
BLOCK 4

**ORGANIZATIONAL
PROCESSES**

BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This is the last block of this course and consists of three units.

The first unit of this block deals with the concept of organizational change. It is a very significant process at organizational change. This unit will explain to you about the forces that are responsible to bring about change and also the resistances that are created towards organizational change.

The second unit of this course, you will be explained about how organizations accept the forces of change and tend to develop itself in order meet the demands of the society. The unit will discuss about the historical advents of the organizational development. It will also explain the various models related to organizational development. At the end of this unit, you will be explained about the various interventions related to organizational development.

In the third and the last unit of this course the concept of positive organizational behaviour will be discussed. It will describe the ways through which an organization can enhance positive behavior of its employees. It discusses the impact of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience among employees that can contribute towards organizational development. At the end of the unit, the relevance of emotional intelligence towards positive organizational development will also be discussed.

THE PEOPLE'S
UNIVERSITY

UNIT 11 ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE*

Structure

- 11.0 Learning Objectives
- 11.1 Organizational Change
- 11.2 Forces of Change
- 11.3 Planned vs. Unplanned Change
- 11.4 Resistance to Change
- 11.5 Managing Change
- 11.6 Lewin's Model
- 11.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 11.8 Unit End Questions
- 11.9 Glossary
- 11.10 Answers to Self-Assessment Questions
- 11.11 Suggested Readings and References
- 11.12 References for Images

11.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the concept and definition of organizational change;
- Explain various sources of organizational change;
- Know the different types of organizational change;
- Understand the resistance to change;
- How to deal and manage organizational change; and
- Describe three-stage model of change proposed by Kurt Lewin.

11.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

“The only constant in life is change”- Heraclitus

This quote on change by Greek philosopher is applicable not only to our life but also to the existence of organizations. As our environment is not stable, so does all organizations. To sell your product, to remain alive in market, organizations irrespective of their size need to adapt to the required change. This change can be of any type ranging from organizational culture to change in technologies.

Now let us define organizational change. In order to capitalize on business opportunities, “when an organization takes actions to alter its major component,

*Dr Arti Singh, Assistant Professor, Jindal School of Psychology and Counseling, OP Jindal Global University, Sonipat

such as its culture, the underlying technologies or infrastructure it uses to operate, or its internal processes, it is known as organizational change”. Therefore, any kind of implementation of new strategies or technologies with the aim to remain competitive in market is known as organizational change.

11.2 FORCES OF CHANGE

What are those forces that push organizations to change? The process of change in an organization may occur usually in response to a wide variety of forces; it can be external or internal. Internal forces of change are low performance, low employee satisfaction, new leadership and new mission of the organization. On the other hand, the external agents or forces of change range from the type of workforce to economic conditions to world politics.

Table 11.1: Forces for Change

Forces for Change	
Force	Examples
Nature of the workforce	More cultural diversity Aging population Increased immigration and outsourcing
Technology	Faster, cheaper, and more mobile computers and handheld devices Emergence and growth of social networking sites Deciphering of the human genetic code
Economic shocks	Rise and fall of global housing market Financial sector collapse Global recession
Competition	Global competitors Mergers and consolidations Increased government regulation of commerce
Social trends	Increased environmental awareness Liberalization of attitudes toward gay, lesbian, and transgender employees More multitasking and connectivity
World politics	Rising health care costs Negative social attitudes toward business and executives Opening of markets in China

Source: Robbins, S. P. and Judge T. A. 2013). Organizational Behavior (pp. 579)

HARLEY-DAVIDSON'S BEGINNINGS



Perhaps one of the most famous examples of a company that overcame this situation is Harley-Davidson. In 1980, no one wanted a Harley. They were a poor quality bike that even leaked oil on the showroom floor. Their parent company, AMF, couldn't find a buyer for them, and thirteen Harley managers ended up buying the company.

Dramatic changes were needed, and the new CEO approached them with top-down authority. First, they laid off 40% of the workforce—salaried and hourly alike—and the remaining employees took a 9% pay cut. Their design team built the Evolution Engine and, coupled with the sleek design of their new Softail product line, sales started to improve. Perhaps most significantly, they developed the HOG (the Harley Owners Group) as a way to communicate with their customers. Operating improvements were made, and dealers started looking at Harley as a dependable partner. When they went public in 1986, underwriters were shocked that their IPO raised \$25 million more than expected.

Source: <https://courses.lumenlearning.com/wm-organizational-behavior/chapter/forces-of-change/#footnote-941-1>

Fig. 11.1

Source: <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/38491771800034700/>

11.3 PLANNED VS UNPLANNED CHANGE

As discussed in previous section, organizational change can occur due to various internal or external factors, it is important to know that this organizational change can broadly be categorized as:

- Planned Change
- Unplanned Change Also called as Reactive or remedial

Reactive change, as the name suggests it takes place in response to some demand. These types of changes are also considered as accidental changes. For example, COVID-19 pandemic has altered the way people work by compulsory introduction of Work-From-Home (WFH) for many organizations. These changes are reactionary which occurs when a problem is identified, and a solution needs to be implemented.

On the other hand, planned changes are intentional and goal oriented. Often, these changes are introduced (a) to improve the ability of the organization to adapt to changes in its environment and, (b) to change employee behaviour. This could be, for example, introduction of new products and services or organizational restructure.

Change Agent

They are responsible for managing change activities in Organization. They see a future for the organization that others have not identified, and they are able to motivate, invent, and implement this vision. Change agents can be managers or nonmanagers, current or new employees, or outside consultants.

Further, these changes can occur at three levels in an organization:

- 1) **Individual Level:** it includes change in job assignment, transfer, change in job maturity level, etc.
- 2) **Group Level:** it include changes due to inefficiencies, lack of communication, etc.
- 3) **Organizational Level:** it include changes due to relocation, restructuring, mergers, acquisitions, etc.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ I)

State whether the following statements are ‘True’ or ‘False’:

- 1) Any kind of implementation of new strategies or technologies with the aim to remain competitive in market is known as organizational change. ()
- 2) Organizational change are can occur due to external factors. ()
- 3) Unplanned change are also called as reactive or remedial. ()
- 4) Planned changes are intentional. ()

11.4 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Before discussing resistance to change, let us read the case of Nokia mobile phones



Fig. 11.2: Nokia cell phones back in early 2000

Source: <https://nokiamob.net/2020/11/03/nokia-mobile-to-bring-back-nokia-6300-4g-and-nokia-8000-4g/>

Fig. 11.1: Case Study

“Before the launch of iconic Apple’s iPhone in June 2007, worldwide market share of Nokia phones was over 49%. The entry of first touch screen based smart phone (iPhone) was well received and appreciated by people. Within six months of its launch, 1.4 million iPhones were sold off in USA only. However, Nokia refused to take Apple as a threat to their high sales numbers. It also considered Apple phones inferior as they run on 2G technology while Nokia’s mobiles ran on 3G technology. To make thing worse, in 2008, Google launched the Android Operating System (OS). By this time, Apple’s iOS has become popular and its sales were steadily increasing. To tackle the threat, Nokia should have switched to Android, but it didn’t and continued to make phones with outdated Symbian OS.

Nokia failed to take advantage of the Android bandwagon. When mobile phone manufacturers were busy improving and working on their smartphone, Nokia remained stubborn. Samsung soon launched its Android-based range of phones that were cost-effective and user-friendly. Nokia’s management was under the impression that people wouldn’t accept touch screen phones and would continue with the QWERTY keypad layout.

Source: <https://startuptalky.com/reasons-why-nokia-failed/>

So what do you think, what lead to the downfall of NOKIA? The answer is - “Resistance to change”.

Summary of Nokia’s story – with time one needs to change, be it an individual or a group of individuals or an organization.”

Organizational resistance can be defined as the tendency of an organization to resist any change and to maintain the status quo. Resistance to change does not always lead to negative outcomes. If it leads to discussion and open debates it can turn out to be positive for an organization. Resistance can be manifested in overt, implicit, immediate or deferred form. complaints, a work slowdown, or a strike threat are some examples of overt and immediate resistance. These forms of resistance are easy to deal with. However, implicit or deferred forms of resistance such as increased absenteeism, loss of motivation, absence from office meeting, are difficult to deal with. Interestingly, it is not necessary that these implicit resistances will be shown immediately by the employees. Sometimes, it may take weeks or months. A point to remember is that management should not be in a hurry to implement changes. Speed could lead to bad decisions.

Fig. 11.2: Sources of Resistance to Change

Individual Sources

Habit— To cope with life's complexities, we rely on habits or programmed responses. But when confronted with change, this tendency to respond in our accustomed ways becomes a source of resistance.

Security— People with a high need for security are likely to resist change because it threatens their feelings of safety.

Economic factors— Changes in job tasks or established work routines can arouse economic fears if people are concerned that they won't be able to perform the new tasks or routines to their previous standards, especially when pay is closely tied to productivity.

Fear of the unknown— Change substitutes ambiguity and uncertainty for the unknown.

Selective information processing—Individuals are guilty of selectively processing information in order to keep their perceptions intact. They hear what they want to hear, and they ignore information that challenges the world they've created.

Organizational Sources

Structural inertia— Organizations have built-in mechanisms—such as their selection processes and formalized regulations—to produce stability. When an organization is confronted with change, this structural inertia acts as a counterbalance to sustain stability.

Limited focus of change— Organizations consist of a number of interdependent subsystems. One can't be changed without affecting the others. So limited changes in subsystems tend to be nullified by the larger system.

Group inertia— Even if individuals want to change their behavior, group norms may act as a constraint.

Threat to expertise— Changes in organizational patterns may threaten the expertise of specialized groups.

Threat to established power relationships— Any redistribution of decision-making authority can threaten long-established power relationships within the organization.

Source: Robbins, S. P. and Judge T. A. (2013). Organizational Behavior (pp. 582)

11.5 MANAGING CHANGE

There are many strategies to manage the organizational resistance for change. We will discuss some most important strategies:

1) Education and Communication

As resistance to change is due to the fear of the unknown, it is important to educate and communicate the proposed changes to employees. This form of targeted communication could reduce employee resistance at two levels. First, it will reduce the misinformation and poor communication. Second, it can help in justifying the need and urgency of change. A disadvantage of this method is that it is not possible to communicate to a large numbers of people.

2) Participation and involvement

Being a part of a process makes you responsible for it and thus decreases the chances of resisting the process. However, this process can be time consuming as well as sometimes lead to bad decisions as managers have to relinquish some control over change implementation.

3) Facilitation and support

Change may lead to apprehensions and discomfort as it requires change in routine and adjustment. In such scenario, managers and change agents need to be emotionally available and offer a help in the form of counselling, teaching the required skills and if necessary allowing employees to take paid leave for short period. However, offering these supports may also be time consuming and require trained managers.

4) Develop Positive Relationships

Studies have suggested that those employees who trust their managers and view their organization in positive light, welcome changes than those who are sceptical about their managers. Therefore, a lot of the reaction towards proposed change depends on managers and their skill to develop positive relationship with their fellow employees.

5) Implementing Changes Fairly

Fairness of a procedure is as important as the outcome. When the outcome of an action is negative, the question of procedural fairness becomes more important. Therefore, it is crucial that employees see the reason for the change and perceive its implementation as consistent and fair.

6) Selecting People Who Accept Change

Various studies on personality suggest that certain personality traits are more acceptable for change. Therefore to facilitate organizational change, employees who are predisposed to it should be selected in teams.

7) Coercion

It refers to the method of applying direct threats on the resisters.

11.6 LEWIN'S MODEL

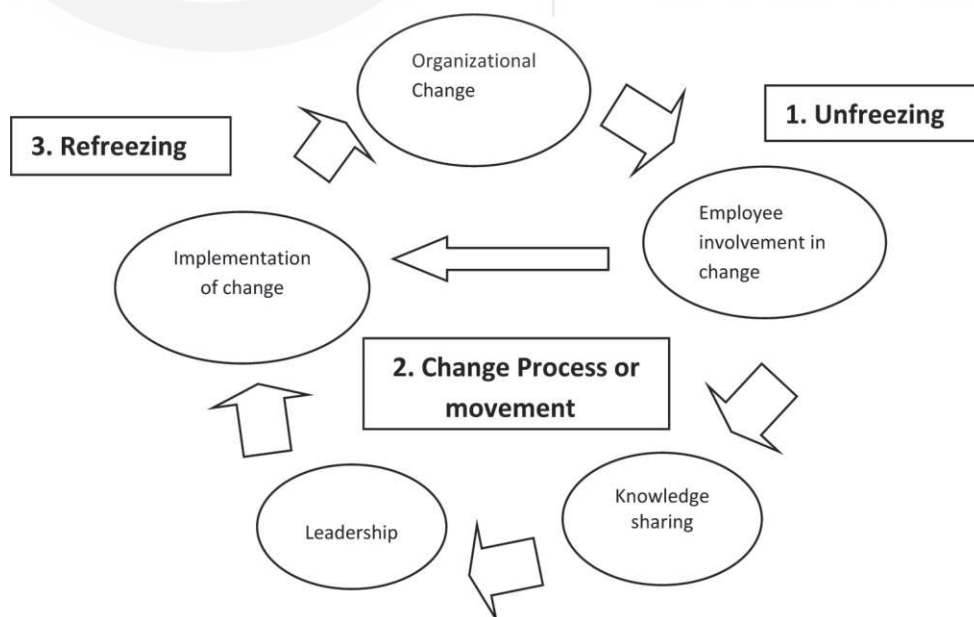


Fig. 11.3: Lewin's three stages model of change

Kurt Lewin proposed a three stage model of organizational change. These three stages include: unfreezing, changing and refreezing. This model is comparatively simpler than other models. Now let us try to understand the stages of this model one by one.

- **Unfreezing:** This is the stage of unfreezing the status-quo. This state of equilibrium or status-quo can be changed by applying any of the following three forces:
 - a) **Driving forces:** It is responsible for driving away an organization from status quo. One can bring change in organization by increasing driving forces.
 - b) **Restraining forces:** These are those forces which hinder movement away from status quo. By decreasing restraining forces, desired changes can be brought in organization.
 - c) By applying a combination of the above to forces.

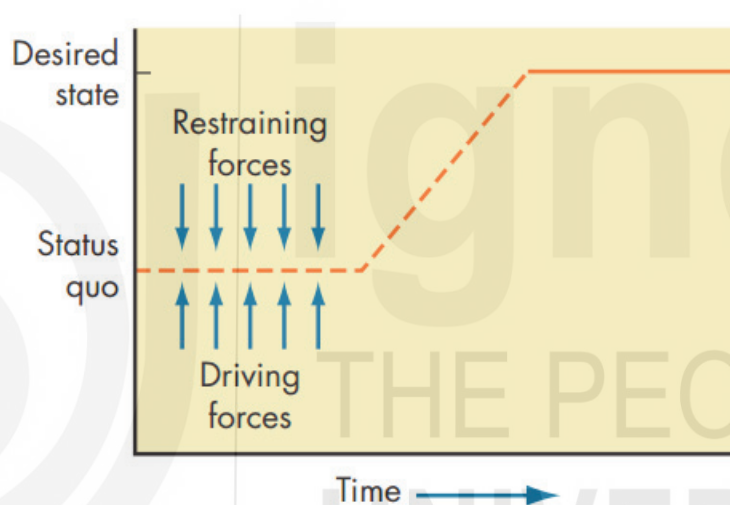


Figure 11.4 Unfreezing the status quo

According to Lewin to change an organizational culture, one needs to create the perception that a change is needed. The process of change needs to go through the stage of unfreezing as many people will naturally resist the change. The goal of this stage is to create awareness of how present culture is hindering organization. Communication is the pillar of the success of this stage. The idea is that the more an employee will know about a change and the more he or she will feel it is necessary and urgent, and the more motivated they will be to accept the change.

