ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR NOTES
UNIT-III

Definition: **Transactional Analysis** (TA) by Late Dr. Eric Berne is a highly effective and popular psychological theory developed in the 1970s. Understanding Transactional Analysis (also known as TA) is beneficial for every person. You could be a professional doing a regular job routine, an entrepreneur, a student, or a homemaker! You could be anyone looking to improve your communication with self and others using the TA model.

Transactional Analysis elevates your thinking to a high level while raising awareness so you can understand your own difficult and dysfunctional behaviors and communication patterns to develop deeper connections with self and the world. Isn't that truly life-changing? Imagine being in control of the results you want and having a deep understanding of people and relationships!

Let's deep dive into the powerful world of What is Transactional Analysis?

Transactional Analysis

Late Dr. Eric Berne created a strong theory that helps you understand your own methods of communication. The International Transactional Analysis Association defines TA as, ***"Transactional Analysis is a theory of personality and a systematic psychotherapy for personal growth and personal change."***

Now, before you get flustered with the definition, we'll simplify the meaning of Transactional Analysis for you. This is a theory of personality which gives you in-depth information of why people behave the way they do.

Ask yourself, *"How many times have I repeated my behaviors which were not helping me?"* For example, shouting at people in traffic or sulking during an argument. It could also be positive such as being able to face adversities with greater strength at every point in life. TA thus brings your attention to self - *how you communicate with the world while being aware of how others communicate with you.*

Transactional Analysis includes concepts of the Ego-State Model (Parent-Adult-Child model), Life Scripts, Strokes, Time Structuring, and more. You understand how you replay certain patterns as you grow-up to create results you may or may not approve of. You learn to move away from undesirable behavior.

Key Concepts of Transactional Analysis

Transactional Analysis has its base on the Ego States or the Parent-Adult-Child (PAC) model.

1. Ego State or the Parent-Adult-Child (PAC) Model

Let's understand the situation. Emily is married and is often demanding in her relationship. She is also known to throw a tantrum when things don't go her way. Emily's partner cannot understand her behavior and has quietly put up with her tantrums. Over time, their relationship turns strained.

Emily here does not operate her thinking as an Adult, displays behaviors learned in her childhood to make things go her way. Let's understand the complexity of human behavior by knowing the PAC model.

a) Parent Ego State

There are moments when you behave in your current state just the way your Parents would do. The Parent Ego-State is about the behaviors and feelings that were copied from your parents or from your early caregivers.

In the case of Emily, she would probably be copying her dominant behavior and using it without consideration towards her partner.

Parents, when in their role, are quite critical in their behavior towards the child. They give us a set of instructions which may often sound like -

"Don't do this…"

"Always do this…"

"Be this…"

"Stop doing this…"

Their non-verbal communication may tend to be protective (gestures) or nurturing (hugs).

A person in this Ego-State as an adult may tend to be highly critical, judgmental, often deciding for others, protective, nurturing, etc.

Transactional Analysis is also useful in the treatment of psychological disorders, is an important part of counseling, and coaching

b) Adult Ego-State

When a person is in the Adult Ego-State, he/she displays behaviors that are directly related to the here-and-now situation. The individual is free to choose their response without being influenced by any other Ego-State. He/she will look for solutions in the most effective and rational manner without being too emotional about a situation. A person in the Adult Ego-State is often straightforward in their approach, is interested in the conversation without being judgmental, and will know how to use logic in conflicting situations.

A person in this Ego-State tends to question different sides to a situation such as the what and why, where, and know what he/she sees versus what opinions they hold.

c) Child Ego-State

A person in this Ego-State displays behaviors, feelings or may think about situations while being influenced by their thoughts as replayed in childhood. *Emily's sulking would be influenced by her Child Ego-State wherein her reaction is influenced by emotions that are driven through past behavior.* If you had to ask Emily, *"Does this situation resonate with something in your childhood?"* Emily would have answered, *"Yes, every time I wanted my mother's attention, I used to throw my toys and sulk."*

A person in this Ego-State may display rebellion, delight, whining, sulking, panic, fear, or even a lot of laughter.

A person is never consciously aware of their Ego-States. Every person re-experiences a part of the Parent Ego-State or the Child Ego-State to base their communication in the present situation.

Had Emily to use her Adult Ego-State, she could have thought, *"Oh! I must not get angry but work on finding a solution. What is truly making me angry though?"*

Eric Berne outlines the presence of each Ego-State in daily life. A person will always find the use of traffic rules for instance as highly beneficial in life. These are derived from the Parent Ego-State. The Child Ego-State is beneficial to keep one's creativity and intuitive skills active. An Adult Ego-State helps one to make decisions based in the present moment to resolve problems with greater accuracy without displaying any influenced behaviors from other Ego States.

Definition of Ego-States by Eric Berne:

A consistent pattern of feeling and experience directly related to a corresponding consistent pattern of behavior.

2. Life Positions

Eric Berne highlighted that a person's life and its results are pre-decided based on the first 5 years of a person's life. You may wonder how can a person base their life story on something that happened way back in growing-up years?

Life Positions is thus an interesting theory that brings attention to our psychological patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving. Our decisions are based on the responses we receive from parents or parental figures. These form convictions about the self and the world. A child tends to make this decision early on based on messages which may be verbal on non-verbal that are received during the early years.

However, Life Positions are not permanent and can be altered through counseling or therapy, helping a person free themselves from self-limiting beliefs to embrace a new life story for themselves.

The Life Convictions formed are as follows:

1. I am OK
2. I'm not OK
3. You're OK
4. You're not OK

Berne combined these to form 4 Life Positions as follows:
a) I'm Ok, you're Ok

This is often defined as a winning Life Script. Here, a child is comfortable with self and the world. He/she knows they are lovable and will grow up to trust others, have long-lasting meaningful relationships. They have a good attitude and give and receive trust.

b) I'm not Ok, you're Ok

A child here often considers themselves on the losing end. They firmly believe in this and create life stories that bring more misery. An individual feels the need to please others while feeling victimized. They often show more support to other people's strength instead of their own.

c) I'm Ok, you're not Ok

An infant grows up thinking he/she is above the others. Such a child becomes an adult focused on his own 'wants' while stepping over others. This adult may tend to project their problems on others, and play the blame-game. A person like this always makes others feel inferior while feeling 'okay' about themselves.

d) I'm not OK, you're not OK

When a child decides this Life Position, the child has an internal struggle with self and the world as well. They end up creating a life of misery while not believing in self and taking decisions that put them in the spot of being a victim. A person feels frustrated and hopeless. Such a person may withdraw or even injure themselves.

These positions represent a specific stance taken by an individual that is all about how he/she perceives self and others.

The Philosophy of Transactional Analysis mentions:

People are OK.

Everyone has the capacity to think.

People decide their own destiny, and these decisions can be changed.

3) Life Scripts

Transactional Analysis outlines each person has already written their life story or a script based on many things such as the Life Positions. Berne highlights that this begins from the day one is born. Every individual has a beginning, a middle and an end - just the script you'd notice in a movie. *Here, you are the Director and the scriptwriter and you define your ending without your conscious knowledge.*

First developed by Eric Berne and then worked upon by Claude Steiner, a Life Script is a plan that is influenced by the people one grows up with. A child observes and prepares this Life Plan based on external influences as well as what happens internally. A parent gives messages to a child such as, *"The world is not safe."* A child grows up thinking, *" I shouldn't trust anybody."* It's important to note how two children may interpret the same messages through their own understanding.

An infant or a child interprets certain parental messages in their own way. Being ignored by a mother in the early age may lead to the infant growing up to distrust women or people in general. A person may decide, *"I am a loser"* after being put down frequently by his class teacher.

Learning Transactional Analysis works to change your core limiting beliefs to modify and create a winning Life Script.

4) Transactions and Strokes

Eric Berne referred to transactions as the 'basic unit of social discourse.'

Transactions are of many types.

For example, you greet a colleague with a *'hello'* and get a *'how are you'* as a response. When you continue a conversation, you receive a series of transactions. Transactions can be complementary, crossed, ulterior, and angular ulterior. They can occur between different Ego-states.

An individual can observe their communication which includes verbal, non-verbal gestures and body language to identify problems in their transactions. A Transactional Analyst is able to rectify and modify a client's approach to communication to create better results in life.

Berne defined Strokes as a 'unit of recognition.' You exchange a stroke when you say a friendly greeting and receive one in response. However, a person who does not receive a stroke in return may feel deprived as mentioned by Berne. A person's *hunger* for Strokes begins at an early age. *For example, a baby longs to be held and in physical contact with*

their parents. However, a baby deprived of the same will grow up to experience emotional difficulties and problems.

