It is also called based on loyalty and friendship.

✦ The use of referent power is particularly appropriate ***for people with no position power such as peer.***



THE SIX BASES OF POWER

- **(4) Legitimate power** - when another believe that he or she has **legitimate right to exert influence** over them.
- It confers on an individual the legitimate authority to control and use organisational resources to accomplish organisational goals. e.g. CEO's legitimate power granted to directors.



THE SIX BASES OF POWER

- **(5) Expert power** – depends on individuals' perception of having expertise or knowledge in a specific domain.
- Managers, particularly at lower levels may be experts within their departments and therefore leaders may depend on them.
- Thus followers can have considerable influence over the leader.



THE SIX BASES OF POWER

- ✦ **(6) Information power-** power stemming from access to and control over information.
- ✦ The more information a manager possess, the better he/she is able to solve problems facing subordinates.
- ✦ Leaders use information power when making ***rational persuasion*** and often with ***inspiration appeals***.



THE SIX BASES OF POWER

- Some researchers also distinguish between:

power (stems from the person's position in an organisation's hierarchy) such as

legitimate, reward and coercive power bases

(power stemming from personal characteristics), which includes **expert, referent and information power bases**.



Key issue 3: Interplay among the power bases

- ***Interplay among the power bases***
- A manager/leader can possess ***each of the six source of power to varying degrees.***
- It is also assumed that the ***tendency to use power*** can lead to greater effectiveness, while the ***failure to use power can have the opposite effect.***

Interplay among the power bases

- For a manager who administers rewards to subordinates also tend to be well liked and seem to have greater referent power than managers who do not out rewards.
- However, the use of coercive can reduce referent power. The threatened or actual use of punishment appear to reduce liking and admiration.

Influence and authority

- The concepts of **influence** and **authority** have clearly been related to power (French and Raven, 1959).
- Authority refers to the “legitimate power vested in managers based on their position and role in an organisation”.
- Authority refers to the “power granted by some form of either **active or passive consent which bestows legitimacy**”.



INFLUENCE: power in motion



Key issue 4: What is INFLUENCE?

- The concepts of influence has been defined in a number of ways:
- For example, it can generally be defined as “any behaviour that attempts to alter someone’s attitude or behaviour.
- French and Raven (1959) defined **influence** as ‘a force one person (the agent) exerts on another else (the target) to induce a change in the target, including changes in behaviour, opinion, attitude, goals, needs and values’.

What is INFLUENCE?

- Influence is a process through which people coordinate their efforts and act in order to work in concert to achieve organisational goals.
- Influence tactics are part of social and organisational interactions.
- Some of the tactics change behaviour through **position power (“hard influence”)** and other through **personal power (“soft influence”)**
- There are a number of them and they include:

INFLUENCE tactics

- **(a) blocking:** Threatening to stop working with someone. Ignore the person and stop being friendly. Withhold collaboration until they do what you want.
- **(b) assertiveness:** actively applying legitimate and coercive power by applying pressure or threat.
- **(c) Upward appeal:** gaining support from one or more people with higher authority or expertise.
- **(d) ingratiation:** any attempt to increase liking by perceived similarity to some targeted person (ingratiation is part of a larger influence tactics known as impression management).

Consequences of INFLUENCE tactics

- There are a number of ways that people react when others are influencing them.
- They include:
 - (a) resistance: people oppose the behaviour desired by the influencer.
 - (b) compliance: people are motivated to implement the influencers request at a minimal level
 - (c) commitment: gaining support from one or more people with higher authority or expertise.

INFLUENCE tactics and organisational politics

- Influence tactics and organisational politics are discussed as perceptions.
- The influence tactics described earlier are perceived as organisational politics especially when it is perceived as self-serving behaviour at the expense of others.
- It is perceived that some of the tactics are so selfish that it can be said to be political.

Political behaviour: power in action



POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR

- Most people working in an organisation ***readily admit in private that they are surrounded by forms of 'wheeling and dealings' through which different people attempt to advance specific interests.***
- However, this kind of activity is rarely discussed in public.
- The idea that organisations are supposed to be rational enterprises in which their members seek common goals tend to discourage discussion of political motive.

POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR

- When people get together in groups, power will be exerted.
- People want to carve out a niche from which to exert influence, to earn rewards and to advance their careers.
- When employees in organisations convert their power into action, it is described as politics.
- Those with good political skills have the ability to use their bases of power effectively

Key issue 5: POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR/ definitions

- Political behaviour involves activities that are required as part of a person's formal role in the organisation, but that influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organisation.
 - "represents attempts to influence others using discretionary behaviours to promote personal objectives".
- (McShane and Von Glinow, 2000:382).

POLITICS: DEFINITIONS

➤ is defined as behaviours outside the accepted procedures and norms of a particular context, intended to further the ***position of an individual or group/team at the expense of others.***

(Martin & Fellenx,

2010:518)

➤ “can be defined as those activities taken within the organisations ***to acquire, develop, and use power and other resources to obtain one's***

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Key issue 6: factors contributing to political behaviour

- Forces/factors that create/contribute to political behaviour can be categorised into individual and organisational factors:
- **Individual factors such as (a) personality, needs and interests**
- (a) Personality traits – high self-monitors, high internal locus of control (tend to exhibit more political behaviours than those with high external locus of control,

factors contributing to political behaviour

- (b) Needs such as need for power: individuals with a **high need for power - personal power or institutional power - are likely to engage in political behaviour** in organisations.
- (c) **'Interests'** involves the predispositions embracing goals, values, desires, expectations and other

factors contributing to political behaviour

- (d) Individual's investment in the organisation e.g. expectations of increased future benefits
- (e) Expectations of success- the higher the expectations to be successful, the higher the use of illegitimate political actions.

factors contributing to political behaviour

- ***Organisational factors include:***
- (a) When organisation's resources are declining.
- (b) When the existing patterns of resources are changing
- (c) When there is opportunity for promotion.
- (d) When organisation's downsize to improve quality, people may engage in political behaviour to safeguard what

factors contributing to political behaviour

- (e) organisational culture characterised by low trust, unclear performance evaluations, self-serving managers who create breeding ground for politicking.
- (f) When employees see the people on top/ senior managers engage in political behaviour, especially when they do so successfully and are rewarded for it, a climate is created that supports politicking.

Forces that create political behaviour/ factors contributing to political behaviour

- It has been argued that the factors that contribute to political behaviour focused on the favourable outcomes for individuals who successfully engage in politicking.
- But for most people who are unwilling to play politics game, outcome tend to be negative.

How do people respond to organisational politics

- It has been noted that politics may threaten employees in terms of *decreased job satisfaction, increased anxiety and stress, increased turnover and reduced performance.*
- Political behaviours in organisations can influence ethical leadership such as citizen behaviours.

