ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Attitude is a mental and neutral state of readiness organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related. (G.W. Allport)

Attitude as an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world (Krech and Crutchfield)

Attitude is a tendency or predisposition to evaluate an object or symbol of that object in a certain way (Katz and Scotland)

An attitude is defined as, **"a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object". (**Katz and Scotland)

In simple words, an "attitude" is an individual's point of view or an individual's way of looking at something. To be more explicit, an "attitude" may be explained as the mental state of an individual, which prepares him to react or make him behave in a particular pre-determined way. It is actually acquired feeling.
Attitude is the combination of beliefs and feelings that people have about specific ideas, situations or other people. Attitude is important because it is the mechanism through which most people express their feelings. In effect attitude is used in a generic sense, as to what people perceive, feel and express their views about a situation, object or other people. Attitude cannot be seen, but the behaviour can be seen as an expression of attitude.

Characteristics of Attitudes
Attitudes have following characteristics:
1. An attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some objects in a favourable or an unfavourable manner.
2. The most pervasive phenomenon is "attitude". People at work place have attitudes about lots of topics that are related to them. These attitudes are firmly embedded in a complex psychological structure of beliefs.
3. Attitudes are different from values. Values are the ideals, whereas attitudes are narrow, they are our feelings, thoughts and behavioural tendencies toward a specific object or situation.
4. Attitude is a predisposition to respond to a certain set of facts.
5. Attitudes are evaluative statements – either favourable or unfavourable concerning the objects, people or events. An attitude is "a mental state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a specific influence upon a person's response to people, objects and situations with which it is related". Attitudes thus state one's predispositions towards given aspects of the world.

They also provide an emotional basis for one's interpersonal relations and identification with others. Managers in work organisations need to know and understand employees' attitudes in order to manage effectively. Attitudes do influence behaviour of people and their performance in organisations.

Importance of attitude in an organization:
A positive attitude in the workplace helps employees to accomplish tasks faster and in a better manner. The performance of employees to a great extent depends on the good relationship they share with their colleagues. A good relationship can be established only when employees demonstrate a positive attitude towards their work and colleagues. Through positive energy, work becomes a pleasure and employees find it easier to achieve their goals. A positive attitude has significant benefits for an individual in many aspects. Let's look at some of them below.
1. Career success: Employees' success in the workplace is measured through their performance. Employees with a positive attitude will always think of ways to accomplishing their task in a well defined manner instead of

complaining or finding excuses for non-performance. This results in success either through promotion or increased compensation.

2. Productivity: With a positive attitude, employees tend to take more interest in what they do and deliver. Consequently, they produce better quality work with minimum errors. This improves their overall output as well as productivity.

3. Leadership: Working in an organization is all about managing a diverse workforce. Some employees earn respect easily and people often follow and listen to them. This is possible through the positive attitude demonstrated by leaders.

4. Team work: Good relationships among employees help them to build effective teams where all the members are united and work for a common cause. A positive attitude helps employees to appreciate each other's competencies and work as a team for achieving common objectives instead of being overly perturbed by inadequacies of team members.

5. Decision making: Having a positive attitude helps employees to take better decisions, in an objective manner. It triggers a healthy thought process, enabling employees to choose wisely and logically.

6. Motivation: Having a positive attitude helps in motivating employees to overcome obstacles that they may face during the course of their job. It also determines the way they see the world around them. The moment they are successful in overcoming obstacles, they are motivated to move forward.

7. Interpersonal relations: Customers prefer to deal with someone who is positive in nature. A positive attitude enables employees to share a better rapport with customers, earning valuable customer loyalty.

8. Stress management: Stress has a detrimental effect on the health of employees. So how can employees cope with it? Stress can be reduced through positive thinking; and with reduced stress, employees will enjoy better health and take fewer sick leaves.

In conclusion, a positive attitude at work is beneficial not only to the organization, but also to the employees on an individual basis.

Right Attitude:

Have a positive attitude about it. Your personality is a big part of your happiness. If you are always looking for the negative side of everything, you will find it.

A good fit with the job and company is important to your happiness. This starts with knowing yourself: What do you want from the job? What do you enjoy doing? Be honest with yourself and do a self-assessment.

Get accurate information about the job and the company. Ask detailed questions about what life is like in this company. Do your research: Read about the company, and use your social network to understand the company's culture.

Develop good relationships at work. Make friends. Try to get a mentor. Approach a person you admire and attempt to build a relationship with this person. An experienced mentor can be a great help in navigating life at a company. Your social network can help you weather the bad days and provide you emotional and instrumental support during your time at the company as well as afterward.

Pay is important, but job characteristics matter more to your job satisfaction. Don't sacrifice the job itself for a little bit more money. When choosing a job, look at the level of challenge, and the potential of the job to make you engaged.

Be proactive in managing organizational life. If the job is stressful, cope with it by effective time management and having a good social network, as well as being proactive in getting to the source of stress. If you don't have enough direction, ask for it!

Know when to leave. If the job makes you unhappy over an extended period of time and there is little hope of solving the problems, it may be time to look elsewhere.

Components of Attitudes

The three components of attitudes are:

1. Cognitive component
2. Affective component and
3. Behavioural component.

1. **Affective component:** The affective component of an attitude reflects 'feelings and emotions' that an individual has towards a situation. Cognitive component of attitude is related to value statement. It consists of belief, ideas, values and other information that an individual may possess or has faith in. Quality of working hard is a value statement or faith that a manager may have.

2. **Cognitive component:** The cognitive component of an attitude is derived from 'knowledge' that an individual has about a situation. Affective component of attitude is related to person's feelings about another person, which may be positive, negative or neutral. I do not like Maya because she is not hard working, or I like Mina because she is hard working. It is an expression of feelings about a person, object or a situation.

3. **Behavioral component:** The intentional component of an attitude reflects how an individual 'expects to behave' towards or in the situation. Behavioral component of attitude is related to impact of various situations or objects that lead to individual's behaviour based on cognitive and affective components. I do not like Maya because she is not hard working is an affective component, I therefore would like to disassociate myself with her, is a behavioral component and therefore I would avoid Maya. Development of favorable attitude and good relationship with Mina is but natural. Individual's favorable behaviour is an outcome of the fact that Mina is hardworking. Cognitive and affective components are bases for such behaviour. Former two components cannot be seen, only the behaviour component can be seen. Former is important because it is a base for formation of attitude.

For example, the different components of an attitude held towards a firm, which supplies inferior products and that too irregularly could be described as follows:
• "I don't like that company"—Affective component.
• "They are the worst supply firm I have ever dealt with"—Cognitive component.
• "I will never do business with them again"'—Intentional component.
People try to maintain consistency among the three components of their attitudes. However, conflicting circumstances often arise. The conflict that individuals may experience among their own attitudes is called 'cognitive dissonance.
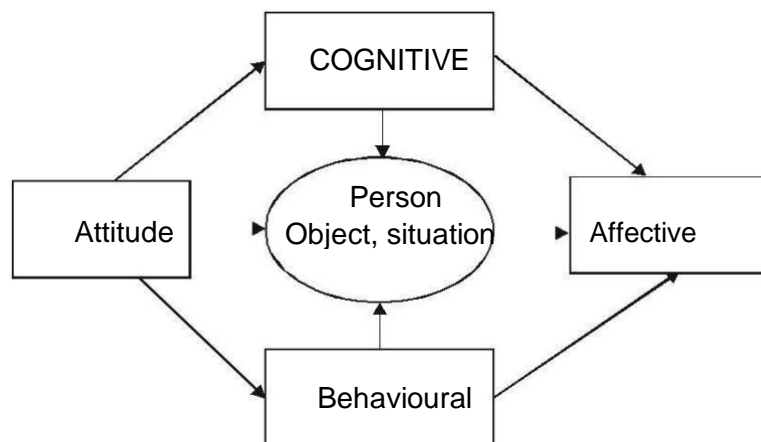
The main point about the ABC model is that we believe a person will be consistent with the attitudes towards things that they have. For example a person will always be scared when they see a spider. However, this is not always true, most people have the attitude that drinking excessively will be damaging to their health, yet despite this their behaviour around alcohol is to carry on drinking.

Types of attitude:
A person can have thousands of attitudes, but most of the research in OB has been concerned with three attitudes: Job satisfaction, Job involvement, and Organisational commitment.
1. *Job Satisfaction:* Satisfaction results when a job fulfils or facilitates the attainment of individual values and standards, and dissatisfaction occurs when the job is seen as blocking such attainment. This attitude has received extensive attention by researchers and practitioners because it was at one time believed to be the cause of improved job performance. The term "job satisfaction" refers to an individual's general attitude toward his or her job. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes toward the job; a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds negative attitudes about the job. Now, because of managers' concern for creating both a humane and high performance workplace, researchers continue to search for definite answers about the causes and consequences of job satisfaction.
2. *Job Involvement:* Job involvement is the degree to which a person identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it and considers his or her performance important to self-worth

Employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do. High levels of job involvement have been found to be related to fewer absences and lower resignation rates. 3. *Organisational Commitment:* Organisational commitment is the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation. High organisational commitment means identifying with one's employing organisation.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BEHAVIOUR AND ATTITUDE:

Individual's behaviour is not a simple and direct stimulus-response relationship; rather it is affected by the individual concerned, as is explained by S-O-B model.

The work situation is interpreted by individual, and attitudes play an important part in which the situation is interpreted. Only after individual's interpretation and comparison does the response occur. This means that response expected of a purely objective and rational consideration of the work situation and its characteristics may not be the actual response of the individual. His response depends completely on how he interprets the situation and on his own personal attitudes towards the situation. Obviously, attitudes are an important consideration because of their central position in the process transforming work requirements into effort. Attitudes have been thought as serving four functions and thereby affecting the behaviour, as discussed below:

Attitude and behavior interact differently based upon the attitude in question. Understanding different types of attitudes and their likely implications is useful in predicting how individuals' attitudes may govern their behavior. Daniel Katz uses four attitude classifications:

1. **Utilitarian/ Instrumental**: Utilitarian refers to an individual's attitude as derived from self or community interest. An example could be getting a raise. As a raise means more disposable income, employees will have a positive attitude about getting a raise, which may positively affect their behavior in some circumstances.
2. **Knowledge**: Logic, or rationalizing, is another means by which people form attitudes. When an organization appeals to people's logic and explains why it is assigning tasks or pursuing a strategy, it can generate a more positive disposition towards that task or strategy (and vice versa, if the employee does not recognize why a task is logical).
3. **Ego-defensive**: People have a tendency to use attitudes to protect their ego, resulting in a common negative attitude. If a manager criticizes employees' work without offering suggestions for improvement, employees may form a negative attitude and subsequently dismiss the manager as foolish in an effort to defend their work. Managers must therefore carefully manage criticism and offer solutions, not simply identify problems.
4. **Value-expressive:** People develop central values over time. These values are not always explicit or simple. Managers should always be aware of what is important to their employees from a values perspective (that is, what do they stand for? why do they do what they do?). Having such an awareness can management to align organizational vision with individual values, thereby generating passion among the workforce.

What is Emotional Intelligence?

Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior.

Emotional intelligence also reflects abilities to join intelligence, empathy and emotions to enhance thought and understanding of interpersonal dynamics. However, substantial disagreement exists regarding the definition of EI, with respect to both terminology and operationalizations. Currently, there are three main models of EI

The models of EI:
1. Ability model
2. Mixed model (usually subsumed under trait EI)
3. Trait model

Ability model:

Salovey and Mayer's conception of EI strives to define EI as -The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth."

After pursuing further research, their definition of EI evolved into "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions, to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth."

The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviors. The model claims that EI includes four types of abilities:

1. **Perceiving emotions:** the ability to detect emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts— including the ability to identify one's own emotions.
2. **Understanding emotions**: the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. The ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.
3. **Using emotions:** the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving.
4. **Managing emotions**: the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

Mixed model:

The model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines five main EI constructs (for more details see "What Makes a Leader" by Daniel Goleman, best of Harvard Business Review 1998):

1. **Self-awareness**: the ability to know one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, drives values and goals and to recognize their impact on others.
2. **Self-regulation:** involves controlling or redirecting one's disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.
3. **Social skill**: managing relationships to move people in the desired direction
4. **Empathy:** considering other people's feelings especially when making decision
5. **Motivation:** being driven to achieve for the sake of achievement.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman proposed that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

Trait model:

Konstantinos Vasilis Petrides ("K. V. Petrides") proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of EI and has been developing the latter over many years in numerous publications. Trait EI is "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality." In lay terms, trait EI refers to an individual's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities.

This definition of EI encompasses behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured by self report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy.

For most people, emotional intelligence (EQ) is more important than one's intelligence (IQ) in attaining success in their lives and careers. As individuals our success and the success of the profession today depend on our ability to read other people's signals and react appropriately to them.

Therefore, each one of us must develop the mature emotional intelligence skills required to better understand, empathize and negotiate with other people — particularly as the economy has become more global. Otherwise, success will elude us in our lives and careers.

DEVELOPING EMOTIONAL ENTILLENGE AT WORK PLACE:

Daniel Goleman popularized the term Emotional Intelligence' in 1995 in the title of his bestselling book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can Matter More than IQ*. Goleman defined emotional intelligence as *Understanding one's own feelings, empathy for the feelings of others and the regulation of emotion in a way that enhances living.* Not everyone agrees with Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, but there is general agreement that emotional intelligence exists, that it is a factor in personal and professional success, and that it can be improved.

The theory of emotional intelligence is popular because it implies that EQ can be developed. This is not universally accepted, but research has supported the idea that emotional intelligence competencies can be significantly improved over time.

Classification:

Emotional intelligence can be divided into personal and social competencies.

Personal competence is made up of self-awareness and self-management.

Self-awareness is the ability to recognize your own emotions and their effects on your self and other people.

Self-management builds on your self-awareness, using your own self-control to ensure your emotions don't control you regardless of the situation.

Social competence is made up of social awareness and relationship management.

Social awareness competencies include empathy, organizational awareness, and service orientation.

Relationship management competencies include influence, leadership, developing others, communication, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, and teamwork and collaboration.

To develop your emotional intelligence in the workplace you must be willing to openly and honestly reflect on your own performance and behavior. Your long-term success relies on you making this an iterative process throughout your career.

The four competencies that make up emotional intelligence or EQ are shown in the diagram. Your development starts with your ‚self-awareness' and moves around the segments in a clockwise direction. This is an iterative process throughout your whole career. It is only by constantly reviewing your level of each EQ competency that you will attain the recognition and reward you aspire to. The way you achieve this by using a simple technique called the ‚reflective cycle'.

Emotional intelligence plays an important role in the workplace. Hiring managers often determine whether you'll be hired, promoted or tapped for leadership based on your emotional intelligence. People with a high degree of emotional intelligence have the ability to perceive and evaluate their own emotions and can sense the emotions of others. They know themselves very well and can easily handle stressful situations. They are good decision makers and have a strong sense of intuition. All of these qualities are important to becoming a strong leader.

Emotional intelligence can positively impact both personal and professional relationships; that's why business managers need to learn how to develop it such as through training and education.

Techniques to Develop Your Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is based on a number of skills that can be learned. Here are seven powerful techniques that can improve your people skills and develop your emotional intelligence:

1. **Reduce stressful situations**: The ability to stay calm and controlled is a positive attribute in the business environment and in life. First, identify triggers that cause you to feel stress then pay attention to how you respond. Do you become upset or blame others? Do you feel a knot in your stomach? Clench your fists? Do you talk more loudly or withdraw from the situation altogether? Find new ways to deal with stress: go for a walk, take deep breaths or listen to music.