- **Change Process or Movement:** It is considered as implementation stage. During this step, change is implemented and employees learn new behavior, values and expectations. This stage is also referred to as 'transitioning' or 'moving' stage. It is during this stage that most employees struggle with new changes. It is a time marked with uncertainty and fear, making it the hardest step to overcome.
- **Refreezing:** This is the last stage of Lewin's model. This stage is considered as a much more stable state which we can regard as the state of equilibrium.

Once, the desired change is made to the organization, some steps are taken to make this change a part of employees' behavior and thus stopping them from reverting back. According to Lewin, coaching, training, positive rewards and acknowledgment of individualized efforts should be used to reinforce the change.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ II)

State whether the following statements are 'True' or 'False':

- 1) People with a high need for security are likely to resist change because it threatens their feelings of safety. ()
- 2) Resistance to change is due to the fear of the unknown. ()
- 3) Kurt Lewin proposed a four staged model of organizational change. ()
- 4) Refreezing is the last stage of Lewin's Model. ()

11.7 LET US SUM UP

Now that we have come to the end of this unit, let us recapitulate all the major points that we have covered.

- Change at organizational level is inevitable. Organizational change can be due to either external or internal factors.
- Organizational change can be categorized as planned change or unplanned change. These changes can occur at individual, group or organizational level.
- Change at organizational level is not smooth and often leads to resistance. Sources of resistance may include individual factors and organizational factors.
- There are various ways to manage these resistances for organizational change. Some of the most prominent strategies are 'Education and Communication', 'Participation and involvement', '**Facilitation and support**', 'Coercion'.
- There are many models that have explained organizational change. Lewis's three stage model of organizational change is one of the most cited work.

11.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define organizational change and write a brief on the sources of organizational change.
- 2) Explain the meaning of organizational resistance.
- 3) Write about any three strategies of managing organizational resistance.
- 4) Explain Lewin's three stages model of organizational change.

11.9 GLOSSARY

Organizational change : In order to capitalize on business opportunities, "when an organization takes actions to alter its major component, such as its culture, the

underlying technologies or infrastructure it uses to operate, or its internal processes, it is known as organizational change”.

Change Agent : They are responsible for managing change activities in Organization. They see a future for the organization that others have not identified, and they are able to motivate, invent, and implement this vision. Change agents can be managers or nonmanagers, current or new employees, or outside consultants.

Organizational resistance : It can be defined as the tendency of an organization to resist any change and to maintain the status quo.

11.10 ANSWERS TO SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ)

SAQ I

- 1 True
- 2 False
- 3 True
- 4 True

SAQ II

- 1 True
- 2 True
- 3 False
- 4 True

11.11 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

Abrahamson, E. (2000, July/August). Change without pain. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(4), 75–79.

Alvesson, M. (2002). *Understanding organizational culture*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Anastasiou, S. (1998). Communicating change. *New Zealand Management*, 45(9), 86.

Armenakis, A., Harris, S., & Mossholder, K. (1993). Creating readiness for organizational change. *Human Relations*, 46(6), 681–703.

Burnes, B. (2005). Complexity theories and organizational change. *International journal of management reviews*, 7(2), 73–90.

Eisenbach, R., Watson, K., and Pillai, R. (1999). Transformational Leadership in the Context of Organizational Change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12, pp. 80-89.

Ford, J. D. Ford, L. W. Ford, and A. D'Amelio, "Resistance to Change: The Rest of the Story," *Academy of Management Review* 33, no. 2 (2008), pp. 362–377.

Hulin, C. (1968). "Effects of Changes in Job-Satisfaction levels on Employee Turnover." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 52(2): 122-126.

M. Fugate, A. J. Kinicki, and G. E. Prussia, "Employee Coping with Organizational Change: An Examination of Alternative Theoretical Perspectives and Models," *Personnel Psychology* 61, no. 1 (2008), pp. 1–36.

Olson, E. E., & Eoyang, G. H. (2001). Facilitating organization change. *Lessons from Complexity Science*, Pfeiffer.

11.12 REFERENCES FOR IMAGES

Nokia cell phones back in early 2000. Source <https://nokiamob.net/2020/11/03/nokia-mobile-to-bring-back-nokia-6300-4g-and-nokia-8000-4g/>

Harley-Davidson's Beginnings. Source <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/38491771800034700/>

UNIT 12 ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT*

Structure

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Definition and Relevance of Organizational Development
- 12.3 Historical Background of OD
 - 12.3.1 Laboratory Training Stem
 - 12.3.2 Action Research and Survey Feedback Background
 - 12.3.3 Normative Background
 - 12.3.4 Productivity and Quality-of-Work-Life Background (QWL)
 - 12.3.5 Strategic Change Background
- 12.4 Models of OD
 - 12.4.1 The Three-Step Model of Change (Lewin, 1947)
 - 12.4.2 Action Research Model (Lewin, 1946)
 - 12.4.3 The Appreciative Inquiry Model (Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987)
 - 12.4.4 The General Model of Planned Change (Cummings & Worley, 2009)
- 12.5 OD Interventions
 - 12.5.1 Human Processes Intervention
 - 12.5.1.1 Process Consultation
 - 12.5.1.2 Third-party Intervention
 - 12.5.1.3 Team Building
 - 12.5.1.4 Organization Confrontation Meeting
 - 12.5.1.5 Intergroup Relations
 - 12.5.1.6 Large Group Interventions
 - 12.5.2 Techno-structural Interventions
 - 12.5.2.1 Structural Design
 - 12.5.2.2 Downsizing
 - 12.5.2.3 Reengineering
 - 12.5.3 Human Resource Management Interventions
 - 12.5.3.1 Goal Setting
 - 12.5.3.2 Performance Appraisal
 - 12.5.3.3 Reward Systems
 - 12.5.4 Strategic Interventions

12.5.4.1 Integrated Strategic Change

12.5.4.2 Culture Change

12.5.4.3 Mergers and Acquisitions

12.5.4.4 Self-designing Organizations

12.6 Let Us Sum Up

12.7 Unit End Questions

12.8 Glossary

12.9 Answers to Self -Assessment Questions

12.10 Suggested Readings and References

12.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you were explained about the concept of organizational change. In the present unit, you will be explained about how organizations accept the forces of change and tend to develop itself in order meet the demands of the society. Organizational development (OD) is also an important aspect from the viewpoint of globalization and other challenges. The present unit will discuss about the historical advents of the organizational development. It will also explain the various models related to organizational development. At the end of this unit, you will be explained about the various interventions related to organizational development.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you will be able to:

- Define organizational development and explain its relevance;
- Explain the historical development of OD;
- Describe various models of organizational development; and
- Explain various OD interventions.

12.2 DEFINITION AND RELEVANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Acknowledging change is the first step towards change acceptance and, subsequently, organizational development. Organizational development (OD) could be seen as both an area for academic research and professional practice via social action (Cummings & Worley, 2009). According to Bennis (1969), *organizational development is response to any change and a nuanced educated strategy that updates the beliefs, values, and structure of the organizations to allow them to better adapt to changing times*. Further, Cummings and Worley (2009) stated that “*OD is a systematic application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures and processes for improving organizational effectiveness.*”

Through the application of behavioural science concepts, OD aims to enhance the effectiveness of individuals in the Organization and of the Organization as a whole. *French and Bell (1995) delineated three points to integrate the system of OD:*

- i) **Orientation:** planning activities to achieve favourable and noticeable outcomes for the Organization.
- ii) **Target:** the human aspect of the Organization that is manifested in individual and social processes.
- iii) **Setting:** Real-life organizations.

Beer (1980) spoke of the following *aims of OD*:

- Improving the compatibility between an Organization's structure, strategy, processes, people, and culture;
- Generating novel and creative solutions for the Organization; and;
- Enabling organizations to develop self-renewing capability.

Three major factors contribute to the need for OD strategies. First, *globalisation* is causing the international markets to change due to changes in governments, leadership, countries, and the markets themselves. Second, *information technology* is changing the ways in which information is utilised, how costs are calculated and how work is performed. Third, *managerial innovations*, as a result of globalisation and information technology, have sped up the formation of new organizational forms (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

The relevance and responsiveness of OD has continued to enhance itself, as organizations are facing the challenge of functioning effectively under a complex, stressful, and constantly changing world. It plays a key role in assisting them to change themselves in an optimum manner. Besides organizations, OD is important to those who pursue a career in the field, such as a consultant in an Organization or an external consultant with multiple organizations as clients. Next, OD is relevant to professionals such as managers and administrators as they play key roles in supervision of their departments' performances. In fact, those at staff specialist level also offer suggestions and counselling to their supervisors and managers regarding new and upcoming practices. Finally, higher level authorities, such as general managers and executives can benefit from OD by learning how to encourage a more adaptable, resilient, and effective Organization.

12.3 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF OD

Typically, OD is explained as stemming from five major backgrounds (stems):

- i) Laboratory training, ii) Action research or Survey feedback, iii) Normative approaches, iv) Quality of work life, and v) Strategic change.

12.3.1 Laboratory Training Stem

Laboratory training background involved the innovations that applied insights gained in laboratory training to the complex world of organizations. In 1946, Kurt Lewin and colleagues conducted what is called "T-group training" at the

National Training Laboratory (NTL). This involved small, unstructured groups introspecting their own behaviors, experiences, and group dynamics (Kleiner, 1996). This was a highly successful program and went on to receive Carnegie Foundation's support for its programs in 1948 and 1949, and it became a permanent program for NTL in the National Education Association. During the 1950s, there were more and more regional laboratories and the T-group sessions expanded in time and scope into businesses and industries.

Richard Beckard was the first to coin the term "OD" in 1958 and also conducted laboratory experiments at NTL. As T-group declined in use as intervention, the activities of T-group came to be known as team building, which is one of the most often used interventions today.

12.3.2 Action Research and Survey Feedback Background

The second movement or stem in the evolution of OD was also pioneered by Kurt Lewin making it a field in social science. In the 1940s, social scientists, besides Kurt Lewin, that initiated this movement were William White, John Collier, and Edith Hamilton. They showed that research for organizational improvement can only meet its goals if it is collaborated with action by consultant and organizational members. This stem basically tries to understand what the organizational members feel before design and implementation of any OD or change is carried out. Hence, it was important for social scientists to collaborate with the organizational members for data collection related to the Organization's processes, problem identification and problem solving.

It resulted in two benefits. First, the organizational members could use the data on themselves to monitor and guide their behaviors and change. Second, the social scientists or OD practitioners could study and generate information that they could generalise to other organizations and settings. Survey research was the key in the data collection process and Likert developed attitude surveys that used the famous 5-point "Likert Scale" (French, 1982). The survey feedback includes data collection related to the Organization and providing feedback so that they could identify problems and solve them (see Gallos, 2006).

12.3.3 Normative Background

From the previous stems, Likert identified (using survey feedback approach) which of the four categories an organization fell into: i) Exploitative authoritative system, ii) Benevolent authoritative system, iii) Consultative system and iv) Participative system. The fourth category, that is, the participative system was considered the ideal state for the Organization, a benchmark or norm that the members could achieve by drawing comparisons and building bridges between the current organizational setting and the ideal Organization. The participative group system consisted of high involvement and participation of organizational members in decision making.

Blake, Mouton and Bidwell (1962) developed a managerial grid to demonstrate organizational effectiveness, which involved descriptions of a member's style according to their concern for production (such as accomplishing relevant tasks, quality decision making) and people (such as good working conditions, fair salary structure). They proposed a managerial style with the highest levels of effectiveness in tackling barriers in communication and achieving excellence.

12.3.4 Productivity and Quality-of-Work-Life Background (Qwl)

This stem is founded on the research by Eric Trist and colleagues at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, London that targeted amalgamation of people and technology (Trist & Bamforth, 1951). The quality of work life (QWL) programs comprised both the unions and management coming together to discuss work designs and generating designs that enabled more discretion for employees, varieties in assignments and constructive feedback. These programs enabled the formation of work groups that could self-manage. QWL also referred to techniques that improved work through enrichment of jobs, labour management committees, and self-managing teams. This approach looked at the integration of human aspects of the Organization and physical and technical work aspects. They led to greater productivity and employee satisfaction.

12.3.5 Strategic Change Background

As the technological, social, and political environments of the Organization became more complex and interlaced, the need for planned change process was observed at the system level. This was pioneered by social scientists such as Richard Beckhard, Eric Trist, and Kem Bamfort that believed that organizations comprise of both technical and social elements that interact with each other and may cause change in each other. This stem systematises the Organization's vision, culture, and environment. The underlying assumption here is that organizational productivity and employee satisfaction would increase if all the three factors were aligned (Worley, Hitchin & Ross, 1996).

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ I)

Fill in the following blanks:

- 1) In 1946, Kurt Lewin and colleagues conducted at the National Training Laboratory (NTL).
- 2) Blake, Mouton and Bidwell (1962) developed a to demonstrate organizational effectiveness.
- 3) refers to planning of activities to achieve favourable and noticeable outcomes for the Organization.
- 4) OD has been defined by Cummings and Worley (2009) as
.....
.....
.....

12.4 MODELS OF OD

Organizational change is approached via two main theories: one that relates to why and how change occurs (change process theory) and another that concerns what behaviours or action can cause and direct change (implementation theory). Change process theories are developed mainly through the contributions of academics, while implementation theory models have major contributions of practitioners (Asumeng & Ansaa Osae-Larbi, 2015).

12.4.1 The Three-Step Model of Change (Lewin, 1947)

For Kurt Lewin, human behavior could be looked at as many active forces working in opposition to each other. The underlying assumption of the three-step model is that behaviour can be changed or directed in a favourable direction by making a shift in the balance of these active forces. In organizations forces such as incentives and group expectations could work in opposition to each other; while the former is a driving force, the latter is the restraining force (see Asumeng & Ansa Osa-Larbi, 2015; Burnes, 2004).

According to the model, change could be successfully implemented in three stages: i) Unfreezing, ii) Change and iii) Refreezing.