How do people respond to organisational politics

- Consequently, it has been said that people respond to organisational politics in a number of ways and it includes:
- (a) The use of ***defensive behaviours*** (reactive and protective behaviours such as engaging in avoiding actions)(e.g. overconforming), avoiding blame (e.g. playing safe) or avoiding change (e.g. self protection)

How do people respond to organisational politics

- (b) Impression management (IM): refers to the process by which individuals try to influence the impression others have of them.
- Such as intimidation, enhancement, flattery, and self promotion
- Note: When people engage in IM are sending false messages that might be

Political behaviour that affects success

- This can be done in a number of ways. It includes:
- **(a) Networking:** is the **process of developing relationships for the purpose of socializing and politicking** (a form of social network - social structure of individuals or social units (e.g. departments, organizations - which generates s



Political behaviour that affects success

- It is said that technical knowledge and skills will help you gain entry into lower management, but ***networks and social skills gain advancement*** to higher-level management.
- When you need any type of help, do you have a network of people ready to turn to or know how to develop a network to assist you?

Political behaviour that affects success

- Networking sounds easy and we tend to think it should come naturally. However, the reality is that networking is a learned skill.
- Networking is about building professional relationships and friendships.
- ***The network process:*** (1) Set networking goals, e.g. to get a mentor; (2) Develop your network – begin with

Political behaviour that affects success

(4) Then expand your list to people you don't know – e.g. getting involved in some other associations; (5) Maintain your network.

- Networking is also about helping others, especially your network – e.g. call, emails and cards (once a while) are good. As you are being helped, you should also help others.



Political behaviour that affects success

- (b) Using reciprocity: ***Involves creating obligations and developing alliances, and using them to accomplish objectives.***
- The norm of reciprocity presumes that people should help those who help them and people should not injure those who help them.

Political behaviour that affects success

- This implies that when people do something for you, ***you incur an obligation that they may expect to be repaid.***
- You should therefore work at developing a network of alliances that you can call on for help in meeting your objectives.

Conflict



Key issue 7: CONFLICT

- Conflict arises ***whenever interest collide.***
- Conflict can personal (individual), between and within groups/teams or organisations.
- Although most people think of conflict as a negative experience to be avoided, it actually has the potential to ***pro***
positive organisational outcomes if managed properly.



Key issue 8: CONFLICT definitions

➤ Therefore, a number of theorists define conflict from different viewpoints.

➤ For example,

➤ Conflict is defined as:

“the interaction of interdependent people who perceive opposition of goals, aims and values, and who see the other party as potentially interfering with the realisation of these goals”

Putnam and Poole (1987),

➤ a process which begins when one party perceives that another has frustrated or is about to frustrate, some concern of his”.

Thomas (1976)

Key issue 9: CONFLICT THEORIES

- The perspectives that seek to enhance the understanding of issues relate to conflict are numerous. They include the theoretical perspectives and the frames of reference.
- The theoretical perspectives include:
 - ★ **(a) Functionalist perspective:** the functionalist theory of conflict perceive that conflict is ***dysfunctional and negative*** because it destroys the cohesiveness and consensus needed for society to function and so must be eliminated.

Key issue 9: CONFLICT

THEORIES

- ✦ **(b) Conflict theory:** the conflict theory, rooted in the work of Marx, consists of the underlying assumption that ***conflict within interested and competing groups*** is normal features of organisational and societal life.
- ✦ **(c) Classical view of organisational conflict:** the basic assumption is that ***organisations are built on the principles of structures, rules, etc.*** that contribute to the organisation's efficiency, thereby creating harmony and cooperation, completely devoid of conflict (e.g. scientific management).

Key issue 9: CONFLICT THEORIES

- ✦ **(d) The modern view of organisational conflict:** the contemporary view of conflict brings to bear the *inevitability of conflict* and so provides an optimistic perspective of conflict at all levels of the organisation.
- ✦ **The frames of reference include:**
- ✦ **(i) Unitarist:** sees organisations as harmonious and any conflict is bad.

Key issue 9: CONFLICT THEORIES

- ✦ **(ii) Pluralist:** organisations are a collection of groups, each with their own interests
- ✦ **(iii) Interactionists:** conflict as a positive necessary force for effective performance.
- ✦ **(iii) Radical:** conflict as inevitable outcome of capitalism.

Key issue 9: VIEWS ON ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

- ✧ In view of these, conflict is seen from a **positive view**: conflict in organisations can be a positive force. The creation and/or the resolution of conflict can lead to people to search for ways of changing how they do things.
- ✧ Conflict is seen from a **negative view**: conflict also may have serious negative effects, diverting efforts from goal attainment, and depleting of resources, especially time and money.

Key issue 9: VIEWS ON ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

- Conflict is seen from a **balanced view**: a number of theorists and researchers are of the view that conflict may sometimes be ***desirable and at other times destructive***.
- Thus, although some conflicts can be avoided and reduced, others have to be resolved and properly managed.
- The balanced view is sensitive to the consequences of conflict, ranging from negative outcomes (e.g. sabotage) to positive outcomes (high quality of work).

FORMS/types OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

- Organisational conflict are described as:
- (1) ***structural or task,***
- (2) ***interactional or relationship***
and
- (3) ***processual or process.***

FORMS/types OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

Structural or Task Conflict

- involves disagreements concerning **different opinions, procedures and preferences related to the performance of tasks.**

Interaction or Relationship Conflict

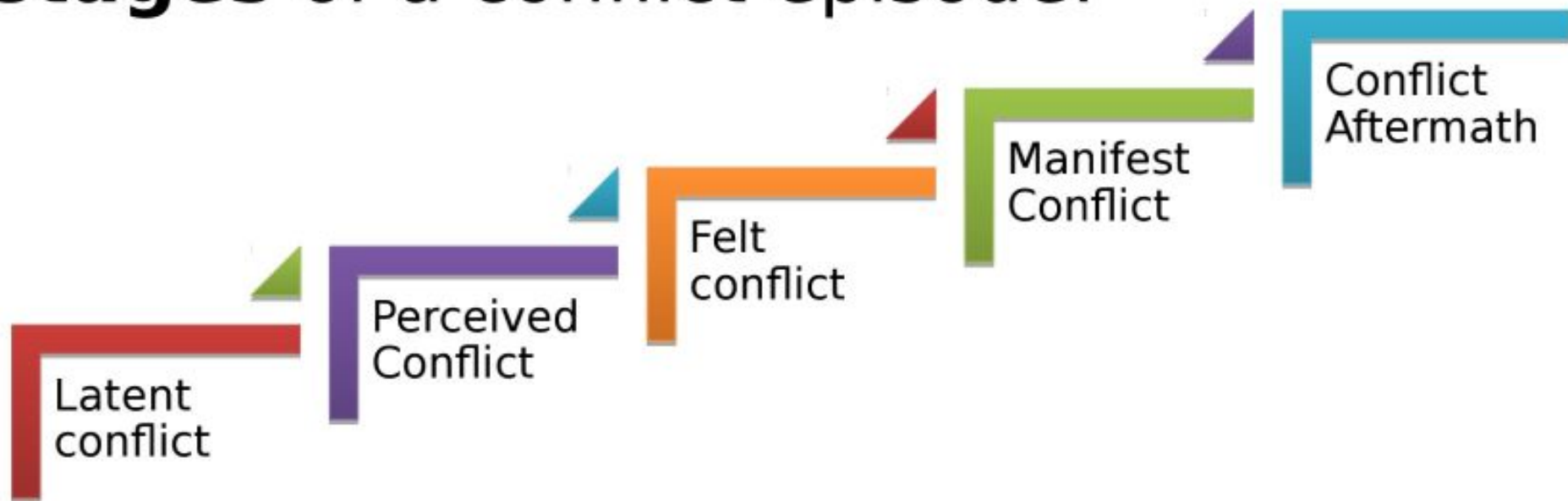
- involve disagreements over **personal issues, including emotions and feelings, personal values, anger, and hostility.**