2. **Embrace your emotions**: Check in with yourself a few times each day and do a self-evaluation of your emotions, strengths and shortcomings. Can you accept that you're not perfect? Are you willing to work on areas that need improvement?

3. **Practice connecting thoughts with emotions**: When you feel something, ask yourself what you think about it. Don't judge too harshly or cut off your feelings when they become uncomfortable. Decide whether what you're feeling is healthy and normal, or if it's an unhealthy emotion.
4. **Control non-verbal communication**: From the tone of our voice to the position of our bodies, non-verbal communication can send messages we don't intend to communicate. Learning to control non-verbal communication starts with focusing on others, making eye contact, and listening closely before rushing to judgment or giving an opinion.
5. **Demonstrate humility and humor**: If you seek attention or require appreciation, try letting your work speak for itself. Putting the spotlight on others demonstrates humility and a high degree of self-confidence. When faced with challenges, take a deep breath and have a sense of humor. After all, laughter can reduce stress and smooth differences between the most stubborn adversaries.
6. **Think before you act**: Examine how your actions affect the feelings of others. Start putting yourself in their position, and before you take action, try to determine its impact. If you must take an action with negative impacts, figure out how to help others deal with the effects.
7. **Take responsibility**: Part of being an emotionally intelligent and humble leader is taking responsibility for your actions when things go wrong. Apologize quickly when you've hurt someone. Walk away from arguments. Forgive others rather than giving into feelings of resentment.

JOB ATTITUDE:
Each person has a different level of attitude about their job and that attitude can be rated, if you will, by how involved the individual is in his or her job. In this lesson, we will look at job attitudes as they relate to job satisfaction, commitment, engagement, and more.

Major Job Attitudes
Take a second to imagine a farmer, a doctor, an insurance salesmen and a cab driver. While these job types are extremely different, each person that holds one of these positions (or both, like a cab-driving doctor) has an attitude about the job as a whole. There can be aspects they like, aspects they hate and some that they do not have an opinion on one way or the other. However, no matter what the job is, we all have attitudes about our job. Primarily those attitudes are focused on the function of the job (having to plow a field at 4 AM or having to go door-to-door to sell insurance) but can also be focused on the people we work with and the culture of the company. Attitudes, as they relate to our jobs, encompass the entire work environment, culture and job functions. They will impact not only how we view our jobs but how well or how poorly we do them.

Three Types of General Attitudes:
We can discuss three basic types of general attitudes as they relate to work and the work environment. Those three are:
   Job-Lovers: Let's face it, we have people out there who love their jobs, and that is the basic definition of a job-lover. In many ways, this attitude is as much a result of the person as it is the company. Some people just fit in a company or do not let things bother them or get to them. This helps a great deal in developing a 'love' attitude with your job.
   Job-Haters: On the other side of the coin, we have job-haters. No matter what, these individuals simply do not like their jobs and probably never will. Oddly enough, there are more reasons for people to not like their jobs than to like them. For instance, we can look at the company overall, your boss or your coworkers as areas of discontent. For job-haters, they can have issues with doing a job they feel is beneath them or not being recognized enough, in their opinion, for the work they do. Thus, the scope of why people hate their jobs is usually much deeper and wider than those who like their jobs.
   Job-Doers: These are the people in the middle. They show up, do their job and are somewhat neutral about their feelings toward it. There is nothing good or bad about these individuals - they simply believe a job is a part of life and they just, well, do their job.

The Aspects of Job Attitude:
While it can be said that some people can be classified by overall attitude ('John is always upbeat' or 'man, Mary is always in a bad mood'), there are aspects of jobs that can impact the attitude a person has about their position and company.
Job Satisfaction: How much satisfaction a person gets from doing their job can directly relate to their attitude about it. Job satisfaction is a very personal aspect of work as satisfaction, in many ways, reflects how the person

views not only how they do their job but also how the company views how they do their job and who they are as a person. There are several components that are associated with job satisfaction, and they are: recognition, equitable compensation, ability to grow in the position and responsibility commensurate with compensation.

Job Involvement: This aspect of attitudes relates to how engaged a person is with doing their job and the level of enthusiasm they have for doing it. We have all experienced individuals who did not seem to care about their jobs (like a waiter bringing you your meal, it is cold, and they don't really care) and people that seemed to go above and beyond the call of duty. These are direct reflections of the level of job involvement a person has, and it reflects in their attitude towards doing their job.

Employee Engagement: Employees not only show attitudes by how well or how poorly they do their jobs but also by how engaged they are with the company. Employee engagement is the degree to which an employee is connected to all aspects of the company and works to help the organization

Organizational commitment: Organizational commitment refers to degree to which an employee identifies himself with the organizational goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organization. He wants to -belong‖ to the organization and take an active part in the its functioning. Absenting or resigning from the job versus job satisfaction is a predictor of organizational commitment. The concept has been very popular in the recent times. Organizational commitment depends upon job enrichment factor and degree to which the workers enjoy autonomy and freedom of action while performing.

Attitude and Consistency: As stated earlier that the attitude of an individual is not visible but is reflected through his behaviour as a mirror of his attitude. It is seen that people seek consistency among their attitudes or between attitude and behaviour. They seek to reconcile their attitudes and align their attitudes with behaviour so that it is rational and consistent. If there is inconsistency between attitude and behaviour, outside forces act upon an individual, which leads to attaining of equilibrium state, thus consistency is achieved. For example an individual may buy an old car while praising the new model. Reconciliation like, ‚why invest more for a new model‘, or ‚the old model is as efficient as the new one, because the same had been sparingly used‘. Such feelings are expressed to soothe the attitude (praising new car) and behaviour (Buying the old model) to achieve consistency between them. (Attitude and behaviour)

BARRIERS TO CHANGING ATTITUDE:

Attitudes of employees are not always rigid, these can be changed. Sometimes, it is in the best interests of the organization to try to do so. For example, if the employees have got a negative attitude towards their job or towards the management and organization, he is dissatisfied, he feels that he is not taken care of by the management; management would like to change this attitude, because happy work force is the major strength of the organisation. But sometimes, attitudes change is very difficult to accomplish because of certain barriers. Therefore, the job of the management is to identify these barriers and then examine the ways of overcoming them and effectively changing the attitudes.

The changes in attitude can be classified into the following
two types: 1. Congruent Change:
Congruent change in attitude means that the change is a movement in the same direction but the intensity of feeling is reduced. For example, if a person dislikes his boss very much, this negative attitude may persist, but the degree of dislike will be reduced.

2. Incongruent Change:
Incongruent change involves change of direction itself from negative to positive or vice versa towards the person. For example, if in the above example, that person starts liking his boss; this is a change from negative to positive attitude.

There are a number of barriers which prevent people from changing their
attitudes: 1. Prior Commitments:
One barrier to change of attitude is prior commitments. This occurs when people feel a commitment to a particular course of action and are unwilling to change. Theory and research have also supported escalation of commitment which means, tendency of the decision makers to persist with failing course of action.
For example, if the president of a company is an MBA from IIM, Ahmadabad and he himself appoints a marketing manager who is also from the same institute. Unfortunately, the things are not working out well and the marketing manager is not very good. However, as the president has himself hired this man, he is unwilling to admit the mistake. Using the ego-defensive function of attitudes, the president distorts all negative information received about the marketing manager and continues to believe that everything is going well and the right selection decision was made.

2. Strong Commitment:
If an employee is strongly committed, it becomes difficult to change his or her attitude. In other words we can say that the stronger the belief about the attitude, the harder it is to change it.

3. Publicly Expressed Attitudes:
Attitudes that have been expressed publicly are more difficult to change. This is because of the fact, that it requires a lot of effort for one to admit his or her mistake.

4. Low Credibility:
The term credibility implies trust, expertise and objectivity. Employees are least interested in responding to change the efforts made by someone who is not liked, has low rate of credibility and is not convincing. If people hate you, they are least interested in adopting your message.

5. Insufficient Information:
Sometimes people do not see any reason as to why they should change their attitudes. The boss may not like the negative attitude of the subordinate, but the subordinate may be quite pleased with his own behaviour. Till the boss shows him that his negative attitude will hinder his career progress and his salary increase, he will continue to have the negative feelings. This is particularly true when the attitude is a result of poor treatment by the management. The worker will use the negative attitude to serve an adjustment function -I can't respect a manager who treats us the way he does.‖

6. Degree of Fear:
If there is a low level of fear, people often ignore it as the warnings are not strong enough to warrant attention. Similarly, if a very high degree of fear is used, people again reject the message and refuse to be persuaded as the warnings are too threatening and thus not believable. In both these situations it is difficult to change the attitude of employees.

Research has found out that fear can cause some people to change their attitude. However, the degree of fear is very important for the final outcome.

We can explain it with the help of the following table:

	Degree of fear	Outcome	Reason
(i)	Low level of fear	People often ignore them	Warnings are not strong enough to warrant attention.
(ii)	Moderate level of fear	People change their attitudes	People become aware of the situation.
(iii)	High degree of fear	People reject the message and refuse to be persuaded	Warnings are too threatening and thus not believable.

For example, the department of health and social welfare prepares an antismoking commercial. If the commercial threatens the people that they will die of cancer if they don't quit smoking, people simply shut it out and refuse to listen because it is too threatening. As a result the commercial will not have the desired impact. On the other hand, if before giving the advertisement of a cigarette, we give a statutory warning that -cigarette smoking is injurious to health‖, it is a very low level fear and people often ignore it. Therefore, health officials should find commercials that use only moderate fear arousal.

Ways of Overcoming the Barriers and Changing the Attitudes:
A few important ways in which the barriers can be overcome and the attitudes can be changed are as explained below:

1. Providing New Information:
One of the ways of changing the attitudes is by providing new information. Sometimes, this information will change a person's beliefs and in this process his attitudes. This is specifically true when the reason for the negative attitude is insufficient or misleading information. For example, people generally have a negative attitude towards the staff at railway reservation counters.

They believe that the staff avoids the work. Therefore, whenever there is some delay in getting the reservation, people express their displeasure towards the staff. Such a negative attitude can be changed by drawing the attention of public towards the circumstances in which the staff works. Sometimes, the staff is to deal with illiterate or ignorant passengers which consume a lot of time.

2. Use of Fear:
A second way of changing the attitudes is through the use of fear. Research has found out that fear can cause some people to change their attitude. However, the degree of fear is very important for the final outcome.

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3. Resolving Discrepancies:

Another way of changing the attitudes is by resolving discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour. For example, research shows that when a person has more than one offer of a job and he has to make a choice, he often feels that his final choice may have been a mistake.

However, the theory of cognitive dissonance says that this mild conflict or dissonance will not last long because people will try to actively reduce the dissonance by attitude and behaviour change. When he takes the new job and starts working, he will start having negative feelings towards the jobs which he has not chosen and positive ones towards the job which he has chosen. In the end, he will conclude that he has indeed made the right choice.

4. Influence of Friends or Peers:

Change of attitude can come about through persuasion of friends or peers. Credibility of the others, especially the peers, is important to effect change. Peers with high credibility shall exercise significant influence as compared to those peers who have low credibility.

5. The Co-opting Approach:

Another way in which attitude change takes place is by co-opting, which means taking people who are dissatisfied with a situation and getting them involved in improving things. For example, an employee feels that the company should be doing something for improving the employees' benefits. The company appoints him as a member of the employees benefit committee. By giving him the opportunity to participate in employee benefit decision making, the company increases the chances that his attitude will change. Once he realizes the practical problems involved in determining the best possible benefits and the efforts and hard work involved in it, he is most likely to change his attitude.

6. Oral Pursuation Technique:

All the attitude change techniques are not equally effective across different situations. Another way in which attitude can be changed is through oral-pursuation. Oral pursuation techniques are most effective when you use a positive and tactful tone, present strong evidence and use logic to support your position.

7. Training Sessions:

The use of training sessions in which employees share and personalize their experiences and practice new behaviours can be a powerful stimulant for changing attitude.

8. Others:

Research has proved the following points which will help in changing the attitudes:

(i) An individual is more likely to change a privately held attitude than the one he has stated publicly.

(ii) An individual from a culturally deprived environment who holds a number of hostile attitudes may change when he is given opportunities for education.

(iii) A person from a privileged back ground, who has always held to a democratic attitude, may become negative towards some group because of some unfortunate experience.

Through continued interaction with others holding similar attitudes, one can be influenced in a positive or negative direction

Through psychologists and social scientists unanimously agree to the importance of personality, they are unable to come up with a unanimous definition. Many authorities on the subject have defined personality in different ways. Some of the definitions are reproduced below:

Probably the most meaningful approach would be to include both the person and the role as Floyd L Ruch does in his definition. He states that: "the human personality includes:

1. External appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value.
2. Inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force.
3. The particular pattern or organisation of measurable traits, both "inner and "outer"."

Gordon Allport gave the most frequently used definition of personality nearly 70 years ago. He said personality is "the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment".

J.B Kolasa defines personality as – "Personality is a broad, amorphous designation relating to fundamental approaches of persons to others and themselves. To most psychologists and students of behaviour, this term refers to the study of the characteristic traits of an individual, relationships between these traits and the way in which a person adjusts to other people and situations".

According to ***Gluck*** – "Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behaviour toward goal achievement. Each person has unique ways of protecting these states".

James D Thompson and Donald Van Houten define personality as – "a very diverse and complex psychological concept. The word 'personality' may mean something like outgoing, invigorating interpersonal abilities … but we must also recognize and explain the fact that development results in man acquiring a distinctiveness or uniqueness which gives him identity which enables him and us to recognize him as apart from others. These distinguishing characteristics are summarized by the term 'personality'".

From the above definitions we can say that personality is a very diverse and complex psychological concept. It is concerned with external appearance and behaviour, self, measurable traits, and situational interactions. The words of Clyde Kleeckholn and H.A. Murray can be used to sum up the meaning of this complex term personality, when they said, "to some extent, a person's personality is like all other people's, like some other people's, like no other people's."

Importance of personality on performance:

Problem Solving: Preference for solving complicated problems.
Idea Generation/Innovation: Preference for creativity
Rule Following: Preference for rules and regulations
Inflexibility: Preference for stability
Self Centeredness: Tendency to be self-absorbed
Teamwork: Preference for working with others
Expressiveness: Tendency to be socially outgoing
Impulsiveness: Tendency to be impulsive
Perfectionism: Tendency to be perfect
Attitude Toward Work: Concerns about quality

The "Big Five" Personality Traits

Personality can be seen as the motor which drives behavior. It's consistent over time and across situations, and has been proven to predict our success at work over the course of 50 or more years. The most widely accepted model of personality – the ‚Big Five' model – uses five distinct scales to describe personality: (OCEAN)

Conscientiousness (the extent to which one is dependable and persistent),
Neuroticism/Emotional stability (one's calmness and self-control),
Extraversion (a measure of sociability, ambition and narcissism),
Agreeableness (the extent to which one is cooperative and altruistic),
Openness to experience (a measure of creativity and novelty-seeking).

Core Traits	Descriptive Characteristics of High Scorers
Conscientiousness	Dependable, hardworking, organized, self-disciplined, persistent, responsible
Neuroticism/ Emotional stability	Calm, secure, happy, unworried
Agreeableness	Cooperative, warm, caring, good-natured, courteous, trusting
Extraversion	Sociable, outgoing, talkative, assertive, gregarious
Openness to experience	Curious, intellectual, creative, cultured, artistically, sensitive, flexible, imaginative

Although personality traits, long-term predispositions for behavior, have been generally downplayed and even totally discounted, in recent years there is now considerable support for a five-factor trait-based theory of personality. Many years ago no less than 18,000 words were found to describe personality. Even after combining words with similar meanings, there still remained 171 personality traits. Obviously, such a huge number of personality traits is practically unusable, so further reduction analysis found five core personality traits. Called the Five-Factor Model (FFM), or in the field of organizational behavior and human resource management, the ‖Big Five,‖ these traits have held up as accounting for personality in many analyses over the years and even across cultures.

