

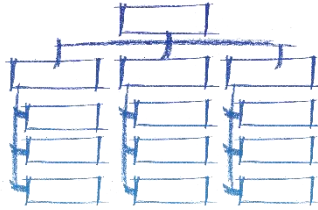
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GROUP BEHAVIOUR

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3.1 Organization structure



- A worker reports to a manager. A manager reports to a director, a director reports to a vice president, and a vice president reports to a C-level senior leader, like a chief executive officer or a chief administrative officer. If you've ever worked in a corporate setting, you're likely to recognize this as the basic set of layers of an organization's structure.
- Organizational structure defines how job tasks are formally divided, grouped, and coordinated. The structure of an organization usually features six different elements:
 - Work specialization
 - Departmentalization
 - Chain of command
 - Span of control
 - Centralization and decentralization
 - Formalization
- An organization's structure contains the six elements we described, and is laid out in such a way that employees are able to, be productive, make a profit, and accomplish the organization's mission. Let's take a look at some of the older, simpler organizational structures that companies have adopted. They're still very much in use today.

The Simple Structure

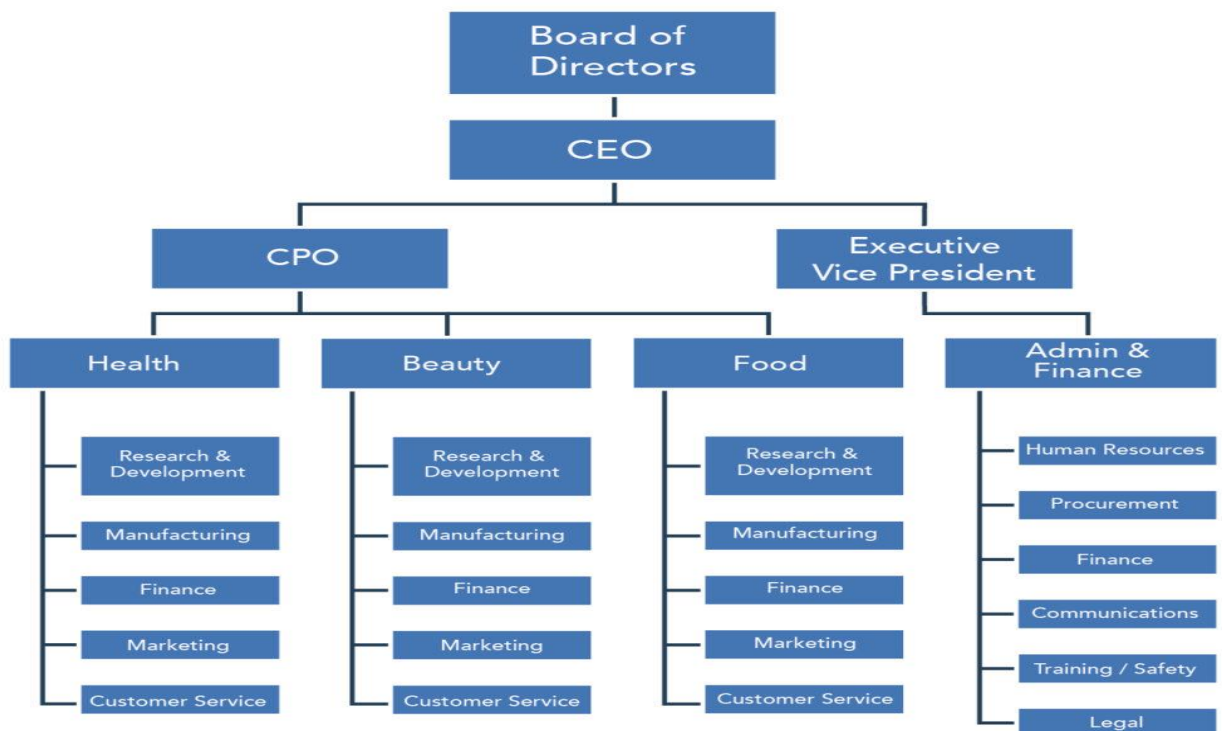
- The simple structure is aptly named because, well, there's just not much to it. Simple structures have
 - A low degree of departmentalization
 - Wide spans of control
 - Centralized authority
 - Little formalization
 - The typical simple organization structure is flat:



- This type of organizational structure is inexpensive to maintain and accountability is very clear. However, it's difficult to maintain this kind of structure in any but a small organization. When this kind of organization structure increases in size, decision making slows down and the manager becomes overly burdened as the go-to decision maker for 50-100 people. It's also risky – everything depends on one person, and should that person become ill or die, it puts the business in jeopardy.
- The simple structure is often referred to as "pre-bureaucratic," in that it lacks a standardization of tasks.