- i) *Unfreezing*: The Organization has its own norms and established ways of working. So, the first step would be to loosen those rigid practices by reducing the forces that maintain them. The forces that direct employee behaviors away from rigid practices should be increased simultaneously. This stage would prepare the organizational members to be prepared for the upcoming change. Three processes can accomplish this step: Disconfirmation, induction of anxiety or guilt, and creation of psychological safety. Disconfirming or simply not confirming the validity of the existing standards may create some dissatisfaction leading to perceiving a need for change. Inducing guilt and anxiety about current standards by highlighting and talking about the gaps between existing processes and ideal processes would motivate individuals to desire a change. Finally, the creation of psychological safety is about assuring the personnel that potential change would not threaten their positions or come at a psychological cost (Burnes, 2004; Kritsonis, 2005).
- ii) *Change/Transition*: This stage involves the actual introduction and implementation of the change. Here, we move towards the new balance that was to be achieved. One would expect changes at three levels. First, at the individual level, people's behaviours would change and they could develop or demonstrate new skills. Second, at the structural level, there would be changes in how the Organization works; hierarchies, reporting relationships and reward management. And thirdly, at the interpersonal level, we should see stronger interpersonal trust and more openness with fewer conflicts. The processes explained in the first stage would also be helpful if continued during change.
- iii) *Refreezing*: This is the final stage where the agent of change has to be integrated into the Organization. The objective is to obtain a balanced equilibrium where the change is a part of the organizational norms and values. Hence, it is important to make efforts at the reinforcement of the new changes in organizational processes and management systems.

12.4.2 Action Research Model (Lewin, 1946)

Just like the Three-step model of change, the action research model was introduced by Kurt Lewin in 1946. This model is a part of the action research approach that focuses on solving problems through collaborative efforts between the agent of change or researcher and the target or client. In addition to solving problems, the approach also focuses on information generation. Traditionally,

the underlying assumption of action research is that the cycles of knowledge gathering and implementation of actionable solutions can solve organizational problems, when the members of the institution are actively engaged in this cyclic process. Another assumption is that besides being solutions to organizational problems, the outcomes of knowledge in action are required to prepare for intended and unintended consequences (Coghlan, & Brannick, 2014).

The action research model comprises seven main steps, each forming a cycle of planning, action and knowledge gathering (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

- i) *Problem identification (Entry)*: This step begins when it is recognized that one or more problems exist in the Organization. The problem is usually identified by an executive or someone of higher authority in the Organization and ideally is resolved with the assistance of a practitioner of organizational development.
- ii) *Consultation with a behavioral science expert (Contracting)*: At this step, the expert recruited could be an organizational development (OD) practitioner, as discussed above. The said expert would design a blueprint to plan and implement change in the Organization in a way that enables an open and cooperative relationship (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Coghlan, & Brannick, 2014; McLean, 2005).
- iii) *Data gathering and preliminary diagnosis (Diagnosis)*: This step is completed by the OD practitioners in conjunction with the organizational members. The idea is to gather appropriate and complete information and analyse the same to identify the root cause of the presenting problem. The OD practitioner could use tools such as observation, interviews, performance data and questionnaires for their data collection and analysis.
- iv) *Feedback to key client or group (Feedback)*: This stage reflects the collaborative nature of the action research approach. Following the information gathering, the OD practitioner gives feedback based on the diagnostic findings in a team meeting. The aim is to familiarise and develop a deeper understanding of the Organization's or department's strengths and weaknesses. It is to be noted that while the process requires openness, it has to be balanced with a level of confidentiality related to sensitive data. It is also important to recognize if the Organization is ready for the suggested changes.
- v) *Joint diagnosis of the problem (Planning Change)*: Once the feedback is generated, the OD practitioner and Organization members make a joint effort to identify the root cause of the issue. Diagnosis could be jeopardised if there are communication gaps during data gathering. Because misdiagnosis could sabotage the change process or invite resistance to change, this is a critical stage.
- vi) *Joint action planning*: Before the final phase of taking action, there needs to be a joint agreement on the actions that would be taken to intervene and introduce desired changes. Several factors influence the specific actions that the OD practitioner and organizational members agree upon; for example, diagnosed problem, Organization culture and the nature of planned action.

- vii) *Action (Intervention)*: The actions planned during the previous phase are implemented here. This could be at the individual level, such as changing job roles and descriptions; at group level, such as cultural changes or changes of the team behavior and at the overall Organization level; such as changes in the vision and mission of the Organization.

12.4.3 The Appreciative Inquiry Model (Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987)

While action research approach is a problem-focused approach to organizational development, the appreciative inquiry model adopts a positive approach. It utilized narrative approaches to OD, for example, storytelling, for generating theories, ideas, and blueprint for change (Gallos, 2006). The first underlying assumption in this model is that every individual has certain expectations and goals that they keep in mind while communicating or behaving. Having positive expectations related to the Organization can enable the behavior required to realise one's beliefs (Gallon, 2006). The model is grounded in the belief that new ideas are key to enforce change and that the action research model in its traditional form cannot generate those ideas.

The 4-D model is most often used to describe the appreciative inquiry approach (Bushe, 2011). The 4-D model describes organizational change as an outcome of a cyclic process beginning that comprises Discovery, Dream, Design and Delivery (or Destiny).

- i) *Discovery*: At the discovery stage, participants' descriptions, reflections and discussions are used in inquiring what the focus should be. Participants may be asked about instances where they thought that customer's satisfaction was apparent in opposition to customer's dissatisfaction when inquiry is about improving customer satisfaction. At its core, this stage is about appreciating what the Organization already has.
- ii) *Dream*: Following discovery, the organizational members gather to visualise what the Organization's ideal state would be after the change. All organizational members try to identify common dreams, goals and aspirations. This is a future-oriented stage where the team envisions the ideal state.
- iii) *Design*: The dream is transitioned into a concrete design via realistic proposals that could bridge the gap between the current and new organizational states. The questions to be asked are how the ideas could be put into practice and who all will lead the team for change.
- iv) *Delivery (or Destiny)*: At this stage the organizational members take necessary actions in accordance with the design statements, evaluate the outcomes of their behaviors, and keep making constant readjustments to the behaviours so that the Organization can head towards the ideal state. Then the new state is reviewed and, hence, the cycle continues.

12.4.4 The General Model Of Planned Change (Cummings & Worley, 2009)

Cummings and Worley integrated the three models discussed above to come up with the general model to describe the OD consultation process, that is, the

general model of planned change. It consolidates the problem solving approach but also takes into perspective the importance of understanding and utilizing the best practices that exist in the Organization already. The planned change can be obtained via four stages or sets of activities: entering and contraction, diagnosis and feedback, planning and implementation and evaluation and institutionalisation.

- i) ***Entering and contracting:*** The first stage comprises the first set of activities that the Organization must engage in before the process of change begins. These help in developing a deeper understanding of the requirement for change and what needs to be changed. By “entering” the Organization, it is meant that activities such as data gathering for problem identification, joint discussions, setting of expectations, and resource management, must be carried out. After these activities between the Organization members, a contract must be generated that spells out the actions for change, resources that will be utilized, and the roles of the Organization members and OD practitioner(s). Several barriers may arise at this stage that disable moving forward to the next stage. First, members may disagree on the need for change. Second, limitations related to resources may be recognized. Finally, it may be recognized that there are other more feasible alternatives for the planned change. It is important to keep in mind cultural and contextual factors during this stage, especially if the process occurs in an international or non-traditional setting.
- ii) ***Diagnosis and feedback:*** At this stage, effort is made to understand the current state of the Organization, such as their best practices and root causes of problems, so that the best model and outline for the plan of change could be identified. This is the key stage in the process of planned change. The diagnosis models analyzes issues at three levels: at the organizational level, most complicated analyses of the total system are involved; at the group-level, issues are related to the effectiveness of the department and the group; and at the individual level, there are issues that are related to job design and performance. The model involves convergent thinking to derive the best model for diagnosis, data collection in relation to the current organizational culture and processes, data analysis and feedback.
- iii) ***Planning and Implementing Change:*** Based on the results from the diagnosis, the Organization members and the OD practitioner design a workable plan (or interventions) to bring about the desired changes and realise the Organization’s vision. During this stage, it is important to keep in mind various questions, for example: How ready is the Organization for the said change? What is the current capability of the Organization and its members? How is the power distributed within the Organization? The diagnosis will point to one of four main types of interventions that would be detailed in the next header: a) Interventions related to human processes at the individual, group, or organizational levels; b) Interventions related to organizational structure; c) Interventions related to human interventions that improve job performance and employee well-being; d) Interventions related to strategy that manage the relationship between the internal structure of the Organization and its external climate as well as processes crucial for effective business.

- iv) ***Evaluation and Institutionalising Change:*** At the final stage, the effects of intervention are evaluated and the change is managed persistently. This is also a feedback stage, so that according to the results of the evaluation, it is determined whether the set of changes would be continued as they are, updated, or suspended altogether. To stabilise or institutionalise the new changes, the Organization may use several reinforcement techniques such as rewards, training and feedback.

12.5 OD INTERVENTIONS

Organizational Development or OD interventions are programs that are developed through planning to solve organizational problems or move towards an organizational goal. From these planned programs, it is expected that the functioning at work would be impacted positively and improve interpersonal professional relationships. Problems identified during diagnosis, such as work performance, skills and performance, job processes, work motivation, employee retention and technology are targeted for resolution via OD interventions.

When there is a need for change, need arises for interventions. Interventions help organizations transition from their current state to an ideal one, modify the organizational culture, and improve work practices. The interventions work at the individual level, group level and Organization level, and can be broadly categorised into four types (Cummings & Worley, 2009):

12.5.1 Human Processes Intervention

Human processes intervention has special focus on the people of the Organization and the processes by which they accomplish the vision and goals of the Organization. Processes such as communication, decision-making in teams, problem solving, and leadership are parts of this intervention. They are rooted in psychological and socio-psychological fields where social context, group dynamics, and social relations are key elements. The underlying assumption here that fulfilled members of the Organization would lead to organizational effectiveness (Friedlander & Brown, 1974).

The category includes three interventions that work at the individual and group levels: Process consultation, third-party intervention, and team building. Further, three interventions work at the system/organizational level: Organization confrontation meeting, intergroup relations and large-group interventions.

12.5.1.1 Process Consultation

A process consultant focuses on the group dynamic and interpersonal relationship within the Organization. Their objective is to guide members so they could get the skills required to solve their own problems. They assist in the diagnosis of work functioning and come up with customised solutions to the diagnosed issues. Process consultants often address issues such as, lack of communication or miscommunication, dysfunctional and ineffective norms. These are generally used at the group level.

12.5.1.2 Third-party Intervention

This is particularly aimed at the issue of interpersonal professional relations and can be considered a form of the previous intervention. Conflicts and disputes

are a part of the Organization's dynamics. However, when they become extreme and start affecting work functioning, a third-party intervener would be beneficial for resolving them. They may use methods such as bargaining, reconciliation, and group problem solving. These may be done at both individual and group level.

12.5.1.3 Team Building

Team building is important especially as more and more tasks in an Organization are assigned to teams. So when a team is having difficulty working together on a task where they need to work together, intervention becomes crucial. Team building could help in diagnosing the interpersonal processes and derive solutions to the identified issues. It goes deep into the task itself, the role of each member, resources required, and what strategies are being used in the tasks. Hence, it works at the group level, helping them improve their effectiveness at team assignments.

12.5.1.4 Organization Confrontation Meeting

Here, the Organization members diagnose problems, set actionable targets, and work collaboratively on the issues. This is especially helpful when the Organization is collectively experiencing stress and immediate problem solving is required.

12.5.1.5 Intergroup Relations

This intervention is aimed at enhancing the intergroup or interdepartmental relations in the Organization. Typically a consultant sits with two groups having conflicts and identifies the cause of the conflicts to derive appropriate solutions.

12.5.1.6 Large Group Interventions

These interventions utilise meetings to create and spread awareness regarding organizational problems as ideas from a large number and variety of stakeholders put in their ideas and comments. They generally meet for clarification of points, develop new norms and vision, and problem solving at the organizational level.

12.5.2 Techno-structural Interventions

These interventions focus on the Organization's technical aspects, such as job design and task methods, and its structure, for example the Organization's hierarchy, division of work. Techno-structural interventions broadly follow the principles of sociology, psychology, and engineering. The focus is on how to improve job productivity and employee fulfilment as they believe that proper design and structure would lead to increased organizational effectiveness.

12.5.2.1 Structural Design

This techno-structural intervention has to do with the division of work and how tasks are specialised. The intervening consultant pushes to move the organizational structure to flexible and integrative ways of dividing its overall work, for example based on process, customer and network.

12.5.2.2 Downsizing

Many organizations use downsizing, that is, laying off personnel, redesigning the Organization, and outsourcing work, to minimize costs and bureaucracy.

12.5.2.3 Reengineering

In this intervention, a radical redesign of the Organization and its processes can enhance collaboration of various tasks. Better collaboration leads to faster response and enhanced task performance.

12.5.3 Human Resource Management Interventions

These interventions include activities such as goal setting, rewarding, career planning and management, and performance appraisal to support the people in the Organization. Human resources management interventions are based on work relations, reward systems, employee selection, and performance appraisal. The underlying assumption is that when people are integrated into the Organization, it leads to improved organizational effectiveness.

12.5.3.1 Goal Setting

This intervention tries to find a common ground between personal goals and institute's goals. It involves setting goals that are challenging and clearly defined. The progress is periodically reviewed and updated.

12.5.3.2 Performance Appraisal

This intervention is used often to generate and give performance-related feedback to employees and teams. It evaluates people's strengths, weaknesses and achievements.

12.5.3.3 Reward Systems

In this, the Organization uses rewards in the form of salary hike, promotions, and perks, to improve job satisfaction and performance.

12.5.4 Strategic Interventions

These interventions are a bridge between the internal workings of a company to its external environment so that it could transform itself to keep up with changing times. It relies on the principles of economics, anthropology, strategic management and Organization theory.

12.5.4.1 Integrated Strategic Change

This intervention is based on the belief that change needs to be enforced at business strategies and systems of the Organization at the same time to respond to internal and external disturbances.

12.5.4.2 Culture Change

The idea of this intervention is to develop a stronger Organization culture which includes belief systems, norms, values, as well as, behavior. A strong organizational culture is likely to make individuals feel an affiliation and, as a consequence, commitment to their Organization.

12.5.4.3 Mergers and Acquisitions

When it makes sense, multiple organizations can merge together to generate a new, bigger entity or a stronger Organization can acquire a smaller one that is struggling in some areas. It is important to discuss leadership, cultural, financial, and strategic changes post merger or acquisition in advance to assure a smoother transition.

12.5.4.4 Self-designing Organizations

This type of intervention provides support for continuous change in the Organization by enabling it to modify itself at a fundamental level. A large number of stakeholders set directions for strategic change and the Organization learns to implement the changes itself.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ II)

State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’:

- 1) The process consultation based interventions focus on the Organization’s technical aspects, such as job design and task methods, and its structure. ()
- 2) At the diagnosis and feedback stage, effort is made to understand the current state of the Organization, such as their best practices and root causes of problems, so that the best model and outline for the plan of change could be identified. ()
- 3) Cummings and Worley integrated the three models to come up with the general model to describe the OD consultation process. ()
- 4) The action research model comprises three main steps, each forming a cycle of planning, action and knowledge gathering (Cummings & Worley, 2009). ()

12.6 LET US SUM UP

By now you might be clear with the concept of organizational development. It can be summed up from the above unit that, OD is an inevitable process which is required for any country to prosper. You were explained about the definition and relevance of the OD in the beginning of the chapter, which was followed by the historical background and models of OD. At the end of the unit, various interventions of OD were also discussed.