Processual or Process Conflict

- involves team member **disagreements over processes for accomplishing tasks**, such as resource delegation and responsibilities

Key issue 9: PONDY'S MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

➤ Pondy (1967) viewed conflict as a dynamic process that consist of **five stages** of a conflict episode:



Key issue 9: PONDY'S MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

- The **five stages** of a conflict episode:
- **(i) latent conflict (conditions):** *there is no conflict* but the potential for conflict to arise is present. However, underlying **sources** of latent include: (a) competition for scarce resources, (b) drives for autonomy, (c) divergence of subunit goals, and (d) task relationship.
- **(ii) Perceived conflict:** begins one party -

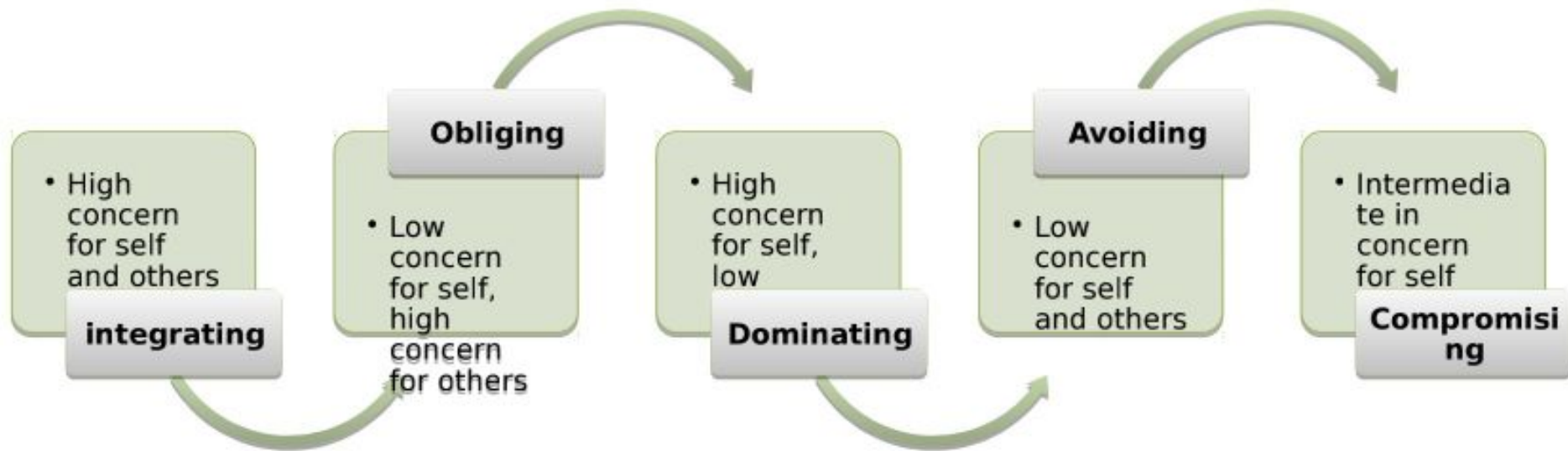
PONDY'S MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT cont'd

- **(3) Felt conflict (affect):** the parties in conflict develop negative feelings about each other.
- **(4) Manifest conflict (behavior):** one party decides how to react to or deal with the party such as open aggression, arguing managers etc.
- **(5) Conflict aftermath (conditions):** need to *genuinely resolved* conflict to the satisfaction of all participants, but suppressed **not resolved, the latent**



Key issue 10: MANAGING CONFLICT cont'd

- The conflict management strategies according to Rahim (2002) are:



MANAGING CONFLICT strategies cont'd



- **(1) Integrating style** (collaborating) **(high concern for self and others)** is associate with problem solving.
- The use of this style involves **openness, exchange information, looking for alternatives and examination of differences** to reach effective solution acceptable to both parties.

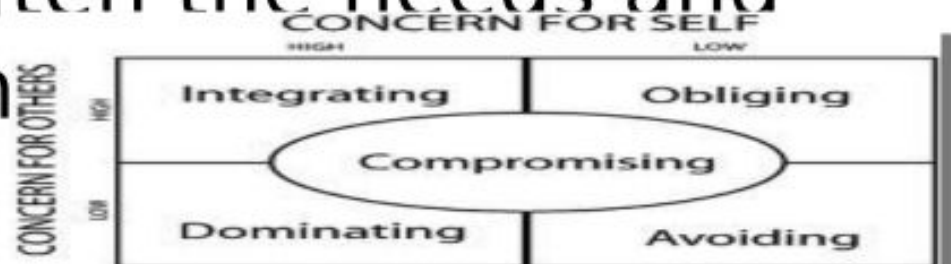
MANAGING CONFLICT cont'd



- **(2) Obliging style** (accommodating style)(**low concern for self and high concern for others**) is associated with attempting to downplay the differences and emphasising commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party.
- An obliging person neglects his or her own concern to satisfy the concern of the other party.

MANAGING CONFLICT cont'd

- **(3) Dominating style** (forcing style) (**high concern for self and low concern for others**) has been identified with win-lose orientation or with forcing behaviour to win one's position.
- A dominating or competing person goes **all out to win his or her objective**, and as a result, often the needs and expectations of th



Source: M.A. Rahim (2002, p. 217)

MANAGING CONFLICT cont'd

- **(4) Avoiding (low concern for self and others)** has been associated with withdrawal or sidestepping situations. An avoiding person fails to satisfy his or her own concern as well as the concern of the other party.
- **(5) Compromising (intermediate in concern for self and others)** involves give-and-take whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision.

MANAGING CONFLICT/dispute resolution/ THIRD PARTY RESOLUTION PROCESSES



- Changing relationship between teams and organisations and their environments have created employment relationships that require alternative and integrative **dispute resolution processes** such as negotiation and **third party resolution processes such as** mediation and arbitration.
- ***Third-party resolution*** is any attempt by a relatively neutral person to help the parties resolve their differences.

Dispute resolution PROCESS

➤ These third-party dispute resolution strategies include:

✦ **(1) Negotiation** (also sometimes used called bargaining) is a process that occurs when two or more parties decide how to allocate scarce resources.