Strokes are defined as:

Verbal or non-verbal

Positive or negative

Conditional or unconditional

A simple example would be the constant need of sharing updates and selfies on social media. A person expects "Likes" which are nothing but seeking positive strokes from their friends and family. A child may often be made to experience he/she does not need strokes creating a hunger for strokes within.

However, strokes are available in plenty, and it's advisable to indulge in self-stroking in moderate ways to feel better about yourself.

Eric Berne highlighted that a person's life and its results are pre-decided based on the first 5 years of a person's life.
5) Games

If you've felt like a victim in life and find yourself saying, "*Why does this happen to me?,*" welcome to the psychological Games that we play with ourselves and the world. Transactional Analysis outlines a collection of Games that people play. These are often out of unconscious behavior.

Games are defined as an ongoing series of ulterior transactions that lead to a predictable outcome.

For example, a person may think he is not good at communication. He applies for many jobs, gets selected, but he often declines the interview process. A friend says, "You should join classes to improve communication and get over your fear." He says, "Oh, no, I don't have the time." The friend says, "You can manage your time better." He says, "Yes, but I have to manage my house." The person has managed to avoid all the friend's suggestions.

This game is labelled as "Yes, But…" A Game analysis helps to understand the Games people play.

TA outlines Games to have certain features -

1. These are repetitive - a person display same patterns and creates same results
2. They are played without the Adult awareness
3. A person always ends up experiencing racket feelings
4. There is an exchange of ulterior transactions
5. They always include feelings of being surprised or complete confusion

Examples of Games People Play:

1. **I'm only trying to help you -** a person offers help but desires to control behavior.
2. **Blemish** - a person finds faults in people. The actual game is to create a distraction from self and avoid looking at one's own mistakes.
3. **Courtroom** - a person proves how often they are right while others are wrong. They seek support and sympathy from people.
4. **Poor me**- a person often displays themselves as completely helpless. They want to seek sympathy.

A deeper study of Transactional Analysis helps to understand Games while being aware of the patterns we display.

Transactional Analysis also includes the study of Functional Analysis of Ego-States, Time Structuring, Script Messages, Injunctions, Drivers, Discounting, Frame of Reference, Symbiosis, Rackets, Stamps, and much more.

We know you have many questions related to Transactional Analysis. We've answered a few here.

How does Transactional Analysis help an individual?

1. Self-reliance - capable of taking their own decisions in life
2. Identifying areas of improvement in communication with self and others
3. Knowing where to modify behaviors
4. Understand messages that influenced behavior, remove limiting beliefs
5. Develop a better understanding of people
6. Raise self-awareness towards situations, respond before reacting
7. Develop the capacity to view situations from Adult state
8. Work upon own Life Script, make the changes to achieve goals

Transactional Analysis is beneficial for -

Personal Development - it creates people who are highly self-aware and responsible in life, brings focus on personal and professional goals

Jobs - TA is beneficial at work as you learn techniques to manager interpersonal communications, encourage team building, and more

Business - A businessperson learns to manage situations through self-awareness, make decisions based on the here-and-now

Transactional Analysis is also useful for any industry - medicine, coaching, education, media, art, and more.

Can Transactional Analysis be used as a form of Psychotherapy?

TA is used extensively as a form of psychotherapy to accelerate an internal change in people. A counsellor is able to explore the client's personality and their experiences which are shaped by their decisions.

An understanding of the personality gives many answers to the problems faced by the client. A counsellor can use a number of techniques to question and listen to the client. TA is useful to resolve many problems wherein a person is guided towards a reflective practice.

TA is useful to eliminate unhelpful thoughts and feelings to raise awareness of actions. People learn to be responsible without blaming situations or others.

Does Transactional Analysis support Communication?

Transactional Analysis is beneficial for communication as a person understands their communication with self while identifying the personality of another. A deeper understanding of personality and behaviors allows one to improve communication that is designed to create the best outcomes.

Goal of Transactional Analysis Theory

1. Be a highly self-aware individual
2. Understand own behavior, modify patterns
3. Examine own thoughts, behaviors, actions
4. Be present in the Adult Ego-State

LEADERSHIP

Leadership can be defined as an art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly andenthusiastically toward the achievement of group goals. Leadership means to develop willingness to work enthusiastically

with zeal and confidence. Difference between a Leadership and a Management

FACTORS	LEADER	MANAGER
Source of power	Has Personal abilities	Is authority delegated
Focus	Has vision and purpose	Operating results
Approach	Transformational	Transactional
Process	Inspiration	Control
Emphasis	Collectivity	Individualism
Futurity	Proactive	Reactive
Type	Formal and informal	Formal

Importance of leadership

Motivates employees

1. Creates confidence in employees

2. Builds morale among employees

3. Leadership skills

4. Ability to use power effectively and in a responsible manner

5. Ability to comprehend that human beings have different motivation forces at different times and in different situations

6. Ability to inspire

7. Ability to act in a manner that will develop a climate conducive to responding to an arousing motivation.

Leadership ingredients

☐ Leadership is power

☐ Fundamental understanding of people

☐ Ability to inspire followers to apply their fullest
☐ capacities to a project. Developing a particular style of leadership
Leadership styles (3 styles of leadership)

1. **Autocratic style**

   It is also known as authoritarian directive or monothetic style. In this style a manager centralizes decision-making power in himself. He structures the complete situation for his employed and they do what they are told. Here the leadership may be negative because followers are uniformed, insecure, and afraid on the leader's authority. There are three categories of autocratic leaders.

➢ **Strict autocrat:** He is very strict, his style or method of influencing his

subordinates is through negative motivation i.e. by criticizing his subordinates, imposing penalty etc.,

➢ **Benevolent Autocrat:** He centralizes decision making power in him, but his motivation style is positive. He can be effective in getting efficiency in many situations. Some people to work under strong authority structure and they derive satisfaction by this leadership.

➢ **Incompetent Autocrat:** Sometimes superior adopt autocratic leadership style just to hide their incompetence. Because they feel in other styles they may be exposed before their subordinates. However, this style cannot be used for a long time.

Advantages of autocratic style of leadership

➢ Employees who like to work under strong authority structure and they derive satisfaction by this leadership

➢ Provides strong motivation and reward to a manger exercising this style.

➢ Help in quick decision making.

➢ Less competent employees also have scope to work based on the instruction given to them by their leaders.

Disadvantages of autocratic style of leadership

➢ People dislike strict style of leadership and they get demotivated.

➢ Frustration, low morale and conflict develops in the organsiation , jeopardizing organizational efficiency

➢ Employees loose their individuality and creativity because of continuously listening and following the instruction given by the leaders.

Democratic or Participative Style :

The style is democratic, consultative or ideographic. It involves a mental and emotional involvement of an employee in a group situation which encourages him to contribute to group goals and share responsibility in them. The manager in this style emphasizes on consultation and participation of his subordinates. Hence a participative manager decentralizes on consultation and participation of his subordinates. Subordinates are also broadly informed about the

conditions affecting them and their jobs. He also encourages, accepts and appreciates the ideas and suggestions given by them.

Advantages

➢ Employees' feels recognized

➢ It a highly motivating technique for employees,

➢ Raises the morale and attitude of employees.

➢ Productivity increases.

Disadvantages

➢ Employees may not have understood the organizational process and may intervene and give suggestions

➢ Employees who are not ready to interact and participate may create problems.

4. **Free rein Style**

It means giving complete freedom to the subordinates. In this style manager once determines the policies, programs and limitations for action and the entire process is left to the subordinates. Group members perform everything and the manager usually maintains contacts with outside persons to bring the information and materials which the group needs .This type of leadership is suitable in certain situations, where the manager can leave a choice to the group. This helps the managers to develop independent personality. However contribution of the manager is almost nil. Hence this style is rarely used in organization.

LEADERSHIP THEORIES

1. **CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP THEORY**
They are called great man theory and can be traced back to ancient times .Plato's Republic and Confucius' Analects dealt with leadership. They provided some insights on leadership. Subsequent studies based on these insights have suggested that 'a leader is born and is not made'. A leader has ome charisma which
acts as influencer. Charismatic is a Greek work which means gift. Thus

charisma is a god gifted attributein a person which makes him a leader irrespective of situations in which he works,

Charismatic leaders are those who inspire and have a major impact on their organizations through their personal vision and energy. Occasionally, a leader emerges whose high visibility and personal charisma catch the public consciousness. Charismatic leader have extremely high level of self confidence, dominance, and a strong conviction .they are always oriented towards high level of goals or vision, whichcaptures the energy of followers. The theory believes that only a transformation leader inspires his followers through vision and energy which a normal leader cannot do. The best examples are the Great leaders like Mahatma Gandhi and Lenin and the great industrialists like JRD Tata. GD Birla, Dhirbai Ambani who created industrial empires because of their own vision, energy and entrepreneurship.