12.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define organizational development and discuss its relevance.
- 2) Explain the historical background of the OD.
- 3) Discuss the various models of organizational development.
- 4) Elucidate the interventions related to organizational development.

12.8 GLOSSARY

Organizational Development	: According to Bennis (1969), organizational development is response to any change and a nuanced educated strategy that updates the beliefs, values, and structure of the organizations to allow them to better adapt to changing times.
Unfreezing	: The stage of organizational change which involves loosening of rigid practices by reducing the forces that maintains them.
Change/Transition	: The stage involves of actual introduction and implementation of the change.
Refreezing	: This is the final stage where the agent of change has to be integrated into the organization.
Entering	: It refers to activities such as gathering of data for problem identification, joint discussions, setting of expectations, and resource management, must be carried out.
Contract	: An agreement related to the planned actions for change, resources that will be utilized, and the roles of the Organization members and OD practitioner(s).
Diagnosis	: An effort towards understanding the current state of the organization, such as their best practices and root causes of problems, so that the best model and outline for the plan of change could be identified.
Organizational Development Interventions	: OD interventions are programs that are developed through planning to solve organizational problems or move towards an organizational goal.

12.9 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ)

SAQ-I

- 1) "T-group training"
- 2) managerial grid
- 3) Orientation
- 4) *"a systematic application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures and processes for improving organizational effectiveness."*

SAQ II

- 1) False
- 2) True
- 3) True
- 4) False

12.10 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

Asumeng, M. A., & Osae-Larbi, J. A. (2015). Organization development models: a critical review and implications for creating learning organizations. *European Journal of Training and Development Studies*, 2(3), 29-43.

Beer, M. (1980). *Organization change and development: A systems view*. Pearson Scott Foresman.

Bennis, W. G. (1969). *Organization development: Its nature, origins, and prospects*.

Blake, R. R., Mouton, J. S., & Bidwell, A. C. (1962). Managerial grid. *Advanced Management-Office Executive*, 1, 12-15.

Bushe, G. R. (2011). Appreciative inquiry: Theory and critique. *The Routledge companion to organizational change*, 87-102.

Burnes, B. (2004). Kurt Lewin and the Planned Approach to Change: A Re-appraisal. *Journal of Management studies*, 41(6), 977-1002.

Coghlan, D., & Brannick, T. (2014). *Doing action research in your own organization*. Sage.

Cooperrider, D. L. & Srivastva, S. (1987). Appreciative inquiry in organizational life. In Woodman, R. W. & Pasmore, W.A. (eds.). *Research in Organizational Change And Development. Vol. 1*. Stamford, CT: JAI Press. 129-169.

Cummings, D., & Worley, C. G. (2009). *Organization development and change* (9th ed.). Cengage Learning.

Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C. G. (2014). *Organization development and change*. Cengage learning.

French, W. L. (1982). Introduction: The emergence and early history of organization development. *Group & Organization Studies*, 7(3), 261-278.

French, W. L., & Bell, C. (1995). *Organization development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement*. Pearson Educación.

Friedlander, F., & Brown, L. D. (1974). Organization development. *Annual review of psychology*, 25(1), 313-341.

Gallos, J. (2006). *Organization Development: A Jossey Bass Reader*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Kleiner, A. (1996). *The age of heretics: Heroes, outlaws, and the forerunners of corporate change*. New York: Currency Doubleday.

Kritsonis, A. (2005). Comparison of change theories. *International journal of scholarly academic intellectual diversity*, 8(1), 1-7.

Lewin, K. (1946). Action research and minority problems. *Journal of Social Issues*, 2, 34-46.

Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics II. Channels of group life; social planning and action research. *Human relations*, 1(2), 143-153.

McLean, G. (2005). *Organization Development: Principles, Processes, Performance*. Berrett Koehler publishers.

Robbins, S.P., Judge, T.A. & Vohra, N (2016). *Organizational Behaviour*, New Delhi: Pearson Education.

Trist, E. L., & Bamforth, K. W. (1951). Some social and psychological consequences of the longwall method of coal-getting: An examination of the psychological situation and defences of a work group in relation to the social structure and technological content of the work system. *Human relations*, 4(1), 3-38.

Worley, C., Hitchin, D. & Ross, W. (1996). *Integrated Strategic Change*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

UNIT 13 POSITIVE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR*

Structure

- 13.0 Introduction
- 13.1 Objectives
- 13.2 Meaning and Definition of Positive Organizational Behaviour
- 13.3 Positive Psychology and Positive Organizational Behaviour
 - 13.3.1 Self-efficacy/Confidence
 - 13.3.1.1 Sources of Efficacy
 - 13.3.1.2 Need for Self-efficacy in Positive Organizational Development
 - 13.3.2 Hope
 - 13.3.2.1 Hope and Workplace
 - 13.3.3 Optimism
 - 13.3.3.1 Optimism and Workplace
 - 13.3.4 Resilience
 - 13.3.4.1 Ways to Improve Resilience in Workplace Setting
- 13.4 Emotional Intelligence in Workplace
- 13.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.6 Unit End Questions
- 13.7 Glossary
- 13.8 Answers to Self Assessment Questions
- 13.9 Suggested Readings and References

13.0 INTRODUCTION

The present unit explains about the concept of positive organizational behavior. Positive psychology is relatively a new field which reflects the relevance of hope, optimism and resilience among individuals as well as society. The present unit will discuss about the ways through which an organization can enhance positive behavior of its employees. It discusses the impact of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience among employees that can contribute towards organizational development. At the end of the unit, the relevance of emotional intelligence towards positive organizational development will also be discussed.

13.1 OBJECTIVES

With the help of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define positive organizational behaviour;

*Dr Arisudan Tiwari, DIPR, New Delhi

- Explain the component of positive organizational behavior;
- Discuss the relevance of self-efficacy towards positive organizational development;
- Explain the relevance of hope and optimism at workplace;
- Describe the ways of enhancing resilience at workplace; and
- Elucidate the relevance of emotional intelligence at workplace.

13.2 MEANING AND DEFINITION OF POSITIVE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizations face multiple challenges and threats today- threats to effectiveness, efficiency, increased competition and changing customer demands and the constant challenges to maintain congruence among Organizational dimensions such as strategy, culture and processes. Keeping Organizational healthy and viable in today's world is a daunting task. There are several basic behavioral science principles and practices that can be applied in Organizations for increasing the individual and Organizational effectiveness. Such, systematic and planned process by which the functioning of Organizations is improved is called as Organizational Development. Organizational development (OD) programs are the interventions and activities that are conducted in the Organizations aimed at improving the functioning of individuals, teams and the whole Organization, and imparting the necessary skills and knowledge in the members for improving their functioning.

These programs are long term, planned and sustained efforts for improving the "fit" between the individual and the Organization, between the Organization and the environment etc and among the various Organizational outcomes such as strategy, structure and processes.

Positive Organizational behavior has recently recognized many positive constructs such as positive affectivity (PA), positive reinforcement, procedural justice, job satisfaction and commitment, pro-social and organizational citizenship behavior etc. Luthans (2002a) defines positive Organizational behavior as "*the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace*" (p. 59).

13.3 POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY AND POSITIVE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Positive psychology is relatively new field focusing on positive aspects of human existence given by Martin Seligman 1999 and were subsequently developed by Luthans and his colleagues in 2004 in the USA. Positive organizational structure includes strategies and methods that are effective and beneficial to achieve the desired goal and positive psychology deals with how positive attitude and hope can enhance the efficiency of an individual on any desired task. There are mainly three levels of positive psychology given by Seligman mentioned below-

- 1) Valued subjective experiences.
- 2) Positive individual traits.
- 3) Civic virtues and the institutions that moves the individual toward better citizenship.

Positive Organizational behaviour involves psychological component which called as “PsyCap” that has shown positive correlation with desired employee attitudes, behaviours and performance etc. the next topic covers the overall dimensions of psychological capital.

- **Psychological capital or “PsyCap”**

Any Organization would want to actualize their goal with high level of productivity which depends on the psychological and physical participation of human resources. The concept of psychological capital depends upon the positive aspects of human life and hence the main components of psychological capital include self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency. Hence, PsyCap is defined as –

“an individual’s positive psychological state of development that is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success” (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007a, p. 3).

Positive psychological capital focuses on positive aspects underlying the cognitive process, human motivation and striving for success which results in better performance in workplace. (Peterson SJ, 2011). There are four basic components of psychological capital which are as follows-

- *Self-efficacy*: It involves the confidence of an individual or perceived ability about how to achieve a particular goal.
- *Hope*: It involves the interaction of two processes which are mainly agency and pathway.
- *Optimism*: It is a trait through which a person defines the internal factors as fixed and global whereas the external factors are not fixed and are specific to attribution.
- *Resilience*: A positive way of coping with challenges and difficult situations.

13.3.1 Self-efficacy/Confidence

Bandura’s social cognitive theory explains how environment, personal cognitions and behavior interact with each other to determine the overall outcome of the response. This theory consists of a theoretical framework which emphasis on how an individual uses symbolization, self regulation and self-reflection to deal with a particular situation successfully and reflects back on their experiences to deal in future. A definition provided by Stajkovic and Luthans says “Self-

efficacy refers to an individual's conviction about his/her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resource and course of action needed to successfully execute a specific task and context."

Self-efficacy is different from other organizational concepts such as which are especially with self-esteem, expectancy concepts and locus of control etc. Whenever we talk about self-esteem is global construct of one's own worthlessness. Here the major focus is on current self, whereas, in self-efficacy is about success in future tasks or situation. Another concept which is similar to self- efficacy is expectancy which involve the outcome or consequences of any behavior whereas self- efficacy deals with one's ability to execute certain behavior pattern. The last concept which is similar to self- efficacy is locus of control which involves attribution of action-outcome contingencies'. Some people believe in internal factors such as effort, hard work etc. whereas some focus on external factors such as task difficulty, luck etc.

13.3.1.1 Sources of efficacy

There are various sources of self- efficacy such as mastery experiences, vicarious experience, social persuasion and physiological & psychological arousal. They are described briefly below:

- *Mastery experience*: Individual's situational (complexity of task) and cognitive processing (perception of one's variable) affects the performance which affects self-efficacy of the individual. Mastery in any specific task alters one's perception and judgment which later on helps in development of strong positive self-efficacy.
- *Vicarious experiences or modeling*: Sometimes individual learn through modeling (copying) someone whose behaviour reinforces them and they try to imitate those behavior, through observational learning. It is important to take into account the demographics of the model such as sex, age, education etc and the task performed. The more similarities with the model more will be the effect of observational learning.
- *Social persuasion*: Whenever an individual is given a proper objective feedback, constant support and positive appreciation that increase self-efficacy in contrast to a situation where the individual is not given any kind of appreciation or support. Social persuasion works more effectively when the individual is struggling to perform any new or difficult task.
- *Emotional cues*: Individual should always have a balance between physical and psychological arousal to succeed effectively at any task. Extremely negative energy occurs if the person feels tired or mentally exhausted; hence good positive energy for both physical and mental health increases the self-efficacy of an individual.

13.3.1.2 Need for Self-efficacy in Positive Organizational Development

Self-efficacy theory has been widely used in many clinical and counseling purposes to help people facing anxiety, to develop resistance against addictive substances, to enhance education achievement. New awareness in Organization setup aims to enhance various aspects that are briefly described as follows-

- **Selection:** Knowing the self-efficacy of an individual can help the organization to predict his/her performance in the future. People who are highly motivated and have high self-efficacy will perform better in the task assigned to them. Generally there are many self-efficacy questionnaires available in work place setting which can be used not only for selection purpose but can also be extended for placement and career planning. Assessment conducted after certain time gap can reflect cluster of potentials and abilities that can be relevant to career advancements.
- **Leadership:** An effective leadership is always an important part of Organization success and a successful leader always poses high self-efficacy level. According to Bortais 1982 job competency is an act as an underlying characteristic of an individual that results in effective in any job. Having high level of managerial competencies can help the organization develop in every aspect. Here it is important to distinguish between generalized competencies and managerial competencies wherein the former deals with overall perceived ability to deal with a task while the later includes both perceived and actual competencies which is the ability to deal with various aspects of Organization such as technical, conceptual and human relation. Hence, knowing and developing such skills can benefit both the Organization and self.
- **Training and vocational counseling:** There are many implications of self-efficacy in training as in actual real life work setup high level of self-efficacy is required to achieve any organizational goal. Hence, self-efficacy paradigm can be very effective if it is transferred to the real life setting. Films can be made and tested for a modeled performance for trainees. Another way may be to trace the instances in the past which may result in low self esteem and later on work on it to avoid the same problem in the future. Similarly in case of vocational counseling perceive competencies can be tested and the area of interest can also be discovered. Mastery can be done for any area which has got many opportunities but low self-efficacy.
- **Performance, appraisal, goal and incentive:** Self regulation is an important tool to maintain attainable goal and motivate oneself to attain that goal. Research has shown specific incentive technique require high level of self-efficacy which involves persuasive and feedback ability. Whenever extremely negative appraisal for performance is given the level of self-efficacy is decreased that reduces the motivation to work towards the goal.
- **Group and Organizational performance:** Working in organization requires good overall self-efficacy which can be measured using many techniques. For example one may integrate ones performance individually and compare with total group performance level, another technique includes individual taking an average of their own performance and introspecting on the scores. The organizational context plays an important role where resistance to change acts as a barrier for positive Organization development. Group think is one of the phenomena which are not uncommon in Organizational setup. Sometimes people have extreme level of optimism which can encourage them to take risks affecting the Organization development.

Hence, above are the areas that can be focused and improved upon to have and maintain positive Organizational development.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ I)

Fill in the following blanks:

- 1) The main components of psychological capital include
- 2) theory has been widely used in many clinical and counseling purposes to help people facing anxiety, to develop resistance against addictive substances, to enhance education achievement.
- 3) is a trait through which a person defines the internal factors a fixed and global whereas the external factors are not fixed and are specific to attribution.
- 4) Positive psychological capital focuses on positive aspects underlying the... which results in better performance in workplace.

13.3.2 Hope

Hope capitalizes on an individual's self-initiated, goal-directed motivations and behaviors. Having hopes from somebody or on oneself determines the mechanisms to achieve a goal. One among such mechanism is agency or internalized control that creates the determination and motivation (willpower) to accomplish one's goals. Another component of hope involves those pathways through which the goal is achieved by overcoming the obstacles which is called way power. The component of hope involves the quality of goals being set depending upon the increase in the intensity of the challenges being based and the selection of new mechanism to deal with the challenges effectively.