Above Table identifies the Big Five and their major characteristics. Importantly, not only is there now considerable agreement on what is the core personality trait predispositions, but there is also accumulated research that these five best predict performance in the workplace.

An individual's unique combination of these five factors influences his or her success at work in three main ways.

Firstly, it determines how and why we're motivated to achieve certain goals – for example, people who score high on extraversion are more motivated to achieve a goal if there's a reward involved.

Secondly, personality affects our mood, which in turn affects the way we respond to people and situations at work. Studies have found that conscientiousness and agreeableness indirectly affect organizational citizenship behavior via their impact of job satisfaction – simply put, if we're happier in our jobs we're more likely to be better ‗citizens' at work.

Thirdly, our personality profile affects our interpersonal relationships, making it an important determinant of work success when that work involves getting along with other people.

In short, these five Personality traits are connected to job performance and are predictors of certain outcomes: ‒
    avoiding counterproductive behavior,
    reducing turnover and absenteeism,
    exhibiting more teamwork and leadership,
    providing more effective customer service,
    contributing more citizenship behavior,
    influencing job satisfaction and commitment to the
    firm, enhancing safety.

THE MYERS - BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR (MBTI):
The theory goes back to pioneering Swiss psychiatrist Carl Jung in the 1920s.
He felt people could be typed into **Extraverts or Introverts**
And they had two basic mental processes **Perception or Judgment**.
He further divided perception into **sensing or intuiting**
And judgment is divided into **thinking or feeling.**
This yields four personality dimensions or traits:
(1) Introversion vs. extraversion,
(2) Perceiving vs. judging,
(3) Sensing vs. intuition,
(4) Thinking vs. feeling.

About 20 years after Jung developed his theoretical types, in the 1940s the mother-daughter team of Katharine Briggs and Isabel Briggs-Myers developed about a 100-item personality test asking participants how they usually feel or act in particular situations in order to measure the preferences on the four pairs of traits yielding 16 distinct types of personality indicators. Its objective at the time was to aid World War II veterans in identifying the occupation that would suit their personalities.

Whereas the Big Five has recently emerged from considerable basic research and has generally been demonstrated to significantly relate to job performance, the MBTI is based on a very old theory, has mixed at best research support, but is widely used and very popular in

    Real-world   career

    counseling, Team building,

Conflict management,

Analyzing management styles.

Hence the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator or simply MBTI, the questions relate to

    how people prefer to focus their energies (extraversion vs. introversion);

    give attention and collect information (sensing vs. intuiting);

    process and evaluate information and make decisions (thinking vs. feeling);

    and orient themselves to the outside world (judging vs. perceiving).

Where do you get your energy?

Extraversion (E)	Introversion (I)
Outgoing	Quiet
Interacting	Concentrating
Speaks, then thinks	Thinks, then speaks
Gregarious	Reflective

What do you pay attention to and collect information on?

Sensing (S)	Intuiting (N)
Practical	General
Details	Possibilities
Concrete	Theoretical
Specific	Abstract

How do you evaluate and make decisions?

Thinking (T)	Feeling (F)
Analytical	Subjective
Head	Heart
Rules	Circumstance
Justice	Mercy

How do you orient yourself to the outside world?

Judging (J)	Perceiving (P)
Structured	Flexible
Time oriented	Open ended
Decisive	Exploring
Organized	Spontaneous

These four traits Indicators are:

Extraversion (E) OR Introversion (I)

Sensing (S) OR Intuition (N)

Thinking (T) OR Feeling (F)

Judging (J) OR Perceiving (P)

He felt that although people had all four of these dimensions in common, they differ in the combination of their preferences of each. Importantly, he made the point that one's preferences were not necessarily better than another's, only different.

Sixteen distinct Personality Indicators:

The Below table summarizes the characteristics of the four major dimensions, which in combination yield the 16 types of indicators. These sixteen possible ways to combine the preferences, resulting in sixteen MBTI types: these

are ISTJ, ISTP, ESTP, ESTJ, ISFJ, ISFP, ESFP, ESFJ, INFJ, INFP, ENFP, ENFJ, INTJ, INTP, ENTP, and ENTJ.

For example, the ESTJ is extraverted, sensing, thinking, and judging. Because this type likes to interact with others (E); sees the world realistically (S); makes decisions objectively and decisively (T); and likes structure, schedules, and order (J), this would be a manager type. The MBTI *Atlas* indicates that most managers studied were indeed ESTJs.

The MBTI is a popular instrument used to assess personality types. It is widely used in selection process. As many as two million people are reported to be taking it each year in the U.S. Research suggest that the MBTI is a very useful method for determining communication styles and interaction preferences. In terms of personality attributes, however, doubts exist about the validity and the stability of the instrument.

Personality and job fit theory:

Individual differences matter in the workplace. Human beings bring in their personality, physical and mental abilities, and other stable traits to work. Imagine that you are interviewing an employee who is proactive, creative, and willing to take risks. Would this person be a good job candidate? What behaviors would you expect this person to demonstrate?

The question posed above is misleading. While human beings bring their traits to work, every organization is different, and every job within the organization is also different. According to the inter-actionist perspective, behavior is a function of the person and the situation interacting with each other.

Think about it. Would a shy person speak up in class? While a shy person may not feel like speaking, if the individual is very interested in the subject, knows the answers to the questions, and feels comfortable within the classroom environment, and if the instructor encourages participation and participation is 30% of the course grade, regardless of the level of shyness, the person may feel inclined to participate. Similarly, the behavior you may expect from someone who is proactive, creative, and willing to take risks will depend on the situation.

When hiring employees companies are interested in assessing at least two types of fits.

1. **Person–organization fit:** refers to the degree to which a person's values, personality, goals, and other characteristics match those of the organization.

2. **Person–job fit:** is the degree to which a person's skill, knowledge, abilities, and other characteristics match the job demands. Thus, someone who is proactive and creative may be a great fit for a company in the high-tech sector that would benefit from risk-taking individuals, but may be a poor fit for a company that rewards routine and predictable behavior, such as accountants. Similarly, this person may be a great fit for a job such as a scientist, but a poor fit for a routine office job. The opening case illustrates one method of assessing person–organization and person–job fit in job applicants.

The first thing many recruiters look at is the person–job fit. This is not surprising, because person–job fit is related to a number of positive work attitudes such as satisfaction with the work environment, identification with the organization, job satisfaction, and work behaviors such as job performance. Companies are often also interested in hiring candidates who will fit into the company culture (those with high person–organization fit). When people fit into their organization, they tend to be more satisfied with their jobs, more committed to their companies, and more influential in their company, and they actually remain longer in their company

Here are the six employee personality types and their matching job examples:

Realistic: Employees prefer physical activities that require coordination. They are also shy, inner-directed, and would excel in a factory or farmer environment.

Investigation: Employees enjoy analyzing and organizing and are naturally curious and independent. Jobs that would work well for this type of employee would be mathematician, scientist, or reporter.

Social: These employees enjoy helping and mentoring others. They would find a good t with jobs such as social worker, teacher, counselor, and clinical psychologist.

Conventional: Employees enjoy regulation, order, and rules. They are efficient but unimaginative workers, and jobs such as accountant, bank teller, or le clerk would t their personality type.

Enterprising: This type of worker prefers verbal activities and yearns for power. They are very confident and ambitious. The best jobs for this type of personality would be lawyer, real estate agent, or public relations. **Artistic**: This last personality type prefers creativity and likes to use their imagination. The best job fit would be a painter, musician, writer, or interior decorator.

Personality tests and their practical applications:

When it comes to the -how of finding the right personalities in your office? Psychometric tests are an organization's best tool. Sure, hiring managers can rely on a hunch during hiring, and managers can take that into account later, but personality testing provides standardized, reliable information that helps organizations decide whether or not an employee is a good organizational fit.

Here are few personality tests that organizations can, and should, use to make sure their employees are the right ones for the job:

Myers Briggs

One of the most well known tools for mapping employee personalities, Myers Briggs (MBTI) assessments describe an employee's tendencies toward: Extraversion vs. Introversion, Intuition vs. Sensing, Thinking vs. Feeling, and Judging vs. Perceiving. Results from these tests place the employee into one of 16 personality types, which each have their own strengths and weaknesses.

Although personality type doesn't predict success on the job, knowing a new hire's personality type can help you to understand whether they'll be a cultural t for your company, as well as guide you toward integrating them effectively with the team.

Big Five

The Big Five are the five broad dimensions of personality that most researchers in the personality testing community use when evaluating a person's personality. For organizations, where an employee falls on the range for these five traits (Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism) can provide great insight into how a new hire or current employee interacts with co-workers, manages work-related stress, deals with managerial decisions, and more.

Occupational Interest Inventories (OIIs)

In organizations with multiple positions and different career paths, occupational interest inventories can be effective tools for putting employees in the right roles. These tests, like the Holland Code Career Test, measure how interested a participant is in different tasks and roles. They also provide insight into the career interests of that participant. OIIs are especially effective for increasing employee retention when administered to current employees to determine what their role in an organization shoul d be.

DISC Behavior Inventory

Understanding an employee's work behavior style can be important, especially when it comes to team building. Used frequently in larger organizations, the DISC classifies candidates into four different -styles based on questions about their behaviors at work. It helps organizations find out more about a candidate's tendencies toward: Dominance, Influence, Support, and Control.

5. Situational Judgment Tests (STJs)

If you're looking to see how an employee interacts with customers or handles the pressure of common challenging situations, consider using STJs as a part of your evaluation process. STJs put your employees in realistic, simulated situations to find out which pre-loaded responses the employee feels are most or least effective. Tools like Furst Person's customized hiring solutions are especially effective for determining whether or not employees will make good customer service representatives.

It's not just that personality is important in retention and team building; it's integral. Consider what personality traits are important in your organization and how you can take advantage of personality assessment technology to build more effective teams. Whether that's working with a test vendor or having employees take free tests and discussing the results, incorporating personality testing into your employee-evaluation process can save time, energy, and money for your organization.

PERCEPTION

Meaning and concept

Perception is like beauty that lies in the eyes of beholder. Individual differs in the way he sees, interprets and understands a particular event. A manager may perceive non-attendance of duty by the subordinate in a different way. Individuals may also differ in their opinion though the event or situation may be the same. For example, in an organization where lunch is served in a subsidized manner may be interpreted by the employees in a different way. An employee may perceive it as -right‖ to get a subsidized lunch, the other may feel that it is being given out of surplus of profits achieved by the organization while the third individual may state that it is mandatory for the management to provide lunch free of cost and that the management is not doing any favour to them by providing the lunch.

Definition:

Perception is defined as *"a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment (Robbins)*

(a) What one perceives may be different from objective reality. A person coming late on duty may be perceived as casual and tardy while there may be social problems faced by him.

(b) There is often disagreement among the individuals in the organization in relation to pay and allowances, administrative back up, policies and procedures and the place of work itself. An individual who displays a positive attitude may perceive above factors as good and conducive to work environment while the others may consider them inadequate. Employees also compare themselves on job assignment. If a job is assigned to one individual who may consider the assignment in excess to his job entitlement on the contrary if he is not given the job, he may consider it as neglecting him in allocation of responsibilities.

(c) It would often be observed that the manager is rated differently by his subordinates because of the different perception of the individual about the manager.

The study of perception is very important in the organization because it is necessary for the manager to perceive individuals correctly irrespective of their status and perceive each of the situation as close to the real fact or as it exists by interpreting the sensory reflects in correct way. Sensation and perception are complex phenomenon.

Perception is outcome of sensation and is much broader in its nature. Perception involves observing data, selecting, and organizing the data based on sensory reflects and interpreting the same as per personality attributes of the perceiver. That is why no two individuals can perceive an employee in the same manner, for one he may be efficient while for the other he may be perceived as useless.

Perception is described as a person's view of reality. Perception is an important mediating cognitive process. Through this complex process, people make interpretations of the stimulus or situation they are faced with. Both selectivity and organization go 'into perceptual, interpretations.
Externally, selectivity is affected by intensity, size, contrast, repetition, motion and novelty and familiarity. Internally, perceptual selectivity is influenced by the individual's motivation, learning and personality. After the selective process filters the stimulus situation, the incoming information is organized into a meaningful whole. -It is the interpretation of sensory data so as to gather meaningful ideas‖. In the process of perception, people receive many different kinds of information through all five senses, assimilate them and then interpret them. Different people perceive the same information differently.
Perception plays a key role in determining individual behaviour in organizations.
Organizations send messages in a variety of forms to their members regarding what they are expected to do and not to do. In spite of organizations sending clear messages, those messages are subject to distortion in the process of being perceived by organizational members. Hence, managers need to have a general understanding of the basic perceptual process.

Importance of Perception:

(i) Perception is very important in understanding the human behaviour, because every person perceives the world and approaches the life problems differently- Whatever we see or feel is not necessarily the same as it really is. It is because what we hear is not what is really said, but what we perceive as being said. When we buy something, it is not because it is the best, but because we take it to be the best. Thus, it is because of perception, we can find out why one individual finds a job satisfying while another one may not be satisfied with it.

(ii) If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behaviour in the changed circumstances by understanding their present perception of the environment. One person may be viewing the facts in one way which may be different from the facts as seen by another viewer.
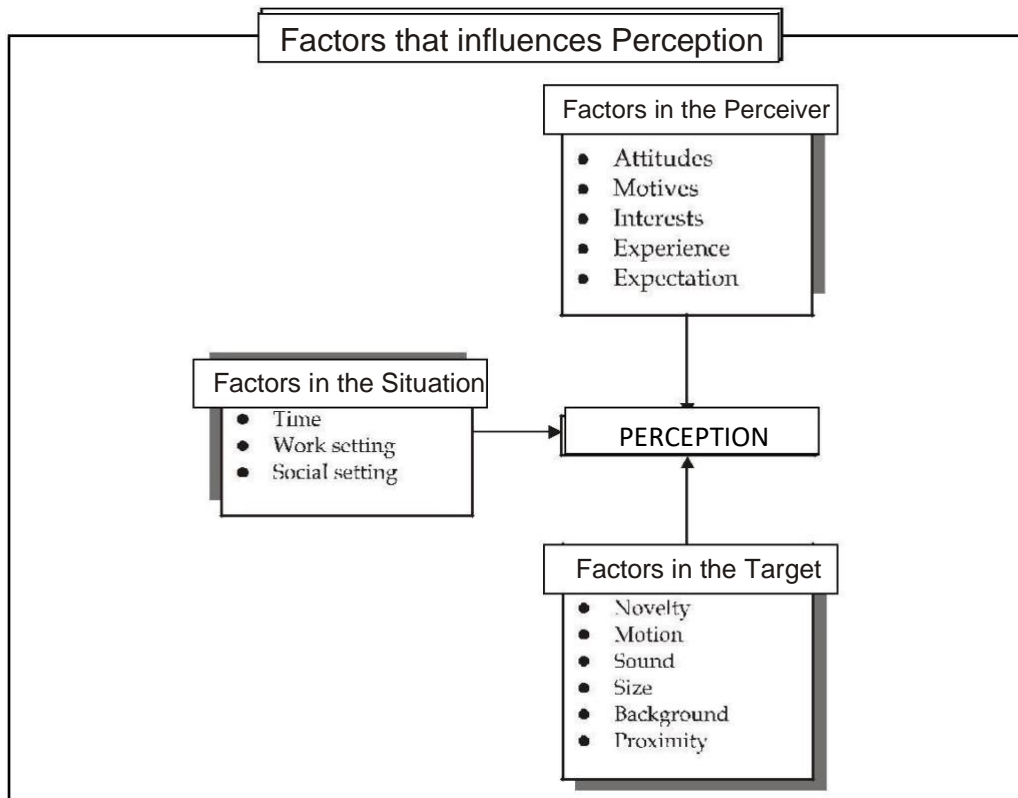
(iii) With the help of perception, the needs of various people can be determined, because people's perception is influenced by their needs. Like the mirrors at an amusement park, they distort the world in relation to their tensions.