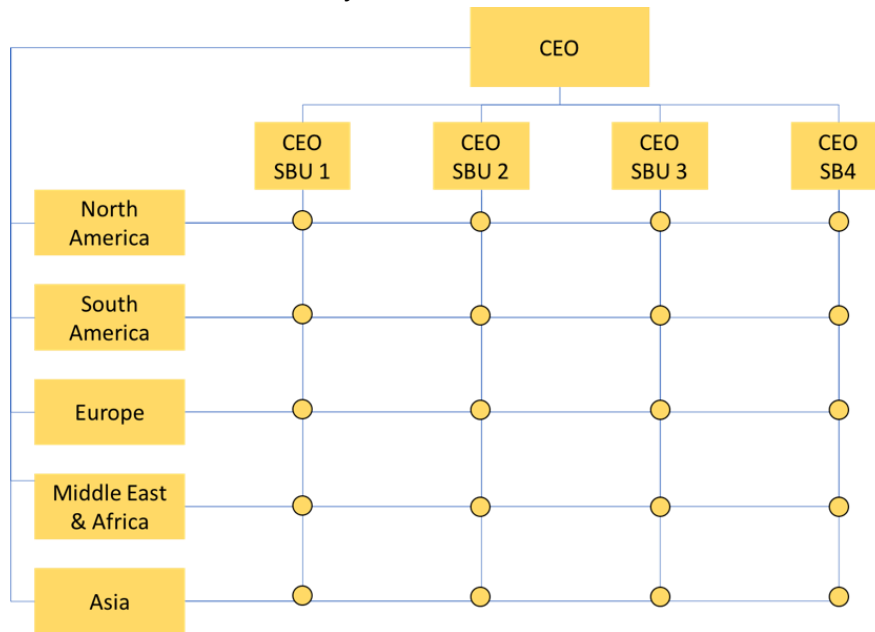
Bureaucratic Structure

- Bureaucratic organizational structures take a chapter out of researcher Max Weber’s book, with clearly defined roles and responsibilities, hierarchical structure and respect for merit. This organizational structure is characterized by
 - o Highly routine operating tasks achieved through specialization
 - o Very formalized rules and regulations
 - o Functional departmentalization
 - o Centralized authority
 - o Narrow spans of control
 - o Decision making that follows the chain of command
- Bureaucratic organizational structures are pyramid-like, with a CEO atop the chain of command in the corporate structure and a clear chain of command underneath. A bureaucratic organizational structure might look like this:



- Bureaucratic organizational structures are ideal for organizations that require standardization (think banks, government offices). They’re ideal for organizations looking for the ability to perform standard tasks highly efficiently. Organizations with bureaucratic structures can get by with less talented people at lower levels, because decision making almost always falls to senior leaders.
- The Matrix Structure
- A matrix structure creates dual lines of authority and combines functional and product departmentalization.
- Ad agencies, hospitals, universities and management consulting firms use the matrix organizational structure. It’s easy to see why – by creating a dual reporting situation, a manager who’s working with a company on advertising would be able to manage a team that included a representative from each of the needed areas to get a campaign running—a graphic designer, a space planner and so on.
- This structure allows for the efficient allocation of specialists. Information is more easily exchanged, as the contact between the different departments is increased.

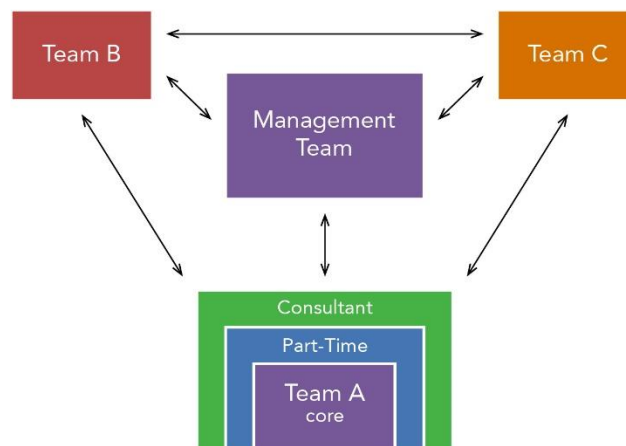
- The major disadvantage is the ability to get all these people moving at the same time, with clear priorities, to deliver a solution that’s on time and on budget. It can also create power struggles, because it tosses aside the idea of unity of command.