Snyder, Irving, and Anderson (1991) define hope as "*a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (1) agency (goal-directed energy) and (2) pathways (planning to meet goals)*" (p. 287).

Snyder and his colleagues have developed a scale related to hope and that scale is called as "state hope scale". The components in the scale have high correlation between hope and work related goal expectancies. Researchers have supported the fact that high level of hope always helps an individual to deal with any kind of difficult or challenging situation as hope always provides positive attitude and viewpoint about any situation.

Some of the characteristics of hope involve the following features-

- *Hope involves both willpower and way power*

Initially people used to consider hope as a feeling which involves thoughts that make the person believe that goals are attainable and they can be met. This was considered to be unidirectional approach whereas in bi-directional approach of hope both the will and way plays an essential role. Here the person tries to figure out what are the possible mechanisms through which a goal can be attained and along with this the person also maintains a belief that the goal is attainable.

- *Hope as state type and not trait type characteristics*

Snyder (2000) described hope as being a relatively enduring mind-set but also emphasized that there exists a more transitory state form of hope that can be developed and managed. His theory notes that fluctuations in this “state hope” serve as the variable base upon which the more enduring “trait hope” is built. Although the malleability of hope may be strongest in children and young people, even mature adults are open to change in overall hope.

- *Hope can be validly measured*

Many scales have been developed in order to measure the state and trait aspect of hope which has got good convergent and discriminant validity. A scale of 12-item Adult Dispositional Hope Scale validly measures the self-reported hopefulness trait of an individual. Another scale called as Specific Hope Scale was developed to measure an individual’s level of hope specific to six life arenas: social, romance/relationship, academic, family, leisure, and work/occupation (Simpson, 1999).

- *Role of hope in goal setting and empowerment process*

Hope as a construct differs from both self-efficacy and optimism. Locke and Latham (1990) who initially focused on the process of attaining a goal and the factors that influence the goal directed behavior such as motivation, arousal etc. the agency part of hope connects with aspects like arousal and persistence whereas the pathway part of hope deals with the mechanisms and process. Hope theory suggests that motivation and willpower can be enhanced by engaging employees not only in the establishment of goals but also in the creation and choice of pathways to achieve those goals. Hence, having an explicit goal is equally important as much the process of attaining it.

13.3.2.1 Hope and workplace

Many of the researches have shown that having high level of hope is always beneficial for the Organization as in every level of the hierarchy there is a hope that is maintained to achieve some attainable target for goal. In an Organization both will power and way power play essential role which creates a lot of future perspective for the Organization. It was shown in a research that people who had high hope worked more intrinsically towards achieving a goal. There needs to be more exploration research done in the future as the present researches show how certain elements of hope affect performance and personal motivation. Hence, more research has to be done in order to understand how other factors other than performance are affected by the level of hope.

13.3.3 Optimism

Positive psychology emphasizes more on optimism to enhance the overall development of the individual. For example, Seligman and Schulman (1986) found that optimistic insurance agents were more successful than pessimistic insurance agents. Being optimistic always helps the individual to stay balanced and fit both mentally and emotionally. Organizational culture includes a set of beliefs, values and traditions that are meant to be followed by all the employees of the Organization. Sometime stress and pressure can affect the productivity,

commitment and job satisfaction of the individual. Hence, maintain a good amount of optimism can help the Organization to maintain positivity and high productivity.

Below are some of the dimensions explained which talks about the nature of the construct “optimism”

➤ *Optimism as Human nature*

The concept of optimism is an old terminology which got immense acceptance in recent years as early philosophers and psychiatrist used to consider optimism as a difficult concept to incorporate in reality. Later on after few years many cognitive psychologists in 1970s started considering optimism as an cognitive concept that effects any individuals decision making and problem solving capacities. It is now in the recent years when the concept gained immense acceptance from different fields like anthropologist, psychiatrist, evolutionary psychologist who consider optimism as core part of human nature and an essential trait that helps an individual to deal effectively and grow positively.

➤ *Optimism as an individual difference*

According to Seligman optimism is considered as an attribution style that explains cause of any positive consequences be personal, permanent, and pervasive causes and cause for negative consequences be through external, temporary, and situation-specific ones. As a result of this optimistic people tend to develop a very positive approach while dealing with a problem where in they build positive expectancies that motivate them to achieve any goal and select more adaptive coping strategies for future. On the other hand pessimistic person focus on integral factors such as their hard work and effort and consider the situation to be long lasting global.

13.3.3.1 Optimism and Work Place

As explained above both hope and self-efficacy involves internalized and agentic characteristics whereas in optimism the person also considers the external factors that could be responsible for the outcome or consequences. For example, an individual who is optimistic will weigh both positive and negative outcome at the same time while dealing with a problem. Researchers have suggested that optimism involves cognitive, motivational and emotional components. Martin Seligman who gave the concept of learned helplessness explained that an individual who is under stress and not able to cope the problem develops learned helplessness after a period of time. This work involves the attribution styles which are either generalized or exploratory style focusing on different aspects. The concept of optimism is developed in opposite to learned helplessness which focuses on how to focus on positive aspects of the situation and positive outcome of the situation. Generally pessimistic people face learned helplessness where they assume responsibility for unfavorable situations that are beyond their control or give credit to someone (or something) else for their own accomplishments or they set up unrealistic standards of goal achievement that are not attainable which can make them experience more failures than successes.

According to C. Peterson, (2000) optimism needs to be flexible and realistic that allows recognition of positive achievements in oneself and others and accountability and acceptance of responsibility for challenges and difficult situations. Therefore, optimism is considered to an essential and significant trait of an individual for dealing with difficult problems/situations in both personal and professional life. But in some workplace setting there are some downsides of optimism because sometime optimistically driven behavior may be aimed at some pointless pursuits which are called as false optimism. Therefore optimism is considered to an important trait of an individual in both personal and professional settings.

13.3.4 Resilience

Adults generally experience few traumatic events in normal day to day life. To cope with such difficulties and challenges a person needs to be resilient. Many internal and external forces play a role in developing resilience in an individual. Three major concepts of developing resilience are (a) identifying resilient qualities of individuals and support systems that predict social and personal success; (b) understanding the process of coping with stressors, adversity, change, or opportunity resulting in the identification, fortification, and enrichment of protective factors; and (c) identifying the motivational forces within individuals and groups and the creation of experiences that foster the activation and use of these forces.

There are many ways to provide resilient environment in an organization such as proactively avoiding situations which are aggression provoking. Such resilience can be developed through good social support from both professional and personal level. A good rapport and trust will be developed when the organization provides comfortable environment and a positive employee-employer psychological contract. An ethical and trustworthy Organization tries to reduce develop mutual benefit, and where employees can regain organizational commitment and job satisfaction. There are different methods to develop resilience such as asset focused and process focused. The earlier process deals with assets which human capital such as knowledge, skills, and abilities and social networks of support or social capital. In such technique resilience would increase “employability” of the employee through paying their education or promoting developmental workshops and cross-training, and rewarding those seeking to better themselves. A process- oriented approach involves self-efficacy which acts as a mediator in resilience.

13.3.4.1 Ways to Improve Resilience in Workplace Setting

As explained above there are many ways to improve resilience in work place setup some of the ways are mentioned as follows:

Strategies using positive emotions: Fredrickson’s (1998) explained that people try to broaden their thought action repertoires for building out their personal resource. Positive emotions always as a trigger for developing such thoughts. People who have faced trauma and overcame it try to focus on positive emotions which makes them more resilient and strong as personality.

Strategies using self enhancement: enhancing characteristics such as being confident, positive and optimistic can be achieved through focusing on self

enhancement. Researchers have shown that Organization should encourage qualities of being adaptive, explorative and open to new experiences so that they can work on themselves for better personality development.

Strategies using attribution: It involves perception or inference of causes, people who focus on negative events and blame themselves have lower resilience whereas people who focus on positive events and have constant belief in them have high resilience. Hence, every individual should monitor their attributional style to ensure about their progress in both personal and professional life.

Strategies using hardiness: It involves self-perceptions of commitment, control, and challenge that help in managing stressful circumstances. The concept of hardiness is based on the fact that one can find a meaning of life by being committed, have a belief in brining a change around the surrounding and a belief that one can grow from both positive and negative life experiences.

13.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN WORKPLACE

Other than this there is one more concept which adds on to the feature of positive Organizational development which is emotional intelligence. In general average intelligence is always considered to be an important aspect of selection in any Organization. Recent evidences show how emotional intelligence is important for a success in any Organization. The next topic explains briefly about the need for emotional intelligence in workplace.

Emotional intelligence is considered to be a valuable and crucial aspect needed for positive organizational development. The concept of emotional intelligence was given Salovey and Mayer (1990) which was explained as an ability that are more specific to social environment than just general intelligence. A person who is high on emotional intelligence always tries to understand others feelings and tries to maintain one's own feelings and thought. On the other hand, Goleman explained emotional intelligences as "*the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships*" (Goleman 1998a, p. 317). Following are some of the dimensions of emotional intelligence with workplace examples:

EI Dimensions	Characteristics	Workplace Example
Self awareness	Knowing one's own feelings at the moment, having self understanding	Rio recognizes that he is very angry at the moment and tries to avoid making any important decision.
Self management	Managing one's own emotions to facilitate rather than hindering the task, try to avoid negative feelings and focus on finding a solution to a problem.	John holds back his angry impulse on a customer who is unfair at his part but tries to get more information about the facts.

Self motivation	Stay the course towards desired goal, overcome negative feelings created by the challenges and obstacles.	Zain tries to complete his work by overcoming his obstacles (both personal and professional e.g. frustration, lack of resources etc.
Empathy	Trying to be sensitive about others feelings, helps to create good bond and rapport, gives sense of information about what others feel and want..	Yukti figured that her colleagues were mentally frustrated and tired so they needed some break, so she took them for bowling during lunch break.
Social skills	Developing social skills to have smooth interacting sessions, able to guide other's emotions and the way they act.	Jammy figured from the non verbal cues of his subordinates that they were not ready for buying the new policy presented so he interacted with others to know their reasons.

Many researches in the field of emotional intelligence have shown that having high emotional intelligence makes more career success. People try to understand the situation in every point of view where they focus on their emotions and regulate them to keep themselves motivated. At the same time they try to understand others emotional and perspective to deal effectively with the situation. In the Organization knowing the ways employees use or handle any challenging situations can benefit the Organizational members to focus on effective modification strategies and encourage them to maintain positive attitude and emotional state. Hence, Organization need to emphasis on emotional regulation and emotional intelligence so that a positive motivating environment is created leading to successful Organizational development.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ II)

State whether the following are 'True' or 'False':

- 1) A good rapport and trust will be developed when the organization provides comfortable environment and a positive employee-employer psychological contract. ()
- 2) The concept of resilience was given Salovey and Mayer (1990). ()
- 3) Having hopes from somebody or on oneself cannot determine the mechanisms to achieve a goal. ()
- 4) According to C. Peterson, (2000) optimism needs to be rigid and realistic that allows recognition of positive achievements in oneself and others. ()

13.5 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the above unit that positive organizational behaviour can significantly contribute towards organizational development. In the present unit the concept of positive organizational behaviour was explained. You were

also informed about the ways through which an organization can enhance positive behavior among its employees. It discussed about the impact of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience among employees that can contribute towards organizational development. At the end of the unit, the relevance of emotional intelligence towards positive organizational development was also discussed.

13.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the psychological component of positive organizational behaviour.
- 2) Explain the sources of efficacy and discuss its contribution towards positive organizational development.
- 3) Elucidate upon the relevance of hope and optimism At workplace.
- 4) Discuss the meaning and relevance of emotional intelligence at workplace.

13.7 GLOSSARY

Self-efficacy	: According to American Psychological Association, self-efficacy refers to ‘ an individual’s subjective perception of his or her capability to perform in a given setting or to attain desired results, proposed by Albert Bandura as a primary determinant of emotional and motivational states and behavioral change’.
Hope	: According to American Psychological Association, hope refers to. ‘ the expectation that one will have positive experiences or that a potentially threatening or negative situation will not materialize or will ultimately result in a favorable state of affairs’.
Optimism	: According to American Psychological Association, optimism refers to, ‘the attitude that good things will happen and that people’s wishes or aims will ultimately be fulfilled’.
Resilience	: The American Psychological Association (2014) defines resilience as ‘the process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or even significant sources of stress’

13.8 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

SAQ I

- 1) self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency
- 2) Self-efficacy
- 3) Optimism
- 4) cognitive process, human motivation and striving for success

SAQ II

- 1) True
- 2) False
- 3) False
- 4) True

13.9 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

American Psychological Association. *The road to resilience*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association; 2014.

Cavus, M. F., & Gokcen, A. (2015). Psychological capital: Definition, components and effects. *Journal of Education, Society and Behavioral Science*, 244-255.

Erkmen T, Esen E. Work done in 2003- 2011 Year of Investigation on Psychological Capital as categorical. *Mustafa Kemal University Journal of the Institute of Social Sciences*. 2012;9(19):89- 103. Turkish..

Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of General Psychology*, 2 (3), 300-319.

Goleman, D. (1998a), *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Bantam, New York, NY.

Luthans, F. 2002a. The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23: 695-706.

Luthans, F. 2002b. Positive organizational behavior. Developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16(1): 57-72.

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. 2007a. *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Luthans, F., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Lester, P. B. (2006). Developing the psychological capital of resiliency. *Human resource development review*, 5(1), 25-44.

Luthans, F., & Jensen, S. M. (2002). Hope: A new positive strength for human

resource development. *Human resource development review*, 1(3), 304-322.

Peterson SJ, Luthans F, Avolio BJ, Walumbwa FO, Zhang Z. Psychological capital and employee performance: A latent growth modeling approach. *Personnel Psychology*. 2011; 64: 427-450.

Peterson, C. 2000. The future of optimism. *American Psychologist*, 55: 44-55.

Salovey, P. and Mayer, J.D. (1990), "Emotional intelligence", *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, Vol. 9, pp. 185-211

Seligman, M. E. P., & Schulman, P. (1986). Explanatory style as a predictor of productivity and quitting among life insurance sales agents. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(4), 832–838. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.50.4.832>.

Sympson, S. (1999). Validation of the Domain Specific Hope Scale: Exploring hope in life domains. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Vakola, M., Tsaousis, I., & Nikolaou, I. (2004). The role of emotional intelligence and personality variables on attitudes toward Organizational change. *Journal of managerial psychology*.

Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2007). Positive organizational behavior in the workplace: The impact of hope, optimism, and resilience. *Journal of management*, 33(5), 774-800.