The basic assumption of charismatic theory are:

1. Leader has exceptional inborn leadership qualities which bestowed upon them by the divinepower.

2. These inborn qualities are sufficient for a leader to successful.

3. Since these qualities are inborn, these cannot be enhanced through education and training. Furtherthese qualities are of very personal nature, these cannot be shard by others.

4. These leadership qualities make a leader very effective and situational factors do not have anyinfluence.

Limitation of the theory

➤ If we assume that leaders are born, it means that we cannot develop leaders in the organizations.

➤ A charismatic leader may fail in certain situations.

TRAIT THEORY

The behavioural psychological researchers accepted the fact that leadership traits are not completely inborn but they can also be acquired through learning and experience. Trait is defined as an enduring quality of an individual. The trait approach seeks to determine what makes a successful leader form the leader's own personal characteristics. Trait approach leadership studies were quite familiar between 1930 to 1950.The method was to select leaders of eminence and their characteristics were studied. It was the hypothesis that leaders with certain traits could become more successful leaders.

Various studies Shows various traits, hence these traits can be broadly classified into innate qualities and acquirable traits

➢ Innate traits are those traits which are inborn in an individual they are related to one physical features andintelligence.

➢ Acquirable traits are those traits which are acquired and increased through various processes like self learning, training, experience etc. they are traits like emotional stability, human relations, empathy, objectivity, motivation skills, technical skills, communication skills, social skills etc.,

The studies have given that intelligence, attitudes, personality and biological factors areingredients for effective leaders.

A review of various research studies has been presented by Stogdill,
He has suggested these traits in asuccessful leader

1. Physical and constitutional factors (height, weight, physique, energy, health, appearance)

2. Intelligence

3. Self-confidence

4. Sociability

5. Will (initiative, persistence ambition)

6. Dominance

7. Surgency (talkative, cheerfulness, geniality, enthusiasm, expressiveness, alertness and alertness and originality)

Limitations of the theory

☐ There cannot be generalization of traits for successful leaders.

☐
☐ No evidence can be given about the degree of traits because have various traits in various degrees. No definite conclusion can be drawn for the measurement of the traits.

BEHAVIOURAL THEORY

Behaviour theory of leadership emphasizes that strong leadership is a result of effective role behaviour. Leadership is shown by a persons act rather by his traits. Researchers exploring leadership role have come to the conclusion that to operate effectively, groups need some one to perform two major functions; task related function and group maintenance function. Task related function relate to providing solutions to the problems faced by the groups, in performing jobs and activities. Group maintenance function or social functions are related to actions of mediating disputes and ensuring that individuals feel valued by the group. An individual who is able to perform both roles successfully would be an effective leader. These two roles requires two different sets of behaviour from the leader, known as leadership styles. Leaders behavior may be viewed in two ways, functional and dysfunctional.

Functional leader influences followers positively by giving clear goals, motivating employees for achieving goals, raising the level of morale, building team spirit, effective two way communication, etc., Dysfunctional leader on the other hand is unfavourable towards employees and denotes ineffective leadership. Such a behaviour may an inability to accept employees ideas, display of emotional immaturity, poor human relations.

Limitations of the theory

1. A behaviour which has been functional at a point of time may be dysfunctional at another point of time.
2. Effectiveness of the leadership behaviour is depended on two external variables
   - Nature of followers
   - Situation in which the leader operates etc.

4. SITUATIONAL THEORY

The approach was applied for the first time in 1920 in the armed forces of Germany with the objective to get good generals under different situations. The studies when conducted in organizations in 1950's gave prime attention in situational theory of leadership (also known as contingency theory) is given to the situation in which the leadership is exercised. There for the theory states that the effectiveness of leadership will be affected by the factors associated with the leader and factors associated with the situation.

The dimensions of leadership have been presented below :

The various factors affecting leadership effectiveness may be broadly by classified in two major categories, Leader's behaviour and situational factors. The combination of both these factors determines leadership effectiveness.
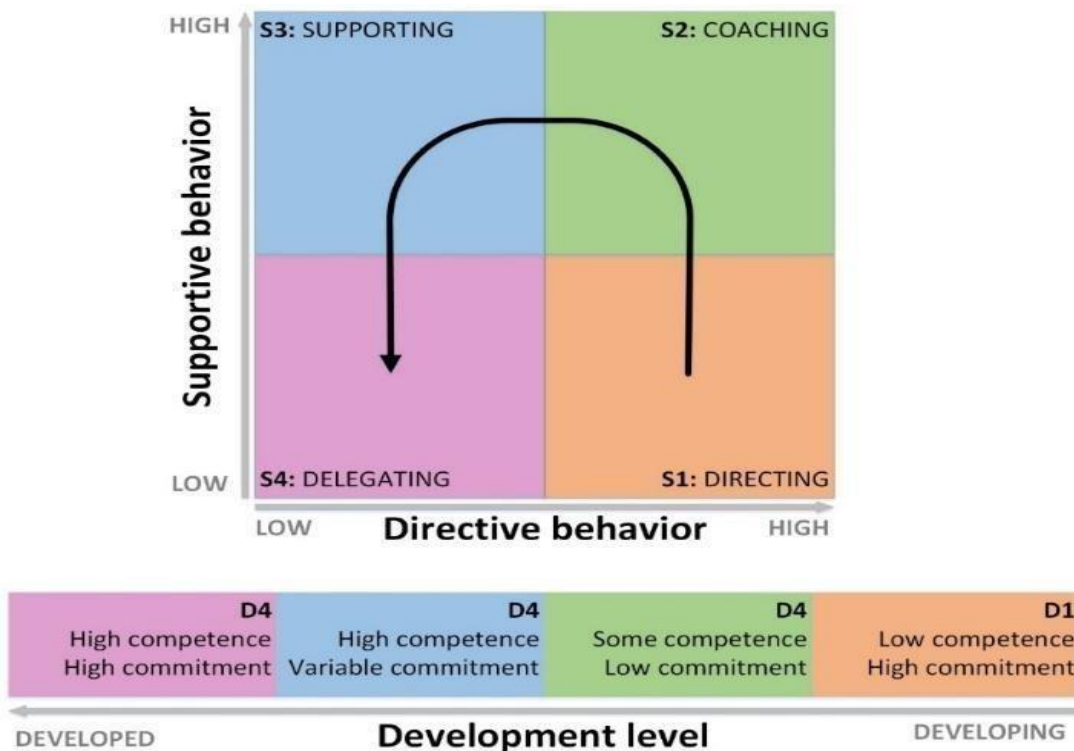
Leader behaviour is affected by two variables:

