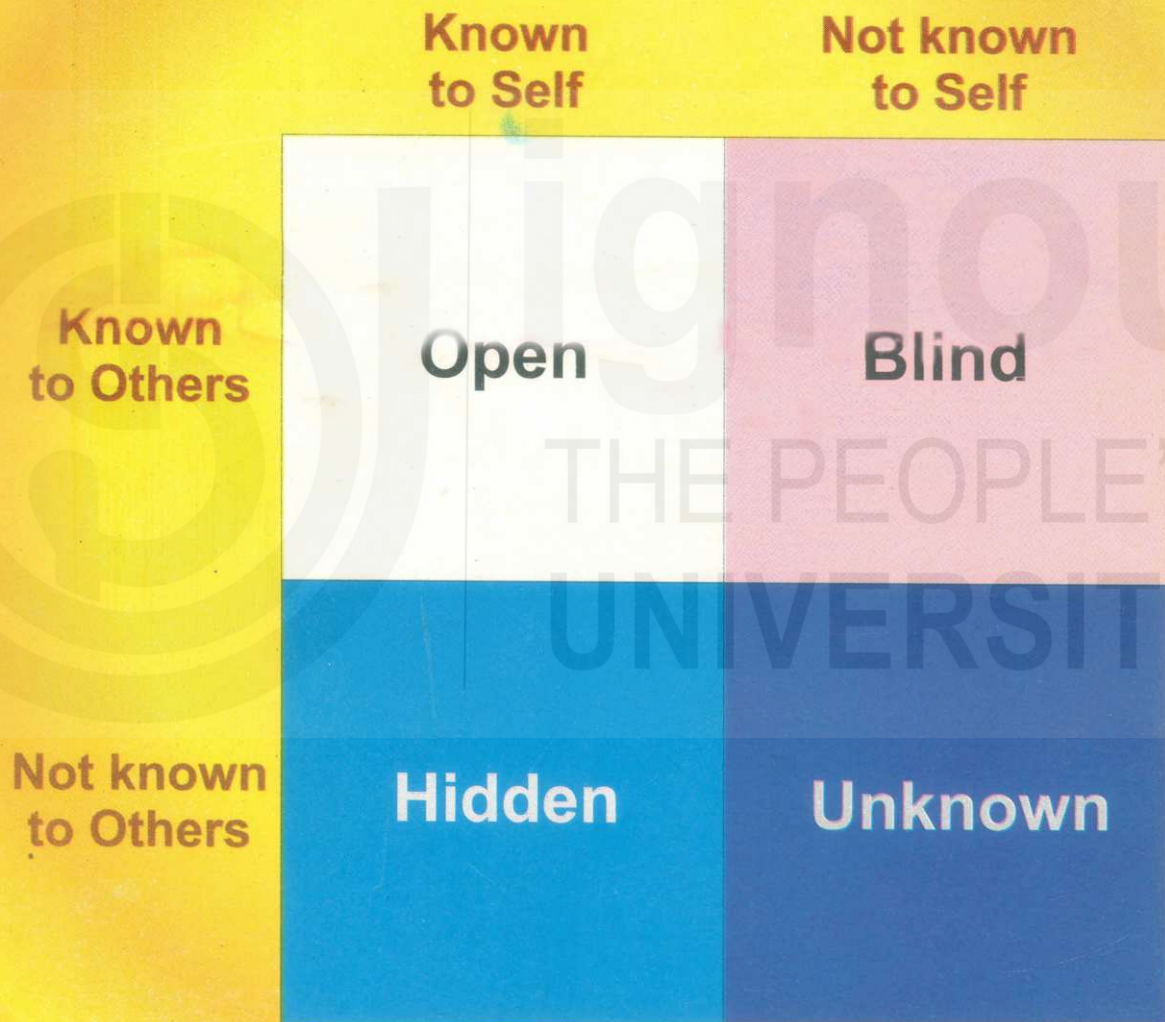


THE JOHARI WINDOW



“शिक्षा मानव को बन्धनों से मुक्त करती है और आज के युग में तो यह लोकतंत्र की भावना का आधार भी है। जन्म तथा अन्य कारणों से उत्पन्न जाति एवं वर्गगत विषमताओं को दूर करते हुए मनुष्य को इन सबसे ऊपर उठाती है।”

—इन्दिरा गांधी



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“Education is a liberating force, and in our age it is also a democratising force, cutting across the barriers of caste and class, smoothing out inequalities imposed by birth and other circumstances.”

—Indira Gandhi

Block

4

LEARNING PROCESS AND MOTIVATION IN ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR

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BLOCK 4 INTRODUCTION

Learning is a basic human psychological process and is involved in a broad spectrum of organisational behaviours ranging from developing new vocational skills, changing the way people do their jobs, to managing employees in ways that bring about greater productivity. For the same reason, scientists in the field of organisational behaviour are extremely interested in understanding the process of learning i.e. both how it occurs and how it can be applied to the effective functioning of organisations.

In **Unit 1** we will also discuss the different theories of learning and principles governing the learning process. The **Unit 2** emphasises the new approach is being tried to motivate the employees which is known as 'Organisational Behaviour Management'. The principles of psychology are applied to analyse the behaviour and attempt at developing and evaluating the performance. **Unit 3** focuses on definition and meaning of motivation, the different theories of motivation in the organisational context and the role of motivation in managing employee behaviour in organisations. **Unit 4** discusses the typical processes used by organisations to motivate the employees to a higher level so that they contribute to higher productivity and ensure higher morale.

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UNIT 1 PRINCIPLES AND PROCESS OF LEARNING

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Definition and Meaning of Learning
- 1.3 Theories of Learning
 - 1.3.1 Behaviouristic Theories
 - 1.3.2 Classical Conditioning
 - 1.3.3 Operant Conditioning
 - 1.3.4 Cognitive Theories
 - 1.3.5 Cognitive Mapping
- 1.4 Social Learning Theory
 - 1.4.1 Contemporary Social Learning Perspective of Reinforcement and Punishment
 - 1.4.2 Cognitive Factors in Social Learning
 - 1.4.3 Behaviours that can be Learned through Modeling
 - 1.4.4 Self Efficacy Effects Behaviour
- 1.5 Principles of Learning
 - 1.5.1 Reinforcement
 - 1.5.2 Schedules of Reinforcement
 - 1.5.3 Punishment
 - 1.5.4 Extinction
- 1.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.7 Unit End Questions
- 1.8 Glossary
- 1.9 Suggested Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Learning is a basic human psychological process and is involved in a broad spectrum of organisational behaviours ranging from developing new vocational skills, changing the way people do their jobs, to managing employees in ways that bring about greater productivity. For the same reason, scientists in the field of organisational behaviour are extremely interested in understanding the process of learning i.e. both how it occurs and how it can be applied to the effective functioning of organisations. Hence in the following paragraph we shall define learning and discuss about the key component of learning i.e. change in the behaviour and how this change will manifest itself into the modification of the behaviour. We will also discuss in this unit the different theories of learning and then talk about the principles governing the learning process.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the definition and meaning of learning;

- Understand and analyse the various theories that explain the process of learning;
- Elucidate the Theories of Learning;
- Explain behaviouristic theories and cognitive mapping;
- Define social learning;
- Elucidate the social learning theory;
- Explain cognitive factors in social learning;
- Elucidate the principles of learning; and
- Describe the main principles of learning and how they help shape human behaviour.

1.2 DEFINITION AND MEANING OF LEARNING

How individuals learn is an important component of organisational behaviour. If a manager wants to predict and manage the behaviour of his employees, it is important for him to understand how people learn and how that learning translates into behaviour. Learning is defined as “any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience”. It is a continuous process and human beings are always undergoing the process of learning as a result of their interactions with the environment in which they operate.

The key component in learning is its outcome i.e. ‘change in behaviour’. The change may be positive or negative from the organisational point of view. For instance, people may learn negative or unfavourable behaviours like resistance and absenteeism as a result of their experiences, as well as favourable behaviours like increased productivity. Whether the outcome is favourable or unfavourable depends on their experiences as well as how they process them.

It is also important for the change that has occurred to manifest itself in behavioural modification. That is, learning has to be accompanied by a change in actions. Any change that occurs in people’s thought processes or attitudes does not constitute learning unless it is accompanied by change in behaviour.

The change in behaviour has to be an outcome of experience. Experience may be acquired directly, through observation or practice, or indirectly through reading or listening to another person’s experience.

Finally, the change that has occurred has to be permanent to understand that learning has taken place. A temporary change in behaviour as a result of tiredness or any other factor does not constitute learning.

To sum up, one can consider that learning has taken place, when there is a change in a person’s behaviour as a result of his experiences and when the change manifests itself in the form of permanent behavioural modification.

1.3 THEORIES OF LEARNING

The theories of learning explain the processes by which people can acquire patterns of behaviour and can be classified under three main heads. These are Behaviouristic Theories (including classical conditioning and operant conditioning), Cognitive Theories and the Social Learning Theory.

1.3.1 Behaviouristic Theories

Behaviouristic theories or Behaviourism constitute the traditional theories of Learning. These theories were propounded by Ivan Pavlov and John B. Watson.

The behaviourists attribute learning to the association between stimulus and response. Behaviouristic theories are also called the *connectionist theories of learning* because of their emphasis on the connection between the stimulus and the response. They mainly deal with the role played by *conditioning* in the process of learning.

1.3.2 Classical Conditioning

The theory of classical conditioning grew out of the experiments conducted by Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov in the early 1990s. As a part of the experiment, Pavlov performed a simple surgical procedure on a dog, which allowed him to accurately measure the amount of saliva it secreted. When Pavlov presented the dog with meat, the dog showed a significant increase in salivation. At the next stage, he rang a bell without offering any meat, and the dog showed no change in the amount of saliva secreted. Then Pavlov proceeded to ringing the bell while presenting the meat to the dog. After sometime, the dog started showing an increase in the saliva secreted simply on hearing the bell, even without the meat being presented. This indicated that the dog had become classically conditioned to associate the ringing of the bell with meat, and respond to it.

In terms of the theory, the meat was an unconditioned stimulus and the salivation was an unconditioned response. Whenever the dog was offered the meat it responded by salivating. The bell was a conditioned stimulus. It had no connection to the response by itself initially, but after being associated with the unconditioned stimulus, that is the presentation of meat, it eventually caused the dog to salivate even when it was presented alone. The last concept is called conditional response.

Thus, classical conditioning can be defined as a "*type of conditioning in which an individual responds to some stimulus that would not ordinarily produce such a response.*" It is a process in which a formerly neutral stimulus, when paired with an unconditioned stimulus, becomes a conditioned stimulus that elicits a conditioned response. It describes the link between a stimulus and a response (S – R).

Classical conditioning can sometimes be observed even within the organisational context. For example, whenever the top management is due to visit a factory the factory is cleaned up and the employees are expected to come to work dressed neatly. It is sometimes observed that the employees come to work dressed neatly whenever the factory is cleaned even if the top management is not due to visit. In this case, the cleaning of the factory is a conditioned stimulus the dressing of the employees is the conditioned response.

Classical conditioning has been criticized as being passive. It only represents a very small part of human learning and is highly dependent on being offered a stimulus. In other words, it only deals with unlearned or automatic reactions or reflexive behaviour; whereas most experts agree that human behaviour is much more complex. This led to the emergence of operant conditioning.

1.3.3 Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning differs from classical conditioning in that it deals with voluntary or learned behaviour as against reflexive or unlearned behaviour. Proponents of operant conditioning like B.F Skinner argue that people learn to behave in a certain way in order to get something they want or to avoid something they do not want.

Operant conditioning may be defined as a “*type of conditioning in which desired voluntary behaviour leads to a reward or prevents a punishment.*” According to Skinner, creating pleasant consequences to follow a certain types of behaviour would increase the frequency of that behaviour. On the other hand, a negative consequence of a behaviour would discourage the person from repeating that behaviour.

Basically, the main aspect in which operant conditioning differs from classical conditioning is that, in classical conditioning, the stimulus is controlled to result in a certain response. But in operant conditioning, the stimulus situation does not elicit the response but acts as a cue for a person to emit a certain response. The main factor in operant conditioning is what happens as a result of the response.

For example, in an organisation, if a person is rewarded for higher productivity, the person will be encouraged to work harder to increase his productivity. The person associates working harder with getting a reward, and this is a learned behaviour. In this case, working harder is the response and the reward is the stimulus (R – S). Similarly, if a person is penalised for coming late to office, the person would try to avoid being late in future.

Thus, operant conditioning has great significance in managing human behaviour in an organisational context. It helps managers identify ways to encourage positive behaviour in employees and discourage negative behaviour.

1.3.4 Cognitive Theories

Much of the research on classical and operant conditioning was done using animals as subjects. Trundling Pavlov and Skinner are known for making the assumption that you need not talk about the mental processes that take place while learning. Pavlov believed that conditioned behaviour could be understood as associated neural connections. He feels that the neural circuits from the body to the brain account for the mental activity of which we are not aware.

However, there are other psychologists who have pursued the contribution of awareness, thought and problem solving ability to learning. Here we shall discuss about the work of psychologists who have focussed on the different kinds of learning that require thought. This approach, cognitive learning, takes a closer look at the ways human beings approach problems, but it also attributes the capacity for expectations and cognitive structures to animals. The cognitive approaches to learning are taking a central role in the psychology of learning these days.

1.3.5 Cognitive Mapping

Edward Tolman (1932) suggested that mental responses (which intervene between overt stimuli and responses) influence learning. He said that the learner develops

a cognitive map which is an internal mental representation of the learning individual. When individuals are performing a specific task in a certain environment, they attend completely to that specific task only. But they also form a representation of the entire setting. This internal representation is the cognitive map. Which includes spatial relationship of where the goal is and how to get there and what to expect when it is reached.

This concept was demonstrated by using rats i.e. the rats were trained to swim through a maze to a goal box. Once the rats had learned to paddle through the maze without making reasons, the water was drained out and again the rats were put into the maze box. The muscle movement which was necessarily for swimming were now not been used but nonetheless the rats could run through the maze to the goal. i.e there was a perfect transfer of learning. The maze through water and to utilising the same learning to run in a dry maze.

The rats had learned more than a series of stimulus response connections that is they also learned a spatial representations of the maze and the goal box. They could find the goal again even when a different set of response was required.

As with the swimming rats, individuals performance in a situation also represents only part of the learning that has occurred i.e. when employees are rewarded for the good behaviour they have performed, they tends to display it more often. But along with the learning, there are other things they have also processed like what kind of performance will lead to reward, or in which situations will the reward be given etc.