Modern Organizational Design

The Team Structure

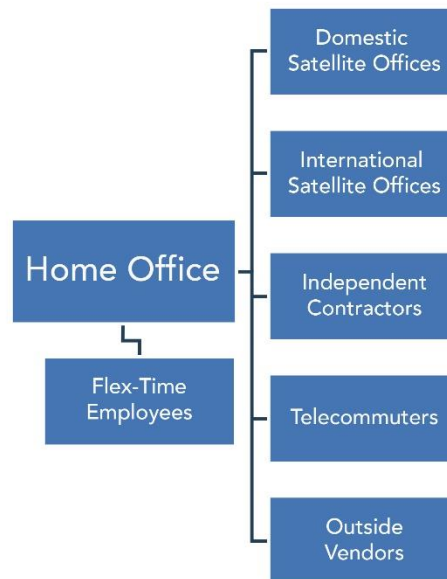
- A team structure can define a whole company. Whole Foods Market boasts a team-based organizational structure, with the teams shaped around their departments within the store— there was a produce team, a meat team, and so on. Based on the shape of the organizational chart in Figure 1, you can understand why Whole Foods refers to its mission statement as the “Declaration of Interdependence.” Indeed, each of the teams is dependent on and answers to the other members of their own team and the other teams.



Virtual Organization

- A virtual organization is a small, core organization that outsources major business functions. Think of it as “renting” departments rather than owning them.
- The chart in Figure illustrates a typical virtual organization, which includes employees that practice flex-time in a home office, ones that are in satellite offices domestically and internationally, and then a group of independent contractors, telecommuters and vendors.
- The virtual organization is definitely on the other side of the spectrum from bureaucratic organizational structure. The bureaucratic organizational structure seeks control in multiple

levels and, if there is a downfall to the virtual organizational structure, it is that there is far less control over the different parts of the business.



3.2 Groups in organizations

- A group can be defined as two or more interacting and interdependent individuals who come together to achieve particular objectives. A group behavior can be stated as a course of action a group takes as a family. For example: Strike.

Types of Groups

- There are two types of groups an individual forms. They are **formal groups** and **informal groups**. Let us know about these two groups.

Formal Groups

- These are the type of work groups created by the organization and have designated work assignments and rooted tasks. The behavior of such groups is directed toward achieving organizational goals.



- These can be further classified into two sub-groups –
 - Command group – It is a group consisting of individuals who report directly to the manager.
 - Interest group – It is a group formed by individuals working together to achieve a specific objective. Example – A group of workers working on a project and reporting to the same manager is considered as a command group. A group of friends chilling out together is considered as interest group or say members of a club.

Informal Groups

- These groups are formed with friendships and common interests. These can be further classified into two sub-groups –
 - Task group – Those working together to finish a job or task is known as task group.
 - Friendship group – Those brought together because of their shared interests or common characteristics is known as friendship group.



3.3 Influence of Group

- There is no particular reason answering why individuals join groups. Group helps individual to feel stronger, have fewer self-doubts, and be more contrary to threats.
- The following points help us understand the need of joining a group by individuals –
 - Security mirrors strength in numbers. Status pinpoints a prestige that comes from belonging to a specific group. Inclusion in a group is considered as important because it provides recognition and status.
 - Self-esteem transmits people's feelings of self-worth. Membership can sometimes raise feelings of self-esteem like being accepted into a highly valued group.
 - Affiliation with groups can meet one's social needs. Work groups significantly contribute to meet the need for friendships and social relations.
 - Groups represent power. What mostly cannot be achieved individually becomes possible with group effort. Power might be aimed to protect themselves from unreasonable demands. Informal groups provide options for individuals to practice power.
 - People may join a group for goal achievement. Sometimes it takes more than one person to accomplish a particular task.