a. Leader's characteristics
b. Leader's Hierarchical position
   - Situational factors
   - Subordinates characteristics Leader's situation
   - Group factors
   - Organizational factors
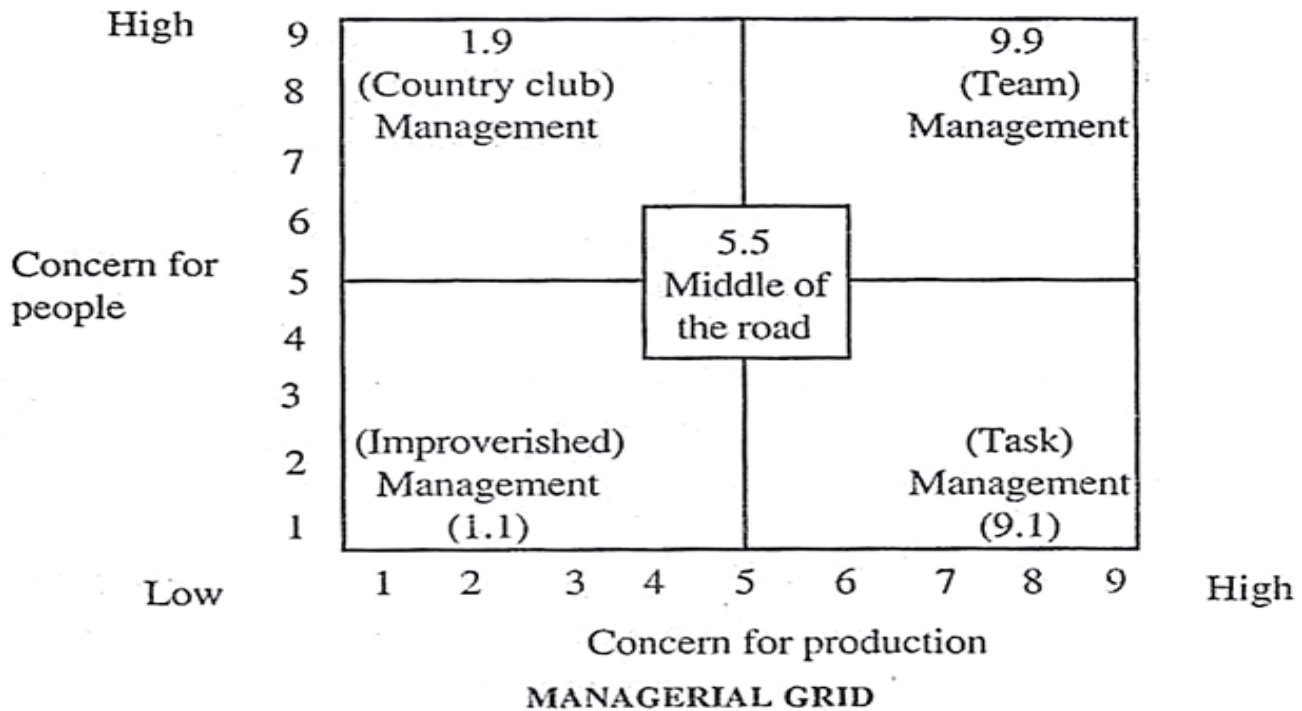
Diagram of the dimensions of leadership:

MANAGERIAL GRID DEVELOPED BY BLAKE AND MOUTON

One of the most widely known approaches of leadership styles in the managerial grid developed by Blake and Mouton. They emphasize the leadership consists of factors of both task oriented and relation-oriented behaviour in varying degrees. Two variable have been taken for the study , they are:-

➢ Concern for production

➢ Concern for people

The concern for phrase has been used to convey how managers are concerned for people or production. Concern for production means the attitudes of superiors towards a variety of things, such as, quality of policy decisions, procedures and processes creativeness of research,

quality of staff services, work efficiency and volume of output. Concern for people includes degree of personal commitment toward goal achievement, maintaining the self esteem of workers, responsibility based on trust, and satisfying inter personal relations. The managerial grid identifies five leadership styles based upon these two factors (Concern for production &Concern for people) found in organizations.

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High  9 |  1.9                    |  9.9
      8 | (Country club)          | (Team)
        | Management              | Management
      7 |                         |
      6 |            +------------+
Concern  5 |         | 5.5        |
for      |          | Middle of  |
people 4 |          | the road   |
      3 |          +------------+
      2 | (Improverished)         | (Task)
      1 | Management              | Management
        |   (1.1)                 |   (9.1)
Low     +-------------------------------------
          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   High
                  Concern for production
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MANAGERIAL GRID

Blake and Mouton have described five styles of leadership based on the above model They are

1. Impoverished (1,1),
2. Country Club (1,9),
3. Task (9,1) ,
4. Middle Road (5,5)
5. Team (9,9) styles of leadership

1. Impoverished (1,1): exertion of minimum effort is required to get work done and sustain organization morale.

2. Country club (1,9): Thoughful attention to needs of people leads to friendly and comfortable organization atmosphere and work tempo,
3. Task (9,1) : efficiency results from arranging work requirements in such a way that human elements have little effect.
4. Middle road (5,5) : adequate performance through balance of work requirements and maintaining satisfactory morale.
5. Team (9,9) : work accomplished is from committed people with interdependence through a common stake in organization purpose and with trust and respect.

Managerial grid is useful device to a manager for identifying and classifying managerial styles, it helps him to understand why he gets the reaction that he does from his subordinates. It is a means of managerial training and of identifying various combinations of leadership styles.
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FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

The Fiedler Contingency Model was created in the mid-1960s by Fred Fiedler, a scientist who studied the personality and characteristics of leaders. The model states that there is no one best style of leadership. Instead, a leader's effectiveness is based on the situation.

This theory has taken its base form the situational approach of leadership ,states that any single style cannot be considered suitable for all situations and for all kind of subordinates.

Fiedler developed contingency model of leadership assuming that the effectiveness of the leadership is based on the ability to act in terms of situational requirements

Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership holds that people become leaders not only because of their qualities but also because of various situational factors and the interactions between group members and the leader.

This model also explains a relationship between leadership style and the favorableness of situation.

Fiedler described situational favorableness in terms of three dimensions—

- The leader and member relationship

- The degree of task structure and
- The leader's position power.

➢ If the three dimensions are high, the situation can be said to be favorable. If the three dimensions are low, the situation in combination with leadership style determines effectiveness.

➢ This theory is criticized for its deficiencies like narrow focus on a single leader trait (task or relations orientations), ambiguity in measurement of terms of the model, and lack of explanatory process.

➢ Fiedler proposed a new theory based on empirical research, which is called the cognitive resource theory.

➢ He identified the situations under which the leader's cognitive resources namely intelligence, experience and technical expertise contribute to group performance.

The leadership style of the leader, thus, fixed and measured by what he calls the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale, an instrument for measuring an individual's leadership orientation. The LPC scale asks a leader to think of all the people with whom they have ever worked and then describe the person with whom they have worked least well, using a series of bipolar scales of 1 to 8, such as the following:

Unfriendly   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Friendly
Uncooperative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Cooperative
Hostile   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Supportive
....   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 ....
Guarded   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Open

A high LPC score suggests that the leader has a "human relations orientation", while a low LPC score indicates a "task orientation". Fiedler assumes that everybody's least preferred coworker in fact is on average about equally unpleasant. But people who are indeed relationship motivated, tend to describe their least preferred coworkers in a more positive manner, e.g., more pleasant and more efficient. Therefore, they receive higher LPC scores. People who are task motivated, on the other hand, tend to rate their least preferred coworkers in a more negative manner. Therefore, they receive lower LPC scores. So, the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale is actually not about the least preferred worker at all, instead, it is about the person who takes the test; it is about that person's motivation type. This is so, because, individuals who rate their least preferred coworker in relatively favorable light on these scales derive satisfaction out of interpersonal relationship, and those who rate the coworker in a relatively unfavorable light get satisfaction out of successful task performance. This method reveals an

individual's emotional reaction to people they cannot work with. Critics point out that this is not always an accurate measurement of leadership effectiveness.

Fiedler postulated two major style of leadership
1. **Human relations style**
2. **Task directed style**

Human relations style was oriented primarily towards achieving good interpersonal relations and towards achieving a position of personal dominance. Human relations-oriented manager/leader is effective in the intermediate range of favorableness. In the very favorable and very unfavorable situation task-oriented leadership is effective.

Task oriented style is concerned towards task performed. Fiedlers felt that ' the group performance will be contingent upon the appropriate matching of leadership style and the degree to which the situation provides the leader that is the degree to which the situation provides the leader with influence over his group members.

Favourableness of situation has been defined as the degree to which given situation enables a leader to exert influence over a group.

He has identified three dimensions of favourableness of situation.

- The leader member relationships: the leader should be accepted by the followers
- The degree of the task structure: Task is properly structured
- The leader position or power obtained through formal authority. Great deal of authority and is formally attributed to leader's position
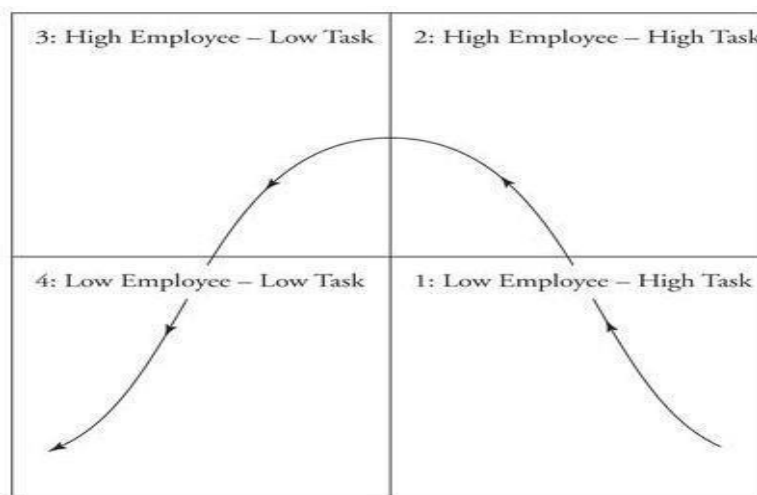
Figure 1 Hersey-Blanchard's Model of Situational Leadership.