<https://dictionary.apa.org/optimism>; accessed on 12/11/2021

<https://dictionary.apa.org/hope>; accessed on 12/11/2021

[https://dictionary.apa.org/self efficacy](https://dictionary.apa.org/self%20efficacy); accessed on 12/11/2021

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

**Guidelines on Practicum
(2 Credits)**

CONTENTS

Sr. No.	Details	Page No.
1.0	Introduction	225
2.0	Practicum for BPCC 112 (2 Credits)	226
3.0	Procedure to be Followed by Academic Counsellor	226
4.0	Important Information for the Learner	228
5.0	Evaluation	231
6.0	A Brief Guide to Practicals	232
Appendices:		
	Appendix I – Title Page for Practicum Notebook	246
	Appendix II – Certificate	247
	Appendix III – Acknowledgement	248

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The BA Program offered by the University will introduce you to the laboratory component in the courses offered by the Discipline of Psychology. To complete the course BPCC 112 (Organizational Behaviour), you must complete one Tutor Marked Assignment, attend practicum sessions (sessions are mandatory), write the term end examination for theory and practical components separately.

Laboratory component is of 2 Credits. In this, you will learn how to administer tests and conduct experiments in a controlled condition, that is in a laboratory setup at your Study Centre. The test and experiments will be carried out on a human participant and you will be the experimenter or test administrator. At times, this situation may also be reversed as during the course you will carry out practicals amongst your classmates. The tests and experiments are related to various topics that you have read or about to read in the theory component of BPCC 112. While doing lab work, you will be directly supervised by your academic counsellor. You are required to follow a standard procedure for administration, scoring and interpretation of the result and findings. You will also learn about ethical issues as they apply in laboratory work.

As you must have learned that psychology is a science of human behaviour. It aims at understanding various phenomena of human mind and behavior. The purpose of understanding is description, explanation, prediction and control of behavior, and the application of various techniques for the betterment of life. But how these goals are achieved? These goals are achieved through scientific research as a first step and then the research results are applied in real life settings. Psychologists have developed certain methods and procedures over the years to understand behavior. These methods are studied in the branches of psychology especially devoted to the experiments, methods and research in psychology. The first such branch is Psychometrics which literally means measurement of psychological variables. It includes everything related to the measurement of psychological constructs. The more specific branches are Experimental Psychology and Psychological Testing. Experimental psychology, as the name suggests, is focused more on experimentation in psychology. Psychological testing is more focused on psychological tests developed to study various mental abilities, personality traits, and other related aspects of behaviors. Psychological tests are scientifically designed instruments for psychological measurement of constructs.

Experiments in psychology make use of different instruments/apparatus to study different cognitive, affective or behavioral aspects such as sensation, perception, attention, memory, learning and other such processes. They mainly focus on studying the cause and effect relationship between independent and dependent variable. Experiments mainly focus on studying cause and effect relationship between independent and dependent variables. The participant has to be active during the experiment as she/he not only performs on a task but is also vigilant in observing one's own mental activities while performing the task and reporting it to the experimenter. This is also known as 'introspective report'.

On the other hand, psychological tests can be classified into various types on the basis of administration, time limit, nature of items. This will be described in

detail in later section. Psychological tests can be used in different settings like schools, hospitals, organizations and welfare organizations. They can also be used for research purpose. They are not only used to diagnose mental disorders, but may also be used to select individuals for different jobs, to determine career choice and grades, etc. Tests are also used to assess personality and adjustment pattern. Tests are administered in a standardized manner and includes assessment of some mental process, trait or characteristic. The main characteristics of a good test are that it should be reliable, valid, possess good norms and should be appropriate for the persons's age, cultural, linguistic and social background. A good psychological test is always a standardized test, which means that the test follows a uniform and systematic procedure of administration and scoring. It also has a manual in which the reliability, validity and the norms are provided.

As part of this course, you will learn the administration of tests related to personality and also experiments based on work motivation, job satisfaction and job stress. As an experimenter/test administrator, you will make use of different apparatus and test materials (test booklet, manual, and scoring keys) to study different aspects of human behaviour.

2.0 PRACTICAL IN BPCC 112 (2 CREDITS)

Any two of the following practical are to be conducted:

- 1) **Work Motivation**
- 2) **Job Satisfaction**
- 3) **Job Stress**

From the above three, any two needs to be conducted and written in proper format (as mentioned in the guidelines) in the Practicum Notebook. The Practicum Notebook should include a title page (format given in Appendix I) and a certificate (Appendix II). This notebook is to be assessed by the concerned academic counselor. Actual conduction of practicals and reporting it in practical note book (internal assessment) carries 50% weightage and the Term End Examination of Practical including viva- voce (external assessment) carries 50% weightage.

3.0 PROCEDURE TO BE FOLLOWED BY ACADEMIC COUNSELOR

For Experiments in Psychology

- 1) You may refer to some of the books given as follows:
 - Experimental Psychology by L. Postman & J. P. Egan
 - Experiments in Psychology by S. M. Mohsin
 - Experimental Psychology with Advanced Experiments (2Vols.) by M. Rajamanickam
- 2) Explain the experiment in detail to the learners.
- 3) Introduce the experiment in terms of:

- Historical background
 - Hypothesis/es
 - Independent and dependent variables
 - Control and experimental conditions
 - Administration
 - Scoring
- 4) After the introduction of the experiment, demonstrate to the learners how to conduct the experiment.
 - 5) The demonstration will include the following:
 - Preparation for the experiment, for instance, keeping the material (instrument/ apparatus, stimulus words/ list, stopwatch) ready.
 - Establishing rapport with the participant, making him/her feel comfortable
 - Explaining the experiment (procedure, time limit, precautions)
 - Taking informed consent for undergoing the experiment and informing the participant that the experiment findings will remain confidential.
 - Taking permission to record the session, wherever applicable.
 - Explaining the instructions to the learners.
 - Clearing all doubts in the mind of the participant about the experiment.
 - The experiment is conducted on the participant.
 - 6) Explain the scoring procedure to the learners.
 - 7) Explain how to discuss the data.
 - 8) Ask learners to conduct the experiment on each other in pairs and monitor the same.
 - 9) The learners will now conduct the experiment and do the scoring.
 - 10) The learners will have to write a report of the experiment in the practicum notebook which will be evaluated by the academic counsellors.

For Psychological Tests

- 1) Go through the manual of the test thoroughly.
- 2) Explain the test in detail to the learners in the class.
- 3) Introduce the test in terms of:
 - History of the Test
 - Author

- Development of the test
 - Features of the test (e.g. no. of items, dimensions, reliability, validity)
 - Administration
 - Scoring
 - Interpretation
- 4) After the introduction of the test, demonstrate to the learners how to administer the test.
 - 5) The demonstration of administration will include the following:
 - a) Preparation for the test, for instance, keeping the test material (test booklet, answer sheet, stopwatch) ready.
 - b) Establishing rapport with the participant, making him/her feel comfortable
 - c) Explaining the test (procedure, time limit, precautions)
 - d) Taking informed consent for undergoing the test and informing the participant that the test findings will remain confidential.
 - e) Taking permission to record the session, wherever applicable.
 - f) Reading the instructions for test administration from the manual and showing it to learners as to from where they have to read the instructions.
 - g) Clearing all doubts in the mind of the subject about the test administration.
 - h) The participant takes the test.
 - i) Taking the answer sheet from the participant after completion of the test. .
 - 6) Explain the scoring procedure (as given in the manual) to the learners.
 - 7) Explain how to interpret the data.
 - 8) Ask learners to administer the test on each other in pairs and monitor the same.
 - 9) The learners will then administer, score and the results.
 - 10) The learners will have to write a report of the experiment in the practicum notebook which will be evaluated by the academic counsellors.

4.0 IMPORTANT INFORMATION FOR THE LEARNER

- 1) **Practicum Counselling Sessions:** You are advised to contact your Study Centre with regard to schedule of counseling sessions for the Practicum Course. You may also visit the website of your Regional Centre, where

the schedule of sessions is displayed. Unlike counseling sessions of other courses in the programme, the sessions organized for this course are mandatory. Thus, you should attend all the sessions and, in these sessions, your academic counselor will teach you how to conduct and administer experiments and tests. You will clarify all your doubts arising while pursuing this course from your academic counselor. There is weightage given to attendance in evaluation also (refer to evaluation scheme, under 'Evaluation'). The number of counselling sessions allocated for practicum course are 02 sessions (01 session is of 03 Hours duration).

- 2) **Writing of Practicum Notebook:** As mentioned above, you will be conducting and administering experiments and test in the Practicum course. You will thus, record the procedure of two practicals in the practical notebook. The notebook should be handwritten, in the format mentioned at point No.3, and checked by the academic counselor under whose guidance you have conducted practicals.

3) **Format for Writing Practical Notebook**

The academic counsellor will introduce the following format which you have to follow while preparing the practicum notebook.

- **Title:** This heading will mention the 'title' or 'name' of the practical e.g: 16 PF / Muller-Lyre Illusion.
- **Aims/ Objectives:** This section will consist of the main objectives or purpose of the practical. For example, if you are performing a test on '16 PF' then the basic objective of the test will be: 'To assess the personality of the participant using 16 PF'.
- **Hypothesis/es (written in case of experiments only):** A tentative statement about the cause and effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables, is to be mentioned.
- **Introduction:** Here, the historical background of the test/ experiment is mentioned. The concept is defined and discussed. For example, in case of 16 PF, the historical background of 16 PF is described. The concept of personality is defined and the theories related to it are discussed, with a special focus on Cattell's personality theory.
- **Description of the Test/ Experiment:** Under this, the details with regard to the test/experiments are mentioned, like author of the test, basic purpose of the test, number of items, dimensions/ factors included in the test, time limit, reliability, validity, and scoring.
- **Material Required:** The material required for the administration of the test (or experiment) is mentioned. For example, in case of 16 PF, the test booklet, answer sheet, scoring key, pencil, eraser are required.
- **Participant's Profile:** This will consist of all the detailed information about the participant, like, name of the participant (optional), age, gender, educational qualification and occupation.
- **Procedure and Administration:** The following sub headings are included here;

- **Preparation:** The material required for conduction of the test/ experiment, like, test booklet, apparatus or instrument, answer sheet, stopwatch are kept ready.
- **Rapport:** You have to mention that rapport was created with the participant and that she/he was well informed about the details of the test/ experiment.
- **Instructions:** Instruction as given in the test manual/ experiment are included here.
- **Precautions:** Precautions, if any, to be considered while administration of the test/ experiment are mentioned under this sub-heading.
- **Introspective Report:** After completion of the test/ experiment by the participant, an introspective report is to be taken, that is, the participant's feeling and constraints faced by him/her while undergoing the test/ experiment is mentioned under this sub-heading in firstperson.
- **Scoring and Interpretation:** After the participant completes the test, the answer sheet is to be scored with the help of the scoring key and the data is to be interpreted with the help of the norms given in the manual. The scores can then be mentioned and interpreted under this heading. For experiments, the findings are to be analysed and mentioned here.
- **Discussion:** You have to discuss the result based on the interpretation. It may be further analysed in the light of the introspective report. In case of experiments, the results may be supported by existing studies conducted in the field.
- **Conclusion:** Under this heading, you have to conclude the findings of the test or the experiment.

References

The books, websites and the manual referred to by the learner are mentioned in American Psychological Association (APA) format.

References (APA Style)

References have to be written in APA format. These should be alphabetically listed.

Books

Anastasi, A. (1968). *Psychological Testing*. London: MacMillan Company.

Journal Article

Dennision, B. (1984). Bringing corporate culture to the bottomline. *Organizational Dynamics*, 13,22-24.

Book Chapter

Khan, A.W. (2005). Distance Education for Development. In: Garg, S. et.al. (Eds.) *Open and Distance Education in Global Environment: Opportunities for collaboration*. New Delhi: Viva Books.

<http://www.mcb.co.uk/apmfirum> (accessed on 2.3.2011)

- 4) You will keep the photocopy of the practicum notebook before submitting it at the study centre. Acknowledgement (Appendix 3) may also be taken while submitting the notebook.

5.0 EVALUATION

- 1) **Term End Examination (TEE) Form and Exam Fee:** You will have to deposit separate exam fee for the TEE of Practicum Course. The exam fee is Rs.200. Kindly check the latest fee amount applicable from www.ignou.ac.in (it is subject to revision).
- 2) **TEE:** Total marks for Practicum Examination will be 100 marks (Internal assessment is 50 marks and External assessment is 50 Marks). Internal assessment refers to actual conduction of Practicals and reporting them in the practical notebook in the prescribed format. External Assessment refers to conduction/ administration of Practicum on exam day and appearing in Viva-Voce. TEE for the course will be organized at the Study Centre.
- 3) **Conduction of TEE:** You will conduct the practicals and submit practicum notebook to the academic counselor and get it corrected before the Practicum Term End Examination. You will bring notebook at the time of examination. The examination will be conducted at the respective study centres. The duration of the examination will be of 3 hours. During the examination, you will conduct the practical and submit the answer sheet. The practical will be allotted to you by the way of lottery system. You will then collect the test material and start conducting the practical. You need to bring one participant / subject on the day of exam, on whom the test/ experiment will be conducted. Once you finish conducting the practical, write the findings in the answer sheet. This will be followed by viva-voce. The participants may leave after the conduction of practical is over.

The practicum answer sheets will be corrected by the external examiner and the viva-voce will also be conducted by the external examiner.

Dates for Term End Examination of Practicum

Admission Cycle	Date Range for TEE of Practicum
June TEE	1 July to 14 August
December TEE	1 January to 15 February

The dates for TEE of BPCC 112 Practicum will not appear in the datesheet provided by SED, IGNOU. For this, please contact your respective study centres.

- 4) **Passing Marks for Practicum:** Minimum passing marks in the course is 35. There is no re-evaluation in TEE of Practicum.
- 5) **Scheme of Evaluation:** The following evaluation methodology will be followed for TEE:

INTERNAL	Marks	EXTERNAL	Marks
Attendance	05	Conduction	20
Conduction of test/experiment	30	Evaluation of answer script	10
Practicum Notebook	15	Viva-Voce	20
TOTAL	50	TOTAL	50

External evaluation will carry 30% weightage and internal evaluation will carry 70% weightage.

6.0 A BRIEF GUIDE TO PRACTICALS

Principles of psychological testing

We all are familiar with the term testing. We grow up taking various tests at our school, tests for our physical fitness, or tests for our selection in sport teams or tests for recruitment, and the like. You must have also attempted tests in some magazine or newspaper which rates you on friendship scale – how friendly you are to others or an interest test – what do you want to do in leisure time or what do you want to be in life, or how active you are in taking initiatives etc. the list can go on. One very common example of test is appearing for examination in school. This type of test is called achievement test. In achievement test previous learning or what has been learnt is measured. This is only one type of various tests under the umbrella of testing. But if you think about psychological testing, your mind will take you to the topics like intelligence, personality, attitude, creativity, learning, and memory etc.

Here, we will briefly explain what a psychological test is and its types; and then we will discuss principles related to administration, scoring, interpretation and report writing.

Psychological test

In general terms test is any procedure used to measure a factor or assess some ability. Included in this are intelligence test, which yields IQ (Intelligence Quotient) measures, aptitude test, which measure potential in some area, various personality tests which assess aspects of personality style, belief systems and attitudes. More specifically, a psychological test can be defined as ‘a standardized instrument designed to measure objectively one or more aspects of a total personality by means of samples of verbal or nonverbal responses, or by means of other behaviors’ (Freeman 1965: 46).