✦ **(2) Mediation/mediator:** the process by which a third party helps two or more other parties resolve one or more issues. The mediator only influence the process and outcome without influencing the final decision

MANAGING CONFLICT/resolution: THIRD PARTY RESOLUTION PROCESSES

- **(3) Conciliation/conciliator** - a trusted third party who provides an informal communication link between the negotiator and the opponent (similar to mediator).
- **(4) Arbitration/arbitrator** - arbitrators or a panel of arbitrators take full control of the final resolution by influencing the outcome of the resolution rather than the process.

Choosing the best conflict management/ third party strategy



- The best conflict management handling style / third-party intervention strategy depend on the situation.
- It may also depend on a number of factors such as cultural or gender differences.
- Therefore, there is the need to understand and develop the capacity to use any of the five styles or strategies for the appropriate occasion.

Summary: Power, politics and conflict



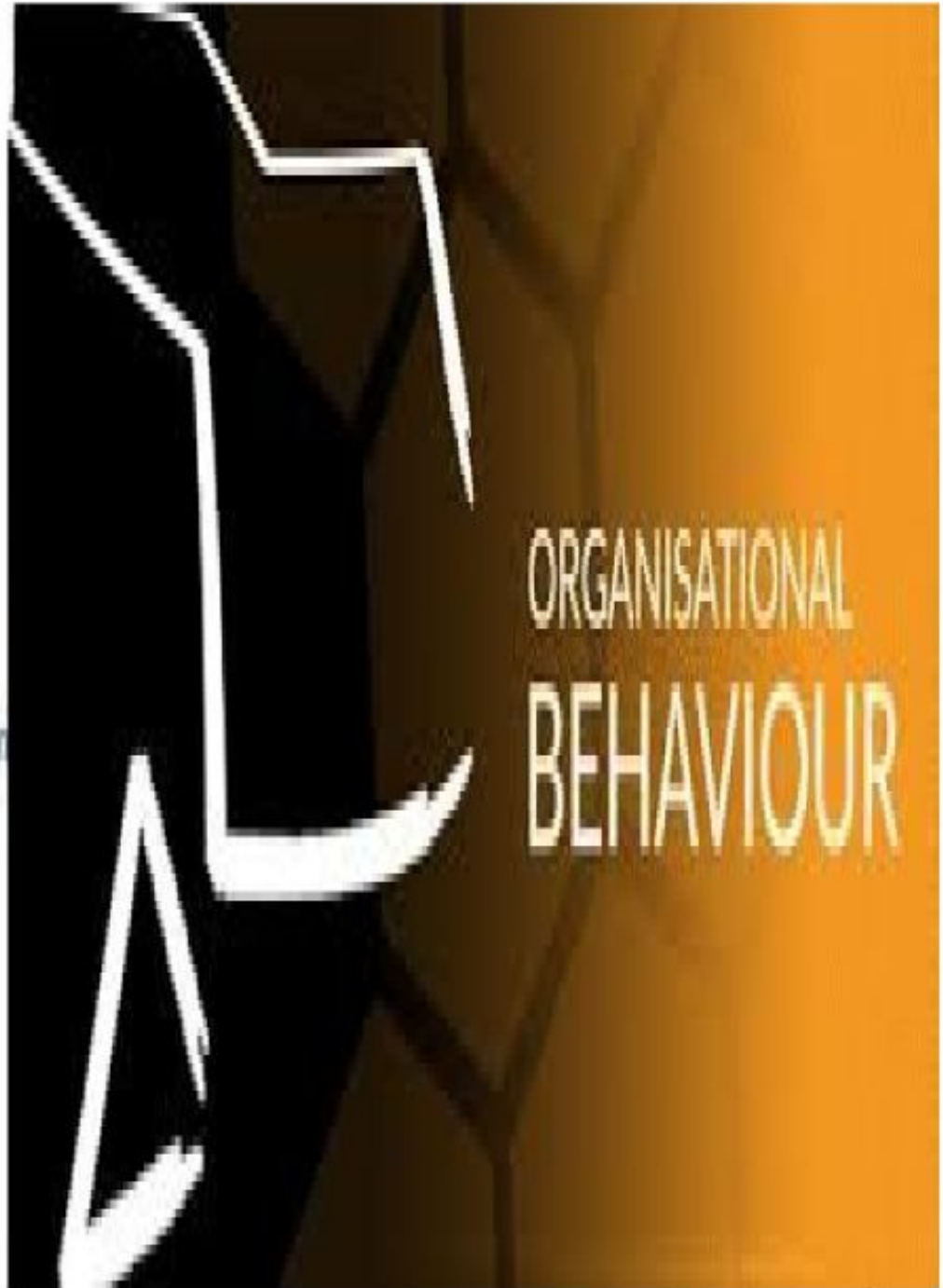
- Organisations as a political system is a reality.
- It can influence how individual and groups feel, think, and do when they are in and around the organisation.
- But note that whether now or later, and irrespective of the situation you are in, a valuable lesson for you is:
 - (1) It is always right to do what is right
 - (2) It is never wrong to do right
 - (3) It is never right to do wrong

My CRAZY Office





**ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
(THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT
OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)**





Part (UNIT) FOUR:
organisational
characteristics and
processes

- Organisational structure
- ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE
- ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

LECTURE 10: CULTURE - organisation & national



Lecture objectives

After completing this lecture, you should be able to:

- Describe the common characteristics of organisational culture
- Show how culture is transmitted to employees
- Show how national culture can affect the way organisational culture is transported to another country.

introduction

- In the early 1980s, the topic “organisational culture”, or corporate culture suddenly became extremely popular in management literature.
- It is believed that should organisations are symbolic entities, they function according to implicit models in the minds of their members/employees, and these models are culturally determined.

introduction



- In the early 1980s, the topic “organisational culture”, or corporate culture suddenly became extremely popular in management literature.
- It is believed that should organisations are symbolic entities, they function according to implicit models (e.g. structure and workflow) in the minds of their members/employees, and these models are culturally determined.

introduction

- Organisational culture therefore deals with differences of culture between organisations-and part of organisations-within the same country or countries.
- For example, it can be said that “the culture of a factory is its customary and traditional way of thinking and doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all its members and which new members

key issue 1: what is organisational culture

- “Organisational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to

key issue 1: what is organisational culture

- “Organisational culture is a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organisation from other organisations”.

Robbin et al. (2017)

- Organisational culture is the collective programming of the that distinguishes the members of one organisation from another”.

Hofstede (2001)

organisational culture/levels

- Culture consists of some combination of **artefacts**, **values** and **beliefs**, and **underlying** assumptions.
- Organisational culture can be looked at from 3 **levels**.
- (1) ***Artefacts (the observables symbols and signs of an organisation's culture) and behaviours.***
e.g. ceremonies, course, architecture,

organisational culture/ organisational web

(2) ***Espoused Values***

The values espoused by the organisation's leaders as expressed in strategies, goals, value statements.