3.4 Group decision making techniques

- In order to eliminate group think and group shift from a group, we can use four different techniques that will help us make a collaborative decision that is best for the group. These techniques are –
 - Brainstorming
 - Nominal group thinking
 - Didactic technique
 - Delphi technique

Brainstorming

- This technique includes a group of people, mostly between five and ten in number, sitting around a table, producing ideas in the form of free association. The main focus is on generation of ideas and not on evaluation of these ideas.
-
- If more ideas can be originated, then it is likely that there will be a unique and creative idea among them. All these ideas are written on the blackboard with a piece of chalk so that all the team members can see every idea and try to improvise these ideas.
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- Brainstorming technique is very effective when the problem is comparatively precise and can be simply defined. A complex problem can be divided into parts and each part can be dealt with separately at a time.



Nominal Group Thinking

- This technique is similar to brainstorming except that this approach is more structured. It motivates individual creativity. Members form the group for namesake and operate independently, originate ideas for solving the problem on their own, in silence and in writing. Members do not communicate well with each other so that strong personality domination is evaded.
- The group coordinator either collects the written ideas or writes them on a large blackboard so that each member of the group can see what the ideas are. These ideas are further discussed one by one in turn and each participant is motivated to comment on these ideas in order to clarify and improve them. After all these ideas have been discussed, they are evaluated for their merits and drawbacks and each actively participating member is needed to vote on each idea and allot it a rank on the basis of priority of each alternative solution.
- The idea with the highest cumulative ranking is selected as the final solution to the problem.



Didactic Interaction

- This technique is applicable only in certain situations, but is an excellent method when a situation actually demands it. The type of problem should be such that it generates output in the form of yes or no. Say for example, a decision is to be made whether to buy or not to buy a product, to merge or not to merge, to expand or not to expand and so on. These types of decision requires an extensive and exhaustive discussion and investigation since a wrong decision can have serious consequences.
- There are many advantages as well as disadvantages of this type of situation. The group that makes the decision is divided into two sub-groups, one in favor of the “go” decision and the opposing in favor of “no go” decision.
- The first group enlists all the “pros” of the problem solution and the second group lists all the “cons”. These groups meet and discuss their discoveries and their reasons.



- After tiring discussions, the groups switch sides and try to find weaknesses in their own original standpoints. This interchange of ideas and understanding of various viewpoints results in mutual acceptance of the facts as they exist so that a solution can be put together around these facts and ultimately a final decision is reached.

Delphi Technique

- This technique is the improvised version of the nominal group technique, except that it involves obtaining the opinions of experts physically distant from each other and unknown to each other.
- This isolates group members from the undue influence of others. Basically, the types of problems sorted by this technique are not specific in nature or related to a particular situation at a given time.



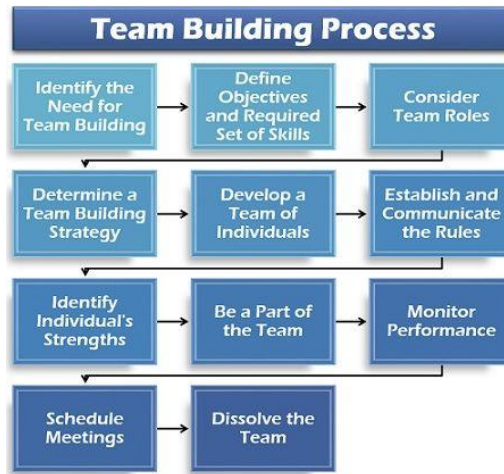
- For example, the technique could be used to explain the problems that could be created in the event of a war. The Delphi technique includes the following steps –
 - The problem is first identified and a panel of experts are selected. These experts are asked to provide potential solutions through a series of thoughtfully designed questionnaires.
 - Each expert concludes and returns the initial questionnaire.
 - The results of the questionnaire are composed at a central location and the central coordinator prepares a second set of questionnaire based on the previous answers.
 - Each member receives a copy of the results accompanied by the second questionnaire.
 - Members are required to review the results and respond to the second questionnaire. The results typically trigger new solutions or motivate changes in the original ideas.
 - The process is repeated until a general agreement is obtained.