(iv) Perception is very important for the manager who wants to avoid making errors when dealing with people and events in the work setting. This problem is made more complicated by the fact that different people perceive the same situation differently. In order to deal with the subordinates effectively, the managers must understand their perceptions properly.

Thus, for understanding the human behaviour, it is very important to understand their perception, that is, how they perceive the different situations. People's behaviour is based on their perceptions of what reality is, not on reality itself. The world as it is perceived is the world that is important for understanding the human behaviour.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION

A number of factors operate to shape and sometimes distort perception. These factors reside
i. In the perceiver
ii. In the object or target being perceived or
iii. In the context of the situation in which the perception is made.

Factors that influences Perception

Factors in the Perceiver
- Attitudes
- Motives
- Interests
- Experience
- Expectation

Factors in the Situation
- Time
- Work setting
- Social setting

PERCEPTION

Factors in the Target
- Novelty
- Motion
- Sound
- Size
- Background
- Proximity

15.2.1 Characteristics of the Perceiver

Several characteristics of the perceiver can affect perception. When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she, that interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of individual perceiver. The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are:

(A) *Attitudes:* The perceiver's attitudes affect perception. For example, suppose Mr. X is interviewing candidates for a very important position in his organization – a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male. Mr X may feel that women are not capable of holding their own in tough negotiations. This attitude will doubtless affect his perceptions of the female candidates he interviews.

(B) *Moods:* Moods can have a strong influence on the way we perceive someone. We think differently when we are happy than we do when we are depressed. In addition, we remember information that is consistent with our mood state better than information that is inconsistent with our mood state. When in a positive mood, we form more positive impression of others. When in a negative mood, we tend to evaluate others unfavorably.

(C) *Motives:* Unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perceptions. For example, in an organizational context, a boss who is insecure perceives a subordinate's efforts to do an outstanding job as a threat to his or her own position. Personal insecurity can be transferred into the perception that others are out to "get my job", regardless of the intention of the subordinates.

(D) **Self-Concept:** Another factor that can affect social perception is the perceivers' self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person. In contrast, a negative self-concept can lead a perceiver to pick out negative traits in another person. Greater understanding of self allows us to have more accurate perceptions of others.

(E) **Interest:** The focus of our attention appears to be influenced by our interests. Because our individual interests differ considerably, what one person notices in a situation can differ from what others perceive. For example, the supervisor who has just been reprimanded by his boss for coming late is more likely to notice his colleagues coming late tomorrow than he did last week. If you are preoccupied with a personal problem, you may find it hard to be attentive in class.

(F) **Cognitive Structure:** Cognitive structure, an individual's pattern of thinking, also affects perception. Some people have a tendency to perceive physical traits, such as height, weight, and appearance, more readily. Others tend to focus more on central traits, or personality dispositions. Cognitive complexity allows a person to perceive multiple characteristics of another person rather than attending to just a few traits.

(G) **Expectations:** Finally, expectations can distort your perceptions in that you will see what you expect to see. The research findings of the study conducted by Sheldon S Zalkind and Timothy W Costello on some specific characteristics of the perceiver reveal

Knowing oneself makes it easier to see others accurately.

One's own characteristics affect the characteristics one is likely to see in others.

  People who accept themselves are more likely to be able to see favourable aspects of
  other people. Accuracy in perceiving others is not a single skill.

These four characteristics greatly influence how a person perceives others in the environmental situation.

Characteristics of the Target: Characteristics in the target that is being observed can affect what is perceived. Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. Extremely attractive or unattractive individuals are more likely to be noticed in a group than ordinary looking individuals. Motion, sound, size and other attributes of a target shape the way we see it.

Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. The perceiver will notice the target's physical features like height, weight, estimated age, race and gender. Perceivers tend to notice physical appearance characteristics that contrast with the norm, that are intense, or that are new or unusual. Physical attractiveness often colours our entire impression of another person. Interviewers rate attractive candidates more favourably and attractive candidates are awarded higher starting salaries.

Verbal communication from targets also affects our perception of them. We listen to the topics they speak about, their voice tone, and their accent and make judgements based on this input.

Non-verbal communication conveys a great deal of information about the target. The perceiver deciphers eye contact, facial expressions, body movements, and posture all in an attempt to form an impression of the target. The perceiver, who observes the target's behaviour, infers the intentions of the target. For example, if our manager comes to our office doorway, we think "oh no! he is going to give me more work to do". Or we may perceive that his intention is to congratulate us on a recent success. In any case, the perceiver's interpretation of the target's intentions affects the way the perceiver views the target.

Targets are not looked at in isolation; the relationship of a target to its background influences perception because of our tendency to group close things and similar things together. Objects that are close to each other will tend to be perceived together rather than separately. As a result of physical or time proximity, we often put together objects or events that are unrelated. For example, employees in a particular department are seen as a group. If two employees of a department suddenly resign, we tend to assume their departures were related when in fact, they might be totally unrelated.

People, objects or events that are similar to each other also tend to be grouped together.

The greater the similarity, the greater the probability we will tend to perceive them as a group.

Characteristics of the Situation: The situation in which the interaction between the perceiver and the target takes place has an influence on the perceiver's impression of the target. For example, a professor may not notice his 20-year-old female student in a bikini at the swimming pool. Yet the professor will notice the same girl if she comes to his organisational behaviour class in a bikini. In the same way, meeting a manager in his or her office affects your impression in a certain way that may contrast with the impression you would have formed, had you met the manager in a restaurant.

The strength of the situational cues also affects social perception. Some situations provide strong cues as to appropriate behaviour. In these situations, we assume that the individual's behaviour can be accounted for by the

situation, and that it may not reflect the individual's disposition. This is the discounting principle in social perception. For example, you may encounter an automobile salesperson who has a warm and personable manner, asks you about your work and hobbies, and seems genuinely interested in your taste in cars. Can you assume that this behaviour reflects the salesperson's personality? You probably cannot, because of the influence of the situation. This person is trying to sell you a car, and in this particular situation, he probably treats all customers in this manner.

Perceptual process

Perception is the process of selecting, organizing, and interpreting information. This process, which is shown in Figure "The Perception Process", includes the perception of select stimuli that pass through our perceptual filters, are organized into our existing structures and patterns, and are then interpreted based on previous experiences. Although perception is a largely cognitive and psychological process, how we perceive the people and objects around us affects our communication. We respond differently to an object or person that we perceive favorably than we do to something we find unfavorable. But how do we filter through the mass amounts of incoming information, organize it, and make meaning from what makes it through our perceptual filters and into our social realities

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS
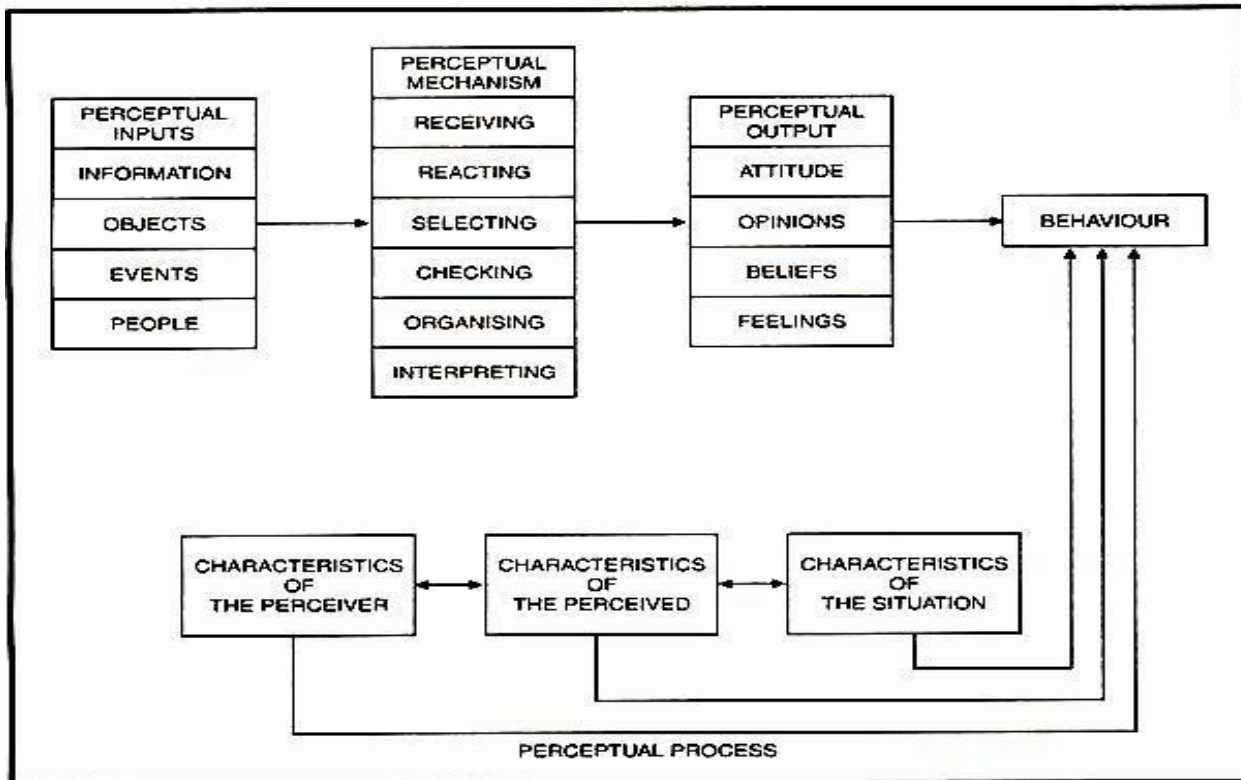
I. Perceptual Inputs:

A number of stimuli are constantly confronting people in the form of information, objects, events, people etc. in the environment. These serve as the inputs of the perceptual process. A few of the stimuli affecting the senses are the noise of the air coolers, the sound of other people talking and moving, outside noises from the vehicular traffic or a street repair shop or a loud speaker playing somewhere plus the impact of the total environmental situation. Some stimuli do not affect the senses of a person consciously, a process called subliminal perception.

II. Perceptual Mechanism:

When a person receives information, he tries to process it through the following sub processes of selection, organisation and interpretation.

(A) Perceptual Selectivity:

Many things are taking place in the environment simultaneously. However, one cannot pay equal attention to all these things, thus the need of perceptual selectivity. Perceptual selectivity refers to the tendency to select certain objects from the environment for attention. The objects which are selected are those which are relevant and appropriate for an individual or those which are consistent with our existing beliefs, values and needs. For this, we need to screen or filter out most of them so that we may deal with the important or relevant ones.

The following factors govern the selection of stimuli:
(i) External Factors
(ii) Internal Factors
Various external and internal factors which affect our selection process are as explained below:

External Factors:
(a) Size:
The bigger the size of the stimulus, the higher is the probability that it is perceived. Size always attracts the attention, because it establishes dominance. The size may be the height or weight of an individual, sign board of a shop, or the space devoted to an advertisement in the newspaper. A very tall person will always stand out in the crowd on the other hand; a very short person will also attract attention. A full page advertisement will always catch attention as compared to a few lines in the classified section.
(b) Intensity:
Intensity attracts to increase the selective perception. A few examples of intensity are yelling or whispering, very bright colours, very bright or very dim lights. Intensity will also include behavioural intensity. If the office order says -Report to the boss immediately,‖ it will be more intense and effective as compared to the office order which says -Make it convenient to meet the boss today.‖
(c) Repetition:
The repetition principle states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention drawing than a single one. Because of this principle, supervisors make it a point to give the necessary directions again and again to the workers. Similarly, the same advertisement or different advertisement but for the same product shown, again and again on the TV will have more attention as compared to an advertisement which is shown once a day.
(d) Status:
High status people ran exerts greater influence on the perception of the employees than the low status people. There will always be different reactions to the orders given by the foreman, the supervisor or the production manager.
(e) Contrast:
An object which contrasts with the surrounding environment is more likely to be noticed than the object which blends in the environment. For example, the Exit signs in the cinema halls which have red lettering on a black background are attention drawing or a warning sign in a factory, such as Danger, written in black against a red or yellow background will be easily noticeable. In a room if there are twenty men and one woman, the woman will be noticed first because of the contrast.
(f) Movement:
The principle of motion states that a moving object receives more attention than an object which is standing still. A moving car among the parked cars catches our attention faster. A flashing neon-sign is more easily noticed.
(g) Novelty and Familiarity:
This principle states that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention getter. New objects in the familiar settings or familiar objects in new settings will draw the attention of the perceiver. A familiar face on a crowded railway platform will immediately catch attention. Because of this principle, the managers change the workers jobs from time to time, because it will increase the attention they give to their jobs.
(h) Nature:
By nature we mean, whether the object is visual or auditory and whether it involves pictures, people or animals. It is well known that pictures attract more attention than words. Video attracts more attention than still pictures. A picture with human beings attracts more attention than a picture with animals.

Internal Factors:
The internal factors relate to the perceiver. Perceiving people is very important for a manager, because behaviour occurs as a result of behaviour.
Following are the internal factors which affect perception:
1. Learning:
Although interrelated with other internal factors learning may play the single biggest role in developing perceptual set. A perceptual set is basically what a person expects from the stimuli on the basis of his learning and experience relative to same or similar stimuli. This perceptual set is also known as cognitive awareness by which the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposures to similar stimuli. A number of illustrations have been used by psychologists to demonstrate the impact of learning on perception.

Some are as explained below:

(i) Learning creates expectancy in an individual and expectancy makes him see what he wants to see. **Take the following figure for example:**
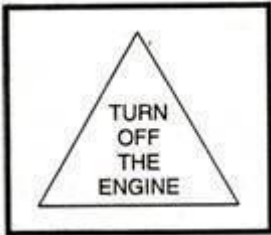
It takes a few seconds for the reader to realize that there is an extra -theǀ in the sentence. One tends to read the sentence, because of prior learning in the triangle as -turn off the engine.ǀ

(ii) In this figure, the individual is caught in -Verbal Response Set.ǀ He is likely to read the last words -Mac-Hineryǀ instead of machinery
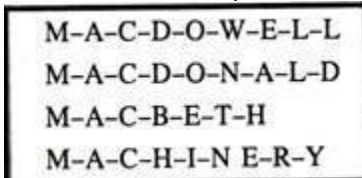
(iii) Another famous illustration of cognitive awareness is the young woman-old woman experiment. According to this experiment, if a person is first shown a clear and un-ambiguous picture of a young woman as in fig. (2) and then he is shown an ambiguous picture as in fig. (1), the person will perceive the second picture as that of a young woman. However, if the person is shown the clear picture of an old woman first and then the ambiguous picture, he will perceive the ambiguous picture as that of an old woman.

Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young woman and an old woman

Fig. (2) Young woman

Fig. (3) Old woman

It is because of the cognitive awareness as the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposure to Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young similar stimuli.