(3) ***Basic assumptions***

The often unstated and taken-for-granted reality of an organisation's culture e.g. relationship to environment, human activity and Relationships.



organisational culture/ organisational web

- Organisational culture can be looked at from the perspective of the **cultural web**.
- The cultural web is a well known framework for analysis.
- The framework places paradigm at the core understanding an organisation's culture.



organisations culture/ organisational web

- **Routines** are the **observable behaviour** seen as normal and correct in organisations.
- **Ritual** are those **routines that have particular cultural meanings** for organisational members.
- Stories are the **culturally important episodes told and retold inside and outside** the organisation.
- **Symbols** are the **artefacts, events, actions or people that have**

organisational culture/ organisations web

- **Power structures identify core members** and groupings in the organisation that typically are particularly associated with core beliefs and values.
- **Organisational structure also reflects power and centrality**, and itself can itself communicate core assumptions about the role and value of different groupings.
- **Control systems including those for**

Key issue 2: organisations culture/values/characteristics: what do they do?

- Culture does a number of things – (the role that culture plays) and they include:
- **The functions of culture:** it has a boundary-defining role – creates distinction between one organisation and the others.
- **Culture creates climate:** it allows for the shared perceptions organisational members have about their organisation

key issue 2: what do they do?

- **Ethical dimensions of culture:** it allows for the shared concept of **right and wrong behaviour** in the workplace that reflects the true values of the organisation.
- It also shapes the ethical decision of its members.
- **An ethical culture can be created by adopting principles such as:**

key issue 2: what do they do?



- (a) top management being visible role models
- (b) communicating ethical expectations
- (c) providing ethical training
- (d) visibly reward ethical acts and punish unethical ones.
- **Culture as an asset:** can significantly contribute to an organisation's overall success (e.g. innovation, ethical environment, organisational

Key issue 2: what do they do?



- **Culture as a liability:** although culture is an asset, its potentially dysfunctional aspects exist (e.g. values of management can trickle down, leaving employees uncreative and unappreciated).
- Culture also becomes a liability when it becomes barriers to change.

key issue 3: learning organisational culture

- Employees “learn” an organizational culture in a number of ways. They include:
- (1) **Socialization** - the systematic process by which an organisation bring new employees into its culture.
- The general meaning of the term “socialization” is the process by which older members of a society transmit to younger members the social skills and knowledge needed to function

learning organisational culture

- (2) **Stories** – organizational stories typically contain a narrative of the significant events or people, including such things as the organisation’s founders, rule breaking and reaction to past mistakes.
- For example, corporate “stories-tellers” (senior executives) explain the company’s heritage.

learning organisational culture

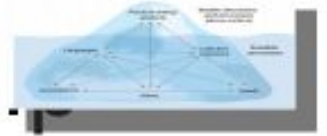
- (3) **Rituals** - are repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the important values and goals of the organisation. Some symbols and ritual are called '**practices**' because they are visible and members interpret their cultural meaning in a definable way.
- e.g. they cover how people are promoted or rewarded for superior performance, award ceremonies (such as enhancement or celebration - such

learning organisational culture

- (4) **Materials Symbols** - materials symbols or artifacts that creates an organisation's **personality**.
- For example, the layout of the organisation's facilities (e.g. displaying art on the walls of offices sends a cultural message to employees and visitors that creating a stimulating cultural context in which employees can explore ideas is highly valued)

learning organisational culture

- (5) **Language** – “language” or unique “terms” as a way to identify and unite members of a culture.
- By learning a language, members attest to their acceptance of the culture and their willingness to help preserve it.
- For example, when a high-tech company only **uses email for internal communication, the cultural message is that**



Key issue 4: notions of organisational culture

- One can also distinguish between **three** notions of culture.
- **Corporate culture:** those aspects of culture defined by managers as the preferred culture they aspire to (e.g. mission statement, vision statement, core values).
- **Organisational culture:** the actual culture that emerges from the workforce and becomes sediment over time.
- **Subcultures:** refers to a subset of the

Key issue 5: CHANGING AND STRENGTHENING Organisational culture

- It has been argued that changing organisational culture can be challenging, but strategies that has been used to successfully change and strengthen culture include:
- **(a) actions of leaders** – culture begins with leadership (e.g. transformational leadership).

Key issue 5: CHANGING AND STRENGTHENING Organisational culture

- **(b) Attracting, selecting and socializing employees** – organisational culture is strengthened by attracting and hiring people who already embrace the cultural values (person- organisational fit; attraction-selection-attribution (ASA) theory).

organisational culture and behaviour



- It is believed that individual and group ***differences and characteristics*** affect ***individual and group behaviour*** at the ***workplace.***
- It can also be said that every organisation has a culture and depending on its strength can have a significantly influence on attitudes and behaviours of organisational members

organisational culture/ national culture

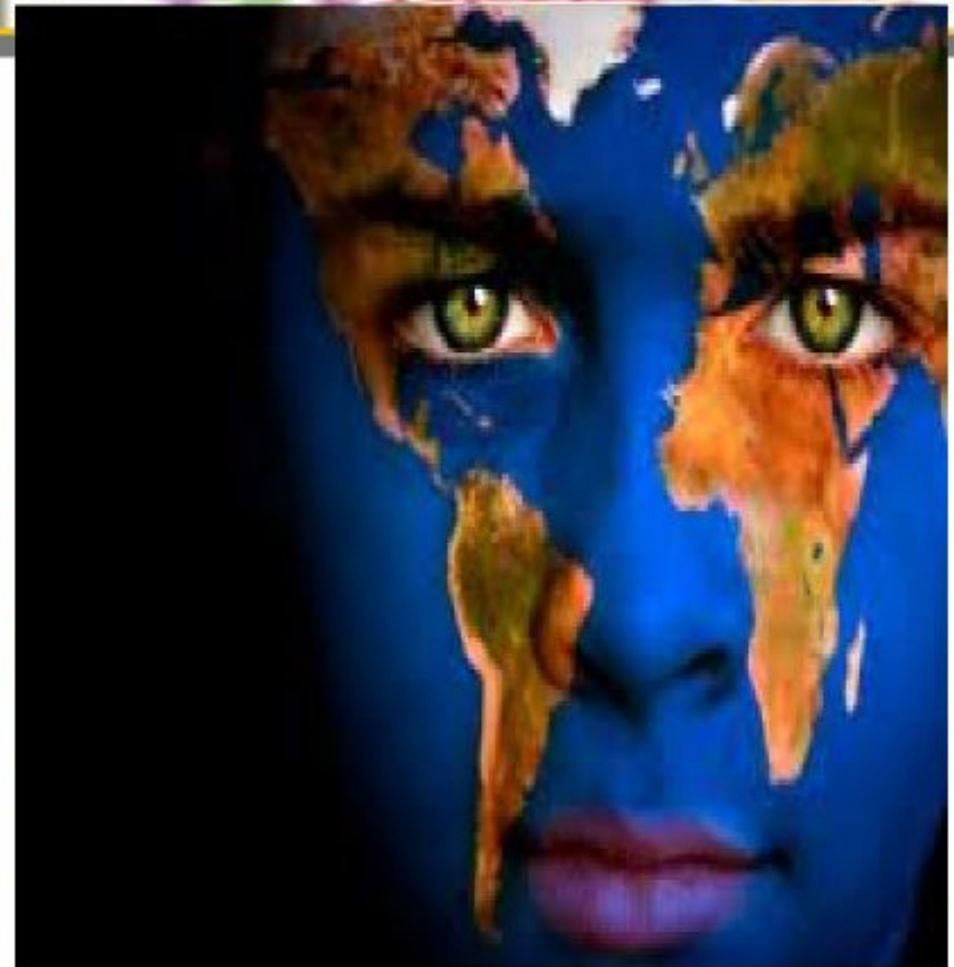
- Organisational culture as a form of shared value (e.g. similarity of an organisation's dominant values) is also influenced by the prevailing values of the community or society (nation) in which it conducts business (**the environment**).
- However, as earlier indicated, even though the term organisational culture did not become common before the 1980s, national culture as a concept

