

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

(Deemed to be University)
(Established under section 3 of UGC Act 1956)
Coimbatore-641021

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

Subject: Organizational Behaviour

Semester: I

Subject Code: 18MBAP102 Class- I MBA

Course Objectives:

• The focus of this course is on human behavior in an organizational context.

• It will provide an understanding of the concepts of organizational functioning and human behavior with an emphasis on the application of these concepts to managerial problems.

Course Outcomes (Cos):

- 1. The students will understand to communicate effectively in oral and written forms about organizational behavior theories.
- **2.** To understand the application of OB using appropriate concepts, logic and rhetorical conventions.

Unit I

Organization Behavior: Meaning and definition - Fundamental concepts of OB - Contributing disciplines to the OB field - OB Model - Significance of OB in the organization success - Challenges and Opportunities for OB.

Unit II

Attitudes – Sources - Types - Functions of Attitudes – Attitude and Job satisfaction, Emotions and Moods – Emotional Intelligence – OB Applications of Emotions and Moods, Learning – Theories of Learning. Personality – Determinants of personality- Theories of Personality – psycho-analytical, social learning, job-fit, and trait theories. Values – Importance - Types of Values – Linking Individual personality and values to the work place.

Unit III

Perception – factors influencing perception - Person Perception – Attribution Theory – Frequently Used Shortcuts in Judging Others- Perceptual Process- Perceptual Selectivity - Organization Errors of perception – Linkage between perception and Decision making.

Communication – Process – Directions of communication – interpersonal and organizational communication – Barriers to effective communication

Unit IV

Foundation of Group Behavior - Concept of Group - Types of Groups - Stages of Group Development - Group Norms - Group Cohesiveness - Group Decision making - Understanding working teams - types of teams- creating effective teams- Turning individuals to team players.

Power and Politics - Bases of Power - Power tactics. Conflict - Meaning - Transition in conflict thoughts- Conflict Process- Negotiation

Unit V

Organizational culture- Definitions and Characteristics of Culture- Types of Culture - Creating and Maintaining an Organizational Culture. Organizational change - Meaning- Forces for Change- Managing Planned Change - Factors in Organizational Change - Resistance to change- Overcoming resistance to change. Stress - Causes of stress - Effects of Occupational Stress- Coping Strategies for Stress.

Suggested Readings:

Text Books:

1. Stephen Robbins. (2012). *Organizational Behaviour*. (11th edition).New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.

References:

- 1. Fred Luthans. (2008). Organizational Behaviour (4th edition). New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill.
- 2. Steven.L.Mc Shane and Mary Ann Von Glinow. (2008). *Organizational Behaviour* (2nd edition).New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill.

- 3. Robbins, S. P., and Judge, T.A. (2012). *Organizational Behaviour*. (11th edition).New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.
- 4. Prasad, L.M. (2014). *Organizational Behaviour* (3rd edition). New Delhi: Sultan Chand and Sons.

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UNIT-I-Introduction to Organizational Behaviour

SYLLABUS

Organization Behavior: Meaning and definition - Fundamental concepts of OB - Contributing disciplines to the OB field - OB Model - Significance of OB in the organization success - Challenges and Opportunities for OB.

ORGANIZATION

A consciously coordinated social unit composed of two or more people that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.

Meaning

- OB is concerned with the study of human behavior at work.
- OB is the study and application of knowledge about how people as individuals and as groups behave or act in organizations.
- OB is concerned with the study of how and what people act in organizations and also how their acts affect the performance of organization.

Definition

- According to **Luthans**, "OB is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction, and control of human behaviour in organizations".
- According to **Davis** and **Newstrom**, "the study and application of knowledge how people act or behave within organisation. It is a human tool for human benefit. It applies broadly to the behaviour of people in all types of organisations such as business, government, schools and service organisations".

Key elements of OB

The key elements in the organisational behaviour are people,, structure, technology and the environment in which the organisation operates.

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• *People:* People make up the internal and social system of the organisation. They consist of individuals and groups. The groups may be big or small; formal or informal; official or unofficial. Groups are dynamic and they work in the organisation to achieve their objectives.

- *Structure:* Structure defines the formal relationships of the people in organisations. Different people in the organisation are performing different type of jobs and they need to be (elated in some structural way so that their work can be effectively co-ordinated.
- *Technology:* Technology such as machines and work processes provide the resources with which people work and affects the tasks that they perform. The technology used has a significant influence on working relationships. It allows people to do more and work better but it also restricts' people in various ways.
- *Environment:* All organisations operate within an external environment. It is the part of a larger system that contains many other elements such as government, family and other organisations. All of these mutually influence each other in a complex system that creates a context for a group of people.