3.5 Team building

- Team building is a management technique used for improving the efficiency and performance of the workgroups through various activities. It involves a lot of skills, analysis and observation for forming a strong and capable team. The whole sole motive here is to achieve the organization vision and objectives.
- Forming a great team requires a lot of skills and presence of mind. Usually, some managers specialize in team-building skills and are hired by the companies on this parameter.
- The manager responsible for team building must be able to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the team members and create the right mix of people with different skill sets. He must focus on developing strong interpersonal relations and trust among the team members.
- The manager must encourage communication and interaction among the team members and also reduce stress with the help of various team-building activities.
- He must clearly define the goals and objectives of the organization to the team members. He must also specify the role of each member in the team to direct them towards the achievement of the organizational goals.

Team Building Process

- Team building is not a one-time act. It is a step by step process which aims at bringing a desirable change in the organization. Teams are usually formed for a particular task or project and are mostly for the short term.



Advantages of Team Building

- Team building has radically evolved as a technique to develop and manage effective teams in the workplace.



- The aim to achieve long-term organizational objectives developed the need for carrying out team building activities frequently.

Disadvantages of Team Building

- Team building is not an easy task. A high-performance team can fulfil the organizational objectives. However, an inefficient team can lead to wastage of time and resources of the organization.
- Therefore, we can say that there are multiple adverse effects of team building too, which are as follows:

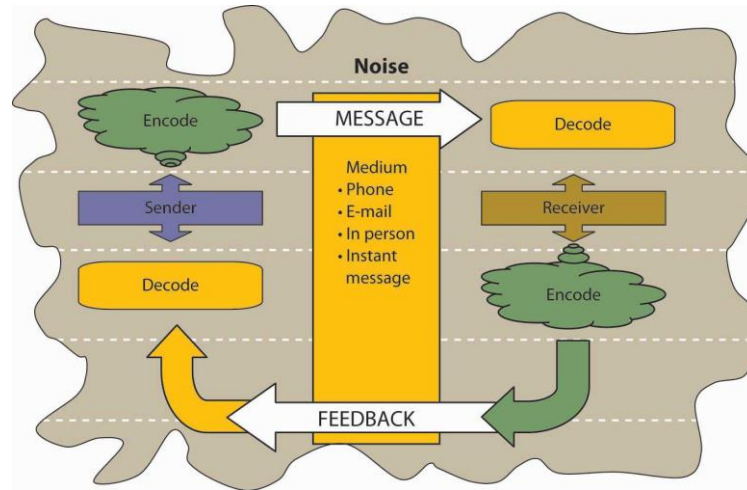


3.6 Communication

- Communication is vital to organizations—it’s how we coordinate actions and achieve goals. It is defined in Webster’s dictionary as a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behavior.
- We know that 50% to 90% of a manager’s time is spent communicating and communication ability is related to a manager’s performance. In most work environments, a miscommunication is an annoyance—it can interrupt workflow by causing delays and interpersonal strife. But, in some work arenas, like operating rooms and airplane cockpits, communication can be a matter of life and death.
- So, just how prevalent is miscommunication in the workplace? You may not be surprised to learn that the relationship between miscommunication and negative outcomes is very strong.

The Communication Process

- Communication fulfills three main functions within an organization, including coordination, transmission of information, and sharing emotions and feelings. All these functions are vital to a successful organization.
- The coordination of effort within an organization helps people work toward the same goals. Transmitting information is a vital part of this process. Sharing emotions and feelings bonds teams and unites people in times of celebration and crisis.
- Effective communication helps people grasp issues, build rapport with coworkers, and achieve consensus. So, how can we communicate effectively? The first step is to understand the communication process.
- We all exchange information with others countless times each day by phone, e-mail, printed word, and of course, in person. Let us take a moment to see how a typical communication works using this as a guide.



- A **sender**, such as a boss, coworker, or customer, originates the message with a thought. For example, the boss's thought could be: "Get more printer toner cartridges!"
- The sender **encodes** the message, translating the idea into words.
- The boss may communicate this thought by saying, "Hey you guys, let's order more printer toner cartridges."
- The **medium** of this encoded message may be spoken words, written words, or signs.
- The **receiver** is the person who receives the message.
- The receiver **decodes** the message by assigning meaning to the words.