The idea that learning may not be directly observed in behaviour is a powerful one. It warns us not to assume that performance is a complete representations of what a person knows. Much of what is learned during childhood may never affect performance until adulthood. For example, many of the things we learn are usually through observation and this learning aids us when a similar situation occurs and we have to deal with it. Thus all the latent learning that was stored within us will come to our help when we are faced with a similar kind of task.

Cognitive interpretations are more appropriate in cases where people use what they have learned by observation in choosing a course of action. Thus cognitive interpretations have the advantage of emphasising human flexibility the fact that the same item of knowledge can lead to a quite different behaviour, depending on circumstances.

Tolman and his students have studied about cognitive learning using lower species like rats but Wolfgang Kohler worked with chimpanzees whose cognitive abilities are more or less like the human being. Kohler's work done in 1920's is considered as highly important one, in which the problems that Kohler set for his chimpanzees had some room for insight, as no part of the problem was hidden for the new of the animal. The chimpanzee was placed in an enclosed area and fruit was kept out of reach. The animal had to use same kind of tool to reach the fruit. When the chimpanzee could solve the problem in the way it was thought if we could say it had some insight. Thus it was found that the solution was sudden and that the learning could also be transferred to other novel situations.

Therefore there are three critical aspects of the chimpanzee's solution:

- 1) Its suddenness

- 2) Its availability once discovered
- 3) Its transferability

These aspects are in opposition to the classical theorist's notion that trial and error method is adopted to learn a particular task. Instead Kohler says that the chimpanzee's solution reflects a mental trial and error. That is, the animal forms a mental representation of the problem, manipulates components of the representations until it hits upon a solution and then enacts the solution in the real world. The solution appears to be sudden because the researchers do not have access to the chimpanzee's mental process. The solution is available thereafter because a mental representations pursuits over time ad the solutions is transferable because the representations is either abstract enough to cover more that the original solution or possible to apply it to a novel situation.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define and discuss the meaning of learning.

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- 2) Explain the behaviouristic theory of learning.

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- 3) State the theory of classical conditioning.

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- 4) In what ways operant conditioning theory is different from classical conditioning theory?

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5) Elucidate cognitive theory of learning.

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6) Discuss cognitive mapping as per Thorndike law of effect.

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1.4 SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

The social learning theory states that people learn not only from their own experiences, but also from observing what happens to other people and even just by being told about something. It is in effect an extension of the operant conditioning theory in that it subscribes to the idea that behaviour is a function of consequence. However, it goes beyond operant conditioning by recognising the role of perception in learning.

General Principles of Social Learning Theory

- 1) People can learn by observing the behaviour of others and the outcomes of those behaviours.
- 2) Learning can occur without a change in behaviour. Behaviourists say that learning has to be represented by a permanent change in behaviour, in contrast social learning theorists say that because people can learn through observation alone, their learning may not necessarily be shown in their performance. Learning may or may not result in a behaviour change.
- 3) Cognition plays a role in learning. Over the last 30 years social learning theory has become increasingly cognitive in its interpretation of human learning. Awareness and expectations of future reinforcements or punishments can have a major effect on the behaviours that people exhibit.
- 4) Social learning theory can be considered a bridge or a transition between behaviourist learning theories and cognitive learning theories.

Modelling is one method of social learning that contributes to acquisition of behaviour. The environment reinforces and punishes modeling depending upon the behaviour to be acquired.

People are often reinforced for modeling the behaviour of others. Bandura suggested that the environment also reinforces modeling.

This is in several possible ways:

- 1) The observer is reinforced by the model. For example a student who changes dress to fit in with a certain group of students has a strong likelihood of being accepted and thus reinforced by that group.
- 2) The observer is reinforced by a third person. The observer might be modeling the actions of someone else, for example, an outstanding class leader or student. The teacher notices this and compliments and praises the observer for modeling such behaviour thus reinforcing that behaviour.
- 3) The imitated behaviour itself leads to reinforcing consequences. Many behaviours that we learn from others produce satisfying or reinforcing results. For example, a student in my multimedia class could observe how the extra work a classmate does is fun. This student in turn would do the same extra work and also receive enjoyment.
- 4) Consequences of the model's behaviour affect the observer's behaviour vicariously. This is known as vicarious reinforcement. This is where in the model is reinforced for a response and then the observer shows an increase in that same response. Bandura illustrated this by having students watch a film of a model hitting a inflated clown doll.

One group of children saw the model being praised for such action. Without being reinforced, the group of children began to also hit the doll.

1.4.1 Contemporary Social Learning Perspective of Reinforcement and Punishment

- 1) Contemporary theory proposes that both reinforcement and punishment have indirect effects on learning. They are not the sole or main cause.
- 2) Reinforcement and punishment influence the extent to which an individual exhibits a behaviour that has been learned.
- 3) The expectation of reinforcement influences cognitive processes that promote learning. Therefore attention plays a critical role in learning. And attention is influenced by the expectation of reinforcement. An example would be, where the teacher tells a group of students that what they will study next is not on the test. Students will not pay attention, because they do not expect to know the information for a test.

1.4.2 Cognitive Factors in Social Learning

Social learning theory has cognitive factors as well as behaviourist factors (actually operant factors).

- 1) **Learning without performance:** Bandura makes a distinction between learning through observation and the actual imitation of what has been learned.
- 2) **Cognitive processing during learning:** Social learning theorists contend that attention is a critical factor in learning.
- 3) **Expectations:** As a result of being reinforced, people form expectations about the consequences that future behaviours are likely to bring. They expect certain behaviours to bring reinforcements and others to bring punishment.

The learner needs to be aware however, of the response reinforcements and response punishment. Reinforcement increases a response only when the learner is aware of that connection.

- 4) **Reciprocal causation:** Bandura proposed that behaviour can influence both the environment and the person. In fact each of these three variables, the person, the behaviour, and the environment can have an influence on each other.
- 5) **Modeling:** There are different types of models. There is the live model, and actual person demonstrating the behaviour. There can also be a symbolic model, which can be a person or action portrayed in some other medium, such as television, videotape, computer programs etc.

1.4.3 Behaviours that can be Learned Through Modeling

Many behaviours can be learned, at least partly, through modeling. Examples that can be cited are, students can watch parents read, students can watch the demonstrations of mathematics problems, or seen someone acting bravely in a fearful situation. Aggression can be learned through models. Much research indicates that children become more aggressive when they observed aggressive or violent models. Moral thinking and moral behaviour are influenced by observation and modeling. This includes moral judgments regarding right and wrong which can in part, develop through modeling.

Conditions necessary for effective modeling to occur

Bandura mentions four conditions that are necessary before an individual can successfully model the behaviour of someone else:

- 1) **Attention:** the person must first pay attention to the model.
- 2) **Retention:** the observer must be able to remember the behaviour that has been observed. One way of increasing this is using the technique of rehearsal.
- 3) **Motor reproduction:** the third condition is the ability to replicate the behaviour that the model has just demonstrated. This means that the observer has to be able to replicate the action, which could be a problem with a learner who is not ready developmentally to replicate the action. For example, little children have difficulty doing complex physical motion.
- 4) **Motivation:** the final necessary ingredient for modeling to occur is motivation, learners must want to demonstrate what they have learned. Remember that since these four conditions vary among individuals, different people will reproduce the same behaviour differently.

Effects of modeling on behaviour

The following are the effects of modeling on behaviour:

- 1) Modeling teaches new behaviours.
- 2) Modeling influences the frequency of previously learned behaviours.
- 3) Modeling may encourage previously forbidden behaviours.
- 4) Modeling increases the frequency of similar behaviours. For example a student might see a friend excel in basketball and he tries to excel in football because he is not tall enough for basketball.

- 5) **Self efficacy**
- 6) People are more likely to engage in certain behaviours when they believe they are capable of executing those behaviours successfully. This means that they will have high self-efficacy. In layman's terms self-efficacy could be looked as self confidence towards learning.

1.4.4 Self Efficacy Affects Behaviour

- 1) **Joy of activities:** individuals typically choose activities they feel they will be successful in doing.
- 2) **Effort and persistence:** individuals will tend to put more effort and activities and behaviours they consider to be successful in achieving.
- 3) **Learning and achievement:** students with high self-efficacy tend to be better students and achieve more.
- 4) **Factors in the Development of Self Efficacy:** In general students typically have a good sense of what they can and cannot do, therefore they have fairly accurate opinions about their own self-efficacy. In my multimedia program, the challenge is to increase student self-efficacy. There are many factors which affect self efficacy. Some of these factors can be; previous successes and failures, messages received from others, and successes and failures of others. Note example of

Self Regulation

Self-regulation has come to be more emphasised in social learning theory. Self-regulation is when the individual has his own ideas about what is appropriate or inappropriate behaviour and chooses actions accordingly.

There are several aspects of self regulation:

- Setting standards and goals
- Self observation
- Self judge
- Self reaction

Promoting self-regulation can be an important technique. This is usually done by teaching the individual to reward himself after doing the needed behaviour. For example, a graduate student will tell himself to complete a certain chapter before taking a break and relaxing.

Self Instructions

An effective strategy is to teach learners to give themselves instructions that guide their behaviour. There are five steps to achieve this goal:

- Cognitive modeling:
- Overt external guidance
- Overt self guidance
- Faded, overt self guidance
- Covert self instruction

These are two ways that people can control their own behaviour. First they monitor and observe their own behaviour, sometimes even scoring behaviour. Secondly, people are also able to change their behaviour by reinforcing themselves, by giving or withholding reinforcement.

According to the social learning theory, people learn not only from the actual consequences that they have experienced in response to their behaviour, but also from what they perceive the consequences might be if they behave in a certain way. For instance, if a person sees his co-worker being rewarded for good behaviour, he will learn to adopt the same behaviour himself to attain the consequence, which is the reward.

The role of models is very important in social learning as people learn from observing the model. There are four aspects to social learning:

- i) **Attention Processes:** People learn from a model only when the model manages to capture their attention. People usually learn from models that are attractive, are similar to them or operating in a similar situation as they are, or are repeatedly available.
- ii) **Retention Processes:** The model's influence on a person determines how well the person retains what he has learnt even when the model is no longer in front of him.
- iii) **Motor Reproduction Processes:** After the person observes a new behaviour from the model, the behaviour must then be implemented. This shows efficacy of what has been learnt.
- iv) **Reinforcement Processes:** People will be motivated to repeatedly exhibit the modelled behaviour if they are rewarded for it. Therefore, behaviours that receive positive reinforcement will be learnt better and repeated.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Elucidate the theory of social learning.

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- 2) State the general principles of social learning.

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3) What is modeling?

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4) Discuss the contemporary social learning perspectives.

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5) Delineate the cognitive factors in social learning.

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6) What conditions are required for effective learning to occur under social learning.

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7) Discuss the effects of modeling on behaviour.

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1.5 PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

We have learnt in the previous section that whether behaviour is learnt or not depends on the response to the behaviour exhibited. In this context, the concepts of Reinforcement and Punishment play an important role in the learning process.

Most experts agree that reinforcement is more important than punishment. That is, people are more likely to learn to exhibit behaviour that is followed by a reward or praise than to stop exhibiting a behaviour that results in punishment. One of the important theories of reinforcement is Thorndike's Law of Effect. According to Thorndike, *"Of several responses made to the same situation, those which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction (reinforcement)...will be more likely to recur: those which are accompanied or closely followed by discomfort (punishment)...will be less likely to occur."*

The law of effect principle developed by Edward Thorndike suggested that responses closely followed by satisfaction will become firmly attached to the situation and therefore more likely to reoccur when the situation is repeated. Conversely, if the situation is followed by discomfort, the connections to the situation will become weaker and the behaviour of response is less likely to occur when the situation is repeated.

Although the Law of Effect is generally accepted to be valid, there are some exceptions to it. For instance, a person's cognitive rationalisation may neutralise the law. An inefficient employee may persist in the belief that he has high efficacy and that he is doing all he can to accomplish the goals given to him. Even when his performance falls short of the manager's expectations, he may be unresponsive to any efforts made to correct him or improve his performance because he believes that he does not need any improvement.

In addition to this, the Law of Effect has its limitations and cannot be used as an overall theory of learning, as there could be factors other than reinforcement and punishment that also affect learning. However, despite its restrictions, the Law of Effect remains as very important part of the theory of learning and can be used in *shaping* behaviour.

Shaping refers to the attempts made to mould the behaviour of individuals through some methods. In general, there are three ways in which behaviour can be shaped: Reinforcement, Punishment and Extinction.

1.5.1 Reinforcement

Reinforcement is defined as anything that increases the strength of the response and also induces repetitions of the behaviour that preceded the reinforcement. It is different from a reward. A reward is something that the person who presents it thinks is desirable. It may or may not increase the strength of the response or induce repetitions of the behaviour. For example, a manager may publicly praise an employee for finding an error in the production of factory. However, the employee may be harassed by his colleagues who are directly affected by the finding of the error. In this case, the employee may think twice in future before repeating any action that might make things difficult for him with his colleagues even though it might attract the praise of the management. Here it may be noted that the reward (the praise) has not been a reinforcer as it does not encourage the employee to repeat that behaviour.

Not only is there a difference between rewards and reinforcers, but a distinction should also be made between positive and negative reinforcers.

- 1) **Positive Reinforcement:** Positive reinforcement is anything that strengthens and increases behaviour by the *presentation of desirable consequences*. In other words, following behaviour by something pleasant is positive reinforcement. For example, giving a bonus for high productivity is positive reinforcement.
- 2) **Negative Reinforcement:** Negative reinforcement is anything that strengthens and increases behaviour by the *withdrawal or removal of unpleasant consequences*. For example consider an organisation that puts a ban on recreational activities of employees during working hours (such as not allowing them to read or check emails) due to low productivity. When productivity improves, the organisation may lift the ban and allow recreational activities in a limited form. The lifting of the ban is negative reinforcement.

1.5.2 Schedules of Reinforcement

There are two main types of schedules of reinforcement – *continuous reinforcement* and *intermittent reinforcement*. In continuous reinforcement, the desired behaviour is reinforced each time it is demonstrated. In intermittent reinforcement, the desired behaviour is reinforced often enough to make the behaviour worth repeating, but not each time it is repeated. Intermittent reinforcement can further be divided under ratio schedules (the person is reinforced after giving the desirable response a certain number of times) and interval schedules (the individual is reinforced after specific time intervals).

1.5.3 Punishment

Punishment is the act of *causing an unpleasant consequence to a response* to prevent the person from repeating that behaviour. Placing an employee on suspension for excessive absenteeism is an example of punishment. Punishment is not the same as negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcement strengthens and increases behaviour while punishment seeks to weaken and decrease behaviour.