organisational culture/ national culture



- It should however be noted that even though the word culture suggest that organisational culture and national culture are the same, it must be noted that the two are different.
- Although different, the two (organisational culture and national culture complement) complement each other.

national culture



national culture

- Organisations operate within ***national cultures*** and are subject to the same cultural forces that act upon every other aspect of social life.
- The values shared ***across a society*** is also known as “cultural values”
- Values across cultures are different.



national culture (Values across cultures)

- There are five values that have cultural significance.
- These will be defined in terms of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture.
- Definition of culture according to Hofstede (1984) is "the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one human group from other'.

national culture (Values across cultures)

- The five are (Hofstede/Bor
- (1) individualism/collectivism
- (2) power distance,
- (3) uncertainty avoidance,
- (4) achievement/nurturing,
- (5) Long-term versus short term orientation



	Power Distance	Individualism	Achievement Orientation	Uncertainty Avoidance	Long-Term Orientation
United States	L	H	H	L	L
Germany	L	H	H	M	M
Japan	M	M	M	H	H
France	H	M	M	H	L
Netherlands	L	H	L	M	M
Hong Kong	H	L	M	L	H
Indonesia	H	L	M	L	L
West Africa	H	L	M	M	L
Russia	H	M	L	H	L
China	H	L	M	M	H

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national culture (Values across cultures) - dimensions

- **Individualism** is the extent to which people value **independence and personal uniqueness**.
- Highly individualistic people value freedom, self-sufficiency, control their own lives, appreciation of unique qualities that distinguish them from others. eg. Americans, Canadians.



national culture (Values across cultures) - dimensions

- **Collectivism** is the extent to which people value their duty to **groups they belong** and **to group harmony**.
- Highly collectivist people define themselves by group membership, emphasise their connection to others in the group, and value the goals and wellbeing of people *within their group*, eg. Israel.



national culture (Values across cultures) - dimensions

- **Power distance** - refers to the extent to which people accept **unequal distribution** of power in society.
- Those in higher position expect obedience to authority.
- For example, reluctant to disagree with or contradict the boss. e.g.



national culture (Values across cultures)- dimensions

- ***Uncertainty avoidance*** - the degree to which people tolerate ambiguity.
- Employees with high uncertainty avoidance prefer direct rather than indirect communication. eg. Japan.

cultural analysis:

uncertainty avoidance



national culture (Values across cultures)- dimensions

- ***Achievement- Nurturing Orientation (masculinity/feminine)***
– reflects a ***competitive*** versus ***cooperative*** view of relations with people.
- People with high achievement orientation value assertiveness and therefore appreciate people who are tough.



national culture (Values across cultures)- dimensions



- In contrast, people in nurturing culture emphasis ***relationship and the wellbeing of others*** and also focus on human interaction and caring. e.g. Sweden.
- For example, in using the (masculinity/ feminine, it can be said that women attach more importance to social goals, such as relationships, helping others and the physical environment, while

national culture (Values across cultures)-dimensions

- ***Long-term versus short term orientation*** – to what extent are people oriented toward the future by saving and being persistent versus being oriented toward the present and past respecting tradition and meeting social obligations.
- A long-term orientation is likely to be the result of values that include persistence

national culture (Values across cultures) - dimensions

- The short-term orientation is likely to be the result of values that express concern for maintaining personal stability or happiness and for living in the present. e.g. Japan



the globe framework for assessing national culture (Values across cultures)

- The Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) research programme is using on-going cross-cultural investigation in for example national culture
- E.g. some include gender differentiation (similar to masculinity versus femininity) and future orientation (similar to long/short term).

applications - concepts and practices: culture & globalization

- However, it has been noted that globalisation (a term that has a relatively recent history in relation to the way in which business operates leading to the development of business operating in other countries) has influence culture in a number of ways
- For example, international corporation and transnational companies (TNC) need to take into consideration issues

international hrm



- That is where issues such as international HRM for example comes in.
- International HRM refers to the activities an international organisation carries out to use its human resources effectively.
- Recognising, accommodating and understanding a **host country's taboos, rituals, attitudes towards time, kinship systems etc** are

international hrm

- For example, it affects general staffing policy on key positions at headquarters and subsidiaries: such as:
- **Expatriates or Parent/Home Country National/PCNs** – employees from the **home country who are on international assignment.**
- **Host Country National/HCNs** – employees who are **natives of a country** of the host country. HCNs may be transferred into the parent country.

culture/ globalization: application/ practice

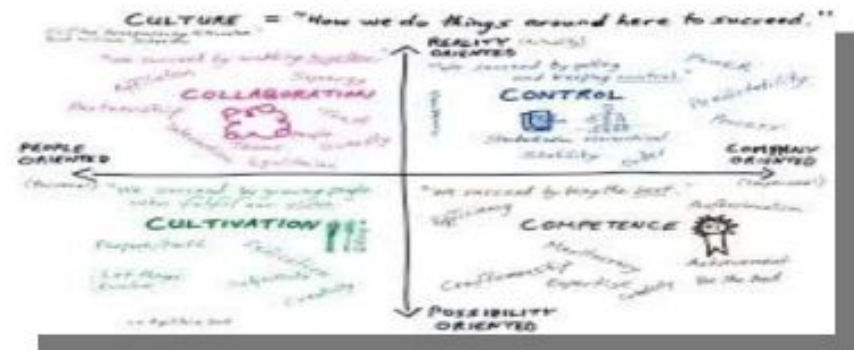
- ***Third Country Nationals/TCNs*** – employees who are ***natives of a country other than the home country or the host country.*** TCNs transferred to either HQ or another subsidiary.
- This is based on values such as: ethnocentric, polycentric, geocentric, regiocentric.
- Some implications for

organisational/ national cultures/applications

- Realise that an organisation's culture is relatively fixed, to effect change, there is the need to prepare a long term strategic plan and also top management must be involved.
- Hire individuals whose values are aligned with those of the organisation (person-organisation fit).
- Be aware that your organisation's culture may not be "transportable" to