From the above illustration it is clear that our perceptions and interpretations of such illustrations would depend upon our previous exposure to such situations earlier.

2. Motivation:

Besides the learning aspects of the perceptual set, motivation also has a vital impact on perceptual selectivity. For example, a person who has a relatively high need for power, affiliation or achievement will be more attentive to the relevant situational variables. For example, when such a person walks into the lunch room, he may go to the table where several of his co-workers are sitting, rather than a table which is empty or on which just one person is sitting. Another example is that a hungry person will be more sensitive to the smell or sight of food than a non-hungry person. In one experiment people who were kept hungry for some time were shown some pictures and were asked to describe what they saw in them. Most of the reported more food items in such perceptions.

3. Personality.

Closely related to learning and motivation is the personality of the perceiving person. For example, the older senior executives often complain about the inability of the new young manager to take tough decisions concerning terminating or reassigning people and paying attention to details and paper work. The young managers, in turn, complain about the ‗old guards' resisting change and using paper and rules as ends in themselves. Different

perceptions in young and old are due to their age differences. Further, the generation gap witnessed in recent years definitely contributes to different perceptions.

In addition to the above two problems another problem is about the woman in the work place. Women are still not reaching the top levels of organisations. At least part of this problem can be attributed to perceptual barriers such as the established managerial hierarchy is not able to see (perceive) that qualified woman should be promoted into top level positions. Of course, there are individual differences in all age categories but the above examples show that how personalities, values and even age may affect the way people perceive the world around them.

B. Perceptual Organisation:

After having selectively absorbed the data from the range of stimuli we are exposed to at any given time, we then try to organize the perceptual inputs in such a manner that would facilitate us to extract meaning out of what we perceive. Or in other words, person's perceptual process organizes the incoming information into a meaningful whole. While selection is a subjective process, organizing is a cognitive process.

How we organize the stimuli is primarily based on the following principles:

(i) Figure and Ground:

Figure-Ground principle is generally considered to be the most basic form of perceptual organisation. This principle simply implies that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its back ground and occupies the cognitive space of the individual. For example, as you read this page, you see white as the background and black as the letters or words to be read. You do not try to understand what the white spaces amidst the black letters could mean.

Likewise, in the organisational setting, some people are more noticed or stand out than others. For example, an individual in the organisation might try to focus his entire attention on his immediate supervisor, trying to be in his good books, completely ignoring his colleagues and how they feel about his behaviour. According to this principle, thus, the perceiver tends to organize only the information which stands out in the environment which seems to be significant to the individual.

(ii) Perceptual Grouping:

Grouping is the tendency to curb individual stimuli into meaningful patterns. For instance, if we perceive objects or people with similar characteristics, we tend to group them together and this organizing mechanism helps us to deal with information in an efficient way rather than getting bogged down and confused with so many details. This tendency of grouping is very basic in nature and largely seems to be inborn.

Some of the factors underlying his grouping are:

(a) Similarity:

The principle of similarity states that the greater the similarity of the stimuli, the greater the tendency to perceive them as a common group. The principle of similarity is exemplified when objects of similar shape, size or colour tend to be grouped together. For example, if all visitors to a plant are required to wear white hats while the supervisors wear blue hats, the workers can identify all the white hats as the group of visitors. Another example is our general tendency to perceive minority and women employees as a single group.

(b) Proximity:

The principle of proximity or nearness states that a group of stimuli that are close together will be perceived as a whole pattern of parts belonging together. For example, several people working on a machine will be considered as a single group so that if the productivity on that particular machine is low, then the entire group will be considered responsible even though, only some people in the group may be inefficient. The following figure demonstrates the proximity principle.

The ten squares in the figure are seen as pairs of two, three, four or five depending on their nearness to each other:
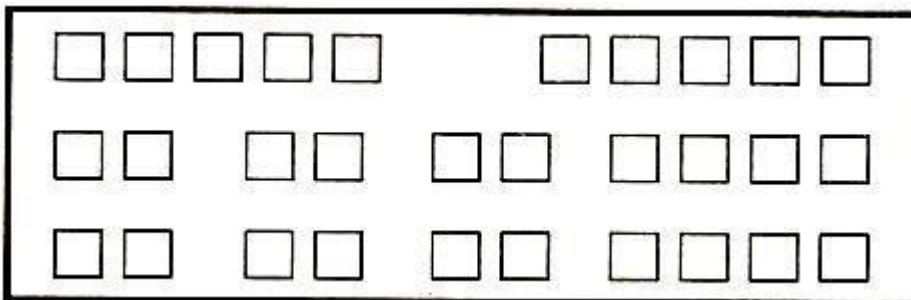
(c) Closure:

The principle of closure relates to the tendencies of the people to perceive objects as a whole, even when some parts of the object are missing. The person's perceptual process will close the gaps that are unfilled from sensory input.

For example, in the following figure the sections of the figures are not complete, but being familiar with the shapes we tend to close the gaps and perceive it as a whole:
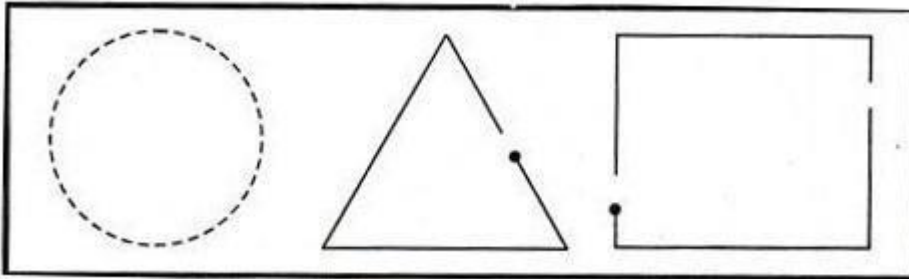
Speaking from the point of view of an organisation, if a manager perceives a worker, on the whole, a hard worker, sincere, honest, then even, if he behaves in a contradictory way sometimes (which is a kind of a gap), the manager will tend to ignore it, because it does not fit in with the overall impression, that he has about the worker.

(d) Continuity:

Continuity is closely related to closure. But there is a difference. Closure supplies missing stimuli, whereas the continuity principle says that a person will tend to perceive continuous lines of pattern. The continuity may lead to inflexible or non creative thinking on the part of the organisational participants. Only the obvious patterns or relationships will be perceived. Because of this type of perception, the inflexible managers may require that employers follow a set and step by step routine leaving no ground for implementation of out of line innovative ideas.

(iii) Perceptual Constancy:

Constancy is one of the more sophisticated forms of perceptual organisation. This concept gives a person a sense of stability in this changing world. This principle permits the individuals to have some constancy or stability in a tremendously variable and highly complex world. If constancy were not at work, the world would be very chaotic and dis-organised for the individual.

There are several aspects of constancy:

(a) Shape Constancy:

Whenever an object appears to maintain its shape despite marked changes in the retinal image e.g. the top of a glass bottle is seen as circular whether we view it from the side or from the top.

(b) Size Constancy:

The size constancy refers to the fact that as an object is moved farther away from us we tend to see it as more or less un-variant in size. For example, the players in cricket field on the opposite side of the field do not look smaller than those closer to you even though their images on the retina of the eye are much smaller.

(c) Colour Constancy:

Colour constancy implies that familiar objects are perceived to be of the same colour in varied conditions. The owner of a red car sees it as red in the bright sunlight as well as in dim twilight. Without perceptual constancy the size, shape and colour of objects would change as the worker moved about and it would make the job almost impossible.

(iv) Perceptual Context:

The highest and most sophisticated forms of organisation are context. It gives meaning and value to simple stimuli, objects, events, situations and other persons in the environment. The organisational structure and culture provide the primary context in which workers and managers do their perceiving. For example, a verbal order, a new policy, a pat on the back, a raised eye brow or a suggestion takes on special meaning when placed in the context of the work organisation.

(v) Perceptual Defence:

Closely related to perceptual context is the perceptual defence. A person may build a defence against stimuli or situational events in a particular context that are personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Accordingly, perceptual defence may play a very important role in understanding union-management and supervisor-subordinate relationship. Most studies verify the existence of a perceptual defence mechanism. The general conclusions drawn from these studies are that people may learn to avoid certain conflicting, threatening or unacceptable aspects of the context. The various defenses may be denial of an aspect, by modification and distortion, by change in the perception, then the last but not the least is recognition but refusal to change.

C. Perceptual Interpretation:

Perceptual interpretation is an integral part of the perception process. Without interpretation, selection and organisation of information do not make any sense. After the information has been received and organised, the perceiver interprets or assigns meaning to the information. In fact, perception is said to have taken place only after the data have been interpreted. Several factors contribute towards the interpretation of data. More important among them are perceptual set, attribution, stereotyping, halo effect, perceptual context, perceptual defence, implicit personality theory and projection. It may also be noted that in the process of interpretation, people tend to become judgmental. They may tend to distort what they see and even ignore things that they feel are unpleasant.

D. Checking:

After data have been received and interpreted, the perceiver tends to check whether his interpretations are right or wrong. One way of checking is for the person himself to indulge in introspection. He will put a series of questions to himself and the answers will confirm whether his perception about an individual or object is correct or otherwise. Another way is to check the validity of the interpretation with others.

E. Reacting:

The last stage in perception is the reaction. The perceiver shall indulge in some action in relation to the perception. The action depends on whether the perception is favourable or unfavourable. It is negative when the perception is unfavourable and the action is positive when the perception is favourable.

III. Perceptual Outputs:

Perceptual outputs encompass all that results from the throughout process. These would include such factors as one's attitudes, opinions, feelings, values and behaviours resulting from the perceptual inputs and throughputs. Perceptual errors adversely affect the perceptual outputs. The lesser our biases in perception, the better our chances of perceiving reality as it exists or at least perceiving situations with the minimum amount of distortions. This will help us to form the right attitudes and engage in appropriate behavioural patterns, which in turn will be beneficial for attaining the desired organisational outcomes. It is essentially important for managers who are responsible for organisational results to enhance their skills in order to develop the right attitudes and behaviours.

BASIC PERCEPTUAL PROCESS (SHORT ANSWER)

Perception is influenced by characteristics of the object being perceived, by the characteristics of the person and by the situational processes. Perception is a screen or filter through which information passes before having an effect on people. It consists of:

1. **Perceptual input**- Information, object, event, people, symbols etc. Characteristics of the object include contrast, intensity, movement, repetition and novelty. Characteristics of the person include attitude, self-concept and personality.

2. **Perceptual mechanism**- receiving of information by means of five senses from the external environment and process them to form output. It includes:
a. Perceptual receiving
b. Perceptual selectivity
c. Perceptual organization
d. Perceptual Interpretation (perceptual context, perceptual defense, halo effect, projection, attribution, stereo typing etc.)

3. **Perceptual output**- behavioral outcome of perceptual mechanism. It is the result of perceptual process. It includes attitude, opinions, feelings, values and behaviour

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

Attribution theory

Perception is also closely linked with another process called attribution. Attribution is a mechanism through which we observe behaviour and then attribute certain causes to it.

According to Attribution theory, once we observe behaviour we evaluate it in terms of its consensus, consistency and distinctiveness.

Consensus is the extent to which other people in the same situation behave in the same way. Consistency is the degree to which the same person behaves in the same way at different times. Distinctiveness is the extent to which the same person behaves in the same way in other situations. The forces within the person (internal) or outside the person (external) lead to the behaviour.

For instance, if you observe that an employee is much more motivated than the people around (low consensus), is consistently motivated (high consistency), and seems to work hard no matter what the task (low distinctiveness) you might conclude that internal factors are causing that particular behaviour. Another example is of a manager who observes that an employee is late for a meeting. He might realize that this employee is the only one who-is laic (low consensus), recall that he is often late for other meetings (high consistency), and subsequently recall that the same employee is sometimes late for work (low distinctiveness). This pattern of attributions might cause the manager to decide that the individual's behaviour requires a change. At this point, the manager might meet the subordinate to establish some disciplinary consequences to avoid future delays

Selective perception

We receive a vast amount of information. Therefore, it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see - on eye certain stimuli can be taken. That is why their boss may reprimand some employees for doing something that when done by another employee goes unnoticed. Since, we can't observe everything going on about us, we engage in selective perception.

Selective perception is the process of screening out information that we are uncomfortable with or that contradicts our beliefs. For example, a manager has a very positive attitude about a particular worker and one day he notices that the worker seems to be goofing up. Selective perception may make the manager to quickly disregard what he observed. For example, a manager who has formed a very negative attitude about a particular worker and he happens to observe a high performance from the same worker. In this case influenced by the selective perception process he too will disregard it.

In one sense, selective perception is beneficial because it allows us to disregard minor bits of information. But if selective perception causes managers to ignore important information, it can become quite detrimental. Selective perception is also out tendency to choose information that supports our viewpoints; Individuals often ignore information that makes them feel uncomfortable or threatens their viewpoints. Selective perception allows us to "speed-read" others, but not without the risk of drawing an inaccurate picture. Because we see what we want to see, we can draw unwarranted conclusions from an ambiguous, perception tends to be influenced more by an individual's attitudes, interests, and background than by the stimulus itself.

SOCIAL PERCEPTION

Although the senses and sub-process provide understanding of the overall perceptual process, most relevant to the study of organizational behavior is social perception, which is directly concerned with how one individual perceives other individuals: how we get to know others.

Meaning of Social Perception:

Social perception simply means the perception of social processes. The objects of social perception are the person's relations with others including his perception of groups and social institutions. The study of social perception centres around the actual process of perception.

A social perception takes place in a social situation where two or more people interact with each other and perceive each other's behaviour, activities and responses in relation to the social situation. Here the way in which two people perceive or judge the situation determines how they will behave and interact in that very situation.

Suppose two persons meet in a club and, the way ̲x' behaved with ̲y' made ̲y' very angry and emotional. So he judged ̲x' as very ruthless, adament and arrogant. Had this incident not occurred, he would not have perceived him so or had he not behaved with him the way he behaved, probably the perception about the person would have completely changed.

Thus Tagiuri and Petrullo (1958) hold **"Through his own presence and behaviour in the perceptual situation of the other, the perceiver may alter the perceptual characteristics of the person whose state he is trying to judge."** In a social perception, aspects of the ―perceiver‖ and the -perceived‖ are important. Since both of them are expected to change in course of interaction social perception is not rigid and perception of a person changes from time to time due to several internal and external factors. Accurate social perception is essential because working and living together would be difficult if perceptions of other people are inaccurate.

Every social reaction starts with the perception of other individuals or groups. The problem of perception is therefore basic in social interaction. When you meet a person in the market and talk to him there is social

perception and social interaction. How people gain knowledge and understanding of other people? It is through social perception.

Social perception means perceptions of other individuals, groups and persons in c; social situation or in a social context to know and understand them. It is a tendency to see persons and not the situations or the cause of action, says Heider.

The way in which a person responds to the actions of another person is influenced by how he perceives or interprets the cause of the behaviour. In social perception enough importance is attached to the human behaviour and its effects on the persons presence in the environment and too little importance is attached to its situational context.

In social perception therefore the individual or the person is given importance and all events appear to be under the person's own control. In short, perception of behaviour in relation to other members of the society is called Social perception.

Characteristics of Perceiver and Perceived

A summary of classic research findings on some specific characteristics of the perceiver and the perceived reveals a profile of the perceiver as follows:

1. Knowing one-self makes it easier to see others accurately.
2. One's own characteristics affect the characteristics one is likely to see in others.
3. People who accept themselves are more likely to be able to see favorable aspects of other people.
4. Accuracy in perceiving others is not a single skill.