The figure shows task oriented leader tend to perform best in groups situations that ate either favourable or unfavorable.

Human relations oriented leaders perform best in situations that ate intermediate in favourableness. The model indicates that leadership effectiveness depends upon the various elements in the group environment,. Thus the effectiveness of the group performance can be affected by changing the leadership style for the situation in accordance with the described relationships. This also helps in designing the selection and training programmes for managers to be suitable for given situations.

GROUPS IN ORGANISATION

In any organization, the work of an individual is influenced by that of another. The employees, therefore, have to work together in a co-ordinate manner to complete any task. In other words, it is teamwork that makes goal attainment possible.

There is a no. of groups that one can find in a work place. These groups contribute either directly or indirectly to the success of the organization. The behavior of an individual is significantly influenced by the group to which he belongs. It is, therefore, more appropriate to discuss group behavior in the context of organizational behavior.

GROUP

A group is a cluster of persons who have come together to pursue activities of common interest. A group may consist of any no. of persons. But the group members must have continued interaction with and must be psychologically aware of one another.

Definition:

According to Edgar Schein, "a group is an aggregation of people who interact with each other, are aware of one another, have a common objective, and perceive themselves to be a group"

Characteristics of a group:

- A group is always a conglomeration of persons
- The members know and interact with one another
- The members come together to pursue certain activities of common interest.
- Each member perceives that he is a part of the group

Need for group formation

1. **Nearness and interaction:** In the workplace, the employees work close to each other. During their course of work, they may have to interact with one another. Such an environment may induce them to form groups.

2. **Capacity to influence:** The capacity of each individual in the organization to influence another by reason of work- or work-related issues is another factor that results in the formation of groups.

3. **Need for security:** One of the main reasons for the formation of groups in the organization is the need for security. If the employer creates an environment in which the employees feel insecure, they have to come together as a group, namely, the union to safeguard their interests.

4. **Common interest:** People with common interest, likes and dislikes often come together. This happens in an organization too. The subject matter of interest may be something connected with their work or it can be anything like politics, sports, hobbies, etc.

5. **Recognition:** The recognition that is not normally available to a person, when he is alone becomes a member of certain group. A person who feels it all his endeavors must be recognized and appreciated will identify himself with some group in the organization.

6. **Power** Employee derive much greater power collectively, i.e., as members of union, than as individuals. In an organization where trade unions are absent or not powerful, belonging to a small informal group gives an individual a feeling that the group will not let him down when he faces a crisis.Further, a person who has no formal authority in the organization may be in the position to influence the members of an informal group by becoming its leader.

7. **To get rid of delay:** Formal organization promotes delay in view of hierarchy and longer channels of communication. To get rid of the delay in the completion of certain specific tasks,executives, sometimes, may have to meet and interact with employees casually and informally.

An informal group of subordinates and superiors, thus, exists within a formal organization.

TYPES OF GROUPS IN AN ORGANISATION:

Formal and informal group Formal Group

A formal group is created within an organisation to complete a specific role or task. This may be a one off objective such as the launch of a particular product or service or a permanent/ongoing objective such as the provision of Information Technology (IT).

Informal Group

Informal groups are established by individuals who decide they want to interact with each other. Informal groups usually do not have a specific purpose; often the group forms because the group members regularly happen to be in the same location or because they enjoy each other's company. For example people may form a group because they sit close together in an office or live together in a house.

Primary group and Secondry group Primary Group

A Primary group is made up of a small group of people who interact regularly. A small team with a leader is an example of a primary group. A family can also be called a primary group. Within the primary group, values, beliefs and culture are all very important.

Secondary Group

When a large number of people get together (who do not normally get together) it is called a secondary group. Secondary group members do not get the opportunity to get to know each other as well as primary group members because the interaction with each other is less than in a primary group. When a secondary group is formed, individuals usually have their own agenda and goals. The relationship they form is not long term and social interaction within a secondary group is likely to be low.

Command group and task group

Command Groups: The command group is the most frequent type of formal group. It is relatively permanent and is specified by the organisation chart. It comprises of managers or supervisors and subordinates, who meet regularly to discuss general and specific ideas to improve product or service. In business organisations, most employees work in such command groups Thus, a manager and his supervisors reporting to him form one command group. The supervisor and the subordinates reporting to him from other command groups.

Task group : Task groups are also organizationally determined. But it is a temporary group representing the employees who are working together to complete a job task or particular project. However, a task group's boundaries are not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior. For example, if a problem involving many departments arises, a task force made up of representatives from each of the affected departments, might be formed to examine the problem and suggest solutions.
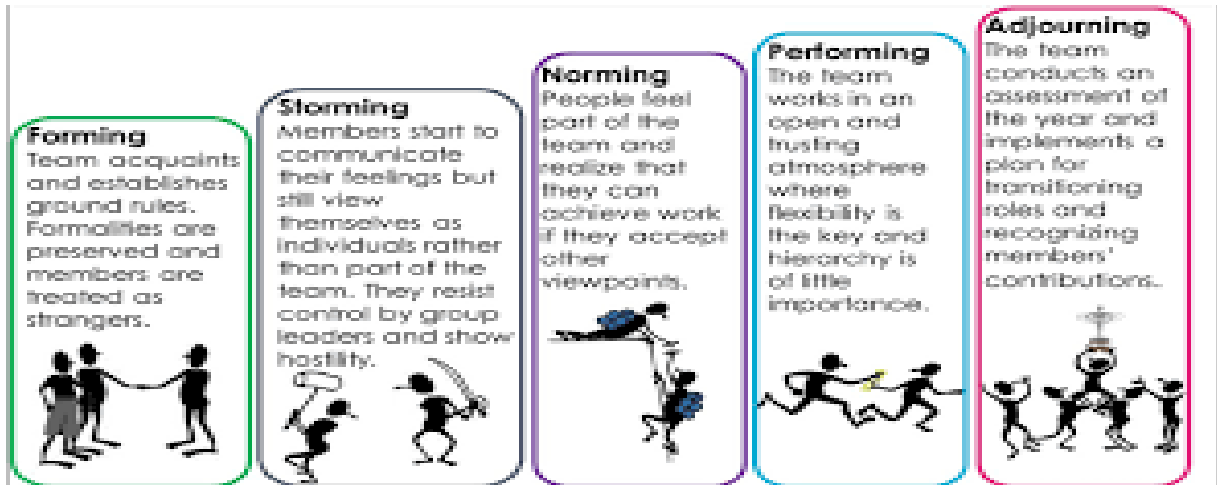
Ingroup and Out group

In-Group: An in-group is one which we belong. The members of an in-group have certain values, beliefs, ideals, and norms that act as a binding force.

Out-Group: The out-group is one to which we do not belong. It consists of members who hold the values, beliefs, ideals and norms that are quiet opposed to those of the members of the in- group.

Open Groups:

An open group is the one that is in a constant state of change. Its membership keeps fluctuating, i.e., existing embers may leave and new members may join. The group accepts the idea of the new members and may slowly give p certain old practices. In view of such a trend, the open group may have plans and proposals only for a shorter period of time. .Due to its peculiar characteristics, the open group faces conditions of imbalance and instability.

DIFFERENT STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT:

Forming
Team acquaints and establishes ground rules. Formalities are preserved and members are treated as strangers.

Storming
Members start to communicate their feelings but still view themselves as individuals rather than part of the team. They resist control by group leaders and show hostility.

Norming
People feel part of the team and realize that they can achieve work if they accept other viewpoints.

Performing
The team works in an open and trusting atmosphere where flexibility is the key and hierarchy is of little importance.

Adjourning
The team conducts an assessment of the year and implements a plan for transitioning roles and recognizing members' contributions.

one person emerges as a powerful leader. Such a development paves a way for what is called groupcohesion. A strong sense of group identity and comradeship also develops.

1. **Performing Stage: Forming Stage:**

The forming stage is marked by great deal of uncertainty over the purpose, structure and leadershipof the group. At the end of this stage, inter-personal relationships are established and members begin to identify themselves with the group.