1.5.4 Extinction

Eliminating any reinforcement that is maintaining behaviour is called extinction. For instance an organisation may announce that it wants to adopt an open door policy to encourage employees to express their opinions to the management. However the managers may not be responsive to employees who approach them to discuss problems. This lack of responsiveness causes employees to stop coming up to the managers over time. This is extinction.

Most organisational theorists subscribe to the idea that reinforcement (whether positive or negative) is more effective than punishment in modifying human behaviour. People do not like being punished, therefore excessive use of punishment can lead to rebelliousness and undesirable consequences.

- 1) **Extinction:** While conditioning is about creating a desired behaviour, it is desirable to eradicate other behaviours. This is called extinction. Natural

extinction is behaviour that have been created may become extinct if they are not fully maintained. If the stimulus is not applied and thus the response is not generated over a long period of time then probability of the conditioned behaviour occurring will decay in a given pattern. An important factor here is that conditioning must be maintained, with sufficiently frequent rehearsals and re-stimulus-and-response, for the pattern to continue over time. This implies that the underlying persona is not changed at a fundamental level, and that conversion, for example, is not a one-shot activity and requires constant attention.

- 2) **Predictability of stimulus:** If the condition has been created with regular and predictable reward or punishment, then the absence of the reward or punishment will quickly lead to extinction. If, however, the reward or punishment has been applied irregularly, then a second condition has been created where, upon receiving the stimulus, the person forecasts and imagines the reward or punishment being applied. This situation takes longer for the pattern to become extinct, as the person is now maintaining it themselves, without external stimuli. Eventually, by accident or trial the person will find that the reward or punishment does not happen and thus the behaviour gradually becomes extinct. This is one reason why gambling is so addictive. The uncertainty as to whether the person will win or lose gives opportunity for prediction (and hope) of winning.
- 3) **Extinction through accustomising:** Another way of making a behaviour extinct is to help the person become accustomed to the stimulus and hence not find it frightening or stimulating in any way.
- 4) **Desensitisation:** When a person receives a stimulus and experiences the conditioned response a number of times, then the intensity of the emotion they feel may well become dulled with familiarity. This is used in therapy for example by starting with a weak triggering, and increasing the stimulus at the speed at which the person becomes desensitised. This is also apparent in the use of pornography. A person who is stimulated by a pornographic image will find that it soon has less effect than it previously had. This leads them to seek to capture the experience with further images, and sometimes yet more erotic (and even illegal) tendencies.
- 5) **Inoculation:** Inoculation is a simple method, analogous to medical inoculation, where you present a weakened form of the experience such that the person finds it easy (and even laughably so) to resist a simulated 'attack'. When faced with the real situation, then they remember how easily they defended against the weak attack and so are better able to handle the real thing.
- 6) **Extinction through extreme experience:** A strange thing that happens sometimes is that a behaviour may become extinct not through ignoring the triggers that cause it, but actually exacerbating it to the extreme.
- 7) **Reversing breakdown:** Pavlov found, with his discovery of the three stages of breakdown, a fourth stage, where dogs faced with near-death experiences 'forgot' all of their previous conditioning (and it took Pavlov several months to reinstate them).

- 8) **Flooding:** This is used in therapy, where it is called *flooding*. A stimulus is constantly applied and more extreme responses encouraged until there is a sudden reversal and the stimulus no longer has any effect.
- 9) **Aversion therapy:** Aversion therapy uses the methods of conditioning to break a conditioned experience. Thus a behaviour that is not desirable is punished when it appears. In therapy, techniques such as electric shocks have been used, and are understandably controversial (if you have seen Stanley Kubrick's 'Clockwork Orange' then you will appreciate the potential effects). It is not clear the extent to which aversion therapy works at all.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the principles of learning?

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- 2) Define reinforcement and state its characteristics and types.

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- 3) Discuss the schedule of reinforcement.

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- 4) What is punishment?

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- 5) What is extinction? Discuss the various processes by which extinction occurs.

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1.6 LET US SUM UP

This chapter has helped you to understand the theories that explain the foundation of human behaviour – learning. A thorough understanding of the theories, process and principles of learning is an essential aspect in understanding human behaviour. Understanding human learning forms the base of behavioural management which you will learn in the next unit.

1.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Encapsulate the main theories of learning and try to analyse how each one differs from the other.
- 2) Analyse the main principles of learning and how they help shape human behaviour.
- 3) What is social learning? Elucidate the social learning theory of Bandura.
- 4) How does modeling influence learning?
- 5) What is self efficacy? Discuss its effects on behaviour.
- 6) Discuss the principles of learning.
- 7) Discuss critically the role of reinforcement in learning.
- 8) Define extinction and indicate how extinction takes place.

1.8 GLOSSARY

Learning	: A relatively permanent change in behaviour occurring as a result of experience.
Operant conditioning	: The form of learning in which people associate the consequence of their actions with the actions themselves.
Negative reinforcement	: The process by which people learn to perform acts that lead to the removal of undesired events.
Punishment	: Decreasing undesirable behaviour by following it with undesirable consequences.
Extinction	: The process through which responses that are no longer reinforced tend to gradually diminish in strength.
Schedule of reinforcement	: Rules governing, the timing and frequency of the administration of reinforcement.

1.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT 2 ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR AND MANAGEMENT

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Organisation Behaviour Management
 - 2.2.1 Organisation Behaviour Management
 - 2.2.2 Reinforcement Theory Revisited
 - 2.2.3 Organisation Behaviour Management Outcome
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- 2.7 Discipline (Eliminating Undesirable Organisation Behaviour)
 - 2.7.1 Discipline Practices in Organisations
- 2.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.9 Unit End Questions
- 2.10 Suggested Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

A new approach is being tried to motivate the employees which is known as '**Organisational Behaviour Management**'. The principles of psychology are applied to analyse the behaviour and attempt at developing and evaluating the performance. The work of Watson and Skinner are said to have a profound influence on the field of organisational behaviour management. Skinner's application of behavioural principles to instructional design serves as a starting point for the use of science of behaviour in the workplace.

Behaviour management is a style of interaction that focuses on a positive and pleasant approach which will assist in establishing interaction that will promote desirable behaviour. It serves as an effective tool in the hands of the managers to help shape and promote behaviour which is wanted by the management. In this unit we will be defining the organisation behaviour management and explain its characteristics. Then we would discuss the role of reinforcement in organisation behaviour management. Then we present how and where all this organisation behaviour management could be applied.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and describe organisation behaviour management;
- Delineate the role of Reinforcement in Organisation Behaviour Management;
- Explain how Organisation Behaviour Management Programmes can be implemented in an organisation;
- Discuss where organisation behaviour management can be applied;
- Define Discipline and delineate its characteristics as applicable to organisations; and
- Describe how it can be used effectively.

2.2 ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

Since productivity is the prime concern of any manager, managers are always looking out for ways to increase productivity.

The classical school of management thought grew out of concerns as to how to counter inefficiency and ineffectiveness. With this, the scientific management, which in other words is the science of work, came about and from then on researchers were searching for discovering better management practices and organisational designs.

But still the interest in productivity did not seem to change. Managers are exploring some recent strategies and programs to increase productivity which deal with employees' attitudes, motivation and behaviour, which ultimately reflect back on organisational productivity.

2.2.1 Organisation Behaviour Management

People tend to repeat some behaviours. The question is what encourages them to behave in a particular way. The answer is, people do what they are rewarded for. Thus, reinforcement theory suggests that people repeat behaviours that result in desirable consequences and avoid behaviours that produce undesirable outcomes. How this aspect influences in the workplace is dealt with in the following paragraph.

2.2.2 Reinforcement Theory Revisited

The reinforce theorists believe that, for performance of a particular behaviour, a desirable consequence is essential. This can be anything that satisfies an active need, or one that removes a barrier to need satisfaction. The example for the first can be a promotion, and for the second it can be flexi-hours, which gives the employee more time to spend with the family.

Further, when one wants to discourage a behaviour, the consequence should be one that is undesirable, i.e., it should be one that frustrates the need satisfaction or removes one that is actually producing satisfaction, e.g., reduction in pay or demotion.

Reinforcement theory, coupled with content theories of motivation provides management a good approach to employee motivation. It further helps the managers to understand how to shape desired behaviour by providing positively and negatively valued outcome and to encourage and discourage particular behaviours. For example, if Sheela values personal esteem that comes from others acknowledgement of her accomplishments, she should be rewarded by social recognition at an award function.

Now turning to how the learning process works, people learn to behave in certain ways because of the consequences of past behaviours. Thus it involves, coupling of a stimulus, a response and a consequence. If Ravi receives praise for his work and if this praise is pleasurable, he will continue to work hard. It is the experienced consequence that influences whether a response will be repeated the next time the stimulus is presented. When a consequence makes it more likely that a response will be repeated, reinforcement has occurred, if not extinction begins.

Thus OBM takes operant conditioning theory and systematically applies it to manage workplace behaviour. However, OBM differs from basic operant theory as it actually looks at why behaviour changes by trying to infer peoples' thoughts and thus it is quite effective.

The sequence of Operant theory is Stimulus —Response—Consequence, whereas OBM argues that behaviour can change in anticipation of future S-R-C sequences.

For example, when you are hired by a company that says it will pay you if you come to work, you go to work in anticipation of the pay. Thus anticipation of the future consequences makes it possible to influence behaviour.

Moreover, OBM recognises the importance of social learning, i.e. learning from others behaviours and their consequences. Social learning means we don't leave through personal trail and errors experiences, we learn from imitating other successful co-workers.

Organisations need employee behaviour to conform to workplace performance standards. Managers use training to improve employee's skills, increase the frequency of preferred behaviours and decrease undesirable behaviours. Social learning theory suggests that an effective strategy to achieve these objectives includes providing opportunities to observe the organisation rewarding desired workplace behaviours and punishing inappropriate behaviours.

Early learning theorists, such as B.F. Skinner believed that people learn only through behaviour based reward and punishment. Skinner's behaviour based learning theory required workplace managers to establish individualised reward schedules to modify behaviour. Called behaviourism, Skinner's learning theory contrasted with another popular learning theory called cognitive learning theory. Cognitive theorists believed that learning was a passive activity occurring through observation. Albert Bandura, proposed a theory that combined attributes of behaviourism and cognitive learning theories. Bandura's theory stated that individuals can learn by observing the rewards and punishment received by others in addition to their own experiences. Bandura's observation learning theory was renamed social learning theory in 1977 and later called social cognitive learning, beginning in 1986.

Social learning theorists believe that employees can learn appropriate workplace social behaviours by observing the organisation's response to the behaviour of other employees. Workers do not need to perform the correct behaviour in order to learn it, because they are able to practice the behaviour in their imagination. For example, an employee can imagine getting a bonus for a creative idea after observing another employee rewarded for doing so. People imitate the behaviour of those they admire or respect. This principle underlies celebrity based advertising, which assumes individuals want to copy the behaviour of popular and successful people.

As for Management Implications of this theory, workplace managers should note that employees learn acceptable social behaviours by observing the treatment of other employees under various circumstances. Managers must be consistent in their expectations of employee's social behaviour and not give favorite staff or higher-ranking staff special treatment.

Social learning theory supports the concept that managers should provide role models of appropriate behaviour. Managers can create social learning opportunities through individual rewards or praise given in public settings, such as staff meetings. Conversely, inappropriate social behaviour, such as harassment, should be punished uniformly across the workplace to build the correct social context to modify behaviour.

Management can use Social Learning Theory in Training also, as for example applying principles of social learning theory to workplace training encourages instructors to include anecdotal stories and demonstration videos or play acting exercises to reinforce concepts of appropriate and inappropriate workplace behaviour. Social learning theory supports the concept that classroom training effectiveness improves when students admire the instructor. Trainers can take advantage of this predisposition by having guest lectures from successful employees.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define organisation behaviour management.

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- 2) How is organisation behaviour management is related to operant conditioning theory?

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- 3) Discuss the application of social learning theory to organisation behaviour management.

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2.2.3 Organisation Behaviour Management Outcome

To use OBM effectively, the manager should understand how employees value certain outcomes. If not the OBM plan may backfire. A reinforcement that is intended to be positive may actually act as a punishment if the person sees it as a negative outcome. Need theory however can help the manager to select the appropriately valued consequences. Only then the organisation can be effective in implementing the OBM programme.

Since OBM does pay attention to cognitive processes, both intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes are important. *Intrinsic consequences* are “self-administered” outcomes and can function in any aspect of behaviour:

- *Positive reinforcement* (“Completing this task gives me a real feeling of accomplishment.”)
- *Negative reinforcement* (“Finishing this task removes the nagging guilt feelings I have been experiencing.”)
- *Punishment* (“I’m sorry I did a poor job on this assignment.”)
- *Extrinsic consequences* all come from outside the individual. Pay increases and promotions are extrinsic outcomes. Intrinsic and extrinsic consequences often exert joint influences on learning.

When they are operating in a similar fashion, learning can occur rapidly. A worker who performs at a high level, for example, may feel a sense of accomplishment (intrinsic) and receive a cash bonus (extrinsic). When intrinsic and extrinsic factors oppose each other, conflict ensues and motivation is impaired.

To use OBM optimally, we must consider both intrinsic and extrinsic consequences.

Intrinsic consequences are usually self-administered on a continuous reinforcement schedule (“I always feel like this when I behave this way.”). This produces rapid learning during the early learning processes. It can also result in quick extinction if the intrinsic experiences cease to occur. Edward Deco and others argue that, under certain circumstances, extrinsic reinforcement reduces the impact of intrinsic reinforcement. In an intrinsically motivating job, for example, extrinsic reinforcements can shift your focus away from you and onto the external source of reinforcement. This would reduce the reinforcing impact of intrinsic motivation.

2.2.4 Behavioural Shaping in Organisation Behaviour Management

OBM make frequent use of behavioural shaping (learning a complex behaviour through successive approximations of the desired behaviour). Shaping is easier to accomplish if one can explain the desired behaviour to the person learning it. You need to reinforce a behaviour that is at least remotely similar to the ultimate behaviour you desire. You then wait until a more similar behaviour is shown by the learner, reinforce it, wait until an even more similar behaviour is shown, and so on. Learning occurs much more rapidly when the ultimate desired behaviours and each desired step are explained to the learner.

2.3 IMPLEMENTING AN ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

2.3.1 Behaviour Intervention Plans (BIP) or Behaviour Management Invention (BMI)

Usually referred to as a Behaviour Intervention Plan, this plan is to be created once a series of interventions have been tried and have not been successful. This plan will be included in the organisational activity and becomes a legal document to help provide management services for employees. It is important to also note that this plan may be changed if it needs to be. However, in order to make changes, the management team should convene to discuss the changes and collaborate to make certain the changes are necessary and effective.