These four characteristics greatly influence how a person perceives others in the environmental situation. Interestingly, this classic profile is very similar to our very new approach that we call an -authentic leader.‖ Covered in detail in the leadership chapter at the end of the book, for now it can be simply said that authentic leaders are those who know themselves (are self-aware and true to themselves) and true to others. In other words, the recognition and understanding of basic perceptual profiles of social perception can contribute to complex processes such as authentic leadership.

There are also certain characteristics of the person being perceived that influence social perception. Research has shown that:

1. The status of the person perceived will greatly influence others' perception of the person
2. The person being perceived is usually placed into categories to simplify the viewer's perceptual activities. Two common categories are status and role.
3. The visible traits of the person perceived will greatly influence others' perception of the person.

These characteristics of the perceiver and the perceived suggest the complexity of social perception. Organizational participants must realize that their perceptions of another person are greatly influenced by their own characteristics and the characteristics of the other person. For example, if a manager has high self-esteem and the other person is pleasant and comes from the home office, then the manager will likely perceive this other person in a positive, favorable manner. On the other hand, if the manager has low self-esteem and the other person is an arrogant salesperson, the manager will likely perceive this other person in a negative, unfavorable manner. Such attributions that people make of others play a vital role in their social perceptions and resulting behavior.

Participants in formal organizations are constantly perceiving one another. Managers are perceiving workers, workers are perceiving managers, line personnel are perceiving staff personnel, staff personnel are perceiving the line personnel, frontline employees are perceiving customers, customers are perceiving frontline employees, and on and on. There are numerous complex factors that enter into such social perception, but most important are the problems associated with stereotyping and the halo effect.

Stereotyping:

The term *stereotype* refers to the tendency to perceive another person (hence social perception) as belonging to a *single* class or category. The word itself is derived from the typographer's word for a printing plate made from previously composed type. In 1922, Walter Lippmann applied the word to perception. Since then, *stereotyping* has become a frequently used term to describe perceptual errors. In particular, it is employed in analyzing prejudice. Not commonly acknowledged is the fact that stereotyping may attribute favorable or unfavorable traits to the person being perceived. Most often a person is put into a stereotype because the perceiver knows only the overall category to which the person belongs. However, because each individual is unique, the real traits of the person will generally be quite different from those the stereotype would suggest.

Stereotyping greatly influences social perception in today's organizations. Common stereotyped groups include managers, supervisors, knowledge workers, union members, young people, old people, minorities, women, white-and blue-collar workers, and all the various functional and staff specialists, for example, accountants, salespeople,

computer programmers, and engineers. There may be a general consensus about the traits possessed by the members of these categories. Yet in reality there is often a discrepancy between the agreed-upon traits of each category and the actual traits of the members. In other words, not all engineers carry laptop computers and are coldly rational, nor are all human resource managers do-gooders who are trying to keep workers happy. On the contrary, there are individual differences and a great deal of variability among members of these and all other groups. In spite of this, other organization members commonly make blanket perceptions and behave accordingly. For example, one analysis noted that a major problem General Motors has is the institutionalized set of managerial beliefs about its customers, workers, foreign competitors, and the government. These perceptions cause the GM leadership to blame their problems on the famous stereotyped ‑theml instead of recognizing the need for fundamental corporate culture change. There is also research indicating that long exposure to negative stereotypes may result in the members having an inferiority anxiety or lowered expectations. There are numerous other research studies and common, everyday examples that point out stereotyping and its problems that occur in organizational life.

Stereotypes are assumptions made about a group of people and are applied to individuals, irrespective of their personal characteristics, because of their affiliation with a certain group. Stereotypes can be positive, negative or neutral. While both positive and negative stereotypes can be harmful, they can occasionally serve as a learning experience, as we'll find out at the end of the lesson.

Stereotyping is the process of categorizing or labeling people on the basis of a single attribute.

E.g. Perceptions based on stereotypes about people's sex exist more or less in all work places.

Typically, these perceptions lead to the belief that an individual's sex determines which tasks he or she will be able to perform. For example, if a woman is sitting behind the table in the office, she will be very often, perceived as a clerk and not an executive at first. But it would induce holding an exactly opposite assumption about a man.
Stereotyping consists of three steps:
Identifying categories of people (like women, politician),

Associating certain characteristics with those categories (like passivity, dishonesty respectively)

Assuming that anyone who fits a certain category must have those characteristics.

For example, if dishonesty is associated with politicians, we are likely to assume that all politicians are dishonest.

Types of Stereotypes
Negative Stereotypes
Many common stereotypes are derogatory, in that they're based on negative references to a person's ethnicity and race, age, gender, politics or sexual orientation. The use of stereotypes prevents us from getting to know one another and interacting effectively based on individuating information.
The term individuating information refers to the aspects of a person that make him or her unique.
For example, imagine your new coworker has a political affiliation that differs from yours. Based on the negative stereotypes affiliated with your coworker's political party, if you make assumptions about your new colleague, you might start off with a hostile and unfriendly relationship. This could significantly impede your ability to work together.
However, if you get to know your new coworker as an individual, you might be able to put aside any political differences for the sake of productivity. You might also develop some new political perspectives of your own and build a strong working relationship built on mutual understanding. This holds true for any individual and any potential stereotypes.
Positive Stereotypes
While it is obvious how a negative stereotype can be a problem, many people are under the mistaken impression that a positive stereotype, such as the statement that members of a particular ethnic group are smart, is a good thing. Yet, that very stereotype can cause people to place unreasonable expectations on members of that particular ethnicity, which in turn can lead to undue pressure and/or erroneous assessments of competence. For instance, imagine failing when everyone expects you to succeed because of your ethnicity. Consider how much pressure you would feel to do things exactly the right way. Think about how much harder you'd feel you had to work, all because people have a preconceived idea of how capable and intelligent you are. Even though positive stereotypes may be intended as compliments, they have no place in a neutral or professional workplace.

The Halo Effect
The *halo effect* in social perception is very similar to stereotyping. Whereas in stereotyping the person is perceived according to a single category, under the halo effect the person is perceived on the basis of one trait. Halo is often discussed in performance appraisal when a rater makes an error in judging a person's total personality and/or

performance on the basis of a single positive trait such as intelligence, appearance, dependability, or cooperativeness.

Whatever the single trait is, it may override all other traits in forming the perception of the person. For example, a person's physical appearance or dress may override all other characteristics in making a selection decision or in appraising the person's performance.

The opposite is sometimes called the -horns effect‖ where an individual is downgraded because of a single negative characteristic or incident The halo effect problem has been given considerable attention in research on performance appraisal. For example, a comprehensive review of the performance appraisal literature found that halo effect was the dependent variable in over a third of the studies and was found to be a major problem affecting appraisal accuracy. The current thinking on the halo effect can be summarized from the extensive research literature as follows:

1. It is a common rater error.
2. It has both true and illusory components.
3. It has led to inflated correlations among rating dimensions and is due to the influence of a general evaluation and specific judgments.
4. It has negative consequences and should be avoided or removed.

Like all the other aspects of the psychological process of perception discussed in this chapter, the halo effect has important implications for the study and eventual understanding of organizational behavior. Unfortunately, even though the halo effect is one of the longest recognized and most pervasive problems associated with applications such as performance appraisal in the field of organizational behavior, a critical analysis of the considerable research concludes that we still do not know much about the impact of the halo effect and attempts at solving the problem have not yet been very successful. In other words, overcoming perceptual problems such as stereotyping and the halo effect remains an important challenge for effective human resource management.

The **Halo Effect** is a well documented social-psychology phenomenon that **causes people to be biased in their judgments** by transferring their feelings about one attribute of something to other, unrelated, attributes.

For example, a tall or good-looking person will be perceived as being intelligent and trustworthy, even though there is no logical reason to believe that height or looks correlated with smarts and honesty. The term Halo Effect (a.k.a. Halo Error) was first introduced into psychological-research circles in 1920 in a paper authored by Edward Thorndike titled *"A Constant Error in Psychological Ratings.*‖ Through empirical research, Thorndike found that when people were asked to assess others based on a series of traits, a negative perception of any one trait would drag down all the other trait scores.

The Halo Effect works both in both positive and negative directions:

If you like one aspect of something, you'll have a positive predisposition toward everything about it. If you dislike one aspect of something, you'll have a negative predisposition toward everything about it.

A **negative Halo Effect is sometimes called the Devil Effect or the Pitchfork Effect**, but that seems to be taking the metaphor too far.

Why Is It Called "Halo?"

The term "halo" is used in analogy with the religious concept: a glowing circle that can be seen floating above the heads of saints in countless medieval and Renaissance paintings. The saint's face seems bathed in heavenly light from his or her halo. Thus, by seeing that somebody was painted with a halo, you can tell that this must have been a good and worthy person. In other words, you're transferring your judgment from one easily observed characteristic of the person (painted with a halo) to a judgment of that person's character.

Why Does the Halo Effect Exist?

The **Halo Effect allows us to make snap judgments**, because we only have to consider one aspect of a person or design in order to "know" about all other aspects.

In the age of the cave people, there might even have been some truth to these snap judgments: to grow tall a person would have had to eat lots of meat and was therefore probably a good hunter that was worth listening to. And a good-looking person would have avoided disfigurement from lost battles, animal bites, and nasty diseases, which again would make them role models for other proto humans. Those early humans who could make fast decisions were more likely to survive to become our ancestors than anybody who had to ponder all problems for hours. Thus, we have inherited a tendency to make (overly) fast judgments based on generalizing from a small amount of data.

MOTIVATION:

Definition and concept of Motives & Motivation:

Terms liked motive, motivation and motivating are commonly used in Organizational Behaviour.
It is important to fully understand the meanings of these terms so that they can be appropriately used to derive maximum benefits

Today, virtually all people, practitioners and scholars have their own definitions of motivation.
Usually one or more of the following words are included: *desires, wants, wishes, aims, goals, needs, drives, motives,* and *incentives.*

Technically, the term *motivation* can be traced to the Latin word *movere,* which means -to move.‖

This meaning is evident in the following comprehensive definition: *motivation* is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates a behavior or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. Thus, the key to understanding the process of motivation lies in the meaning of, and relationships among, needs, drives, and incentives.

In a systems sense, motivation consists of these three interacting and interdependent elements: **1.**
Needs. Needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance.

For example, a need exists when cells in the body are deprived of food and water or when the personality is deprived of other people who serve as friends or companions. Although psychological needs may be based on a deficiency, sometimes they are not.

For example, an individual with a strong need to get ahead may have a history of consistent success.

2. *Drives.* With a few exceptions, drives, or motives (the two terms are often used interchangeably), are set up to alleviate needs. A physiological drive can be simply defined as a deficiency with direction. Physiological and psychological drives are action oriented and provide an energizing thrust toward reaching an incentive. They are at the very heart of the motivational process.

The examples of the needs for food and water are translated into the hunger and thirst drives, and the need for friends becomes a drive for affiliation.

3. *Incentives.* At the end of the motivation cycle is the incentive, defined as anything that will alleviate a need and reduce a drive. Thus, attaining an incentive will tend to restore physiological or psychological balance and will reduce or cut off the drive.

Eating food, drinking water, and obtaining friends will tend to restore the balance and reduce the corresponding drives. Food, water, and friends are the incentives in these examples.

Motive: As per Burleson and Steiner, (1964) ‗motive' is defined as **"an inner state that energizes, activates (or moves) and directs** (or canalizes) **the behaviour towards certain goals."**

In a broader sense Motive can be classified in two types i.e. Primary and Secondary motives.
.

Primary Motives

Psychologists do not totally agree on how to classify the various human motives, but they would acknowledge that some motives are unlearned and physiologically based.

Such motives are variously called *physiological, biological, unlearned,* or *primary*.

The last term is used here because it is more comprehensive than the others. However, the use of the term *primary* does not imply that these motives always take precedence over the learned secondary motives. Although the precedence of primary motives is implied in some motivation theories, there are many situations in which the secondary motives predominate over primary motives. Common examples are celibacy among priests and fasting for a religious, social, or political cause. In both cases, learned secondary motives are stronger than unlearned primary motives.

Two criteria must be met in order for a motive to be included in the *primary*
classification: It must be *unlearned,*
It must be *physiologically based*.

Thus defined, the most commonly recognized primary motives include hunger, thirst, sleep, avoidance of pain, sex, and maternal concern

The —hard-wiring‖ of emotional needs would meet the primary criteria of being unlearned and physiologically based.

Neuropsychologists are just beginning to do research on the role the brain plays in motivation, but potential applications to the workplace are already being recognized. For example, Coffman and Gonzalez-Molina note:

-What many organizations don't see and what many don't want to understand is that employee performance and its subsequent impact on customer engagement revolve around a motivating force that is determined in the brain and defines the specific talents and the emotional mechanisms everyone brings to their work. However, even though the brain pathways will be developed in different ways and people develop different appetites for the various physiological motives because people have the same basic physiological makeup, they will all have essentially the same primary needs, but not the learned secondary needs.

Secondary Motives

Whereas the primary needs are vital for even survival, the secondary drives are unquestionably the most important to the study of organizational behavior. As a human society develops economically and becomes more complex, the primary drives give way to the learned secondary drives in motivating behavior. With some glaring exceptions that have yet to be eradicated, the motives of hunger and thirst are not dominant among people living in the economically developed world. This situation is obviously subject to change; for example, the -population bomb, nuclear war, the greenhouse effect and even dire economic times as indicated in the accompanying OB in Action: Managing Amid Economic Uncertainty, may alter certain human needs. In addition, further breakthroughs in neuropsychology may receive more deserved attention. But for now, the learned secondary motives dominate the study and application of the field of organizational behavior.

A motive must be learned in order to be included in the *secondary* classification.

Numerous important human motives meet this criterion. Some of the more important ones are power, achievement, and affiliation, or, as they are commonly referred to, *n Pow, n Ach,* and *n Aff*.

In addition, especially in reference to organizational behavior, security and status are important secondary motives.

Motivation Definitions:

Motivation is defined as the desire to achieve a goal or a certain performance level, leading to goal-directed behavior. When we refer to someone as being motivated, we mean that the person is trying hard to accomplish a certain task.

Motivation also can be defined as **"inner burning passion caused by need, wants and desire which propels an individual to exert his physical and mental energy to achieve desired objectives"**.

Scot defined motivation as **"a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish desired goals"**.
Mc Farland has defined **"motivation as the way in which urges, drives, desires, aspirations, strivings needs direct, control or explain the behaviour of human beings"**.

The Encyclopedia of Management: **Motivation refers to degree of readiness or an organism to pursue some designated goals and implies the determination of the nature and locus of the forces, including the degree of readiness.**

Memoria: **"A willingness to expand energy to achieve a goal or reward. It is a force that activates dormant energies and sets in motion the action of the people. It is the function that kindles a burning passion for action among the human beings of an organization".**

Efficiency of a person depends upon performance.
Performance can be expressed as under; **Performance= Ability × Motivation**
.

Characteristics features of Motivation

(a) Motivation is a psychological phenomenon. It is the inner desire of an individual to accomplish something more. The very deficiency forces him to undertake certain amount of work. More is the individual motivated better the performance and organization relations.
(b) Motivation is a continuous process. Since need is a continuous phenomenon if one need is satisfied the other need emerges and so does individual propels to work and thus the continuous chain is created.
(c) Motivation is caused due to anticipated perceived value from an action. Perceived value is the probability or the expectancy. Therefore motivation=valance (value) × expectancy.
(d) There are unsatisfied needs. A person remains disturbed till they are satisfied. This disturbance or tension causes disequilibria in human behaviour. More the motivation level, the higher will be efforts to get over the tension and in the process job accomplishment would take place.