2. **Storming Stage:**

   This stage is characterized by conflicts and confrontations among the group members. Such conflicts may arise due to differences in perception. A condition like this may sometimes lead to group split.
3. **Norming Stage:** At this stage this stage is characterized by teamwork, role clarity and task accomplishment. It exhibits the highest level of group maturity. Conflicts among the members are resolved through group discussion

4. **Adjourning Stage**:

   This stage is relevant for work teams, task forces and such similar groups that have only a limited task to perform. As soon as the task is completed, the activities of the group are wrapped up.

Difference Between Formal and Informal Groups

The following are the differences between formal and informal groups:

1. The groups formed by the management of the organisation for accomplishing a specific task are known as Formal Groups. The groups that are formed by the employees themselves as per their likes and prejudices is known as Informal Groups.
2. The formal groups are deliberately created by the organisation, whereas the informal groups are established voluntarily.
3. The formal groups are big in size as compared to an informal group. Moreover, there can be sub-groups in a single formal group.
4. The structure of a formal group is designed in a hierarchical manner while the informal group lacks structure or say it has no structure.
5. In a formal group, the position of a member defines its importance in the group, but in an informal group, every member is as important as any other member.
6. In a formal group, the relationship between the members is professional, they gather just to accomplish the task allotted to them. On the other hand, in an informal group, there is a personal relationship between members, they share their opinions, experiences, problems, information with each other.

7. In a formal group, the flow of communication is restricted due to the unity of

command. In contrast to an informal group, the flow of communication stretches in all directions; there is no such restrictions.

GROUP NORMS

'Group norms' are the rules and regulations prescribed for the group members. In other words these are the do's and don'ts. These reflect the feelings, beliefs, values and attitudes commonly shared by the group members.

Group norms provide the standard against which the behavior of a member is evaluated. A member violating norms may have to face disciplinary action. A member of a trade union, for example, who does not respond to strike call given by the union, may be expelled.

Characteristics of group norms:

1. Norms explain the characteristics of a group

2. These relate to the behavior of the members that is considered desirable.

3. Norms provide the standard or basis against which the behavior of the group members is assessed.

4. Norms are applied to all the members of the group

GROUP COHENSIVENESS:

Group cohesiveness refers to the extent to which the members of the group are attached to each other and willing to remain in the group.

Factors Influencing Cohesion:

1. **Interaction:** The extent to which the members of the group interact with each other determines group cohesion. Differences in option are bound to rise in any workplace. Such differences have to be sorted out through discussions and deliberations. The greater the interaction among the group members the

better will be the cohesiveness.

2. **Threat:** The kind of threat the members face both from internal and external environments can influence group cohesion. The greater the threat the better will be the cohesiveness. This is so because, the members know very well that they have to stand united failing which they cannot survive.

3. **Leadership:** The quality of leadership can be an important determinant. If the leader is capable, he will be able to secure cohesion easily among members.

4. **Conviction:** If there is always a sense of conviction among the group members on the decisions reached, it is an indication that cohesion s absolute. If a few members try to thrust tier ideas on their group, such a conviction may not exist.

5. **Values:** The extent to which the group members share their values and ++attitudes is another determinant. If every member starts acting as per his value system, securing group cohesiveness will become difficult.

6. **Size of the group:** The size of the group can be yet another important determining factor. When the size of the group increases, securing cohesion among members will become difficult. This happens because there may not be consensus among members on certain issues owing to the large size of the group.

MEASURES TO INCREASE GROUP COHESIVENESS:

1. **Inducing agreements on group goals:** The work of every employee influences and is influenced by the work of others. In the work place the employees, therefore, have to work as a team. If only they work in a coordinated manner, it will be possible for them to carry out any task. There must be consensus among the members on the goal for the accomplishment of which they work together. The manager has to play a vital role in this regard.

2. **Increasing the membership of like minded persons:** Every organization has a unique culture that is reflected in the beliefs and attitudes of the personnel and also in the work methods and practices. The behavior of the employees, therefore, must reflect its culture. While recruiting new employees, it must be ensured that they are in a position to understand and appreciate the organization's culture. If some members behave in an altogether different manner without bothering about the customs and values of the organization, it is sure to affect group cohesiveness. Steps must, therefore, be taken to induct and retain only those whose thinking coincides with that of the key persons in the organization.

3. **Increasing interaction among the members:** Any issue has to be discussed

in a forum and no attempt shall be made to thrust one's view on others. Before evolving decisions on any important matter, the manager must provide opportunities for all his subordinates to discuss the same and arrive at a consensus.Group cohesiveness depends to a greater extent on how often and how effectively the members interact before reaching an agreement on any issue.

4. **Taking care of group size:** If the group is unwieldy, securing consensus among the members is sure to become difficult. It is, therefore, necessary to take care of the group size.

5. **Encouraging competition among groups**:Another measure to increase group cohesiveness is to encourage healthy competition among different groups in the organization. For example, the salesmen deployed in the southern region may compete with those deployed in the northern region. This will induce the salesman in both the groups to evolve some strategy and work with
better understanding.

6. **Rewarding the group instead of the individuals**:If any group performs well, it is important to reward the group as a whole instead of rewarding a few although they have made a significant contribution when compared to others. This may help to avoid ill-feelings among the group members and may in fact bring them closer.

Isolating the group members from rival groups: When there are rival groups, e.g. Rival trade unions, it may sometimes be necessary to isolate the group members from the rival groups. For this purpose, the leader of the group may have to caution his members always so that they do not get carried away by the claims of the rivals and continue to be loyal to their group.

DECISION-MAKING AND THE GROUP:

Decision making is the process of selecting one alternative from among a no. of alternatives available.The need for decision making will arise only when there are options. If there is only one way of doing a task, there is nothing to decide.
According to Haynes and Massie, 'decision making is the process of selection from a set of alternative courses of action which is thought to fulfill the objective of the decision-problem more satisfactorily than others.'

In the words of George Terry, 'decision making is the selecting of an alternative, from two or more alternatives, to determine an opinion or a course of action.'

PROCESS OF DECISION MAKING:

Identifying and understanding the problem:

The first step in the process of decision making is to identify and understand the actual problem. If only the actual problem is identified, it will be possible to provide remedy by evolving a suitable decision. Sometimes, the symptom is misunderstood as the actual problem and an attempt is made to find a solution to it.

Making an analysis of the problem:

Once the actual problem is identified, the next step is to make a detailed analysis of the same. Analysis of the problem requires data that may be obtained from both internal and external sources.

Identifying alternative solution:

After the problem has been analyzed in detail, the next step is to develop alternative solutions. Any organizational problem has many solutions. It is, therefore, necessary that the decision maker identifies the alternative solutions.

Evaluating the alternative solution: After the alternative solutions have been identified, the next step is to make an evaluation of the same. Evaluation of alternatives is done by seeing the pros and cons of the alternatives.

Selecting the best solution: At this stage the solution considered the best and the most viable one, under the circumstances, are selected. In addition to the merits of each alternative solution, the following factors too influence the selection the best alternative:

- Resources available
- The values and beliefs of the decision maker
- Opinions of the staff
- Past experience, etc.

Implementing the decision: After the final decision has been made, the next step is to implement the same. Implementing the decision is done by communicating the same to all concerned. The responsibility of caring out the decision must be fixed on individuals. Necessary.Procedures should be laid down for executing the decision. Suitable provision must be made to watch the progress of the decision.

Review:Periodic review of the decision, during the period of its implementation, is necessary. This is done by comparing the actual results with the expected results. Deviations, if any, must be noticed and corrective measures must be taken then and there. Certain modifications or alterations in the decision maybe made if necessary.

INDIVIDUAL DECISIONS:

These are decisions made by individuals over an organizational issue. The individual, by virtue of his position or knowledge or efficiency may be enjoying such a decision making authority. For example, when there is dispute between the workers and the management, the matter may be referred to a mediator who may conduct an enquiry and announce his decision. The decision of the mediator is binding on both the workers and the management.

GROUP DECISIONS:

These are decisions made by the group of persons. In an organisation, there may exist a committee consisting of the representatives of both the worker and the management. When there is any dispute between the workers and the management. When there is a dispute between the workers and the management, the mater will be referred to the committee. The committee may conduct an enquiry and announce its decision which is binding on both the workers and the management.

MERITS OF GROUP DECISIONS:

1. Every member of the group will come out with his views on the problem considered. The problem, therefore, can be thoroughly discussed and the best solution can be found out. Such an advantage is notavailable in case of individual decisions.
2. The decision of the group, usually, will not be a biased one. This is because; every member of the grouphas his own ideals and values. No member can thrust his view on others. There is always chance for the bias element entering the individual decisions.
3. The group usually consists of members who represent different segments of the organization.