Thus, a psychological test

- Is a standardized instrument
- Objectivity is one of the characteristics of a standardized instrument.
- Measures one or many psychological attributes- mental ability, personality, interest, attitude, aptitude, etc.
- Measurement is done through verbal or non-verbal responses.

- Sample of behavior may be observed or studied through psychological tests.
- The test results are given in terms of scores or categories.

A brief overview of the early developments in testing:

Scholars date the history of testing back to 2200 BCE with the examination of Chinese officials to determine their fitness for office. This rudimentary type of testing was refined during Han Dynasty around 202 BCE - 200 CE. Five topics were tested: civil law, military affairs, agriculture, revenue and geography. The system of Chinese examination took its final shape in 1370 when proficiency in the Confucian classics was emphasized. But the established system was abolished in 1906. Psychological testing is believed to have started with the work of Francis Galton on individual differences. The concept of individual differences is a basic concept underlying psychological testing. Francis Galton (1822-1911) was the first scientist to undertake systematic and statistical investigation of individual differences. He demonstrated that individual differences exist in human sensory and motor functioning, such as reaction time, visual acuity and physical strength. James McKeen Cattell extended Galton's work. Cattell also coined the term mental test in 1890. Before Galton, there were other important works in the history of psychology, but difference in human abilities was not focused upon until the work of Galton. Weber (1795-1878) experimented on weight discrimination, vision, hearing and the two point-point threshold. Fechner (1801-07) contributed significantly in the understanding of relation of mental processes to physical phenomena (for example, how the change in the intensity of sound will affect the auditory perception). Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) who established the first psychological laboratory in 1879 in Leipzig, Germany, was working on the measurement of mental processes years before. In 1862 he experimented with thought meter to measure the speed of thought.

- Thus, psychological testing developed from two lines of enquiry:
- One based on the measurement of individual differences by Darwin, Galton and Cattell
- The other, based on the work of the German psychophysicists – Weber, Fechner and Wundt.

Modern psychological tests were constructed in response to the needs of classifying the mentally and emotionally handicapped. The Seguin Form Board Test (1866) was developed by O. Edward Seguin (1812-1880) to educate and evaluate the mentally disabled. An important breakthrough in the creation of modern tests came at the turn of the twentieth century with the publication of intelligence test by Alfred Binet and T. Simon in 1905. With the time more developments were seen in the field of testing with a range of testing devices like personality tests, performance tests, aptitude tests, interest inventories, educational achievement and multifactor tests etc.

As a learner of psychology, are suggested to read more on the development of psychological testing—how it was started, what were the landmarks in the history of psychological testing. Here, we are giving a brief overview of the early developments:

Table 1: A Summary of Early Landmarks in the History of Testing

2200 B.C.	Chinese begin civil service examination
A.D. 1862	Wilhelm Wundt uses a calibrated pendulum to measure the 'speed of thought'
1884	Francis Galton administers the first test battery to thousands of citizens at the International Health Exhibit
1890	James Mckeen Cattell uses the term mental test in announcing the agenda for his Galtonian test battery
1905	Binet and Simon constructed the first intelligence test
1914	Stern introduces the concept of IQ or intelligence quotient- the mental age divided by chronological age
1916	Lewis Terman revises the Binet-Simon scales, publishes the Stanford-Binet. Revisions appear in 1937, 1960, and 1986.
1917	Robert Yerkes spearheads the development of the Army Alpha and Beta examinations used for testing World War I recruits
1917	Robert Woodworth develops the Personal Data Sheet, the first personality Test
1920	Rorschach Inkblot test published
1921	Psychological Corporation- the first major test publisher- founded by Cattell, Thorndike and Woodworth
1927	The first edition of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank published
1939	Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale published. Revisions published in 1955, 1981 and 1997.
1942	Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory published
1949	Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children published. Revisions published in 1974, 1991

Source: Psychological Testing by R J Gregory 2004: 51

Types of Tests

Tests can be categorized on the basis of administration, the behavior they measure, mode of response and on the basis of the structure of the test. On the basis of test administration, there are two types of tests: Individual tests and Group tests. The tests which can be given to one person at a time are known as **individual tests**. **Group tests** can be administered to more than one person at a time by a single examiner. If we categorize tests according to the type they measure, these tests are put under a broad category: ability tests. **Ability test** measure skills in terms of speed, accuracy or both. For example, in the test of mathematical ability, the more problems you solve accurately within the time limit, the more will be your score. Ability is a broad term which encompasses aptitude tests,

intelligence tests and achievement tests. **Achievement tests** measure previous learning, like how much has been learnt in English in one year by six grade learners can be measured by term end examination. **Aptitude tests** measure potential for acquiring a specific skill, for example how much can be learnt by a person in music if s/he is given specific training is the person's musical aptitude. **Intelligence tests** measure a person's general potential to solve problems, to adapt to changing circumstances and to benefit from experience. All the above three types of tests are inter related; sometimes these tests are included under the tests of human ability. Personality tests measure traits, temperaments and dispositions. **Personality tests** can be categorized on the basis of the structure of the test. Whether the test is clearly structured like a questionnaire or it is semi-structured or uses unstructured stimulus. Unstructured or semi-structured tests are commonly known as **projective tests**. The test stimulus in projective tests is ambiguous, like ink-blot in Rorschach inkblot test.

On the basis of time constraint in the test, if the test has simple items and has a time limit, then it is a **speed test**. On the other hand, a **power test** may have a generous time limit but with difficult items. Tests may also be classified on the basis of nature of items or content of items used. In this category, a test may be a verbal test, nonverbal test, performance test, or non-language test. A verbal test is a paper-pencil test. In non-verbal test, language is only used in instructions, figures and symbols are used in items. In a performance test, the human participant performs on a task rather than answering questions. Such tests do not use language in the test, but instructions may be given by using language, gestures, or pantomime. In non-language test, the test does not use any form of written, spoken or reading communication. Instructions are usually given through gestures and pantomimes. Such tests are administered to people or children who cannot communicate in any language. Test may also be objective and subjective. In objective test there is a specific response to be given (True/False) and the scoring process is free of personal judgement or bias. Subjective test consists of items such as essay questions or responding to inkblots, where there is less specific response. The scoring may thereby, be influenced by personal attitude of the scorer. Tests can also be classified as achievement tests, attitude tests, interest tests and personality tests.

We will discuss some tests in later sections. It should be clear to you by now, that psychological tests are mainly used to assess individual differences in various human abilities and personality. The most common uses of tests are classification, diagnosis and treatment planning, self-knowledge, program evaluation and research.

Basic Principles of Psychological Testing

By principles of psychological testing we mean the basic concepts and fundamental ideas that underlie all psychological tests. Reliability, validity, test administration and standardization are some of the fundamental concepts, that we will discuss here.

a) Reliability

Reliability is consistency. The reliability of a test is its ability to yield consistent

results. A good test should be reliable – that is, it should give similar results whenever a person takes it. It should give similar results even if different persons administer and score it. Reliability is not an all or none matter, it is a matter of degree. ‘In more technical terms, reliability refers to the degree to which test scores are free of measurement errors’ (Kaplan and Saccuzzo 2009: 22). The British Psychological Society Steering Committee on Test Standards says that reliability is a reflection of ‘how accurate or precise a test score is’ (1999: 4).

Measures of reliability are usually based on correlation coefficients. A correlation coefficient ranges from +1.0 to -1.0. It is the measure of the strength of association or similarity between two sets of scores obtained by the same person or group. In psychological tests, perfect reliability does not exist usually.

There are several different ways of assessing reliability: item-total correlations, test-retest reliability, split half reliability, factor and principal component analysis and inter-rater reliability. The choice of method depends on the needs of the investigator. In test-retest reliability method, the same test is administered twice to the same group and coefficient correlation is calculated for the scores on both the test. Alternate forms reliability is estimated with the help of alternate form of the same test. The investigators sometimes develop alternate form of the test which has same content and covers the same range and level of difficulty. Both forms of the test are administered on the same group and the test scores are correlated to find out the reliability of the test. It is also called equivalent or parallel forms reliability. Split half reliability is estimated by correlating the scores obtained from equivalent halves of a test administered once to a representative group. In the item total correlations the investigator calculates the correlation between scores on each item of the test and the total score on the test. Inter-rater reliability is calculated when the measured behavior is rated by observers. Ratings of different observers are correlated to measure the correlation coefficient. The Table below 1.2 gives a brief overview of the methods of reliability.

Method	No. of Forms	No. of Sessions	Sources of error variance
Test-Retest	1	2	Changes over time
Alternate forms (immediate)	2	1	Item sampling
Alternate Forms (delayed)	2	2	Item sampling Changes over time
Split Half	1	1	Item sampling Nature of split
Item total	1	1	Item sampling Test heterogeneity
Interscorer	1	1	Scorer differences

Source: Robert J Gregory (2004: 111)

There are different statistical methods used to assess reliability: Cronbach’s alpha, Kuder- Richardson(KR-20), Pearson correlation and Guttman’s coefficient and factor analysis. Readers can read more about reliability and validity on [http://psychology.wadsworth.com/book/ gravetterwallnau5e/index.html](http://psychology.wadsworth.com/book/gravetterwallnau5e/index.html)

What should be the accepted level of test reliability or when do we say that the particular test should be used as it has good reliability index? There is no such fixed criterion for a good psychological test. Some authors suggest that reliability should be at least .95. But in the words of Guilford and Fruchter (1978), 'There has been some consensus that to be a very accurate measure of individual differences in some characteristics, the reliability should be above .90. The truth is, however, that many standard tests with reliabilities as low as .70 prove to be very useful. And tests with reliabilities lower than that can be useful in research.'

b) **Validity**

A valid test is one that measures what it is supposed to measure. 'A test is valid to the extent that inferences made from it are appropriate, meaningful and useful.' (Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing, 1999). The first essential quality of a valid test is that it should be highly reliable. If a test yields inconsistent results, (i.e. it is not reliable) it can not be correlated with any criterion (some behavior or personal accomplishment etc.). But high reliability does not guarantee high validity of the test. The relation between reliability and validity can be discussed with the following example: 'Sir Francis Galton's sensory and motor measures could never have been valid if they had not been reliable.....Yet even though some of Galton's measures turned out to be very reliable, later evidence showed that they were not valid measures of intelligence. The measures yielded similar scores time after time, but those scores were poorly correlated with validity criteria such as school grades and teacher ratings of intelligence.' (Morgan, King, Weisz and Schoplar, 1997: 520).

There are several different types of validity. One or more methods can be selected depending on the needs of the measure. Different ways of measuring validity have been grouped into three categories: Content validity, Criterion-related validity, Construct validity. Content validity is 'an estimate of validity of a testing instrument based on a detailed examination of the contents of the test items; contents here means the actual constituent material of the test item' (Reber and Reber 2001: 781). Content validity depends on the judgment of experts on the relevance of the items used in the instrument. Criterion related validity is assessed by determining the relationship between test scores and some independent criterion. Gregory has included two different approaches under criterion related validity- concurrent validity and predictive validity (2004: 124):

- In concurrent validity, the criterion measures are obtained at approximately the same time as the test scores. For example, the current psychiatric diagnosis of a patient would be an appropriate measure to provide validation evidence for a paper-and-pencil psychodiagnostic test.
- In predictive validity, the criterion measures are obtained in future, usually months or years after the test scores are obtained. For example, a college entrance exam that is accurate in predicting the subsequent grade point average of examinees would possess criterion related validity.

Construct validity is 'a set of procedures for evaluating the validity of a testing instrument based on the determination of the degree to which the test items capture

the hypothetical quality or trait (i.e. the construct) it was designed to measure. For example, if a test is supposed to provide a measure of intelligence one should ask: what traits or qualities (or constructs) actually characterize intelligence? Do the test items actually tap such constructs?' (Reber and Reber 2001: 781). Face validity is dependent on whether the test looks valid to test users, examiners and examinees. Gregory comments that face validity is important for social acceptability of the test but is irrelevant for psychometric purposes.

c) Norms

Suppose someone gets 50 marks on an intelligence test. This score has no meaning in itself. In psychological testing the scores obtained first from a test are called raw scores. These scores are simply overall score of the performance on the test, like the number of problems solved in an intelligence test. These initial scores are converted to some form of standard scores based on a norm group. 'A norm group consists of a sample of examinees who are representatives of the population for whom the test is intended' (Gregory 2004: 81). For example, if a test is designed to study the value system of twelfth graders, the test will be given to large number of such age group (rural- urban, rich – middle class – poor etc.) to determine the distribution of raw scores. On the basis of collection of scores, the test developer will provide derived scores. These scores are known as norms. Norms can be in the form of percentiles ranks, stanines, stens, age norm, grade norms or standard scores.

A percentile expresses the percentage of scores in a sample that fall below it. A score at 50th percentile indicates that 50% of the scores fall below it. Percentile should not be confused with percent correct. Percentile is a comparative score. It tells where your scores places you in particular sample (norm group) whereas percent tells the number of questions answered correctly. 50% expresses how much was attempted correctly on an intelligence test and this 50 percent can be placed at the percentile of 50, 90, or 80 depending on the performance of the sample. Percentile 1 is the lowest rank and 100 percentile is the highest rank.

Standard score is any derived score based on standard deviation. It is more commonly known as z-score. It expresses the distance from mean in standard deviation units. T-score is a variant of standard score. It was suggested by McCall (1922). In case of standard score, the value of mean is taken zero whereas in a T-score the value of mean is 50 and standard deviation of 10.

Stanine (or standard nine) scale was developed by the United States Air Force during World War II. In stanine scale all raw scores are converted to single digit system ranging from 1 to 9. Sten scale (standard ten) was proposed by Canfield (1951). It is a ten unit scale with 5 units above and 5 units below the mean. Age norms express the level of performance with reference to age. Grade norms express the level of performance with reference to grade level.

There are many such norms developed for different tests, as mental age and I.Q. Learners will know more about them while using various tests with different norms.