(e) Individual is motivated by positive motivation. It refers to incentives offered by the organization to achieve efficiency.

Incentive can be monetary like increase in pay, allowances, and payment of bonus, Payment for additional or overtime work.

It can be non-monetary like issuing of certificates for excellence, awards, recognition, status, job enrichment, competitions, and the like. Monetary rewards prevent individuals from getting de-motivated or they do not motivate so to say. However non-monetary awards motivates individual as it is related to the inner/psychological aspects.

Importance of Motivation

(a) **High level of performance:** It is the duty of every manager to ensure that the employees have a high degree of motivation. He should offer monetary and non-monetary incentives. Highly motivated workers would be regular for work, and have a sense of belonging for the organization. Quality of product will be improved, wastage will be minimum and there will be increase in productivity, and performance level will be high.

(b) **Low employee turnover and absenteeism.** Employee turnover and absenteeism is caused due to low level of motivation on the part of managers. When dissatisfaction is increased employees do not enjoy the work assigned to them. Therefore there is a tendency of absenteeism. The workers hunt for an alternative job and leave the organization whenever they get an opportunity. High level of absenteeism causes low level of production, wastages, poor quality and disruption in production schedules. Increased turnover is disastrous for any organization as it puts strain on financial position of the organization due to additional recruitment, selection, training and development. Motivation is therefore a very important management tool to achieve organizational excellence.

(c) **Acceptance of organization change.** Management must continuously scan the external and the internal environment. There has been a great impact of. Social change and technology evolution on the motivation level of employees. Social change increases aspirations of workers and put an additional demand on the organization, which must be considered positively so that conducing working environment is created. Technical innovation, better working conditions, better R & D facilities, encouragement to employees and existence of better personal policies should be part of any organization.

This will facilitate retention of employees. Management must ensure that the changes are introduced in the organization and its benefits explained to the employees so that there is no resistance to change and organizational growth is achieved. Re-engineering, empowerment, job enrichment, job rotation, introduction of new technology and processes will go a long way to boost employee morale and achieve high degree of motivation.

(d) **Organizational image:** Employees are the mirrors of any organization. Managers must lay down high performance standards coupled with high monetary and nonmonetary rewards. Training & development programmes should be regularly organized and employee skill improved. It will have a positive impact on the employees and the image of the organization will be improved. It will also reduce employee turnover and better employee will look forward to join the organization. High organizational image will contribute towards brand image of the product and services the organization is marketing.

Theories of Motivation:
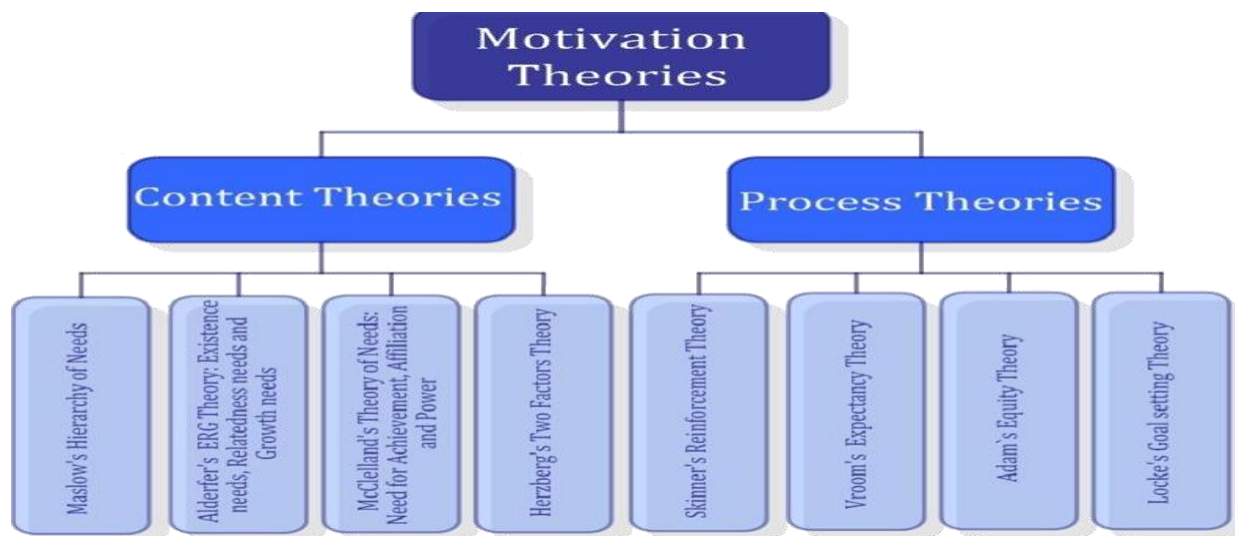
Motivation theories

We can distinguish between **content** and **process** motivation theories.

Content theories focus on WHAT, while process theories focus on HOW human behaviour is motivated. Content theories are the earliest theories of motivation. Within the work environment they have had the greatest impact on management practice and policy, whilst within academic circles they are the least accepted. Content theories are also called needs theories: they try to identify what our needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of these needs. The content theories cannot entirely explain what motivate or de-motivate us. Process theories are concerned with -how‖ motivation occurs, and what kind of process can influence our motivation.

The **main content theories** are: Maslow‗s needs hierarchy, Alderfer‗s ERG theory, McClelland‗s achievement motivation and Herzberg‗s two-factor theory.

The **main process theories** are: Skinner‗s reinforcement theory, Victor Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam‗s equity theory and Locke‗s goal setting theory

No single motivation theory explains all aspects of people‗s motives or lack of motives. Each theoretical explanation can serve as the basis for the development of techniques for motivating.

Maslow – hierarchy of needs

This is the earliest and most widely known theory of motivation, developed by Abraham Maslow (1943) in the 1940s and 1950s.

This theory condenses needs into five basic categories. Maslow ordered these needs in his hierarchy, beginning with the basic psychological needs and continuing through safety, belonging and love, esteem and self-actualization (Figure 2). In his theory, the lowest unsatisfied need becomes the dominant, or the most powerful and significant need. The most dominant need activates an individual to act to fulfil it. Satisfied needs do not motivate. Individual pursues to seek a higher need when lower needs are fulfilled.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often shown in the shape of a pyramid: basic needs at the bottom and the most complex need (need for self-actualization) at the top. Maslow himself has never drawn a pyramid to describe these levels of our needs; but the pyramid has become the most known way to represent his hierarchy.
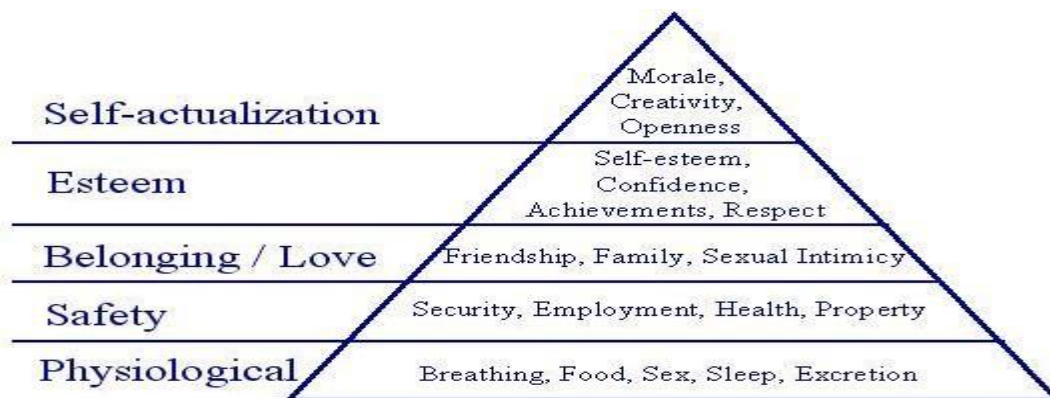
1. **Physiological needs** (e.g. food, water, shelter, sleep)

It includes the most basic needs for humans to survive, such as air, water and food. Maslow emphasized, our body and mind cannot function well if these requirements are not fulfilled.

These physiological needs are the most dominant of all needs. So if someone is missing everything in his/her life, probably the major motivation would be to fulfill his/her physiological needs rather than any others. A person who is lacking food, safety, love (also sex) and esteem, would most probably hunger for food (and also for money, salary to buy food) than for anything else.

If all the needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then overruled by the physiological needs, all other needs may turn into the background. All capacities are put into the attendance of satisfying hunger. Any other things are forgotten or got secondary importance.

2. **Safety and security** (secure source of income, a place to live, health and well-being)

If the physiological needs are relatively well contented, new needs will appear, the so called safety needs. Safety needs refer to a person's desire for security or protection. Basically everything looks less important than safety and protection (the physiological needs even sometimes). The healthy and fortunate adults in our culture are largely

satisfied in their safety needs. The peaceful, sure, safety and unwavering society makes us feel in safety enough from criminal assaults, murder, unbelievable natural catastrophes, and so on. In that case people no longer have any safety needs as first-line motivators.

Meeting with safety needs demonstrated as a preference for insurance policies, saving accounts or job security, etc., we think about the lack of economic safety. Children have a greater need to feel safe. That is the reason why this level is more important for children.

Safety and security needs include: Personal security; Financial security; Health and well-being; Safety mesh against accidents, illnesses and their adverse impacts.

To tell the truth, in real dangers and traumas – like war, murder, natural catastrophes, criminal assault, etc. -, the needs for safety become an active, first-line and dominant mobilizer of human beings.

3. **Belongingness and love** (integration into social groups, feel part of a community or a group; affectionate relationships)

If both the physiological and the safety needs are fulfilled, the affection, love and belongingness needs come into prominence. Maslow claimed people need to belong and accepted among their social groups. Group size does not mean anything: social groups can be large or small. People need to love and be loved – both sexually and non-sexually – by others. Depending on the power and pressure of the peer group, this need for belonging may overbear the physiological and security needs.

Love needs involve giving and receiving affections (love is not synonymous with sex – sex is a physiological need). When they are unsatisfied, a person will immediately eliminate the lack of friends, peers and partner. Many people suffer from social nervousness, loneliness, social isolation and also clinical depression because of the lack of this love or belongingness factor.

4. **Esteem** (respect for a person as a useful, honourable human being)

In our society most people long for a stable and high valuation of themselves, for the esteem of others and for self-respect or self-esteem.

Esteem means being valued, respected and appreciated by others. Humans need to feel to be valued, such as being useful and necessary in the world. People with low self-esteem often need respect from others. Maslow divided two types of esteem needs: a ‚lower' version and a ‚higher' version. The ‚lower' version of esteem is the need for respect from others: for example attention, prestige, status and loving their opinion. The ‚higher' version is the need for self-respect: for example, the person may need independence, and freedom or self-confidence.

The most stable and therefore the healthiest self-esteem is based on respect from others. External fame or celebrity and unwarranted adulation won't cause self-esteem, although you feel better for a while.

5. **Self-actualization** (individual's desire to grow and develop to his or her fullest potential) ‚What humans can be, they must be.' (Maslow, 1954)

Self-actualization reflects an individual's desire to grow and develop to his/her fullest potential. People like opportunities, choosing his/her own versions, challenging positions or creative tasks. Maslow described this level as the ‚*need to accomplish everything that one can, to become the most that one can be* '. Maslow believed that people must overcome their other needs – described above -, not only achieve them. At this level, individual differences are the largest.

As each level is adequately satisfied, we are then motivated to satisfy the next level in the hierarchy, always new and higher needs are coming. This is what we mean, when the basic human needs are drawn like a pyramid, a hierarchy. Life experiences, including divorce and loss of job, may cause an individual to fluctuate between levels of the hierarchy. These five different levels were further sub-categorized into two main groups: *deficiency and growth needs*.

Deficiency needs – The very basic needs for survival and security. These needs include:

• *Physiological needs*
• *Safety and security needs*
• *Social needs – belongingness and love*
• *esteem needs*

It may not cause a physical indication if these ‚deficiency needs' are not fulfilled, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. So the most basic level of needs must be fulfilled before a person wants to focus on the secondary or higher level needs.

Growth needs – Personal growth and fulfillment of personal
potential. These needs include:
• *Self-actualization needs*
This hierarchy is not as rigid as we may have implied. For example, there are some humans for whom self-esteem or self-actualization seems to be more important than love or belonging. The popularity of this theory of motivation rooted in its simplicity and logic.

Herzberg – Two factor theory
It is also called motivation-hygiene theory.
This theory says that there are some factors (motivating factors) that cause job satisfaction, and motivation and some other also separated factors (hygiene factors) cause dissatisfaction.
That means that these feelings are not opposite of each other, as it has always previously been believed. Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1987) the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors which define the job context.
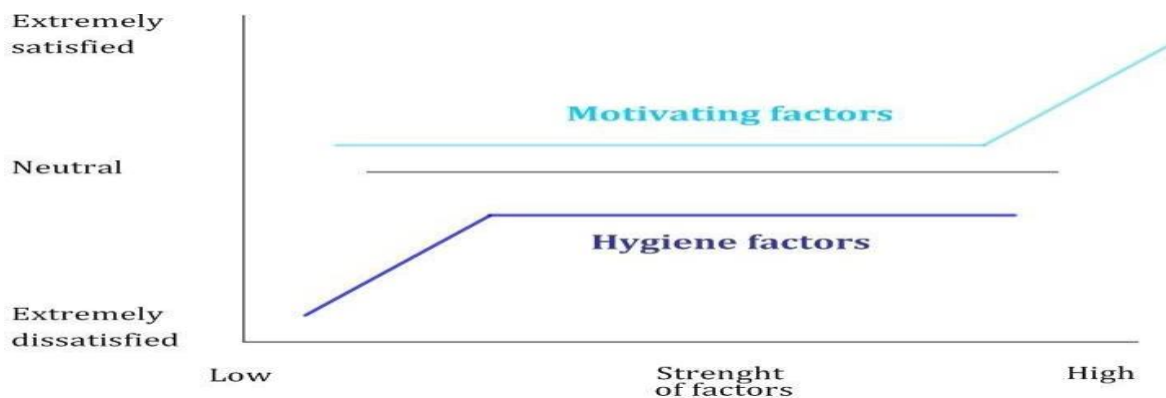

Figure 3. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (Source: Author's own figure)

If the **hygiene factors**, for example salary, working conditions, work environment, safety and security are unsuitable (low level) at the workplace, this can make individuals unhappy, dissatisfied with their job. **Motivating factors**, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction, and motivation is based on an individual's need for personal growth. If these elements are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and effort. For example, having responsibility or achievement can cause satisfaction (human characteristics) (Dartey-Baah, 2011).
Hygiene factors are needed to ensure that an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed to ensure employee's satisfaction and to motivate an employee to higher performance.

Herzberg's Two Factory Theory

Dissatisfaction – Low level

                Hygiene factors

No dissatisfaction-High level

No satisfaction – Low level

                Motivating factors

Satisfaction – High level

Herzberg's five factors of job satisfaction (motivating factors):
• *Achievement*
• *Recognition*
• *work itself*
• *Responsibility*
• *Advancement*
Only these factors can motivate us. But at the same time we need the lack of dissatisfactions (we need hygiene factors, "*workplace*") to achieve more efficient work.