Therefore, each member will ensure that injustice is not done to the segment he represents.

4. The process of group decision making also provides scope for proper co-ordination and co-operation among the members into confidence when he discusses any issue.

5. Group decisions enjoy a greater sense of acceptability than individual decisions.

DEMERITS OF GROUP DECISIONS:

1. There may be delay in arriving at a decision.

2. There is no fixed responsibility on any member of the group for the quality of the decision made. It is, therefore, possible that a casual approach may be adopted throughout the decision-making process.

3. Group decisions are often found to be compromise decisions. This happens because the members may give divergent views on the issue and the consensus has to be reached somehow at the end. The decision is finally made so as not to hurt anybody's sentiments. Such a decision can only be a compromise decision and not the best.

4. It is also possible that a few influential members of the group may try to put pressures on others and get their consent.

5. Group decisions are always expensive compared to individual decisions in terms of time, money and efforts required.

6. Conflicts may also arise between the members of the group. As a result, a decision may not be evolved at all and the entire process may be deferred indefinitely

ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT
Conflict

In simple terms conflict means **disagreement between the persons employed in the organization**. It may also mean clash of interest. It is the result of difference in the opinion of employees of the organization over any issue. Such a difference of opinion arises mainly because of the differences in the perception

If, for example, a decision has to be made on whether to revise the working hours or to continue the existing timings, the employer is sure to get different views from different persons. Before making the final decision, the employer has to make a secure consensus among the employees. Only then the proposal will get the support of everyone in the organization.

Conflicts are not the same as disputes. In the case of conflicts, the solution can be found out at the organizational level and the matter has to be referred to an impartial mediator.

Definition:

"**Conflicts are any situation in which two or more parties feel themselves in opposition. It is an interpersonal process that arises from disagreements over the goals or the methods to accomplish those goals**" – John W. Newstrom and KeithDavis

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ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT MEANING:

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Sources of Conflict

The sources of organizational conflict can be classified into two main categories:

☐ structural factors, which relate to the nature of the organization and the way in which work is organized;

☐ personal factors, which relate to differences between organizational members.

Structural Factors

There are eight structural aspects of an organization that are likely to cause conflicts. They are specialization, common resources, goal differences, interdependence, authority relationships, status differences, jurisdictional ambiguities, and roles and expectations. Let's examine each of these in turn.

1. Specialization :Employees tend to become either experts at a particular job task or to obtain a general knowledge of many tasks. When the majority of employees in an organization are specialists, conflicts may arise because workers have little knowledge of one another's job responsibilities. For example, a receptionist at a camera repair store may tell you that your camera can be repaired in an hour. In fact, the repair will take a week, but the receptionist has little knowledge of the technician's job and so gives an unrealistic deadline, thereby paving the way for conflict with the technician.

2. Common Resources : In many work situations, we are obliged to share resources: The scarcer the resource the greater the potential for conflict. For example, imagine that your class had an essay due tomorrow and there was only one computer available. The chances of conflict among the students would be high.

3. Goal Differences: Sometimes groups or departments in the organization have different and

incompatible goals, increasing the chances of employees experiencing conflict. For instance, a computer salesperson may want to sell as many computers as possible and deliver them quickly; the manufacturing facility, however, may be unable to assemble and inspect enough computers to meet the sales promises.

4. Interdependence :Sometimes one employee must depend on another to complete a task. When workers are in an interdependent situation, it is easy to blame a co-worker when something goes wrong. For example, a manager may clash with a systems analyst who provides inaccurate data.

5. Authority Relationships :Often, there is underlying tension between managers and employees. This is because most people do not like being told what to do. Managers who are overly strict are frequently in conflict with their employees – hence, the growing popularity of team approaches and empowerment strategies.

6. Status Differences :In many organizations, managers are granted privileges denied to other employees. For instance, managers may enjoy flexible hours, free personal long-distance calls, and longer breaks. In the words of one management consultant, "If you want to know who is really important in the organization, just observe the signs in the parking lot and watch for the distance between the parking and the office building; the bigger the sign and the closer to the building, the higher the status of the incumbent." Some organizations are creating a more egalitarian appearance to reduce conflicts that result from status differences.

7. Jurisdictional Ambiguities: Jurisdictional ambiguities occur when the lines of responsibility in an organization are uncertain. When it is unclear who does what, employees have a tendency to pass unwanted tasks onto the next person. Think of the times you have telephoned a company or government agency and been transferred to several people and departments before being served. Detailed job descriptions can help to eliminate jurisdictional ambiguities and the conflicts arising from them.

8. Roles and Expectations: A role refers to the behaviors and activities expected of an employee. Every employee plays one or more roles within the organization. These roles are usually defined through a combination of such elements as job title, description of duties, and agreements between the employee and the organization. Manager–subordinate conflict can result when the subordinate's role is not clearly defined and each party has a different understanding of that role.

Personal Factors

The most common personal factors associated with organizational conflict are skills and abilities, personality conflicts, perceptions, diversity, and personal problems. Let's see how each can lead to conflict.

1. Skills and Abilities : Usually the members of a department or work team have different levels of skills and abilities. Conflict can result when an experienced employee must work with a novice who has good theoretical knowledge but few practical skills.

2. Personality Conflicts : Personality conflicts are a reality in any group setting, including the workplace. There always seems to be at least one co-worker who is difficult to get along with. One of the most difficult personality traits is abrasiveness. An abrasive person is often hardworking and achievement-oriented, but critical and insensitive to others' feelings. Other irritating personality traits include laziness and gossiping. We will discuss how to deal with difficult people further in this chapter.

3. Perceptions: Much organizational conflict stems from the fact that employees and managers have different perceptions of situations. For example, a manager may feel that an employee is underperforming, whereas the employee may feel that the best job possible is being done.

4. Diversity:Across the world, organizational workforce is becoming increasingly heterogeneous. Differences in age, cultural background, ethics, and values can be a source of conflict among employees. For instance, a long-serving employee who feels loyal to the organization may clash with a young newcomer who sees the organization as nothing more thana stepping stone.

5. Personal Problems :When we bring our personal problems to work, our performance tends to suffer and we may clash with co-workers who are obliged to "pick up the slack."

USES OF CONFLICT:

1. **Changes in work pattern**:

When the employees are asked to adopt a different pattern of work, conflicts may arise between them on whether or not to accept such a proposal and update themselves to be able to discharge their responsibilities as per the new pattern of work.

2. **Difference in perceptions:**

The perception of any issue by the individuals will not be identical. One of the main reason why

conflicts arise in the workplace it that the perception of employees of any organizational matter differs. If one person favors the management proposal to revise timings another person may oppose it.

3. **Differences in values**:

Difference in the value system of individuals is yet another factor contributing the conflicts. Example: an employee, who has certain grievances, may want to show his protest to the management by striking work. On the other hand, another employee, who also has grievances, may show his protest by fasting in the workplace.

4. **Availability of options**:

Another reason why conflict arises in the work place is that often the employees have options, example: day shift or night shift, salary or commission or both.

5. **Allocation of limited resources**:

Reasons are always scarce in relation to demand. Example: when the funds available are limited, the management may find it difficult to meet the demands of different departments.

6. **Inter-dependence**:

Conflicts arise due to the problem of inter-dependence between individuals and departments. Example: marketing depends on production; production depends on purchase or raw materials and availability of labor which in turn depends on the availability of finance.

Unequal work load: when there is disparity in the workload of employees operating at the same level, conflicts are bound to arise. This might have been done deliberately and inadvertently.

7. **Biased assessment of subordinates**:

Some superiors show favoritism while appraising the performance of their subordinates. Favoritism is based on caste, religion, sex etc.

8. **Unattainable targets:**

Some superior sets target for their subordinates that are unattainable. It might have been dine intentionally or unintentionally. In any case it provides scope for conflicts in the workplace.

9. **Lack of trust and confidence**:

Lack of trust and confidence is yet another important cause of conflict. Some superiors have a feeling that their subordinates always shirk duties and are inefficient and incapable.

10. **Threat to status quo**: Any change taking place in the organization that disturbs the existing

pattern of the employees give rise to conflicts. Example: certain privileges enjoyed by the employees may be withdrawn. Additional responsibility may be given to them.