Behaviour management plans exist for a myriad of reasons, and behaviour plans should only be created if the employee's behaviour in some way or the other affects reaching the goals of an organisation. Along with the behaviour plan a functional Behaviour analysis (FBA) must be conducted. An FBA is an assessment that is conducted on the personnel and seeks to understand the target behaviour and why the behaviour occurs.

FBA should include all team members. The FBA can be done by the organisation, or by an outside behaviourist. In either case the FBA report should be discussed at the team meeting with the organisation. Once the FBA is complete, there should be a review the report. This plan becomes a part of the organisation.

2.3.2 Functional Behaviour Assessment

Functional behavioural assessment is an approach that looks beyond the overt topography of behaviour (that is, what the behaviour looks like) to focus upon identifying the factors that initiate, sustain, or end the behaviour in question. It allows us to focus on why a employee behaves in a certain way. The function of a behaviour is not considered inappropriate, rather the behaviour itself. Therefore, it is critical to not only decrease the undesired behaviour, but to teach an appropriate behaviour that serves the same function as the inappropriate behaviour.

In conducting a functional behavioural assessment, it is important that the behaviour in question be defined in concrete terms. Next, it must be determined as to whether the behaviour is a result of a skill deficit or a performance deficit. If the employees do not know how to behave appropriately in a setting, or to

display the desired skill, then this could be the result of a skill deficit. A functional behavioural assessment would answer the following questions:

- 1) Does the individual understand the behavioural expectations for the situation?
- 2) Does the individual realise that he or she is engaging in unacceptable behaviour, or has that behaviour simply become habit?
- 3) Is it within the individual's power to control the behaviour, or does he or she need support?
- 4) Does the individual have the skills necessary to perform the expected, new behaviours?

If the answers to these questions are NO, then the individual's misbehaviour is a result of a skill deficit. Behaviour management strategies should be developed to teach the individual the deficit skill, while rewarding its usage.

If the individual has the skills necessary to behave appropriately in the situation, but for some reason chooses not to use that skill or modify his/her behaviour, then the misbehaviour may be due to a performance deficit. A functional behavioural assessment would answer the following questions:

- Is it possible that the individual is uncertain about the appropriateness of the behaviour?
- Does the individual find any value in engaging in inappropriate behaviour (is it rewarding)?
- Is the behaviour associated with certain social or environmental conditions?
- Is the individual attempting to avoid a "low-interest" or demanding task?
- What rules, routines, or expectations does the individual consider irrelevant?

The field of OBM consists of the development and evaluation of performance improvement procedures which are based on the principles of behaviour discovered through the science of behaviour analysis. These procedures are considered to be within the scope of OBM when they focus on improving individual or group performance within an organisational setting, whether that organisation be a business, industrial setting, or human service setting, and whether that organisation was established for profit or not.

The goal of the field of OBM is to establish a technology of broad-scale performance improvement and organisational change so that employees will be more productive and happy, and so that organisations and institutions will be more effective and efficient in achieving their goals.

Some of the technologies that the field of OBM uses are Behavioural Systems Analysis and Performance Management. Some have considered this melding to be a theoretical problem for OBM. Another related field is Behaviour-based safety. Due to the nature of the field being involved in business and using the principles of behaviour analysis, it is related to Psychology, behavioural engineering and Industrial engineering.

The first organised application of behavioural principles in business and industry was Programmed instruction, however this application was before OBM emerged

as a field. Although OBM is related to Industrial / Organisational psychology because it is a behavioural field the historical precursors of I/O psychology are only chronological precursors and not causal precursors.

The most popular OBM program was developed by Fred Luthans (from the University of Nebraska, Lincoln) and Robert Kreitner (while at Western Illinois University). They provide a five-step plan for installing OBM programs:

2.3.3 The Five Step Plan of OBM Programme

Step 1: Identify Performance Behaviours think very carefully about what you expect employees to do on their jobs. Usually OBM focuses on only one set or type of behaviours (such as safe work practices).

Identify exactly what behaviours constitute desired performance (say, always wearing steel-toed safety shoes). Identify conditions or behaviours that prevent the occurrence of the desired behaviours (safety shoes aren't always available, or co-workers make fun of people who wear them).

A key OBM requirement is that the desired behaviour be "countable." You must be able to count the initial displays of the behaviour as well as the desired frequency.

Step 2: Determine the Base Rate of Performance once a work behaviour has been targeted, its initial rate (or base rate) must be determined. This means that you or your group counts how often the desired behaviour occurs. So you might check the employee for safety boots twice a day for two weeks and record it. This is called sampling. The manager may find that the employee wears safety boots 50 percent of the time.

Step 3: Identify Existing Contingencies. Then identify what stimuli (S) precede the behaviour (R). Thus, the manager identifies conditions that precede both desired (wearing safety shoes) and undesired (not wearing them) behaviours. Then you identify the existing consequences (C).

What happens after employees wear their safety shoes? When they do not wear them? Chances are that the desired behaviour is rewarded less than the undesired behaviour. Or maybe employees say the shoes are now uncomfortable (S), or it goes against the group norm and people who wear them are ridiculed (C).

Step 4: Select Intervention Strategy. Decide how are you going to improve the base rate? This is your intervention. You will have to create new S-> R-> C sequences. Operant conditioning theory gives you four basic strategies. First, you can use positive reinforcements: Give Rs.50 bonuses to employees who wear their safety shoes at all times for a month. Second, you can use negative reinforcement, that is shout at employees every time they do not have the shoes on. Third, you can punish, that is send employees home without pay every time they are caught without their safety shoes. Fourth, you can use extinction, that is, prohibit employees from making fun of co workers for wearing safety shoes and thereby eliminate the existing punishment.

Most OBM programs use a combination of these strategies, as well as several reinforcers and punishments. OBM programs usually work with positive reinforcement because it is the most powerful cause of change in behaviours. It also is less likely to lead to abuse by managers (shouting at employees is *not* a good idea!), and poor employee morale.

Step 5: Evaluate After you implement the intervention, you must see whether it is working. That is, you determine the rate of performance of the desired behaviour. In other words, you repeat step 2 and you compare this rate to the base rate. The key questions here are, is the after-intervention rate higher than the base rate, and if so, has it met my target? Let's say the safety shoe wearing rate has increased to 80 percent from the 50 percent base. This is an improvement, but your target is 100 percent. So you may decide to increase the bonus to Rs.100 *or* you may look more closely at the comfort issue. Evaluating the OBM program is critical, or you will never know if it was worth the trouble and cost.

Organisations use OBM every day. Pay is positive reinforcement. Delaying pay is punishment. Improving your performance to get your boss "off your back" is negative reinforcement.

OBM techniques work for a wide range of purposes. During job training, OBM speeds learning. Continuous schedules of reinforcement initially speed learning. After this early learning period, intermittent schedules work to increase response rate and resistance to extinction. Explaining the total desired behaviour and each successive training step helps shape complex behaviour. Reinforcement practices "bring learners along" one step at a time as they master each element of the final desired behaviour.

Industrial safety programs commonly incorporate OBM principles. Warning lights, bells, and whistles (S) warn of unsafe conditions. Punch presses can be rigged to warn that a hand is in the way of a machine, Modern jetliners have ground proximity indicators that automatically start a spoken stimulus ("Pull up ... pull up Pull up") when an aircraft approaches the ground from an unsafe altitude or rate. For obvious reasons, most safety applications of OBM do not have trainees actually experience consequences. Rather, a combination of social learning and stimulation suffices.

OBM is used in turnover management, absenteeism control, performance motivation, and discipline.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What is meant by OBM outcome?

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2) What are intrinsic and extrinsic consequences? How is this used in OBM?

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3) How is behavioural shaping done in OBM?

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4) Discuss implementation of OBM programme.

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5) What is meant by Functional Behavioural Analysis? How is used in OBM?

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6) Enumerate the steps in OBM.

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2.4 ETHICS IN ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

The question of ethics has always cropped up when behaviour modification was being attempted at, particularly in organisations. Some philosophers feel it is not unethical as long as behaviour is not modified so as to compromise the focal person legally, morally or emotionally. Some others feel that OBM is ethical so long as the person using it explains to the subject what behaviours are to be modified why and how.

Howard Berthhold of Lycoming college presented some of the most frequently asked questions about OBM.

- Is it not unethical to modify another person's behaviour?
- Is it not behaviour modification worse than some other methods because it is planned rather than unplanned?
- Are not the techniques involved objectionable?
- Would not a successful programme cause people to lose their individuality?
- Will not OBM be misused?

In response to the above questions, Berthhold lay out six observations to consider when deciding whether OBM is being used ethically. Behaviour modification is said to be least controversial when:

- i) It uses positive technique. It is also less controversial when it is applied to behaviours for which there is widespread agreement that changes are justified.
- ii) Participants have full knowledge of the method and goals and they can accept or reject the method.
- iii) A need or reason for using it is clearly established.
- iv) All reasonable alternatives have been specified and there is general agreement that a given alternative is best.
- v) The people who practice it are well informed about the ethical issues involved, can discuss the issues intelligently with participants and strive to follow established ethical guidelines.
- vi) It advances and supports personal and social ideals.

Another important consideration will dispel most of the doubt about the ethical issue of OBM. That is when one assesses the question of is OBM being used to 'force' organisational members to do things, against their wishes? or is OBM helping these members to behave in a way they desire? Because if it is the former it is actually manipulating the employee to work better. However, if the employees themselves seek help to improve themselves OBM is the best choice.

2.5 AREAS OF ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT APPLICATION

2.5.1 Performance Management

The management of individual employee or a group of employees through the application of behavioural principles is called Performance Management (PM). The PM process usually involves the analysis of antecedents and consequences supporting the behaviours of individuals or groups within the organisation and manipulating these variables to either decrease unproductive or increase productive performance (Austin, 2000; Daniels & Daniels, 2004; Diener et al., 2009). Common interventions used in PM include goal setting, feedback, job aids, token systems, lottery systems etc. (Diener et al., 2009)

2.5.2 Behavioural Systems Analysis

The Behavioural Systems Analysis (BSA) method involves explaining how the components of the system interact, including how each individual contributes to the overall functioning of the system (McGee, 2007). The most important value of BSA is that it allows us to analyse the organisation outside the basic three-term contingency of antecedents, behaviours, and consequences and identify variables that can significantly impact individual and organisational performance. By analysing the entire organisation as a system, one can identify areas of improvement that will produce the largest positive impact on the organisation and focus on planning and managing the variables that support desired performance (Diener et al., 2009).

2.5.3 Behaviour Based Safety

Behaviour-based safety focuses specifically on the study of work environments to reduce injuries and promote the safe behaviour of employees. In contrast to other disciplines that approach safety from the standpoint of mechanical or structural engineering, behaviour-based safety focuses on modifying the behaviour of the employees so that injuries are reduced and safe performance is promoted. (Wilder et al., 2009).

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss ethics in Organisation Behaviour Management.

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- 2) What evidence do we have to state that OBM is used ethically?

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3) Discuss areas of OBM application.

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2.6 ADVANTAGES OF UNDERSTANDING AND USING ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT IN ORGANISATION

- i) **Make your business flexible to external changes:** In the current world, it is extremely important that businesses adapt to the environment outside their company to remain competitive. By understanding and managing Organisational behaviour, it is possible to organisations ensure that you are ready to face these changes in a more productive way.
- ii) **Build a good team:** It is the employees of the company who are the front-end to the customers and a good job done by the employees would effectively translate to the customer being satisfied. All this is highly dependent on how the Organisational Behaviour initiatives are communicated across to the employees and how the change is managed across them.
- iii) **Cordial Relationship between employees:** Knowledge of organisational behaviour helps the management to build in cordial relationships among the employees. This plays a pivotal role in the present scenario, where competition is accepted as an important ingredient of business.
- iv) **Company builds a brand for itself:** More importantly, a company which understands the dynamics and manages organisational behaviour effectively builds a brand name for itself. Such companies not only provide safer, enjoyable workplaces to the employees but are also responsible for exceeding customer satisfactions.

2.7 DISCIPLINE (ELIMINATING UNDESIRABLE ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR)

Where rewards are used for encouraging desirable behaviour by an organisation, punishments are used to discourage theft, and substance abuse can cost company a huge sum of money. So companies attempt at managing these kind of situation by using discipline – a systematic administration of punishment. Disciplinary actions taken in organisations vary greatly i.e. at one extreme it can be very formal, such as a written warnings which are recorded in the employees permanent record and at the other extreme they may be informal or friendly reminders / discussions between the supervisor and the problem subordinate.

2.7.1 Disciplinary Practices in Organisations

One common practice is punishment which is administered progressively i.e. starting with a mild punishment and then increasing the severity with each inappropriate behaviour. However the disciplinary action would depend upon the kind of damage that has been done for the company i.e. if severe damage or offence has been committed there would be immediate dismissal.

Keys to using punishment effectively

Research and theory have given some effective principles that help to maximise the effectiveness of discipline in organisations. The suggestions are to:

- 1) Deliver punishment immediately after the undesirable response occurs.
- 2) Give moderate levels of punishment.
- 3) Punish the undesirable behaviour not the person.
- 4) Punish everyone equally for the same infraction.
- 5) Clearly communicate the reason for the punishment given.
- 6) Do not follow punishment with non-contingent rewards.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the advantages of using OBM in organisations?

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- 2) What is the meaning of discipline and when should it be used?

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- 3) How is discipline ensured?

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- 4) Discuss disciplinary practices in organisations.

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2.8 LET US SUM UP

To enhance motivation and performance managers are using some principles of learning theories. Organisation Behaviour Modification is primarily an outcome of applying the psychological principles of applied behaviour analysis and the experimental analysis of behaviour to organisations which consecutively promote worker's safety and other benefits the fields of OBM involve development and evaluation of performance improvement procedures which are based on the principles of behaviour. These procedures are considered to be within the scope of OBM when they focus on improving individual or group performance within an organisational setting, whether that organisation be a business, industrial setting, or human service setting, and whether that organisation was established for profit or not. The goal of OBM is to establish a technology of broad-scale performance improvement and organisational change so that employees will be more productive and happy, and in turn organisations and institutions will be more effective and efficient in achieving their goals.

Reinforcement theory has been extensively utilised to bring about the desired change in the employees, particularly in shaping the behaviour of the workers.

Certain steps have been identified which when used will enable the manager to instill and sustain the changed behaviour in the employees.