Nature of OB

- A separate field of study and not a discipline only
- An interdisciplinary approach
- An applied science
- A normative science
- A humanistic and optimistic approach
- A total system approach

IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organisational behaviour helps to analyse 'why' and 'how' an individual behaves in a particular way. Human behaviour is a complex phenomenon and is affected by a large number of factors including the psychological, social and cultural implications. Organisational behaviour integrates these factors to provide simplicity in understanding the human behaviour.

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• *Interpersonal Level:* Human behaviour can be understood at the level of interpersonal interaction. Organisational behaviour provides • means for understanding the interpersonal relationships in an organisation. Analysis of reciprocal relationships, role analysis and transactional analysis are some of the common methods, which provide such understanding.

- *Group Level:* Though people interpret anything at their individual level, they are often modified by group pressures, which then become a force in shaping human behaviour, Thus, individuals should be studied in groups also.. Research in group dynamics has contributed vitally to organisational behaviour and shows how a group behaves in its norms, cohesion, goals, procedures, communication pattern and leadership. These research results are advancing managerial knowledge of understanding group behaviour, which is very important for organisational morale and productivity.
- *Inter-group Level:* The organisation is made up of many groups that develop complex relationships to build their process and substance. Understanding the effect of group relationships is important for managers in today's organisation. Inter-group relationship may be in the form of co-operation or competition.

Models of OB

The following four models of organizational behaviour are as follows:

- A. Autocratic model
- B. Custodial model
- C. Supportive model
- D. Collegial model

Autocratic Model

In an autocratic model', the manager has the power to command his subordinates to do a specific job. Management believes that it knows what is best for an organization and therefore, employees are required to follow their orders. The psychological result of this model on employees is their increasing dependence on their boss. Its main weakness is its high human cost.

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Custodial Model

This model focuses better employee satisfaction and security. Under this model organizations satisfy the security and welfare needs of employees. Hence, it is known as custodian model. This model leads to employee dependence on an organization rather than on boss. As a result of economic rewards and benefits, employees are happy and contented but they are not strongly motivated.

Supportive Model

The supportive model depends on 'leadership' instead of power or money. Through leadership, management provides a climate to help employees grow and accomplish in the interest of an organization. This model assumes that employees will take responsibility, develop a drive to contribute and improve them if management will give them a chance. Therefore, management's direction is to 'Support' the employee's job performance rather than to 'support' employee benefit payments, as in the custodial approach. Since management supports employees in their work, the psychological result is a feeling of participation and task involvement in an, organization.

Collegial Model

The term 'collegial' relates to a body of persons having a common purpose. It is a team concept. Management is the coach that builds a better team. The management is seen as joint contributor rather than as a boss. The employee response to this situation is responsibility. The psychological result of the collegial approach for the employee is 'self-discipline'. In this kind of environment employees normally feel some degree of fulfillment and worthwhile contribution towards their work. This results in enthusiasm in employees' performance.

FOUR MODELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

| | Autocratic | Custodial | Supportive | Collegial |
|----------------|------------|-----------|------------|-------------|
| Basis of Model | Power | Economic | Leadership | Partnership |
| | | resources | | |
| Managerial- | Authority | Money | Support | Teamwork |
| orientation | | | | |

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| | Autocratic | Custodial | Supportive | Collegial |
|---------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|----------------------|
| Employee | Dependence on | Dependence | | |
| psychological | • | on | Participation | Self-discipline |
| result | boss | organization | | |
| Employee | Subsistence | Security | Status and | Self-actualization |
| needs met | | | recognition | |
| Performance | Minimum | Passive | Awakened | Madagata anthusia an |
| result | Minimum | cooperation | drives | Moderate enthusiasm |

It is wrong to assume that a particular model is the best model. This is because a model depends on the knowledge about human behaviour in a particular environment, which is unpredictable. The primary challenge for management is to identify the model it is actually using and then assess its current effectiveness.

The selection of model by a manager is determined by a number of factors such as, the existing philosophy, vision and goals of manager. In addition, environmental conditions help in determining which model will be the most effective model.