3.7 Johari Window

- The Johari Window model is a simple and useful tool for illustrating and improving self-awareness, and mutual understanding between individuals within a group. This model can also be used to assess and improve a group's relationship with other groups. This model is particularly useful in team development.
- It was devised by American psychologists Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham in 1955 while researching group dynamics at the University of California Los Angeles. The model was first published in the Proceedings of the Western Training Laboratory in Group Development by UCLA Extension Office in 1955, and was later expanded by Joseph Luft. Today the Johari Window model is especially relevant due to modern emphasis on, and influence of, 'soft' skills, behaviour, empathy, cooperation, inter-group development and interpersonal development.
- This model is also referred to as a 'disclosure/feedback model of "self-awareness" and by some people an "information processing tool".'
- The Johari Window actually represents information - feelings, experience, views, attitudes, skills, intentions, motivation, etc - within or about a person - in relation to their group, from four perspectives, which are described below.
- The model can also be used to represent the same information for a group in relation to other groups. Terminology hereafter refers to 'self' and 'others': 'self' means oneself, ie, the person subject to the analysis. 'Others' means other people in the person's group or team.
- The four Johari Window perspectives are called 'regions' or 'areas' or 'quadrants'. Each of these regions contains and represents the information - feelings, motivation, etc - known about the person, in terms of whether the information is known or unknown by the person, and whether the information is known or unknown by others in the group. The four regions in the model are outlined in detail below.

1 open/free area	2 blind area
3 hidden area	4 unknown area

- What is known by the person about him/herself and is also known by others - **open area, open self, free area, free self, or 'the arena'**
- What is unknown by the person about him/herself but which others know - **blind area, blind self, or 'blindspot'**
- What the person knows about him/herself that others do not know - **hidden area, hidden self, avoided area, avoided self or 'facade'**
- What is unknown by the person about him/herself and is also unknown by others - **unknown area or unknown self**

Johari Window Model Quadrant 1

- **'Open Self/Area' or 'Free Area' or 'Public Area', or 'Arena'**
- Region 1 is also known as the 'area of free activity'. This is the information about the person - behaviour, attitude, feelings, emotion, knowledge, experience, skills, views, etc. - known by the person ('the self') and known by the group ('others').
- The aim in any group should always be to develop the 'open area' for every person because when we work in this area with others we are at our most effective and productive, and the group is at its most productive too. The open free area, or 'the arena', can be seen as the space where good communications and cooperation occur, free from distractions, mistrust, confusion, conflict and misunderstanding.
- Established team members logically tend to have larger open areas than new team members. New team members start with relatively small open areas because relatively little knowledge about the new team member is shared. The size of the open area can be expanded horizontally into the blind space, by seeking and actively listening to feedback from other group members. This process is known as 'feedback solicitation'.
- Other group members can help a team member expand their open area by offering feedback, sensitively of course. The size of the open area can also be expanded vertically downwards into the hidden or avoided space by the person's disclosure of information, feelings, etc. about him/herself to the group and group members.
- Group members can help a person expand their open area into the hidden area by asking the person about him/herself. Managers and team leaders can play an important role in facilitating feedback and disclosure among group members and indirectly giving feedback to individuals about their own blind areas.
- Leaders also have a big responsibility to promote a culture and expectation for open, honest, positive, helpful, constructive, sensitive communications, and the sharing of knowledge throughout their organization. Top-performing groups, departments, companies and

organizations always tend to have a culture of open positive communication, so encouraging the positive development of the 'open area' or 'open self' for everyone is a simple yet fundamental aspect of effective leadership.

Johari Window Model Quadrant 2

- **'Blind Self' or 'Blind Area' or 'Blindspot'**
- Region 2 is what is known about a person by others in the group, but is unknown by the person him/herself.
- By seeking or soliciting feedback from others, the aim should be to reduce this area and thereby to increase the open area i.e, to increase self-awareness.
- This blind area is not an effective or productive space for individuals or groups. This blind area could also be referred to as ignorance about oneself, or issues in which one is deluded.
- A blind area could also include issues that others are deliberately withholding from a person. This relates to the difficulty one experiences when being "kept in the dark".
- Group members and managers can take some responsibility for helping an individual to reduce their blind area - in turn increasing the open area - by giving sensitive feedback and encouraging disclosure.
- Managers should promote a climate of non-judgemental feedback, and group response to individual disclosure, which reduces fear and therefore encourages both processes to happen.
- The extent to which an individual seeks feedback, and the issues on which feedback is sought, must always be at the individual's own discretion.
- Some people are more resilient than others - care needs to be taken to avoid causing emotional upset. The process of soliciting serious and deep feedback relates to the process of 'self-actualization' described in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs development and motivation model.