However, certain ethical issues will definitely crop up when we are modifying others behaviour particularly concerning the issues like what is our level of competency and do we have the right to mould others to our liking some suggestions have been given to overcome their dilemma like, the management should not force people against their will and also suppose the employee him/her self wants to opt to improve then it is acceptable.

The above paragraphs have also dealt with areas where OBM can be applied and have also spoken about the advantages of using OBM in organisations. Further the meaning of discipline and certain principles of disciplining have also been suggested.

2.9 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What is Organisation Behaviour Management?
- 2) How is reinforcement used in organisation Behaviour management?
- 3) What outcomes do we expect out of OBM?
- 4) Discuss behavioural shaping in organisation Behaviour Management

- 5) Discuss how would you implement an Organisation behaviour Management Programme.
- 6) What are the ethics of OBM?.
- 7) What are the different steps of implementing an OBM programme.?

2.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

Greenberg, J & Baron. R.A (2003) *Behaviour in Organisations. Understanding and Managing the Human Side of Work* 8th Edition, New Delhi Prentice Hall India.

Moorhead,G & Griffin, R.M (2004) *Organisation Behaviour, Managing People and Organisations*, VII edition, New York ,Houghton Mifflin.

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UNIT 3 MOTIVATION IN ORGANISATIONS

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Definition and Meaning of Motivation
- 3.3 Types of Motives
 - 3.3.1 Primary or Basic Motivation
 - 3.3.2 Secondary Motivation
 - 3.3.3 Extrinsic Motivation
 - 3.3.4 Internal Motivation
 - 3.3.5 Secondary Motives
 - 3.3.6 General Motives
 - 3.3.7 Successful Motivated Behaviour
- 3.4 Theories of Motivation
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 - 3.4.4 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y
 - 3.4.5 Expectancy Theory
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 - 3.4.7 Equity Theory
 - 3.4.8 Attribution Theory
 - 3.4.9 Control Theory
- 3.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.6 Unit End Questions
- 3.7 Suggested Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we will discuss the definition and meaning of motivation, the different theories of motivation in the organisational context and the role of motivation in managing employee behaviour in organisations.

Practicing managers and organisational scientists are at cross roads to answer the question as to what exactly motivates people. They have attempted to examine different approaches such as meeting the basic human needs, setting goals, treating people fairly, enhancing beliefs that the desired rewards can be attained etc. However, they have not been able to depend on any one particular approach, because human beings are the most motivated in the giving organisations. Also what motivates one person cannot motivate another and in the same vein what motivates a person at a particular instance may not motivate him at other times. Many theories have been developed after conducting abundance of research and some theories have been put forth to indicate what motivates an employee in an organisation. We shall start this unit by giving the definition of motivation and explaining the process of motivation. We would also discuss the different types of motives and the various important theories of motivation.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and explain the meaning of motivation;
- Delineate the different types of motives;
- Explain primary, general and secondary motives;
- Elucidate the theories of motivation under content theories;
- Enumerate the various theories;
- Describe the Maslow theory of motivation and apply to organisations; and
- Explain how Process theories contribute to employee motivation in organisations.

3.2 DEFINITION AND MEANING OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is one of the important factors that govern employee behaviour within an organisational framework. It is a generally accepted fact that a highly motivated person is more productive than a person who is not very motivated. It is therefore, vital for managers to understand the nature of motivation and the factors that determine how motivated employees optimise performance and increase job satisfaction.

Motivation may be generally understood as a set of forces that move a person towards a goal. It deals with how behaviour is energized, how it is directed and how it is sustained.

According to Stephen Robbins, motivation is *“the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need.”*

Fred Luthans defines motivation as *“a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive.”*

From these definitions, we can understand that there are three important components in the process of motivation. These are: needs, drives and goals.

Needs are physiological or psychological deprivations, which set up a drive, which refers to the effort expended to satisfy that need. The efforts are directed towards a goal, which is the achievement of the physiological or psychological state in which the need has been met.

At a basic level, needs drives and goals can be explained with the following example. If a person is hungry, the hunger is a need. This hunger compels the person to look for food, which is the drive. After the person finds and consumes the food his need has been fulfilled, therefore the state of in which the huger has been satiated is the goal. Once the goal has been met, the need ceases to exist.

Motivation involves the basic psychological reasons for a person's actions and behaviour. These are the forces or factors that cause a person to act a certain way or to behave in the manner that they do. There are various types of motivations that can influence a person. These include the following:

3.3.1 Primary or Basic Motivation

This mainly pertains to motives involved with our need for self-preservation. This includes needs such as hunger and thirst, warmth, sex, avoidance of pain and other primary motives which influence a person's behaviour at a very basic level.

3.3.2 Secondary Motivation

More known in psychology as "learned" motivation, this type of "drives" differ from one person to another. In many ways they involve a person's own sense of values and priorities in life.

Many of the behaviour derived from secondary motivation are conscious ones. That is, a person consciously desires a particular goal or result, and behaves in a way that brings them closer to that particular goal. What drives them to do something or to act in a particular way is the longing or something which they currently do not have or possess.

This kind of motivation generally falls into two basic types: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

3.3.3 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is likely to involve the concept of rewarded behaviour. Thus, by engaging in a particular type of activity or behaving in a particular manner, you are "rewarded" by a desired end result.

For instance, you are motivated to save money for a vacation. Hence, you resist the urge to make impulsive purchases and in general become more discriminating in how you spend your money. After a time you find that you have a steadily growing amount of savings which you set aside. When you find that you have saved enough for that trip, you utilise your savings for the intended purpose and go on vacation. The external motivation is the vacation, which is also the reward for your act of saving for it.

3.3.4 Internal Motivation

On the other hand, there are other less-visible types of motivation.

It would be a mistake to say that such behaviour does not come without its own rewards. To be more precise, the end goal is not a visible or external thing, but more internal and psychological. The achievement of these goals - by itself also correctly seen as a reward - is in general not visible to other persons.

Thus, for instance, a student is motivated to get good grades (external motivation) or simply, he desires to know more about a particular subject (intrinsic motivation). Getting good grades is the reward visible to others. For the student, the fact that he has become an expert in a particular subject or lesson is also a psychological reward for his intrinsic desire to learn.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define motivation and examine its characteristics.

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- 2) What are the different types of motives?

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- 3) Discuss primary and secondary motivation.

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- 4) What are intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?

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3.3.5 Secondary Motives

Secondary motives are much more important than primary and general motives in the developed world. The concept mainly refers to those needs that are *learned* rather than instinctive or physiological. The three important secondary motives are the Power motive, the Achievement motive and the Affiliation motive as identified by David McClelland.

The power motive refers to a person's drive for superiority or power over others. This motive signifies a need to manipulate others or exercise influence over them. The achievement motive drives a person to perform highly and to the best of his ability or to be successful in competitive situations. Their goal is generally the satisfaction derived from the accomplishment of a task. The affiliation motive refers to the need to be accepted by a group and to feel a sense of belonging.

In addition to power, achievement and affiliation, modern psychologists also recognise two other secondary motives: the Security motive and the Status motive.

The security motive is the need in people to protect themselves from the contingencies in life and to avoid situations in which they are unable to satisfy their primary, general and secondary motives. The status motive is related to social prestige and drives a person to seek the symbols of material success such as a big house or car, the latest gadgets, etc.

3.3.6 General Motives

General motives, like primary motives are also *unlearned*. But the primary distinction is that they are *not physiologically based*. Motives such as curiosity, manipulation, activity and affection are the main examples of general motives. Within an organisational context, general motives have greater relevance than primary motives.

3.3.7 Successful Motivated Behaviour

Good and effective actions or behaviour usually involves the harmonising of these two types of motivation. If one is driven by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, then inner conflict is reduced and a person is more likely to devote uninterrupted and harmonious actions towards a particular task.

The inner and external rewards too, are good reinforcing mechanisms. For many people, this is really the means towards success. By choosing goals that you desire – both in its intrinsic and extrinsic rewards - you can harmonise your own actions and devote your energies to your goals. In such instances, the chances of achievement increases greatly.

As mentioned earlier, Primary motives are those that are *unlearned* or *physiologically based*. They generally include hunger, the need for sleep, thirst, avoidance of pain, etc.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss general motives and secondary motives like power etc.

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- 2) Describe successful motivated behaviour.

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3.4 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The theories of motivation help managers understand why people choose to work and what drives them to perform to the best of their ability. An understanding of this is very important to help managers optimise performance for the achievement of organisational goals.

The theories of motivation can be categorised into two: (i) Content Theories and (ii) Process Theories. Content theories are of the following types:

- i) Need Hierarchy theory
- ii) Two factor theory
- iii) ERG theory

Let us take each of these and discuss in greater detail.

Content theories are concerned with factors that arouse, start or initiate motivated behaviour. The following are the main content theories of motivation.

3.4.1 Needs Hierarchy Theory

The Needs Hierarchy theory was developed by Abraham Maslow and became popular during the 1960s. According to Maslow, human needs form a five-level hierarchy, which he developed into a pyramid form. The lowest level of the pyramid showed the most basic needs, with the needs becoming more complex as they went up the pyramid.

The five levels of needs identified by Maslow are as follows:

- 1) *Physiological needs*: need for food, clothing, shelter, etc.
- 2) *Safety and security needs*: need to free from fear of physical, financial and psychological harm
- 3) *Social needs*: need for love and affection and basic social relations
- 4) *Esteem needs*: need for respect and recognition
- 5) *Self actualisation needs*: need to optimise performance and the freedom to be creative and innovative.

According to Maslow, people generally follow this hierarchy in fulfilling needs. For instance, people usually try to fulfill their physiological needs first. Once that need is met, they move to the next higher need and so on. Motivation in an individual is a function of the need that is unfulfilled. For instance, a person who has fulfilled his physiological needs is no longer motivated by them. He strives to fulfill the next level of need that is safety needs.

It is important for managers to understand the level at which their employees are in order to motivate them effectively. A person who has a secure job is unlikely to be motivated by the security need. The manager then needs to identify what will motivate them and offer to fulfill that need. Basically an individual takes up a job to fulfill his physiological needs. Once those are fulfilled he seeks job security. This way he moves up the hierarchy until he reaches the need for self actualisation. The need for self actualisation is the highest level of needs.

Malsow's theory had been thought to be too simplistic by later psychologists, who felt that needs cannot be classified into watertight compartments. However the general idea behind Maslow's theory has been accepted as an important contribution towards understanding the needs of employees in an effort to motivate them. Maslow himself acknowledged later that it was possible for the needs hierarchy to be reversed in some situations. For instance, a starving artist may have the need for self actualisation by making a great painting even though his physiological and security needs have not been met.

Four Meta Needs

Note that the four meta needs, namely cognitive, aesthetic, self actualisation and self transcendence can be pursued in any order, depending upon a person's wants or circumstances, as long as the basic needs have all been met. Self transcendence refers to a transegoic level that emphasises visionary intuition, altruism, and unity consciousness. Transegoic means a higher, psychic or spiritual state of development. The trans is related to transcendence while the ego is based on Freud's work. We go from pre egoic levels to egoic levels to transegoic level. The ego in all three terms are used in the Jungian sense of consciousness as opposed to the unconscious. Ego equates with the personality.

Self actualisation on the other hand refers to the person knowing exactly who he is, where he is going, what is he moving toward, and what he wants to accomplish. This is a state of well being

Aesthetic refers to do things not simply for the outcome but because it is the reason you are here on earth. The person is more at peace, more curious about the inner working of all things.

Cognitive refers to the person being free of the good opinion of others and learning for learning alone, and contribute knowledge.

Esteem refers to the feeling of moving up in the world, recognition and few doubts about one's own self.

Belongingness and love refers to the person belonging to a group and having close friends to confide in etc.

Safety needs refers to the individual feeling free from immediate danger.

Physiological needs refer to the need for food, water and shelter etc.

In addition, just as in his earlier model, we may be in a state of flux , that is, we shift between levels (Maslow, 1968). For example there may be peak experiences for temporary self-actualisation and self transcendence. These are our spiritual or creative moments.

Characteristics of Self-Actualising People

- 1) Have better perceptions of reality and are comfortable with it.
- 2) Accept themselves and their own natures.
- 3) Lack of artificiality.
- 4) They focus on problems outside themselves and are concerned with basic issues and eternal questions.
- 5) They like privacy and tend to be detached.

- 6) Rely on their own development and continued growth.
- 7) Appreciate the basic pleasures of life (e.g. do not take blessings for granted).
- 8) Have a deep feeling of kinship with others.
- 9) Are deeply democratic and are not really aware of differences.
- 10) Have strong ethical and moral standards.
- 11) Are original, inventive, less constricted and fresher than others

Going Beyond Maslow

Other researchers have taken up his cause and furthered refined them, mostly in the area of organisations and work. Herzberg, Alderfer, and McGregor's research are all closely tied to Maslow's theory.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the two major theories of motivation?

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- 2) Discuss the Needs Hierarchy theory of Maslow and its 5 levels.

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- 3) What are the four Meta needs? Describe

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- 4) Describe the characteristics of self actualised persons.

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3.4.2 Two Factor Theory of Herzberg

In the late 1950s, Herzberg and his associates conducted an extensive study involving two hundred engineers and accountants to find out the extent of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their work. The findings of his study built on Maslow's need hierarchy in an attempt to find out what motivates people in their work.

Herzberg (1966) is best known for his list of factors that are based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, except his version is more closely related to the working environment:

Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivational Factors

Hygiene or Dissatisfiers

- Working conditions
- Policies and administrative practices
- Salary and Benefits
- Supervision
- Status
- Job security
- Co-workers
- Personal life

Motivators or Satisfiers

- Recognition
- Achievement
- Advancement
- Growth
- Responsibility
- Job challenge

Hygiene or dissatisfiers factors must be present in the job before motivators can be used to stimulate a person. That is, you cannot use motivators until all the hygiene factors are met. Herzberg's needs are specifically job related and reflect some of the distinct things that people want from their work as opposed to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs which reflect all the needs in a person's life.

Building on this model, Herzberg coined the term *job enrichment* — the process of redesigning work in order to build in motivators by increasing both the number of tasks that an employee performs and the control over those tasks. It is associated with the design of jobs and is an extension of job enlargement (an increase in the number of tasks that an employee performs).

During Herzberg's study, the respondents were asked to recall instances when they felt particularly satisfied or dissatisfied with their work. Herzberg found that most of the factors that caused employees to express satisfaction with their work related to the content of their jobs such as being given a challenging project, greater responsibility, and interesting opportunity, receiving recognition, etc.

Herzberg called these factors 'motivators'. On the other hand, feelings of discontent or dissatisfaction were associated with factors that were not only associated with job content, but also factors that were affected with the immediate work environment but were not directly related to the job. Some such factors were poor working conditions, poor supervision, lack of benefits, etc. These were termed 'hygiene factors'.