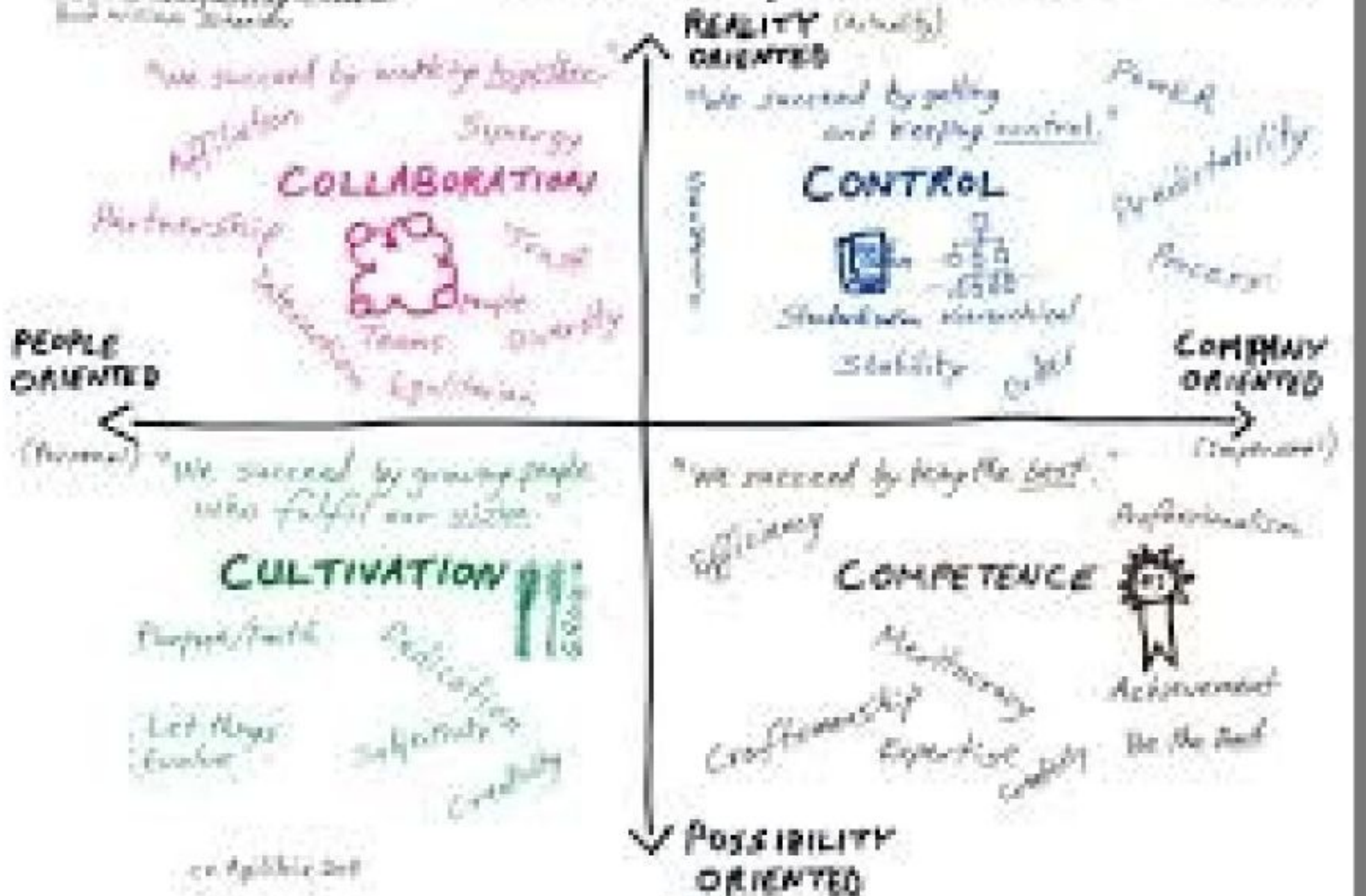
organisational/ national cultures/applications

- Understand the cultural relevance of your organisational norms before introducing new plans or initiatives.
- This is because culture – organisational and national can influence a person's thinking,



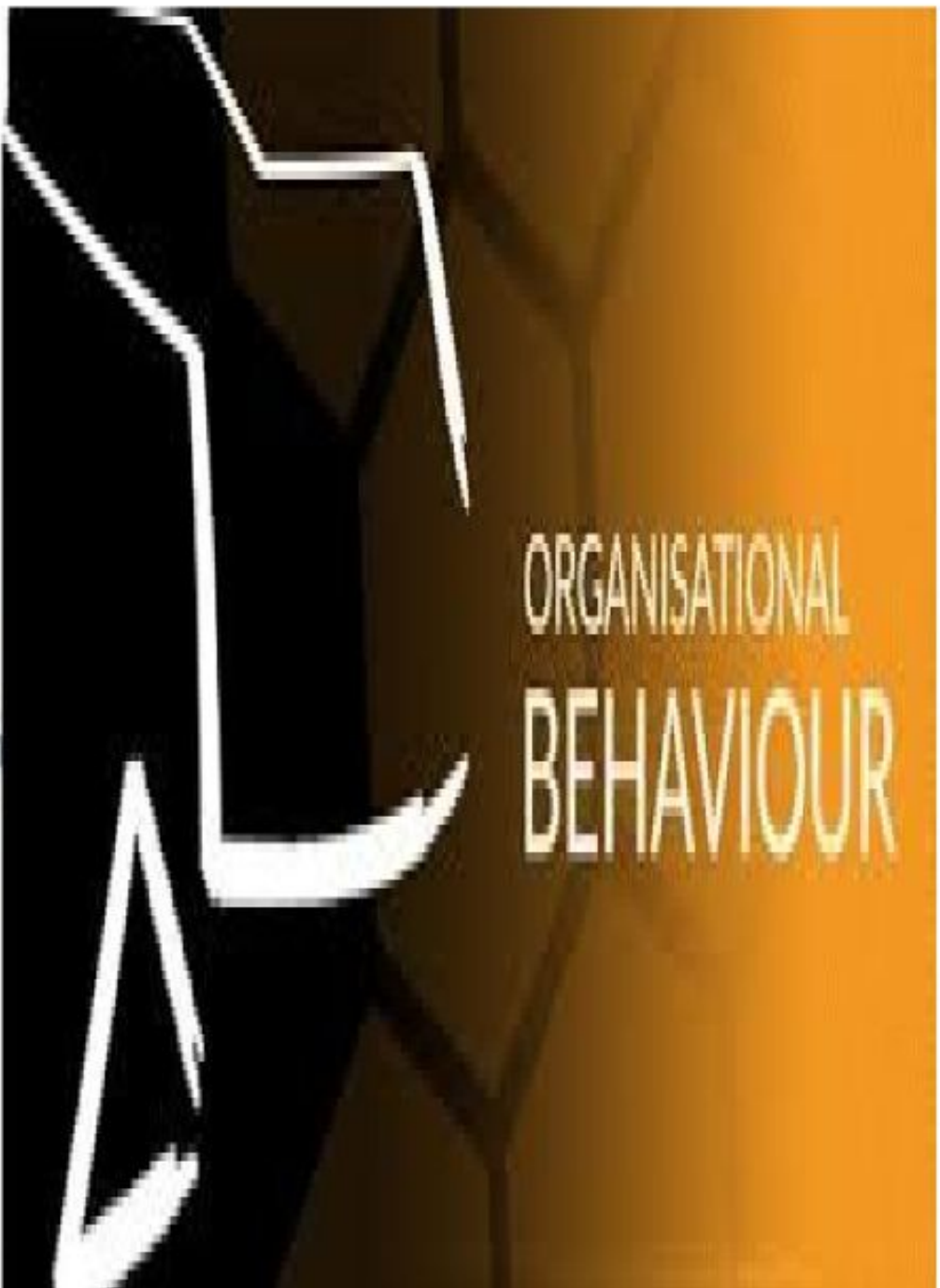
CULTURE = "How we do things around here to succeed."