Test Administration and Scoring

Test administration can be either individual or group. The administration of a test should be according to a uniform and specified set of instructions. This is the first principle of test administration. 'A test is considered standardized if the procedures for administering it are uniform from one examiner and setting to another' (Gregory 2004: 54). If a test is not administered according to the specified set of instructions, there will be no uniformity in the administration of the test. The result of such a test will not be reliable. Test administration should follow the guidelines given in the manual. Some important points that the investigator should know before administering a test are given below:

- Every psychological testing procedure, as we already said, has a purpose and rationale.
- Before using a test, tester should see whether the test fulfills the purpose at hand. The question that one needs to ask is, why do I use this test, what is the purpose of using this test? If all the questions are satisfactorily answered, then one should proceed and use the particular test. But if the use of the test is not rationalized on any ground - purpose, population, or context of using the test - the test should not be used.
- Before using a test, examiner must be familiar with the materials, instructions and the procedure to be followed in the test.
- An examiner should be sensitive to disabilities in the examinees. Disabilities related to hearing, vision, speech or motor control may affect test performance. In case of unrecognized disabilities, serious errors of interpretation may occur.
- Examiners should allot proper time for the entire testing process: setup, reading instructions and actual test taking by the examinees. Allowing too much time for a test is equally erroneous as allowing less time.
- Instructions should be read out in a clear and loud voice. Examiners must stop to answer the questions if the instructions are not clear to examinees.
- The physical conditions (testing room) should be suitable for the test. The conditions such as illumination, temperature and humidity should be taken into consideration before the test. The testing environment should be pleasant, quiet and well illuminated with proper writing desk (in case of a test where answer sheet is required to be filled up).
- Establishing rapport is the first thing that examiners are advised to do when giving a test to an individual or a group. 'Rapport is a comfortable, relaxed, unconstrained, mutually accepting interaction between persons' (Reber and Reber 2001: 597), especially between an examinee and an examiner. It is essential requirement to motivate examinees to cooperate during testing. It is more important in individual testing and particularly when examinees are children. Failure in establishing rapport may cause anxiety, hostility, and uncooperative behavior in examinees.
- The scoring of the test should follow the pattern as specified in the test manual. If scoring is not numerical, the method of interpretation should also follow the guidelines as given in the test manual.

Thus, a psychological test is a standardized instrument in the sense that it

provides well defined procedure and instructions, the items used in the test are reliable and valid and the test depicts scores in terms of standardized scores. At present, when we have access to computer assisted test administration and scoring, the accuracy and precision in administration will require proper training and practice of the examiner both on technical and human grounds.

Report Writing

After administration of a psychological test, the findings are to be presented in the form of a report. Report should be written clearly. The report should be properly divided into sections and subsections and the findings should be tabulated wherever required.

The report should be written in passive voice. For example, instead of writing ‘I gave the test booklet to the examinee’, one should write, ‘the test booklet was given to the examinee’. The report should be written in a standard format.

Being Qualified and Trained in Psychological Testing

There are two aspects of being trained in psychological testing:

- Having technical and theoretical knowledge of psychological testing and its applications
- Having skills necessary for the application of psychological testing, for example communication skills, being a good observer and empathetic listener, etc.

The above aspects are briefly discussed as follows:

a) Technical and Theoretical Knowledge

Some basic components of this knowledge are:

- i) Knowledge of test construction
- ii) Efficiency in application
- iii) Knowledge and efficiency in scoring and interpretation

i) Knowledge of test construction

Today testing is required in every field: schools, industries, selection agencies, hospitals, special education centers, rehabilitation centers and various other organizations. A psychologist may face the task of choosing a test from the available tests or developing a test as the situation demands. In both the situations knowledge of test construction is mandatory. If one needs to select a test, one should have the knowledge of basics of test construction. How the test is developed? Whether it has proper norms or it is standardized, what is the method of scoring, etc. All this information requires technical knowledge about the test construction process. Otherwise, decision of choosing will be fraught with biased assumptions. The theoretical knowledge pertains not only to the selection of test, but also to the construction of tests. One might face such a situation when no test is available, or the available test is outdated, or not suitable culturally. Suppose you are required to make an index of happiness of people in your country or your state or city. How to prepare

such an index? You come to know that one such procedure is available in some other country. But the definition of happiness may differ from one country to the other. At one place, it may be family which is primary source of happiness to persons, but at the other, it may be secure future and material prosperity. Thus, one might decide to prepare a questionnaire to study the level of happiness.

ii) Efficiency in application

Which measure one should choose if one is find out whether a child has learning disability or not. One might need a range of procedures – paper pencil test (test of learning and intelligence), observations, interviews with the child, parents and teachers. Which test one should choose verbal or non-verbal, some qualitative approach or quantitative or both, whether the test is fit for the cultural background. These decisions need not only theoretical knowledge but insight on the part of the investigator which comes with knowledge, practice and experience.

iii) Efficiency in Scoring and Interpretation

Scoring procedures in testing are developed through rigorous statistical procedures. While using psychological tests, one is required to have sound knowledge of statistical principles applied in psychological testing. How the reliability and the validity of the test has been calculated? How the norms of the test have been developed? Knowledge of these technical aspects helps both in construction, selection, revision and adaptation of a test. Interpretation is an essential aspect after scoring which also involves explaining the significance of the scores. What does it mean for a person who gets IQ score of 94? To fulfill all these purposes, an appropriate explanation is an essential requirement from the part of the investigator.

b) Developing Skills

The work of a psychologist is more like an artist. S/he needs to observe, listen, feel and then say something as less as possible. Observation here is not only a method used to study a specific problem. It should be developed as a habit. How to see things: people talking to each other in buses, trains, or offices; youngsters chatting outside a mall, people writing their views in newspapers and magazines, people behaving with each other- in families, in offices, in traffic, nothing should go unnoticed. It need not be a deliberate exercise once it is developed as a habit.

‘A psychologist should be a good writer’, said a wise man. Yes, whatever you observe pen it down. Psychology is a science in the methods it uses, but it is essentially an art in its application. This art will develop gradually when you observe and contemplate and develop the habit of writing things systematically. After observation, another important skill is communication skills. Psychologists working as therapists, counsellors, trainers or psychometricians require communication with others. Communication is a chain of events from the speaker to the Listener. The chain of events involves

Production → Transmission → Reception
(Encoding) (Decoding)

Thus, communication involves other mind, a message (information) a code (language) and a channel (written-visual, spoken-auditory) through which information is transmitted. A psychologist should learn to be a good listener before learning to be a good speaker. S/he should learn where and when to speak and where not to. Being just a listener is not sufficient; a psychologist should be an empathetic listener. S/he should feel what others are feeling.

Psychologists should be sensitive to the cultural differences. Various behaviors have their roots in the cultural milieu of a person. The way people talk, greet, their eating habits and sometimes their sensitivity to their surroundings is affected by the environment they live in. If a psychologist is not sensitive to the cultural and environmental factors, there will be no meaning of the inferences drawn from observations and testing, and ultimately will be harmful for the individuals and society at large.

Knowledge of ethical principles during testing is also expected from a trained psychologist. Ethical guidelines for testing issued from time to time are called ethical principles and code of conduct. Psychologist should comply with these principles to avoid any mistake in research and testing. In general, we can phrase principles of ethical treatment as,

- 1) Right to safety
- 2) Right to respectful treatment
- 3) Right to confidentiality
- 4) Right to be informed – technically called informed consent – an examinee should be informed about the nature of the test, risk involved, purpose, and use of information of the test beforehand and only if s/he agrees the examiner should proceed with testing. Examinee should also get informed about the results of the study and use of the test findings.

All the above rights of examinees should be respected during testing and research. In a nutshell, a psychologist should take responsibility of working with humans or animals very honestly that will serve the purpose well for both the examiner and the examinee.

The guideline for the psychological tests as per the syllabus of BPCC-112 is given as below:

Note: You are supposed to attempt any two of the following, in your practicum notebook.

1) Work Motivation

Motivation can be described as the psychological processes that arouse and direct goal-directed behavior, a set of forces that cause people to behave in certain ways and the force that helps action along a particular direction and towards a particular end in the individual. There are various theories of motivation. One of them is Acquired-Needs Theory by McClelland that states that three needs—achievement, affiliation, and power—are major motives determining people's behavior. Need for achievement can be described as a basic human need that concerns issues of excellence, competition, challenging goals, persistence, and overcoming difficulties. Need for Power can be described as basic human need

to make an impact on others, influence others, change people or events, and make a difference in life and need for Affiliation can be described as basic human need to establish and maintain warm, close, intimate relationships with other people. Motivation can be measured using various tests.

In any work place or organization, motivated employees are more likely to be productive and goal-oriented. Employees need to remain motivated in order to get the things done and achieve their targets. Motivation is also associated with other related personality traits such as achievement, commitment, and goal orientation. The Study Center may use any of the psychological tests which are used to measure the work related motivation. We are going to give you an example of : *Work Motivation Questionnaire*, developed by K.G.Aggarwal (2012). It consists of 26 items and measures the six dimensions of motivation, namely, *Dependence, Organizational Orientation, Work Group Relations, Psychological Work Incentives, Material Incentives and Job Situation*.

The scale is rated as Likert type rated on five points scale, where a score of 5 is assigned to the most positive response and 1 to the extreme negative response. The reliability co-efficient of the tool by Spearman Brown formula was 0.994, which is significant at 0.01 level of significance. The method of the scoring and interpretation is present in the manual of the practical in detail.

Name of the Test: *Work Motivation Questionnaire*

Problem: *To Assess the level of work motivation among the employees of an organization.*

Materials Required: Work Motivation Questionnaire, paper and pencil.

Procedure:

Administration: The test is to be administered on the participant and scores are to be calculated a detail of test administration is required to be mentioned in this section.

Result: Manual of the test may be referred to for further scoring and interpreting of the result in this section.

Discussion: You are supposed to discuss the results obtained in Work Motivation questionnaire in this section. Follow the manual to analyze, interpret and discuss your score in this section.

2) Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described as the level of employees' satisfaction towards his/her job. It refers to the level of contentment of employees for their job. Such contentment may be in terms of cognitive (evaluative), affective (or emotional), and behavioral components. So, job satisfaction can be explained as positive emotional state of employees based on the individual's appraisal of their job. An individual may be satisfied from his/her job at a global level (overall job) or at the facet level (certain aspects of the job).

Job satisfaction can be measured in terms of employees' attitudes, behaviors and their response. The Study Center may use any of the psychological tests

which are used to measure the job satisfaction. We are going to give you an example of: *Job Satisfaction Scale* developed by Singh and Sharma (1986).

The Job Satisfaction Scale was designed by Singh and Sharma (1986). Which consists of 30 statements. Each statement has five alternatives. The scale has both positive and negative statements. Items at Sr. No. 4, 13, 20, 21, 27 and 28 are negative and others are all positive. The positive statements carry a weightage of 4,3,2,1,0 and the negative ones a weightage of 0,1,2,3,4. The total scores give quick measure of the satisfaction/dissatisfaction of an employee towards his/her job. The higher is the score, the more satisfaction towards the job and the lower is the score shows less satisfaction towards the job. The test retest reliability of the scale is 0.978.

Name of the Test: *Job Satisfaction Scale*

Problem: *To Assess the level of job satisfaction among the employees of an organization.*

Materials Required: Job Satisfaction Scale, paper and pencil.

Procedure:

Administration: The test is to be administered on the participant and scores are to be calculated a detail of test administration is required to be mentioned in this section.

Result: Manual of the test may be referred to for further scoring and interpreting of the result in this section.

Discussion: You are supposed to discuss the results obtained in Job Satisfaction Scale in this section. Follow the manual to analyze, interpret and discuss your score in this section.

3) Job Stress

Job stress or work stress is a type of physical and emotional response that occurs when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker. Such mismatch of the employees' expertise and the job role creates excessive pressure leading to harmful effects on the physiological as well as psychological health of the individual. At times, the employees feel work stress when they can't cope with pressures of targets and other issues. The job of an employee may also lead to stress, when there are high expectations and priorities assigned to them by the employers. The clashes between ego and personality type of employees also leads to job stress. Many a times, the fear of losing a source of income can also lead to job stress.

The Study Center may use any of the psychological tests which are used to measure the job stress. We are going to give you an example of: *Occupational Stress Index*.

The Occupational Stress index (OSI) was developed by Dr A.K. Srivastava and Dr. A.P. Singh (1984). The scale consists of 46 items, comprising 28 'true-keyed' and 18 'false-keyed' and each of which is rated on a five-point scale. The items are related to various dimensions of the job life which cause stress in some way or the other such as role- overload, role-ambiguity, role conflict, group and

political pressure, responsibility for persons, under participation, powerlessness, poor peer relationship, intrinsic impoverishment, low status, strenuous working conditions and unprofitability. The reliability index ascertained by split half (odd-even) method and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the scale as a whole were found to be 0.935 and 0.90 respectively.

Name of the Test: *Occupational Stress Index*

Problem: *To Assess the level of job stress among the employees of an organization.*

Materials Required: Occupational Stress Index, paper and pencil.

Procedure:

Administration: The test is to be administered on the participant and scores are to be calculated and a detail of test administration is required to be mentioned in this section.

Result: Manual of the test may be referred to for further scoring and interpreting of the result in this section.

Discussion: You are supposed to discuss the results obtained in Occupational Stress Index in this section. Follow the manual to analyze, interpret and discuss your score in this section.

TITLE PAGE FOR PRACTICUM NOTEBOOK

IGNOU

BA PSYCHOLOGY

Programme Code : BA

Course Code : BPCC-112

Title of the Course : Organizational Behaviour

Name & Enrolment of the Learner :

Address:

Phone No.:

Email:

Study Centre Name/Code/Address:

Regional Centre:

Date:

Signature of the Learner

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Ms/ Mr. _____
_____ of BA Psychology has conducted and successfully completed the practical
work in BPCC-112 Practicum: Organizational Behaviour.

Signature of the Learner**Signature of Academic Counsellor**

Name:

Name:

Enrolment No.:

Designation:

Name of the Study Centre:

Place:

Regional Centre:

Date:

Place:

Date:

ignou
THE PEOPLE'S
UNIVERSITY

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This is to acknowledge that Ms./Mr.
..... Enrollment No. of BA Program has submitted
the Practicum Notebook at the study centre,
Regional Centre

Date:

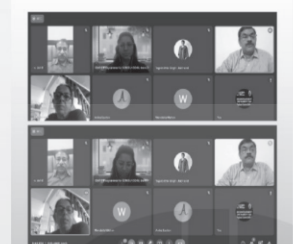
Signature (with stamp)
(Coordinator, Study Centre)

IGNOU DIGI NEWS

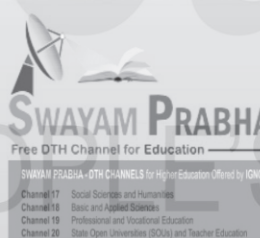
12th May 2022
SCET

Indira Gandhi National Open University
School of Engineering and Technology
One Day Webinar
Development of Technology in India since Independence
On National Technology Day

12th May 2022
RC- Delhi 1
Monitoring of IGNOU-Guest, Guyana Counselling Session of DWED Programme



12th May 2022
RC- Mumbai
Monitoring B.Ed workshop



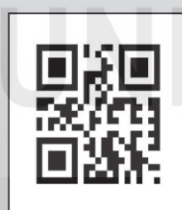
online_admission



eGyanKosh



eContent App



www.ignou.ac.in



Facebook



Twitter



Instagram

QR Code generated for
quick access by Students

IGNOU website
eGyanKosh
e-Content APP
Facebook (@officialPageIGNOU)
Twitter (@OfficialIGNOU)
Instagram (officialpageignou)
On line admission

**Like us, follow-us on the University
Facebook Page, Twitter Handle and Instagram**

To get regular updates on Placement Drives, Admissions,
Examinations etc.

www.ignou.ac.in



ignou
THE PEOPLE'S
UNIVERSITY