According to Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, the presence of 'motivators' led to job satisfaction, while the absence of motivators lead to dissatisfaction in employees. On the other hand, the presence of hygiene factors prevented feelings of dissatisfaction in employees but did not directly led to feelings of satisfaction. In other words, it was the job content factors that were directly linked to employee motivation and manager had to pay more attention to motivators rather than hygiene factors in keeping his employees motivated.

Herzberg's motivators are generally compared to Maslow's higher level needs such as the need for esteem and self actualisation. The hygiene factors compare to the lower level physiological, safety and social needs. Herzberg's theory has been criticised for minimising the role of individual differences. What is a motivator for one person may only be a hygiene factor for another. However, the theory plays an important role in the area of job design.

3.4.3 ERG Theory

The ERG Theory as developed by Clayton Alderfer is an extension of both the Needs Hierarchy Theory as well as the Two Factor Theory. Alderfer suggested that needs can be classified into three categories – existence needs, relatedness needs and growth needs (ERG).

Existence needs are concerned with the physiological well being of the person. Relatedness needs are concerned with the need to establish and maintain personal relationships.

Growth needs are concerned with the desire to be creative and to make productive contributions.

The main aspect in which Alderfer differs from Maslow is in the fact that he considered that these needs formed a continuum rather than a hierarchy. According to him, different needs can exist simultaneously and people can move backwards and forwards on the continuum as circumstances change. Therefore, according to this theory, there is every possibility that a lower level need can assume more importance than a higher level need in a person at any given time.

All the content theories of motivation assume that people have different kinds of needs, and typically higher level needs motivate people more than lower level needs. While this is true to some extent, it is generally believed that the idea behind content theories is rather limiting in light of the complexities of work in modern organisations.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the two factor theory of Herzberg.

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2) Describe the Hygiene and motivators in Herzberg theory.

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3) Discuss the application of Herzberg theory to motivating employees in an organisation.

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4) What is ERG theory? How is applied to motivating employees in an organisation?

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3.4.4 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1957) developed a philosophical view of humankind with his Theory X and Theory Y — two opposing perceptions about how people view human behaviour at work and organisational life. McGregor felt that organisations and the managers within them followed either one or the other approach:

Theory X

- People have an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it whenever possible.
- People must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment in order to get them to achieve the organisational objectives.
- People prefer to be directed, do not want responsibility, and have little or no ambition.
- People seek security above all else.

In an organisation with Theory X assumptions, management's role is to coerce and control employees.

Theory Y

- Work is as natural as play and rest.

- People will exercise self-direction if they are committed to the objectives (they are NOT lazy).
- Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
- People learn to accept and seek responsibility.
- Creativity, ingenuity, and imagination are widely distributed among the population. People are capable of using these abilities to solve an organisational problem.
- People have potential.

In an organisation with Theory Y assumptions, management's role is to develop the potential in employees and help them to release that potential towards common goals.

Theory X is the view that traditional management has taken towards the workforce. Most organisations are now taking the enlightened view of theory Y (even though they might not be very good at it). A *boss* can be viewed as taking the theory X approach, while a *leader* takes the theory Y approach.

Notice that Maslow, Herzberg, and McGregor's theories all tie together:

- Herzberg's theory is a micro version of Maslow's theory that is focused in the work environment.
- McGregor's Theory X is based on workers caught in the lower levels (1 to 3) of Maslow's theory due to bad management practices, while his Theory Y is for workers who have gone above level 3 with the help of management.
- McGregor's Theory X is also based on workers caught in Herzberg's Hygiene Dissatisfiers, while Theory Y is based on workers who are in the Motivators or Satisfiers section.

Self Assessment Questions

1) Elucidate McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y.

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2) How is Theory X used in organisations?

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3) What is the application of theory Y in an organisation?

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4) Discuss critically the application of Theory X and theory Y in motivating employees in an organisation.

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Process theories of motivation are about a cognitive rational process and concentrate on the psychological and behavioural processes that motivate an individual. In other words, this is all about how people's needs influence and drive their behaviour. People need to see what is in it for them and to sense that fair play is being exercised to all concerned. A basic understanding of this is foundational to the psychological underpinning of successful change management and the strategies for managing change that will deliver that. The two main process theories of motivation are Expectancy theory and Equity theory.

Process theories are concerned not only with factors that arouse behaviour but also the process, direction or choice of behavioural patterns. They attempt to explain the thought processes of individuals when they decide whether or not to behave in a certain way. In this they provide better direction to managers in their attempt to motivate employees. The following are the main process theories:

- i) Expectancy Theory
- ii) The Porter Lawler Model
- iii) Equity Theory
- iv) Attribution Theory and
- v) Control Theory.

3.4.5 Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory was developed by Victor Vroom as an alternative to the content theories. This theory attempted to explain why people behave in a certain way. He developed the theory around the concepts of Valence, Instrumentality and Expectancy – hence, it is also called the VIE theory. This theory suggests that effort is (a) linked to the desire for a particular outcome, and (b) moderated by an evaluation of the likelihood of success.

This is a pragmatic perspective that assumes that as we are constantly trying to predict potential future outcomes, we attempt to create what we perceive to be as realistic expectations about future events.

Thus if things look reasonably likely and attractive, and if we know what to do in order to get there, and we believe we can actually do it, then this will motivate us to act to make this future come true.

According to Victor Vroom, individual motivation depends on three variables, namely: Force, Valence and Expectancy.

Valence refers to the strength of an individual's preference for a particular outcome. In other words, it is the value that an individual gives to a particular outcome. The valence is positive when the individual prefers attaining a outcome to not attaining it. It is zero when the individual is indifferent as to whether he attains the outcome or not.

Instrumentality is the degree to which a first level outcome is likely to lead to the desired second level outcome.

Expectancy is the probability (from 0-1) a certain action will lead to the achievement of the desired outcome. A probability of zero indicates that the efforts will not lead to the desired outcome; therefore, an individual must see a probability of greater than zero to even put in some effort.

Expectancy is different from instrumentality in that it relates efforts to first level outcomes, while instrumentality relates first level outcomes to second level outcomes.

For example, if a person desires to get a promotion, the strength of that desire refers to valence. If it is important to have a high performance to get a promotion, the likelihood that greater efforts from the person will lead to better performance relates to expectancy, and the importance of high performance in getting a promotion refers to instrumentality. Therefore:

$$\text{Valence} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Expectancy} = \text{Motivation}$$

According to this theory, a person would consider all the three elements before deciding to put in efforts towards a goal. It also recognises that each person has a unique combination of valences, instrumentalities and expectancies. In this, it recognises individual differences. However, the main shortcoming of the Expectancy theory is that it does not provide any specific suggestions on what actually motivates people in organisations. It limits itself to a conceptual understanding of individual motivation.

The conclusions that can be drawn from this theory are:

- Individuals will only act when they think that they have a good chance of getting what they want
- Effort alone is not enough. It has to be exercised with ability and skill
- Job satisfaction is derived from effective job performance and not the other way round
- Job design is therefore of crucial importance

3.4.6 Porter-Lawler Model

This model developed by Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler is an extension of the Expectancy Theory. It is based on the premise that motivation or effort does not equal satisfaction or performance, as performance is affected by other factors also like the person's traits and abilities.

According to Vroom's theory, if valued rewards stem from high performance, people will automatically associate satisfaction with performance and will be motivated. Porter and Lawler, on the other hand argue that satisfaction does not always lead to performance. Rather the reverse is true, because people can become complacent after having achieved satisfaction once. On the other hand, *performance can lead to satisfaction* if the reward systems are effective.

Therefore, according to this model, it is the reward structures in an organisation which determine how motivated people will be to perform. If rewards are effectively linked to performance through role clarity and clearly defined targets, motivation will follow as people know what is expected of them and they will be motivated to perform in order to receive the rewards that give them satisfaction.

The Porter-Lawler model is thought to be more application oriented than the Vroom Theory as it gives managers the concept that reward systems can be used to motivate employees. However, it is believed that cognitive process play a much bigger role in satisfaction than what the theory considers, as different people perceive rewards and satisfaction differently.

3.4.7 Equity Theory

The equity theory has been developed by social psychologist Stacy Adams. This theory focuses on people's sense of justice and fairness. According to the theory, a person's motivation depends on the degree of equity that people perceive in their work situation. An employee's sense of satisfaction comes about when he perceives that his inputs are in balance with the outcomes. Inputs generally refer to a person's qualification, experience and special abilities. Outputs are the salary, benefits, etc.

However, people regularly compare their outcome-input ratio to the outcome-input ratios of relevant others, i.e. friends, colleagues, neighbours etc in the same organisation or other organisations. Sometimes they may also compare their present job with some other position that he held in the past in the same or another organisation.

Equity occurs when the person perceives his outcome-input ratio to be equal to the outcome-input ratio of relevant others. Inequity occurs when there is an imbalance between the person's outcome-input ratio and the outcome-input ratio of relevant others. This leads to what is known as 'equity tension'.

When the person feels under-rewarded, it creates anger and tension in him, when he feels over-rewarded it may create a sense of guilt. Presence of equity tension motivates a person to take steps to correct it. An under-rewarded person may reduce the quantity or quality of his output or lower his level of commitment to the job, an over-rewarded person may either work harder or discount the value of the reward to restore a sense of balance.

Equity theory states that in return for an input of skills, effort or production, the employee receives an outcome expressed in terms of any combination of salary, status and fringe benefits.

This creates a ratio of input to outcome and equity is achieved when the ratios are the same for everyone in organisation.

Equity theory looks at an individual's perception of the fairness of an employment situation and finds that perceived inequalities can lead to changes in behaviour.

When individuals believe that they have been treated unfairly in comparison with their coworkers, they will react in one of four ways:

- Reduce their effort and productivity to better match the rewards they are receiving
- Ask for more money or maybe take legal action
- Change their own perception of the situation.
- Resign and leave their job

So, in a nutshell, unequal treatment of staff leads to de motivated.

The biggest limitation of the equity theory is that it does not provide any guidelines on how to restore equity. However, it highlights the importance of social comparison and recognises the role of cognitive processes in motivation.

In addition to the equity theory, there are other contemporary theories that attempt to explain the process of motivation in organisations. Some other contemporary theories of motivation are the attribution theory, control theory and agency theory.

Unlike the other theories of motivation that we have discussed on this site, process theories are to do with motivation that is rational and cognitive rather than emotional.

In simple practical terms, these theories show the change leader that you have to appeal to people's heads as well as their hearts.

People need to have the WIFM [what's in it for me] question answered. They need to see the steps and they need to believe that they can do it and that they want to. They also need to believe in the equity or fairness of what you tell you.

3.4.8 Attribution Theory

This theory states that individuals perceive behaviour to be a function of internal and external factors that cause them to behave in a certain way. Internal factors may be personal attributes such as ability, effort, education, etc. and external factors like general economic conditions, government policies, weather, etc. In any given situation a person's behaviour is likely to be influenced by how he *perceives* the set of internal and external factors affecting him. It is these perceptions that directly impact the effort that a person is willing to expend towards a certain outcome, and therefore, his motivation.

3.4.9 Control Theory

The control theory states that behaviour depends on the degree of control that individuals perceive to have on their lives. A person who perceives that he has a

high degree of control over his life and the outcomes of his behaviour, will be more motivated and experience less stress in the job than a person who perceives a low degree of control over his life.

The agency theory explores the relationship between top management (the principal) and the subordinate employees (agents). The agency relationship emerges when the principal engages another person or persons to perform some service. However, there may be a divergence of ideas between the principal and the agent, i.e. the employees may not know clearly what is expected from them. The responsibility therefore, rests with the principal to make objectives, outcomes and rewards clear to the agents to ensure that they remain motivated.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What are process theories? Explain

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2) Elucidate Expectancy theory of motivation. How is it used in organisations?

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3) Explain $\text{Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{instrumentality} \times \text{Expectancy}$.

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4) Describe Porter Lawler model of motivation.

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5) Elucidate Equity theory and indicate how it is applied in organisations.

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6) Describe attribution theory and control theory of motivation.

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3.5 LET US SUM UP

All the different theories of motivation seek to explain the process by which people are encouraged to put in efforts to achieve some goals. Although all the different theories differ from each other, they are not in competition with each other, as each one tries to fill the gap in the other theories in an effort to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of motivation in organisations.

The content theories have said the personal needs fulfilled with giving him money and providing good working condition. The process theory have shown us the importance of attaching importance to an outcome and the energy being expended towards achieving it causes motivation. Besides this the equity theory also said how people given to the organisation and what they are receiving from it and suppose there is inequity experience how it effect the motivation. Finally the attribution theories states that individual are governed by certain personal orientations and these no term causes them to behaviour in certain way.

3.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define motivation and describe it.
- 2) Explain the role that money can play as motivation in all the content theories.
- 3) What are the various types of motives? Describe each motive in detail.
- 4) What are the two major categories of theories of motivation?
- 5) Describe McGregor's theory of X and Theory of Y and explain their application in organisations.
- 6) What are the basic components of expectancy theory and how are they combined to predict behaviour.
- 7) What are Maslows five categories of needs? Compare Herzberg theory to that of Maslows?
- 8) What is equity theory? Discuss its application in organisations.

3.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

Greenberg, J & Baron.R.A (2003) *Behaviour in Organisations. Understanding and Managing the Human Side of Work* 8th Edition, New Delhi Prentice Hall India.

Luthans, F. (2005) *Organisational Behaviour* Xth edition. New York, McGraw Hill.

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UNIT 4 THE PROCESS OF MOTIVATION FOR HIGHER MORALE AND PRODUCTIVITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 The Process of Motivation for Higher Morale and Productivity
 - 4.2.1 Alternate Work Schedule
 - 4.2.2 Scheduling Work
 - 4.2.3 Compressed Work Weeks
 - 4.2.4 Discretionary Work Schedule
 - 4.2.5 Flexible Working Hours
 - 4.2.6 Variable Hour Arrangement
- 4.3 Shift Work Schedules
- 4.4 Compressed Work Week
 - 4.4.1 Alternate Work Schedule
 - 4.4.2 Discretionary Time Systems
 - 4.4.3 Shift Work
- 4.5 Employee Ownership
 - 4.5.1 Claims on the Efficacy of Employees Ownership
 - 4.5.2 Theory of Ownership
- 4.6 Employee's Response to Ownership
- 4.7 Quality Control Circles
 - 4.7.1 Total Quality Management
 - 4.7.2 Quality Control Circles
 - 4.7.3 Employee Responses to Total Quality Management and Quality Control Circles
- 4.8 The High Involvement Organisation and Management
 - 4.8.1 Involvement Strategies
 - 4.8.2 The Effects of High Involvement
- 4.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.10 Unit End Questions
- 4.11 Glossary
- 4.12 Suggested Readings

4.0 INTRODUCTION

To retain employees in the organisation and sustain their morale in order to increase productivity, the practising managers are engaging themselves into many different programmes. Since most of the working hours of the people are being spent in their workplace, people find it difficult to attend to their personal work and also care for the young children and elderly people. As a result of these typical problems organisation are providing the employees with different time frames in which they choose to work. The concept of alternative work schedules deals with different types of work arrangements like: compressed weeks, flexible

working hours and also shift work schedules. Besides this option, the organisation is also giving the employees some stocks / shares of the company with view to increase their involvement in the organisation's welfare and in turn increase their morale because it is often felt that the more the feeling of ownership, the better is the employee's commitment to the work.