Herzberg's five factors of job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors – deficiency needs):
• *Company policy and administration*
• *Supervision*
• *Salary*
• *Interpersonal relationships*
• *working conditions*
Can we motivate with money, with higher salary? What did Herzberg and Maslow say? Is it just the same or something different?
Herzberg addressed salary not a motivator in the way that the primary motivators are, just like achievement and recognition. Salary can be a motivator, if you get always higher and higher salary, but we cannot say that it is an incentive. Maslow said, money or salary is needed to buy food to eat, to have some place to live and sleep, etc. It can be a physiological need. Some differences between Herzberg and Maslow theory are described in Table 2.

Differences between Maslow's and Herzberg's theory

Points of view	Maslow's theory	Herzberg's theory
Date of the theory	in 1940's	in 1960's
Study group	ordinary American people	well-situated American people
About needs	Every level of needs give us satisfaction and give the opportunity to move on to the next level of needs.	Not every type of needs can give us satisfaction, just motivating factors.

Limitations of this theory:
• *This theory oversees situational variables.*
• *Herzberg supposed a correlation, linear between productivity, performance and satisfaction.*
• *The theory's reliability is uncertain.*
• *No comprehensive measure of satisfaction was used.*
• *The theory ignores blue-collar workers, only white-collar men's opinion was discussed.*
However, Herzberg tried to bring more humanity and caring into companies' life. His intention was not to develop a theory that is used as a 'motivational tool', but to provide a guidance to improve organisational performance.

Summary of Content Theories of Motivation

Maslow	Herzberg
Physiological	Hygiene
Safety and security	
Belongingness and love	
Self-esteem	Motivators
Self-actualization	

There are some critics for all need theories. Although, there is a consensus for the general concept: human behaviour is motivated by the strong wish for fulfilling a human need. Critics are:
• *Universality*: they do not care about gender, age, culture, religious or other factor differences.
• *Research support and methodology problems*: these theories were not based on reliable and creditable research results.
• *Work focus*: individuals have needs only at their workplaces, but not at any other places of their life.
• *Individual differences and stability over time.*
• *Process simplicity.*

The expectancy theory places an emphasis on the process and on the content of motivation as well, and it integrates needs, equity and reinforcement theories.

Victor Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory aims to explain how people choose from the available actions. Vroom defines motivation as a process that governs our choices among alternative forms of voluntary behaviour. The basic rationale of this theory is that motivation stems from the belief that decisions will have their desired outcomes. The motivation to engage in an activity is determined by appraising three factors. These three factors are the following (Figure 4):

• **Expectancy** – a person's belief that more effort will result in success. If you work harder, it will result in better performance.

In this case the question is: "*Am I capable of making a good grade on a math test if I learn more?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the effort to learn math, on knowledge of math, on the previous experience of math test results, on self-efficacy and specific self-rated abilities.

• **Instrumentality** – the person's belief that there is a connection between activity and goal. If you perform well, you will get reward. It ranges between -1 to +1.

In this case the question is that: "*Will I get the promised reward (a good mark) for performing well on a math test?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the accuracy and consistency of marking. If one day I get a good grade and another day I get a bad grade for the same performance, then the motivation will decrease.

• **Valence** – the degree to which a person values the reward, the results of success.

In this case the question is that: "*Do I value the reward that I get?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the importance of its subject (math), the good mark, and the good performance in general.

Vroom supposes that expectancy, instrumentality and valence are multiplied together to determine motivation. This means that if any of these is zero, then the motivation to do something will be zero as well.

A person who doesn't see the connection between effort and performance will have zero expectancy.

A person who can't perceive the link between performance and reward will have zero instrumentality.

For a person who doesn't value the anticipated outcome, reward will have zero valence.

For example if I think:

- *That no matter how hard I'm studying I can't learn math due to lack of necessary skills or*

- *that no matter how good I perform on the test I don't always get good mark so the reward is unpredictable, not dependent on my success or*

- *The good mark from math is not important for me, and I'm not interested in math, so the reward is not attractive, then I won't be motivated to learn for the exam*.

The expectancy theory highlights individual differences in motivation and contains three useful factors for understanding and increasing motivation. This theory implies equity and importance of consistent rewards as well (Konig & Steel 2006).
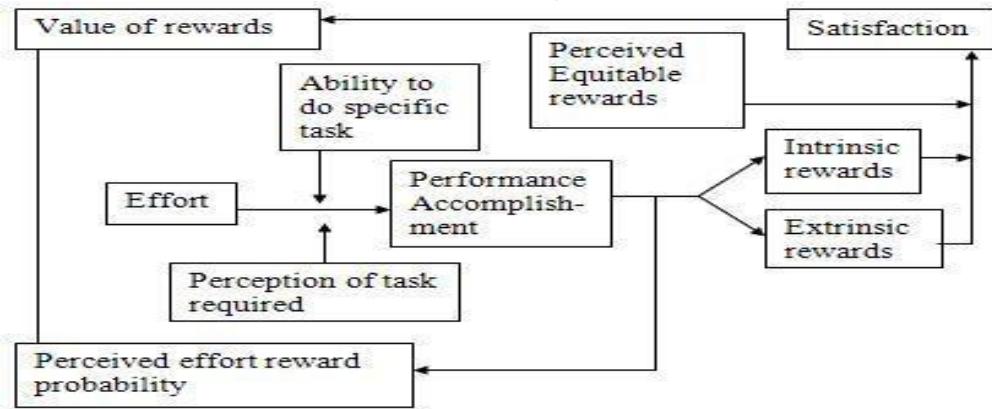
PORTER AND LAWLER MODEL OF MOTIVATION

Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler came up with a comprehensive model of motivation.

They combined adding two more components to Vroom's theory of motivation. The model is more comprehensive as it includes various aspects that we have studied so far. This is a multivariate model which explains the relationship that exists between job attitudes and job performance. This model is based on four assumptions of human behaviour as under:

(a) Individual behaviour is determined by a combination of factors that exist in the individual and are present in the environment.

(b) Individuals are considered to be rationale people who make conscious and logical decisions about their behaviour when they interact with other people in the organization.

(c) Every individual have different needs, desires, and their goals are of varied nature.

(d) On the basis of their expectations, individuals decide between alternate behaviours.

The outcome of the efforts is related to the pattern of behaviours an individual display.

Various elements of Porter and lawler model of motivation 1. Effort:

Effort refers to the amount of energy which a person exerts on a job.

2. Value of Reward:

First of all people try to figure out whether the rewards that are likely to be received from doing a job will be attractive to them. This is referred to as valence in Vroom's theory. A person who is looking for more money, for example, extra vacation time may not be an attractive reward. If the reward to be obtained is attractive or valent then the individual will put extra efforts to perform the job. Otherwise he will lower his effort.

3. Perceived Effort Reward Probability:

In addition, before people put forth any effort, they will also try to assess the probability of a certain level of effort leading to a desired level of performance and the possibility of that performance leading to certain kinds of rewards. Based on the valence of the reward and the effort reward probability, people can decide to put in certain level of work effort.

4. Performance:

Effort leads to performance. The expected level of performance will depend upon the amount of effort, the abilities and traits of the individual and his role perceptions. Abilities include knowledge, skills and intellectual capacity to perform the job. Traits which are important for many jobs are endurance, preservance, and goal directedness. Thus, abilities and traits will moderate the effort- performance relationship.

In addition, people performing the jobs should have accurate role perception which refers to the wav in which people define for the jobs. People may perceive their roles differently. Only those, who perceive their roles as is defined by the organization, will be able to perform well when they put forth the requisite effort.

5. Rewards:

Performance leads to certain outcomes in the shape of two types of rewards namely extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards are the external rewards given by others in the organization in the form of money, recognition or praise. Intrinsic rewards are internal feelings of job sell esteem and sense of competence that individuals feel when they do a good job.

6. Satisfaction:

Satisfaction will result from both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. However, for being satisfied, an individual will compare his actual rewards with the perceived rewards if actual rewards meet or exceed perceived equitable rewards, the individual will feel satisfied and if these are less than the equitable rewards, the individual will feel dissatisfied.

Significance of the Model

Porter and Lawler Model is a complete model and is a departure from the traditional performance satisfaction relationship. The model is of a great significance to managers as it sensitizes them to focus their attention to achieve employee motivation. Following points need more attention.

1. Matching of individual traits and ability with the job.
2. Managers must explain to the employees the role they play in the organization and its relationship with reward system.
3. Managers should carry out job analysis carefully, lay down actual performance levels, which should be attainable by the individuals.

4. Job expectations, performance levels, and reward associated with the job should be clearly laid down and implemented.
5. Motivation of employees is important. Make sure that the rewards dispensed are in line with employee expectations. Carry out the review of reward system periodically.
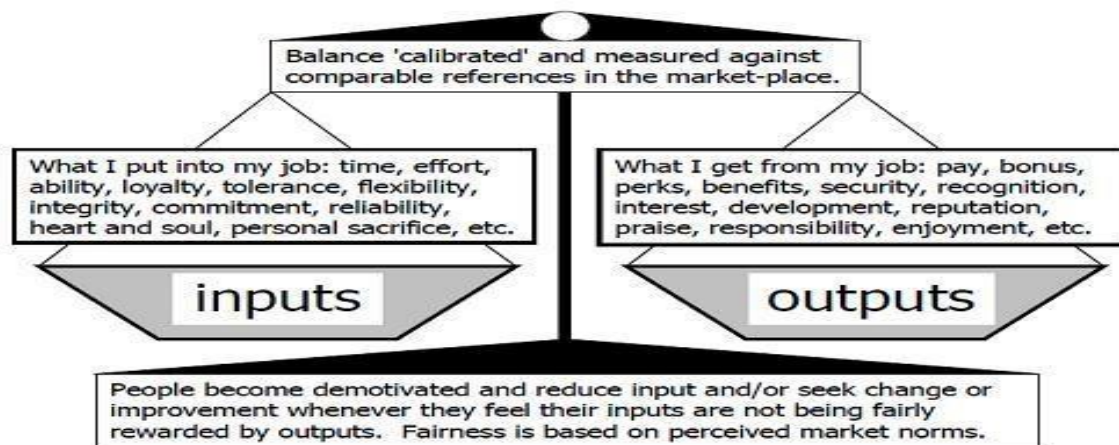

Adams' equity theory

Equity theory was first developed in 1963 by John Stacey Adams, a workplace and behavioral psychologist, who asserted that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes that they receive from it, against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others.

For example, if an employee was given a salary increase but a peer was given a larger salary increase for the same amount of work, the first employee would evaluate this change, perceive an inequality, and be distressed. However, if the first employee perceived the other employee being given more responsibility and therefore relatively more work along with the salary increase, then the first employee may evaluate the change, conclude that there was no loss in equality status, and not resist the change. An individual will consider that he is treated fairly if he perceives the ratio of his inputs to his outcomes to be equivalent to those around him.

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes}_A}{\text{Inputs}_A} = \frac{\text{Outcomes}_B}{\text{Inputs}_B}$$

Ratio of one individual's outputs to inputs is perceived as equal to that of another individual in comparison.

Balance 'calibrated' and measured against comparable references in the market-place.

What I put into my job: time, effort, ability, loyalty, tolerance, flexibility, integrity, commitment, reliability, heart and soul, personal sacrifice, etc.

inputs

What I get from my job: pay, bonus, perks, benefits, security, recognition, interest, development, reputation, praise, responsibility, enjoyment, etc.

outputs

People become demotivated and reduce input and/or seek change or improvement whenever they feel their inputs are not being fairly rewarded by outputs. Fairness is based on perceived market norms.

Defining Inputs & Outcomes

Inputs are defined as each participant's contributions to the relational exchange and are viewed as entitling him/her to rewards or costs. The inputs that a participant contributes to a relationship can be either assets (entitling him/her to rewards) or liabilities (entitling him/her to costs). Individual traits such as boorishness and cruelty are seen as liabilities entitling the possessor to costs.
Inputs typically include:

Time
Effort
Loyalty
Commitment
Adaptability
Flexibility
Tolerance
Determination
Enthusiasm
Personal sacrifice
Support from coworkers and colleagues Skill

Outcomes are defined as the positive and negative consequences that an individual perceives a participant has incurred as a consequence of his/her relationship with another. When the ratio of inputs to outcomes is close, then the employee should be very satisfied with their job. Outcomes can be both tangible and intangible. Typical outcomes include:

      Job security

      Salary

      Expenses

      Recognition

   Responsibility

      Sense   of

      achievement Praise

The motivational aspect of equity theory is based on its two major premises:

1. The theory argues that the perception of inequity creates a tension in us.

2. The tension motivates us to eliminate or reduce inequality. The greater the perceived inequity, the stronger is the tension and the greater our motivation to reduce it. When attempting to reduce felt inequity, an individual is likely to try a number of alternatives, some of which are:

(a) The person may increase or decrease inputs or outcomes relative to those of the other;

(b) The person may subjectively distort perceptions of her own or the other's inputs or outcomes;

(c) The person may change to a different comparison 'other'

(d) The person may leave the situation.

Four Propositions of Equity Theory

1. Individuals will try to maximize their outcomes.
2. A) Individuals can maximize collective rewards by evolving accepted systems for equitably apportioning resources among members. Thus, groups will evolve such systems of equity, and will attempt to induce members to accept and adhere to these systems.
   B) Groups will generally reward members who treat others equitably and generally punish members who treat each other inequitably.
3. When individuals find themselves participating in inequitable relationships, they will become distressed. The more inequitable the relationship, the more distress they will feel. According to equity theory, the person who gets "too much" and the person who gets "too little" both feel distressed. The person who gets too much may feel guilt or shame. The person who gets too little may feel angry or humiliated.
4. Individuals who discover they are in inequitable relationships will attempt to eliminate their distress by restoring equity.

Three Primary Equity Theory Assumptions Applied to Most Businesses

1. Employees expect a fair return for what they contribute to their jobs, a concept referred to as the "equity norm."
2. Employees determine what their equitable return should be after comparing their inputs and outcomes with those of their coworkers, a concept referred to as "social comparison."
3. Employees who perceive themselves as being in an inequitable situation will seek to reduce the inequity either by distorting inputs and/or outcomes in their own minds, by directly altering inputs and/or outcomes, or by leaving the organization.

New Perspective on Equity Theory

Since the original formulation of the theory, a number of revisions have been made in light of new theories and research. One important theoretical revision proposes three types of individuals based on preferences for equity.

1. **Equity sensitive** are those people who prefer equity based on the originally formed theory.

2. **Benevolent** are people who are comfortable with an equity ratio less than that of his or her comparison other.

3. **Entitled** are people who are comfortable with an equity ratio greater than their comparison to the other.

Implications

Equity theory has several implications:

      People measure the totals of their inputs and outcomes. This means a working mother may accept lower monetary compensation in return for more flexible working hours.

Different employees ascribe personal values to inputs and outcomes. Thus, two employees of equal experience and qualification performing the same work for the same pay may have quite different perceptions of the fairness of the deal.

Employees are able to adjust for purchasing power and local market conditions. Thus a teacher from Alberta may accept lower compensation than his colleague in Toronto if his cost of living is different, while a teacher in a remote African village may accept a totally different pay structure.

Although it may be acceptable for more senior staff to receive higher compensation, there are limits to the balance of the scales of equity and employees can find excessive executive pay de-motivating.

Staff perceptions of inputs and outcomes of themselves and others may be incorrect, and perceptions need to be managed effectively.

Managers need to maintain two-way communication with subordinates so that they have some idea of subordinates' equity perceptions.

It is important to let subordinates know the "rules" that will govern the allocation of outcomes related to inputs. This issue is closely related to the expectancy theory recommendation that the relationship between performance and outcomes be made clear to subordinates.

A pattern of inequalities over a period of time can build into major difficulties, which is another reason for maintaining good communication with subordinates, superiors, peers, customers, and other individuals associated with the job.