DIFFERNET STAGES OF CONFLICT:
1. LATENT CONFLICT: Conflict has not taken a definite shape. It may arise in theSubconscious mind of a person. All the cause of conflicts is lying hidden.
2. PERCEIVED CONFLICT: here the parties become aware of the existence of the causes ofconflict.
3. FELT CONFLICT: Having perceived the conflict the parties, at this stage, begin to feel it.They become emotionally involved in the conflicts:
4. MANIFEST CONFLICT: When the stage is reached, the parties begin to show their hostilefeelings out warmly.
5. CONLFICT AFERMATH: This is the large stage with conflict may be suppressed orresolved amicably depending upon the attitudes of the parties and the prevailing conditions. **CAUSES OF CONFLICTS:**
Conflict is a natural occurrence. It arises mainly due to the difference in perceptions, values, beliefs, sentiments, likes and dislikes of the people at work. Conflicts are not always bad. Certainbenefits also become available to the organization out of these. The various positive and negativeaspects are explained below:
Conflict in the workplace could be the result of:

☐ poor management
☐ unfair treatment
☐ unclear job roles
☐ inadequate training
☐ poor communication
☐ poor work environment
☐ lack of equal opportunities
☐ bullying and harassment
☐ significant changes to products, organizational charts, appraisals or pay systems Major causes of workplace conflict

Other major causes of conflict in the workplace include:

☐ **Personality clashes** - the 'personality mix' within a team can be upset when a new member of staff joins or if two colleagues suddenly fall out. Individuals may also respond to difficult or challenging situations in an unhelpful or unproductive way.

☐ **Unrealistic needs and expectations** - conflict at work can often be caused when employers ignore the needs of employees or set unrealistic expectations. For example, arranging hours that make it difficult for employees to carry out childcare responsibilities.

☐ **Business values** - most people have very clear ideas about what they think is fair, and your organisation's procedures and policies must reflect this. For example, giving someone a fair hearing or explaining the reasoning behind a decision.

☐ **Unresolved workplace issues** - for example, an employee might ask to be moved to another team because of their manager's 'aggressive' leadership style. However, the employee may have other reasons - for example, they may blame their manager for a lack of training or career progression.

☐ **Increase in workload** - sometimes workplace conflict is caused because people feel they are being pushed too hard and resentment sets in if they feel their workload is unmanageable.

Establish the root cause of workplace conflict

It is important to **understand the root cause** of an individual's or group's unhappiness. For example, a person in a team may seem to be struggling with an unmanageable workload, but they may be resentful of another employee who appears to have less work to do. It may also be a result of organisational changes, restructuring, or promotions given to other staff.

To help you manage workplace conflict, look at the previous relationship between the employee and

LEVELS OF CONFLICT:
1. Within an individual
2. Between individuals

3. Within a group
4. Between an individual and a group and
5. Between groups

Conflicts within an individual:

Conflicts within an individual arise when a person is unable to decide precisely what he wants. Example, an employee may not be able to decide whether to accept straight salary or commission when asked to choose one. Similarly, an employee may not be to take a firm decision on whether to take part in the strike or not in response to strike call given bythe trade union. Such persons normally seek the advice of their friends or relatives on the matter.

Conflicts between individuals:

Such conflicts arise between two or more persons working in an organization either in the same or different level. For example, there may be a conflict between two factory workers or two salesmen. Likewise, conflicts may also arise between a worker and a foreman, a sales representative and the sales manager and so on.

Conflicts within a group:

Conflicts may arise between the members of a particular group. Such a situation may arise, say, when the members of the employee union meet to discuss the course of action to be adopted in response to a certain anti-labor policy of the management. Some members may favor a demonstration program in the company premises, some may prefermass casual leave and still some others may insist on a strike plan. As a result the members may not be able to arrive at a consensus at once.

Conflicts between groups:

It refers to conflicts may between, say, rival employee unions where there exists more than one union or between the employees of two departments, say, production and marketing and so on.

Conflicts between an individual and a group:

Such a conflict may arise between, say, an employee, who is not a member of the trade union, and the union members. When the union gives a strike call, its members may persuade the non- member also to extend his support.

Thomas's Model of Conflict Management Styles
In 1976, Kenneth Thomas, a specialist in organizational conflict, developed a "conflict management grid" in which he pinpointed five conflict management styles used by people in an organizational context. These conflict management styles are profiled in Table 7-3 and described below.
Conflict Management Styles

AvoidingStyle
People who fear conflict use the avoiding style to escape from conflict situations. For these individuals, escaping conflict is more important than satisfying their own needs or the needs of others. When this style of conflict management is used, everyone loses.
Forcing or Competing Style
Those who use the forcing style of conflict management are preoccupied with achieving their own goals and have no concern for the goals of others. The forcing person believes that one side must win
and one side must lose. Sometimes employed in times of crisis, this type of conflict management is generally ineffective in achieving organizational objectives, particularly ifthe people involved have a long- term relationship.
Accommodating Style
People who use the accommodating style are cooperative, unassertive, and supportive of the other party's goals, usually at the expense of their own. Like the competing style, the accommodating style of conflict management will result in a win–lose situation. Accommodating behavior is appropriate when you know you are wrong or when the relationship is important to you. On the other hand, a person who relies exclusively on accommodation to manage conflicts may lose the respect of colleagues.
Compromising
This style is half-assertive and half-cooperative. It is based on give-and-take and usually involves a series of concessions. Compromises are often made in the final hours of union–management negotiations. Those who are willing to compromise generally help negotiations to run smoothly and are perceived more positively by members of the

organization. However, when this style of conflict management is used, both parties may be left unsatisfied.

Collaborating Style

This style is characterized by cooperation and assertiveness on the part of both sides. Each person or group is willing to work together to reach a mutually beneficial solution. Conflicts are analyzed and frankly debated, and the result is usually a win–win situation.

Style	Principal Issues	Dominant Strategy	Conditions
Avoiding	Avoiding unpleasant situations	Flight / retreat / "Golden silence"	Outcomes are not very important / The chances of winning are slim / High risk is involved / Others can handle the situation better
Forcing	Satisfying personal interests / Winning at any cost / Dominating	Competing / Gaining power	Urgency / Unpopular decision is necessary / Vital for the organization / Must protect interest groups
Accommodating	Maintaining relationships with others / Opting for harmony	Avoiding conflict at almost any cost	The issue is vital to the other party / The other party is significantly better equipped / Harmony is more important than victory
Compromising	There is room for compromise / Middle ground exists / Partial satisfaction is attainable	Negotiation	Objectives are moderately important / The two parties are equal in powder / Solutions can be reached / Neither collaboration nor force works
Collaborating	Satisfying mutual interests	Confrontation / Problem solving	Individual interests are compatible / Synergy is possible / Interpersonal problems are solved

CONFLICTS AND PERFORMANCE:

Where in an organization the level of conflicts is found to be low, performance will alsobe very low in view of the following reasons:

- Indifferent attitude of the employees
- Lack of creative ideas
- Stagnation

If, on the other hand, the level of conflicts is found to be high then also performance will below in view of such reasons as:

- Lack of teamwork and co-operation
- Low morale
- Mental stress

Thus, it becomes clear that performance tend to be low whether the level of conflicts is low orhigh.

Management of conflicts refers to the task of maintaining it at an optimum level.

The following conditions may indicate the existence of a low level of conflicts in the workplace:

1. Low rate of absenteeism
2. Low rate of labor turnover
3. Lack of complaints and grievances
4. Employees accept changes without much resistance
5. Conservative approach to work for a longer period of time.

The existence of the following conditions may indicate a high level of conflicts:

1. Low morale
2. Low productivity
3. Excessive complaints and grievances
4. Greater resistance to change
5. High rate of absenteeism and labour turnover

Functional and dysfunctional conflict

Functional conflict is people in an organization or group may have their performance which they can increase and advantages in issues. Functional conflict can lead to enhances awareness of issues which people willing to solving the problem and willing to listen to others opinion.

Dysfunctional conflict is people who in an organization or group may have decreases or disadvantages in result of outcome they gain which they negotiate in the process. It consists of disputes and disagreements of individuals discourage to improve company performance

Resolution of Conflct

Conflict resolution is a way for two or more parties to find a peaceful solution to a disagreement among them. The disagreement may be personal, financial, political, or emotional. When a dispute arises, often the best course of action is negotiation to resolve the disagreement.

Importance of Conflict resolution

When conflict is resolved effectively, it leads to many benefits, such as accomplishing goals and strengthening relationships. But conflict can also be damaging. If handled ineffectively, conflict can quickly turn into personal dislike, and even lead to a breakdown of relationships.