Further, in the same vein employees are also given the freedom of planning, organising, directing and controlling their work process which is otherwise known as Quality Control Circles which is a Japanese concept to improve the Quality of the product. This promotes the feeling of ownership among the employees and thereby they willing to produce Total Quality Products. Further the organisations are also aiming at involving the employees into the running of the organisation by employing certain involvement strategies which promise organisational improvement. In this unit we will be discussing the typical processes used by organisations to motivate the employees to a higher level so that they contribute to higher productivity and ensure higher morale.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the process of motivation for higher morale and productivity;
- Describe the shift work schedule;
- Explain compressed work week;
- Elucidate the employee ownership and its meaning;
- Analyse employees responses to ownership;
- Explain quality control circles; and
- Elucidate the high involvement of organisation and management.

4.2 THE PROCESS OF MOTIVATION FOR HIGHER MORALE AND PRODUCTIVITY

The major objective of most managers is to constantly address the issue of increasing productivity. Global competition, radical changes in technology increasingly diverse workforce and the changing expectations of customers are influencing the external and internal environment of today's organisations. These forces work as catalysts and impact the management, to develop new programs, new management practices, new organisational systems that attempt to increase productivity and yet maintain positive attitudes among organisational members.

Today's organisations are developing various techniques for managing productivity. Let us consider some which have become popular over the past few decades like – alternative work schedules, employee ownership, quality control circles, and high involvement. Each of them show promise for enhancing productivity and morale.

4.2.1 Alternative Work Schedule

Since most of the waking hours were being spent at the work place, employees were finding it difficult to attend to their daily activities. Besides this, the general

standard of living and leisure time activities also increased over the past two centuries. Organisations were forced to reschedule their working hours and the result of this was shorter work weeks. This move was characterised by two trends:

- i) The days worked per week decreased from 7 days to 5 days.
- ii) The work day shrank from 12/14 hours to 8 hours.

Thus the standard work-week is defined in terms of an 8 hour day, 5 days a week. What is now called as 5/40?

There are a number of factors which actually lead to this work schedules. Some of the important ones are more women in the work force, more single parents and both husband and wife working, terrible traffic jams and increasing demand for an improved quality of work life and also of personal life. Consequently we find that alternative work schedules are now the norm in most companies and alternative work settings like telecommuting are increasingly popular.

4.2.2 Scheduling Work

Let us consider how the working hours are scheduled and what are the significant implications for employee morale and productivity. In this section we shall deal with compressed work weeks, discretionary work schedules and shift work.

4.2.3 Compressed Work Weeks

This method typically follows one of the three basic patterns:

- Fewer days worked per week, but the total hours will remain constant (e.g. 5/40 week or 4/40 week).
- Fewer hours worked per week, but total days worked in the week will remain the same (e.g. 5/40 week or 5/35 week).
- Fewer days and fewer hours worked per week (e.g. 5/40 week or 4/36 week).

However, the most popular compressed schedule is the 4 day, 40 hour workweek or the 4/40. In this plan the work is scheduled around 4 continuous 10 hour workdays (like from Monday to Thursday or Tuesday to Friday). This gives the employees long weekends throughout the year.

Some organisations have also changed their definition of workweek as 8 days – week 1 Monday through Monday. Week 2 – Tuesday to Tuesday and so on. This provides additional flexibility with compressed work schedules.

This method is known as the 8 day 4/40 week. Here the employee works for four 10 hour days and gets a break for the remaining four days. This enables the organisation to employ two shifts of workers who alternate between being 'off' or 'on' the 4/40 cycle continuously throughout the year. The organisation gets 7 days a week of work coverage and the employees get 4 day weekends though maybe not all 'offs' include the Saturdays and Sundays.

This method is supposed to increase employee satisfaction with their jobs, hours worked and leisure time. But sometimes it increases fatigue levels of the employees because of the longer work day. But there is a general belief that the long leisure time would enable the worker to recharge his/her batteries.

4.2.4 Discretionary Work Schedule

This technique has a number of different work schedules (staggered hours, flexible hours, variable hours) which provide both flexibility and choice. The 'staggered start system' doesn't reduce the working hours of the day but gives the flexibility to the employee the discretion of scheduling his/her work and non work time.

In this system, the employees as an individual, as a department or organisation wide chooses when they want to start their workday from the given options (like 7 am, 8 am or 9 am or every half an hour from 7 am to 9 am). Some organisations allow occasional changes in the chosen starting time (once every year or once in three months).

4.2.5 Flexible Working Hours

This represent a variation of the discretionary time system i.e. the employee can arrive at anytime in the morning between 7 am and 8 am and can leave anytime between 4pm and 5pm.

Flex time	Core time	Lunch	Core time	Flexi time
7 am	9 am	11 am	1 pm	3pm
				5pm

This is called the Flexi time, gleitzeit, gliding time or flexible hours and the employees have the liberty of deciding at what time they will come to work daily. However in practice, many firms restrict this choice of time by permitting only weekly, bi-weekly or monthly decisions.

This method differs from the staggered start system. In the staggered start system the employee is given a limited number of starting time options which are then followed for a fixed period of time.

Organisations that follow flexible working hours define the earliest possible starting time and the latest possible quitting time i.e. no one may work before 7 am and in the same way, no one can work beyond 5 pm. This is called 'band-width'. Within the band-width, time is divided into 'core hours' and flexi-hours. Everyone must be at work during the core hours so that the activities which are of an interdependent nature do not get disrupted. The flexi-hours on the other hand give the employee the freedom to choose to be at work or not.

With the help of the above figure we can see that the employee gets two discretionary hours in the morning and two in the afternoon i.e. the employees can start their 8 hour workday at any time between 7 am and 9 am, which makes the core hours fall between 9 am and 3 pm. If an employee chooses to arrive at work at 9 am, then he/she goes on to work up to five in the evening.

Thus the system represented in the above figure has three flexi- hours and two core hour periods and an hour long lunch break. The employees' choice of the morning and midday determines when his/her day will end. Thus each employee gets five discretionary hours. Consequently, many different flexible working arrangements are possible. Managers can vary the schedule's flexibility and amount of employee discretion through:

- The number of required core minutes at work
- Formal or informal change approval i.e. whether the employees must seek formal approval before altering the schedules
- Schedule variability i.e. how often employees can change their schedule
- Time banking i.e. whether employees can debit and credit time i.e. to work for 10 hours on one day and 6 hours on another for a total of 16 hours over two days, and for how long the debit or credit be carried forward
- Schedule flexibility i.e. the size of the flexible hour bands
- Band width i.e. the amount of time between the earliest possible starting time and the latest possible quitting time provided by the flexible working hour arrangements

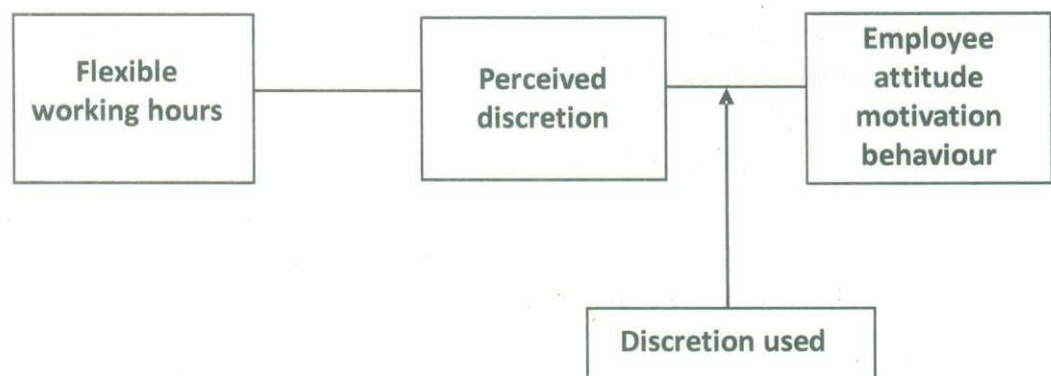
4.2.6 Variable Hour Arrangement

The third discretionary time system uses a variable hour arrangement. In this the employees draw out a contract with the management for a specified amount of time to be worked out on daily, weekly or monthly basis. The variable-hour arrangement removes all the core hours and makes the employees free to decide when they are at work and when they are not at work.

The concept 'alternative work schedule' should not be confused with 'alternative work arrangements'. The first one refers to an organisation's attempt to manage work related time (such as the number of hours and days worked). On the other hand, alternative work arrangements focus on other work-related factors.

Some organisations have done away with time requirement and embarked on task contracting arrangement, where the organisation contracts work with an employee for the performance of a task without regard to the total amount of time worked per day, hours worked per day or total days worked per week. The use of 'telecommuting' usually aids in task contracting and this is another example of an alternative work arrangement.

Again, discretionary-time schedules are leading to increased job satisfaction and performance, reduced work related stress, tardiness, absenteeism and turnover. Further, there is less tension experienced between work and non work demands. Flexible hours are also seen as a way of attracting people to the organisation. The current thinking is that the more flexibility provided the more positive effects on employees.



Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the process of motivation for higher morale and productivity.

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- 2) Explain alternative work schedule.

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- 3) What do you understand by compressed work weeks?

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- 4) Describe discretionary work schedules.

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- 5) How does a flexible working hour help?

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- 6) Explain variable hour arrangement.

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4.3 SHIFT WORK SCHEDULES

When employees work in different blocks of time on a regular basis, it is called as “Shift Work”: When one group of employees work from 07:00 am to 03:00 pm another group works from 03:00 pm to 11:00 pm and a third group from 11:00 pm to 07:00 am, it is known as three-shift arrangement. In some cases workers stay on one shift permanently, whereas in other instances employees rotate across scheduling blocks on a weekly or monthly basis.

Organisations allow employees to opt for compressed work-weeks or discretionary time schedules thinking that these alternatives make the workplace more attractive to the current and prospective employees.

Whereas the driving forces behind shift work are different, shift work enables manufactures to obtain more hours of productivity per day from their physical resources. That is machines and buildings are used 16 to 24 hours a day because instead of keeping the machines idle for the other non-working hours, they can be optimally used in the case of shift work, the rest of the infrastructure can also be used to the utmost.

However some organisations such as hospitals, police and fire departments, power plants, airports etc. have shift work out of compulsion as they have to remain open day in and day out.

It is not only the employers who can benefit out of the shift work but also the employees prefer shift work. Shift workers are able to live a “double life” because they learn to get used to lesser hours of sleep and can also attend to their personal errands in the middle of the day and receive premium wages for taking the “Undesirable shifts”. Shift work also allows at least one parent to be at home attending to young children or old parents and shall enjoy the benefits from two incomes.

Turning to how employees actually feel about all these new methods of working, researchers have attempted to see how alternative work schedules affect attitudes, motivation and work-related behaviour. As assumed earlier management’s interest in the alternative work schedules has been driven by the belief that attractive work schedules will promote more effective organisational behaviour and greater job satisfaction. The theory of work adjustment reasons that the greater the correspondence between employee needs and wants and a job characteristics, the more compatible the relationship between employees and the organisation. Thus, fitting the organisation’s work scheduling needs to employee’s needs will likely result in increased motivation, satisfaction and other valued behaviour.

4.4 COMPRESSED WORK WEEK

Many employees report that they like the compressed workweek. However, dislike with the schedule is usually associated with fatigue and an individual leisure time orientation. The longer workday contributes to mental and physical fatigue and can lead to stress and dissatisfaction with the schedule. Research evidence shows that differences in leisure-time orientation have an important effect on employees’ attitudes towards compressed workweeks, because some people like to have more hours-per-day leisure and other people like to have more days-per-

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- 2) Explain alternative work schedule.

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week leisure. Thus for hours per day oriented employees the longer workday creates more role conflict, stress and dissatisfaction. However, for people who can adjust with days per week orientation, the compressed schedule is associated with greater job and leisure time satisfaction.

4.4.1 Alternative Work Schedule

Generally our work schedules often interfere with activities outside work-ones that involve family and friends, access to services, community events and entertainment and personal business. In these cases, the compressed work schedule is experienced positively because it affords a larger block of our time for our lives outside work allowing us to harmonise with the family and community rhythms.

However, on a negative note in compressed work schedule, there seems to be weaker job satisfaction. This might be due to the fact that while evaluating the overall job satisfaction there are many other factors which contribute to it viz. pay, supervision, co-workers, etc. The hours one works is only one of them.

Though the evidence suggesting that stress is one of the major concerns with compressed schedules, it is very inconclusive. The observation seems to be related to the amount of time people have to 'recharge their batteries'. The four days between work schedules provide many people with the rest they need to mitigate the onset of stress and fatigue that stems from the longer workday.

Further, the evidence obtained in support of a positive relationship between performance effectiveness and compressed schedule is mixed. That is, studies show performance increasing, decreasing and also not changing. Controlling for increasing fatigue need not necessarily produce drop off in performance. In addition, there is nothing which shows that compressed schedules leads to significant increase in performance.

4.4.2 Discretionary Time Systems

This is a more popular system because people who worked a flexible schedule generally do not want to return to a conventional one. Observation of people on flexible hours reveals some interesting patterns.

- i) First, people tend to choose the new schedule which is quite similar to their old ones.
- ii) Second, most employees do not vary their daily starting and quitting times very often i.e. even when flexibility is given, the employees do not use it very frequently.

It has also been noted that not all organisation members are positively inclined towards flexible working hours. It become very difficult for the control oriented supervisors as it is hard to keep track of who is working at what time. Another drawback is that suppose there is a meeting, the employee should put in the extra effort to be present at that time.

4.4.3 Shift Work

Even with this arrangement sometime it is not easy for the employee to adjust to their situations.