Johari Window Model Quadrant 3

- **'Hidden Self' or 'Hidden Area' or 'Avoided Self' or 'Facade'**
- Region 3 is what is known to ourselves but kept hidden from, and therefore unknown, to others.
- This hidden or avoided self represents information, feelings, etc., anything that a person knows about him/self, but which is not revealed or is kept hidden from others.
- The hidden area could also include sensitivities, fears, hidden agendas, manipulative intentions, secrets - anything that a person knows but does not reveal, for whatever reason.
- It is natural for very personal and private information and feelings to remain hidden, indeed, certain information, feelings and experiences have no bearing on work, and so can and should remain hidden. However, typically, a lot of hidden information is not very personal, it is work- or performance-related, and so is better positioned in the open area.
- Relevant hidden information and feelings, etc, should be moved into the open area through the process of 'disclosure'.
- The aim should be to disclose and expose relevant information and feelings - hence the Johari Window terminology 'self-disclosure' and 'exposure process', thereby increasing the open area.
- By telling others how we feel and other information about ourselves we reduce the hidden area and increase the open area, which enables better understanding, cooperation, trust, team-working effectiveness and productivity.
- Reducing hidden areas also reduces the potential for confusion, misunderstanding, poor communication, etc, which all distract from and undermine team effectiveness.

- Organizational culture and working atmosphere have a major influence on group members' preparedness to disclose their hidden selves. Most people fear judgement or vulnerability and therefore hold back hidden information and feelings, etc., that if moved into the open area, i.e known by the group as well, would enhance mutual understanding, and thereby improve group awareness, enabling better individual performance and group effectiveness.
- The extent to which an individual discloses personal feelings and information, and the issues which are disclosed, and to whom, must always be at the individual's own discretion. As with feedback, some people are more resilient than others - care needs to be taken to avoid causing emotional upset. Also as with soliciting feedback, the process of serious disclosure relates to the process of 'self-actualization' described in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs development and motivation model.

Johari Window Model Quadrant 4

- **'Unknown Self' or 'Area of Unknown Activity' or 'Unknown Area'**
- Region 4 contains information, feelings, latent abilities, aptitudes, experiences etc, that are unknown to the person him/herself and unknown to others in the group. These unknown issues take a variety of forms:
- They can be feelings, behaviours, attitudes, capabilities, aptitudes, which can be quite close to the surface, and which can be positive and useful, or they can be deeper aspects of a person's personality, influencing his/her behaviour to various degrees. Large unknown areas would typically be expected in younger people, and people who lack experience or self-belief.
- Examples of unknown factors are as follows, and the first example is particularly relevant and common, especially in typical organizations and teams:
 - An ability that is under-estimated or un-tried through lack of opportunity, encouragement, confidence or training
 - A natural ability or aptitude that a person does not realise they possess
 - A fear or aversion that a person does not know they have
 - An unknown illness
 - Repressed or subconscious feelings
 - Conditioned behaviour or attitudes from childhood
- The processes by which this information and knowledge can be uncovered are various and can be prompted through self-discovery or observation by others, or in certain situations through collective or mutual discovery, of the sort of discovery, experienced on outward bound courses or other deep or intensive group work. Counselling can also uncover unknown issues, but this would then be known to the person and by one other, rather than by a group.
- Whether unknown 'discovered' knowledge moves into the hidden, blind or open area depends on who discovers it and what they do with the knowledge, notably whether it is then given as feedback, or disclosed. As with the processes of soliciting feedback and disclosure, striving to discover information and feelings in the unknown is related to the process of 'self-actualization' described in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs development and motivation model.
- Again as with disclosure and soliciting feedback, the process of self-discovery is a sensitive one. The extent and depth to which an individual is able to seek out discover their unknown feelings must always be at the individual's own discretion.
- Uncovering 'hidden talents' - that is unknown aptitudes and skills, not to be confused with developing the Johari 'hidden area' - is another aspect of developing the unknown area, and is not so sensitive as unknown feelings. Providing people with the opportunity to try new things,

with no great pressure to succeed, is often a useful way to discover unknown abilities, and thereby reduce the unknown area.

- Managers and leaders can help by creating an environment that encourages self-discovery, and to promote the processes of self-discovery, constructive observation and feedback among team members. Creating a culture, climate and expectation for self-discovery helps people to fulfil more of their potential and thereby to achieve more, and to contribute more to organisational performance.

3.8 Reference

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