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**ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
(THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT
OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR)**





Part (UNIT) FOUR:
organisational
characteristics and
processes

- Organisational structure
- ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE
- ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

LECTURE 11: organisational CHANGE



LECTURE objectives

After completing this lecture, you should be able to:

- Explain change
- Describe the sources of resistance to change
- Identify the major reasons for resisting change
- Discuss strategies for minimising/reducing change resistance.

introduction

- Organisations are operating in increasingly complex environment, in which an adaptation to environmental changes are imperative (for survival and competition).
- Strong research evidence shows that the effectiveness of organisations is influenced by the degree of **fit between organisations and their environment.**

introduction

- However, rapid environmental changes are causing fundamental transformation that are having a dramatic impact on organisations and presenting new opportunities and threats for leadership.
- It is therefore not surprising that researchers such as **Kurt Lewin** (social psychologists) developed the “three-step model of change process” and **Kotter** developed the “eight-step plan for change implementation” to help

definitions of organisational **change**

- Organisational change consists of the activities associated with planning, designing, implementing, and internalising tools, procedures, routines, processes, or systems that will require people to perform their jobs differently.
- Despite the general definition, change can be also be defined as:

definitions of organisational **change**

- “Change concerns any alteration in people, structure or technology”
(Zoogah and Beugré, 2013)
- Change is “making thing different”
Robbins et al. (2017)
- Organisational change is the process by which organisations move from their present state to some desired future state to increase their eff



triggers of change

- Triggers of change can be looked at from external triggers and internal triggers perspectives.
- **External triggers** for organisational change include:
 - (a) economic and trading conditions (domestic /global)
 - (b) new technology and materials.
 - (c) demographic trends.

triggers of change

- (d) legislation, regulations and government policy.
- Shift in local, national and international politics.
- **Internal triggers** for organisational change include:
 - (a) design of new products and services
 - (b) appointment of new senior manager or top management team.
 - (c) new ideas about how to deliver service to customers.

planned change

- Change can either just happen or planned
- **Planned change** are change activities that are intentional and goal-oriented.
- The goal of planned change are:
- (a) to seek to improve the ability of the organisation to adapt to changes in its environment
- (b) it seeks to change employee behaviour.
- Change agents are those responsible to

planned change

- Change agents can be managers, nonmanagers, current and new employees or outside consultants.
- But it is said that change agents tend to fail because organisational members resist change.
- One of the most well-documented findings from studies of individual and organisational behaviour is that organisations and their members resist change.



resistance to change

- **Sources of resistance to change - individual**
- (a) Habits – to rely on life's complexities, people tend to rely on habits or programmed responses
- (b) Security – people with high need for security is likely to resist change
- (c) Fear of the unknown - change substitutes ambiguity and uncertainty for the known.



resistance to change

- (d) saving face- some people resist change as a “political strategy” to prove that the decision is wrong or that the person encouraging change is incompetent
- (e) selective information processing – individual engage in selective information processing in order to keep their perceptions intact. They hear what they want to hear, and ignore any information that challenges the world

resistance to change

- (f) breaking routine - people typically refuse initiatives that force them out of their comfort zones and require them to invest in time and energy to in learning new role patterns.
- **Sources of resistance to change-organisational**
- (a) Limited focus of change - organisations are made up of a number of interdependent subsystems. One cannot change without affecting the

resistance to change

- (b) Group inertia - even if individuals want to change their behaviour, group norms may act as a constraint.
- (c) Threat to expertise - changes in organisational pattern may threaten the expertise of specialised groups.
- (d) Threat to established power relationships - any redistribution of decision-making authority can threaten long-established power relationships within the organisation.

resistance to change

- (e) Distrust of leadership - change is resisted if people suspect that there are hidden consequences or motives that management is not revealing.
- This is because trust is the basic requirement for sustaining any relationship and therefore the absence of trust will cause people to resist change, even if there are no obvious threats.

resistance to change

- **(f)** Threats to power or influence - change may be seen as a threat to the power or influence of certain groups within the organisation, such as control over decisions, resources, information.
- Where a group of people have over a period of time, established what they perceive as their 'territorial rights', they are likely to resist change.

overcoming/reducing resistance to change

- A number of tactics can be used to overcome or reduce resistance to change and they include:
 - (a) Education and communication such as provide clear explanation concerning the benefits and costs of change.
 - (b) Participation and involvement – managers make it an effort to include employees in decisions regarding the change process



overcoming/reducing resistance to change

- (c) Select those who accept change when initiating and implementing any change effort (e.g. can be related to personality).
- (d) Building support and commitment through employee counselling, training and short paid leave may facilitate adjustment.
- (d) Coercion - threaten those who might resist change.



overcoming/reducing resistance to change

- (e) Fairness – managers and change agents should ensure that change is done fairly.
- (f) Stress management – employees attend sessions to discuss their worries about the change may reduce among employees.
- (g) Conditions in the organisation such as dramatic crises, leadership challenges, organisational size could

change and the individual- coping mechanisms/ cycle

- In an attempt to further understand change and the individual, some researchers realised individuals adopt coping mechanisms.
- It is believed that people go through some form of coping cycle – the emotional responses to trauma and loss in which people experience:
- **Denial-** unwillingness to confront reality (this is not happening).

change and the individual- coping mechanisms/ cycle

- **Anger** – turns accusations to those apparently responsible (why is this thing happening) .
- **Bargaining** – attempts to negotiate (what if I do it this way)
- **Depression** – the reality of loss or transition is appreciated (its hopeless, there's nothing I can do about it).
- **Acceptance** – coming to terms with and accepting the situation and its full implication (what are we going to do

resistance or attraction?

- It has been said that change is not about **resistance**, it is about **attraction** (to aspects of the current system).
- Looking at change in terms of attraction has been said to be one of the radical ways of managing issues related to change
- It is therefore important that when it comes to change, there is the need to

resistance or attraction?

- Consequently it has been noted that “participatory approach” to organisational change and “innovation and creativity” (such as the adoption of systems, process, programme, products and services new to the organisation) tend to influence change in behaviour – thinking, feelings and actions, when people are in and around the organisation.