The main problem caused by shift work is due to the lack of balance between the hours of work and family and community pattern.

Another complication with shift work is the experience of the body's Circadian Rhythm which is a 24 hour cycle.

As people get used to a bio rhythm of the body and frequent changes in these can cause adverse effects on the person's health, both physically and psychologically.

There can be increased consumption of the alcohol, poorer appetites, low quality of sleep and higher levels of fatigue. Further research has also shown higher level of stress and interrupted gastro-intestinal functioning, symptoms of psychological distress, lower levels of job satisfaction and withdrawal behaviour (i.e. absenteeism and turnover). Evidence also suggest that more accidents and injuries occur on the night shift compared to either morning or afternoon shifts. Besides this, the employee's social life is mostly impaired by shift work i.e. participating in traditional social engagements and recreational activities. It was also found that performance suffers because employees who work fixed shifts tend to be more productive than those who are in rotating shifts.

Attempts were made to find a better fit between shift work and employee's personal needs and the following ideas appear to be especially promising:

To the extent possible, the employees should be given their schedule preferences – People who choose to work afternoon or night shifts experience lesser adverse effects than people who 'have' to work these shifts.

- Permanent shift assignments are better than rotating shifts for adjusting body rhythm.
- Rotate shifts forward, clockwise, from morning to afternoon to nights.
- Shorten the night Shifts and lengthen the morning and afternoon shifts.
- Make shifts changes predictable so people can plan their activities.
- Lengthen the intervals between shifts to permit employees more time to recharge their energies.
- Keep shift rotations slow in order to give employees time to adjust.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Describe shift work schedules and its functioning.

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- 2) Discuss compressed work week.

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3) What are the alternative work schedules?

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4) Explain the discretionary time systems.

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5) Shift work is followed by hospital type organisation. Explain

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4.5 EMPLOYEE OWNERSHIP

Employee ownership is formed due to a variety of forces. It can happen because a company is failing to work well, it can be a negotiated settlement in a labour-management dispute, a strategy to avert a hostile takeover, a search for capital, a desire to enhance productivity employee recruitment and retention issues, tax advantage, a philosophical ideal or a respectful gesture and gift extended to a loyal and productive work force. Some of the above said reasons are clearly business oriented and some are more to do with employee centeredness.

Thus as seen many a times employee ownership is to save the company from falling or sometimes it is to motivate employees toward higher productivity.

There are four basic types of employee-owned organisations, with many variations for each social ownership – people in a society or community, including employees have an ownership stake in the organisation.

- i) Worker co-operatives-employees are the exclusive owner (e.g. Lijjat Papad, Amul, Dwacra).
- ii) Employees stock ownership plans (ESOPS)

- iii) Employees may or may not be the exclusive owners, ownership is frequently the result of an employee ownership trust established by the organisation on employees behalf.
- iv) Direct ownership, employees purchase and hold stocks in the organisation that employ them.

However different ownership systems incorporate different degrees of employee ownership and control i.e. some are built around employee ownership and some are around employee control and others are around both.

The majority of employee ownership arrangements are ESOPS, which actually aim at providing employee owners with an equity stake in the organisation.

However this method was criticized as it does not fully handover the ownership, the employees only have a stake in the company

Legally ownership is commonly defined as a 'bundle of rights', which consists of:

- To possess some share of the owned object's physical and/or financial value.
- To obtain enforcement about the status of that which is owned.
- To exercise influence over the owned object.

Therefore when the ESOPs (Employees Stock Ownership Plans) do not come with the information and/or decision making rights they are not completely giving the feelings of the ownership on equity stakes in the organisations.

Ownership operates on both, a legal and psychological experienced state. People are likely to feel that they are owners when they legally own some share of the organisation, have information about the organisation's status and exercise influence over the organisation, then the status is defined as 'psychological ownership' i.e. a state where in an individual feels as though the target of ownership or a piece of it is his or her's.

4.5.1 Claims on the Efficacy of Employees Ownership

The efficacy of the employee ownership is always speculated as to how much involvement is shown toward the organisation by the employee. It is generally said that it stimulates his zeal and careful working. It is said that a worker who is given a piece of the action will be motivated to work harder. Turnover, absenteeism and grievances will come down. It was also felt that workers alienation and effectiveness problem can decrease through employee ownership systems. However, claims of improved morale and productivity have been reported.

4.5.2 Theory of Ownership

Motivation, Job satisfaction and Organisational commitment have seemed to increase according to some theorists. In the same way, absenteeism and turnover has decreased promoting employee performance.

When ownership plans were constructed around the idea of giving employees an equity stake in the organisation, keeping them informed about the activities and permitting them to play an active role in influencing important organisational affairs it was found that it contributed enormously to the emergence of psychological ownership.

Theorists also proposed that employee ownership produces its positive effects in the form of favourable attitudes, motivation and performance but research did not yield such results because the ownership is designed exclusively around the equity component.

4.6 EMPLOYEES RESPONSES TO OWNERSHIP

Studies conducted to see how employee ownership affects employees, showed that employees tend to integrate the ownership experience, there is a collective consciousness, common interests, psychological partnership, identification with the organisation and organisation commitment. Employee owners come with a shared responsibility enhanced co-operation and team work and demonstrate increased job satisfaction.

When employees are given an equity stake and important organisational information is shared, they are involved in organisation decision making, a powerful signal saying 'you matter and you make a difference', is sent. When this message gets internalised into the employees, they come to believe that, they are significant, worthy and valuable to the organisation. These in turn contribute to their self esteem which helps the employee to put further goal directed efforts and his/her motivation levels happen to sustain and aim at achieving higher levels of performance. All these in turn enhance employee performance.

However, there are some downsides to employee ownership like employee experience stress when they worry about the soundness of their daily business decisions and this usually works on their mind which may sometimes have a negative effect on the work.

4.7 QUALITY CONTROL CIRCLES

Japanese have changed the business paradigm by launching the quality revolution. When the U.S. companies were only focusing on producing the goods in volumes, capitalising on economics of scales and capturing the market share, Japanese recognised that if they were to become dominant players in the world's economy they have to compete very differently. i.e. they have to level the playing field by changing products and replacing the emphasis on quantity with a focus on quality.

To achieve this end, the Japanese have adopted the ideas on quality management put forth by an American W. Edward Deming. He served as their mentor and from this partnership emerged the Total Quality Management and the Employee involvement practice known as Quality Control Circle.

4.7.1 Total Quality Management

This has many different meanings but the primary focus is on continuous improvement of the process used to manufacture a product or deliver a service. TQM's four pillars are customer focus, measurement and evaluation, employee involvement and continuous improvement.

4.7.2 Quality Control Circles

These are one of the many vehicles organisations use to achieve employee involvement and continuous improvement. Quality Control Circles generally

consists of 5 to 15 employees who meet on a regular basis (usually once a week) to discuss issues pertaining to quality and related problems. Participation in Quality Circles is often voluntary and these circles meet during the working hours. The Quality Control members do not receive any monetary benefit for their ideas, even if profits arise out of their ideas. However many Quality Control advocates feel that participation itself is a reward per se and a nice addition to their daily routine.

There is no authority endowed with the Quality Control because their primary role is to explore problems and generate ways to cut costs, increase performance and improve quality. As a rule, the ideas that get generated are passed to others for review and a decision, on whether action should be taken on their ideas is made.

Thus TQM and QC Circles have now become an integral part of the management process in all the industries around the world.

4.7.3 Employee Responses to TQM and QCC

In 1980's American organisations started heeding to Dewing's ideas and believed that Quality Management is first and foremost a human process, because employees are the key persons in the search for continuous improvement. Now, we see that cross functional teams, Self directed work groups and Quality Control circles play important roles in TQM.

If the organisations want TQM to bring results they must see that the members work smarter, harder and efficiently and must take on more responsibility. When one understands his/her job and its place in the final frame work, some of these changes become an integral part of the organisation. Other require better training, and stronger commitment from the organisation.

Dewing and Karoru Ishikawa another father of the Quality movement believed that their ideas of TQM practices would positively impact employee motivation. Because, expanded employee involvement, power and responsibility contribute to increased intrinsic motivation and performance.

Further, it is also felt that when employees experience meaningfulness in their work, they obtain more job satisfaction.

Social motivation is also benefited from participating in QC Circles because synergy develops when people work together to achieve a desired outcome.

According to Professor Edward. E. Lawler III there are certain drawbacks of QC circles. He feels that most QC circles are not designed as high involvement systems. He notes that to affect performance over the long term, employees must:

- Have real power and understanding that they can cause things to happen.
- Have the skills and abilities needed to improve performance.
- Receive relevant information
- Share in the gains that stem from their contributions.

Lawler feels that sharing the monetary rewards is more crucial.

Quality Control Circles have many shortcomings in several of these areas:

- The Quality Control circles do not have the power to make things happen.
- There is no proper training to equip the participants with the necessary skills.
- There is no gain sharing

Therefore due to these reasons Quality Control circles do not appear to significantly contribute to worker motivation, commitment and satisfaction.

Other aspects of TQM seem to be more favourable. Research has shown that quality increases, new ideas and processes are brought to market more rapidly, production cost decreases and profits rise.

However, it has also been found that stress level rises with expectations from continuous production improvements. There is lack of commitment on the part of both management and the work force.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the concept of employee ownership.

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- 2) How efficient is the employee ownership system? Elucidate

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- 3) State the theory of ownership.

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- 4) Discuss employee's responses to ownership.

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5) What are quality control circles?

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6) Describe total quality management.

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4.8 THE HIGH INVOLVEMENT ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT

These new type of organisation are becoming increasingly visible, i.e. self managing work teams have become the centre piece of this approach to organisation. The employees in this system, interview, hire, train, evaluate, discipline, promote and fire those with whom they work. Further, they deal directly with the vendors and customers in order to improve operating efficiency and responsiveness.

The method followed through these systems, is in quite opposition to the traditional organisational structures, where top and middle management along with their staff specialists, direct, and control all the activities of the organisation.

However the high involvement approach is gaining popularity because of the experiences of a number of highly successful organisations.

Thus the high involvement approach focuses on employee involvement as a way to increase organisational performance. It is a participative process designed to use workers' entire capacity and to encourage commitment to the organisation, people at all levels and in all positions, especially those who make the products or deliver the services. They also manage all parts of the organisation such as planning, organising, directing and controlling. The job of the management is to try to achieve a fit between their people, their task/technology and their information process, rewards and structures. Here each organisational member must assume responsibility for their work and for the mission of the organisation because they psychologically experienced ownership for their work and for the organisation.

4.8.1 Involvement Strategies

To utilise the human resource more fully, the organisations adopted a number of strategies.

Firstly the work designs: This is the heart of the high involvement organisation because the nature of the work establishes, defines and maintains the individuals, relationship with the organisation. People are hired to perform a job, so jobs, shape employee motivation, attitudes and behaviour in many ways. Thus, job enrichment and work teams are central to making high involvement work.

Others strategies include:

- Management by objectives
- Quality Circle
- Employee ownership
- Gain sharing
- Quality of work life. (QWL /programmes)
- All these have been discussed earlier.

The QWC programmes are ‘cooperative labour management programmes’ which are designed for increasing the involvement of the employees. This programme attempts at improving the conditions for both the organisation and the worker. Therefore it is quite obvious that all these involvement programmes in one form or the other have formed an integral part of the high involvement organisations.

4.8.2 The Effects of High Involvement

Research has shown that high involvement strategies have been associated with organisational employment, indicating that they can make a difference. An organisation that employs management by objectives or quality circles, or employee ownership is not necessarily a high involvement organisation. High involvement organisations are fully integrated systems marked by enriched jobs, vigilance toward quality, and active participation by all employees in planning and controlling activities. They are all built upon a philosophical commitment and employee involvement.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Analyse the employee responses to TQM and QCC.

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- 2) Discuss the high involvement processes in organisation and management.

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3) Explain the involvement strategies.

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4) What are the possible effects of high involvement?

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4.9 LET US SUM UP

To enhance the morale and productive of an organisation it does not suffice to just provide the employees with the monthly salaries, safe working condition, fullfill their need and treat them well. Organisations have attempted to address the many needs that employees have besides the above mentioned ones like giving, them more time to spare to attend to their personal chores allowing them to own some shares of the company involving them into the work and motivating them to produce better quality goods. Thus compressed work week, staggered starts, flexible working hours and a variety of other schedules are offered to the employees because the management believes that this system will promote retention, motivation and job satisfaction. It has also been found that this arrangement work more efficiently.

Many organisations have adopted an employee ownership arrangement to influence the employees' attitude and motivation and work related behaviour. The psychological ownership has been found to have positive affects on group dynamics and lead to employee satisfaction and also improve the organisational citizenship behaviour among employee and improved their performance.

A quality control circle have been an integral part of the total quality management and is widely used as a employee involvement strategy. However, since complete power of making decisions is not bestowed in the hands of the employees and since there is not much monetary benefit, this strategy did not seem to work well.

Finally turning to high involvement management, it is attempting to build up employee participation and involvement into organisation as the management feels that the human resources are the key competitive advantage of an organisation.

4.10 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Explain the term Alternative work schedule and discuss about compressed workweeks and flexible working hours.
- 2) Explain how ESOPS impact employees motivate, attitudes and behaviour?
- 3) What are Quality control circles? What purpose do they serve?
- 4) What make an organisation a high involvement organisation?

4.11 GLOSSARY

Variable hour management	: A contract between the employee and manager for a specified time to be at work on daily, weekly or monthly basis.
Shift work	: Here the employee works in different blocks of time on a regular basis.
Employee stock ownership plan	: A management system wherein the employees purchase and hold stocks of the organisation that employs them.
Total quality management	: An achievement of quality through continuous improvement of the process of manufacturing a product.
Quality control circles	: A small group of individuals who meet on regular basis to discuss issues pertaining to quality and related problems.
High involvement organisation	: Organisations which find people who are intrinsically motivated and who have feelings of competence and self efficacy.

4.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

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ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Block 1 Organisational Psychology

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| Unit 1 | Introduction of Organisational Psychology |
| Unit 2 | Organisational Behaviour, Definition and Importance |
| Unit 3 | Fundamental Concepts in Organisational Behaviour |
| Unit 4 | Different Models of OB (Autocratic, Custodial, Supportive and Collegial, Etc. |

Block 2 Personality and Attitudes in Organisational Behaviour

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| Unit 1 | Job Satisfaction |
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| Unit 3 | Content Theories, Process Theories and Schedules of Reinforcement |
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Block 3 Leadership and Team Building

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Block 4 Learning Process and Motivation in Organisation Behaviour

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| Unit 4 | The Process of Motivation for Higher Morale and Productivity |



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