Significance of OB in the organization success

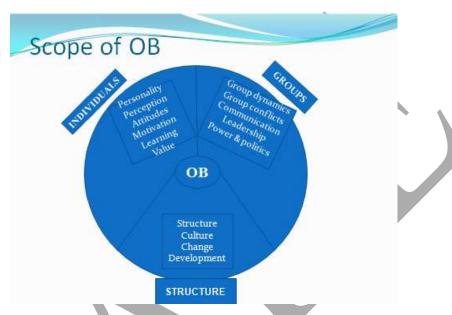
- The study of OB helps us understand ourselves & others in a better way.
- It helps to improve inter-personal relationship in the organisations.
- The knowledge of OB helps the managers to know individual employees better and motivate employees to work for better results.
- One of the basic characteristics of OB is that, it is human in nature, so it can tackle human problem easily.
- It helps to understand the cause of problem predicts its future course of action and controls its evil consequences.
- The most popular reason for studying OB is to learn how to predict human behavior & then apply it in useful way to make the organization more effective.

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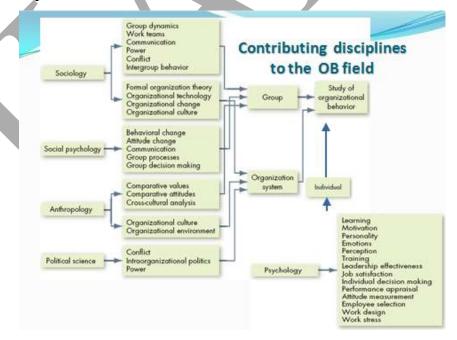
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 OB helps managers how to efficiently manage human resources in the organization & also enables managers to inspire and motivate employees towards higher productivity and better results.

Scope of OB



Contributing Disciplines to the OB Field



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Psychology

The discipline that has had the greatest influence on the field of OB is psychology. It is the science that focuses directly on understanding and predicting individual behaviour and it also greatly contributed to intra-personal dynamics of human behaviour such personality, perception, attitude, opinion, learning and motivation describes intra-personal aspects of OB.

Sociology

The study of people in relation to their fellow human beings. The field of sociology has made valuable contributions to our understanding of group dynamics within organisations. Sociology includes group dynamics, formation of groups, communication, formal and informal groups.

Anthropology

• Anthropology is the study of societies to learn about human beings and their activities. Anthropology helps us to understand differences in fundamental values, attitudes & behaviour between people in different regions and organisations.

Political science

The study of the behavior of individuals and groups within a political environment. Power, politics and authority are popular topics derived from the field of political system.



LIMITATIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

- Organizational behaviour cannot abolish conflict and frustration but can only reduce them. It is a way to improve but not an absolute answer to problems.
- It is only one of the many systems operating within a large social system.

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• People who lack system understanding may develop a 'behavioral basis', which gives them a narrow view point, i.e., a tunnel vision that emphasizes on satisfying employee experiences while overlooking the broader system of an organization in relation to all its public.

- The law of diminishing returns also operates in the case of organizational behaviour. It states, that at some point increase of a desirable practice produce declining returns and sometimes, negative returns. The concept implies that for any situation there is an optimum amount of a desirable practice. When that point is exceeded, there is a decline in returns. For example, too much security may lead to less employee initiative and growth. This relationship shows that organizational effectiveness is achieved not by maximizing one human variable but by working all system variables together in a balanced way.
- A significant concern about organizational behaviour is that its knowledge and techniques could be used to manipulate people without regard for human welfare. People who lack ethical values could use people in unethical ways.

FUTURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The growing interest in organizational behaviour stems from both a philosophical desire by many people to create more humanistic work places and a practical need to design more productive work environments. As a result of these forces, organizational behaviour is now a part of the curriculum of almost all courses including engineering and medical.

The field of organizational behaviour has grown in depth and breadth. The keys to its past and future success revolve around the related processes of theory development, research and managerial practice.

Although organizational behaviour has certain limitations, it has a tremendous potential to contribute to the advancement of civilisation. It has provided and will provide much improvement in the human environment. By building a better climate for people, organizational behaviour will release their creative potential to solve major social problems. In this way organizational behaviour will contribute to social improvements. Improved organizational behaviour is not easy to apply but opportunities are there. It should produce a higher quality of life in which there is improved harmony within each individual, among people and among the organizations of future.

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Part A (ONE Mark) Multiple Choice Questions Online Examination

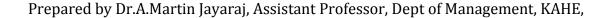
Part B

(2 Marks)

- 1. Define organizational behavior.
- 2. What are the key elements of OB?
- 3. What is the scope of OB?
- 4. What are the characteristics of OB?
- 5. State the fundamental concepts of OB.
- 6. What are the major disciplines that contribute to the study of OB?

Part C (8 Marks)

- 1. Explain in detail the foundation of individual behavior.
- 2. Discuss the need for studying organizational behavior.
- 3. "Human behaviour is caused". Examine the statement
- 4. Bring out the impact of personal factors in determining individual behavior.
- 5. Explain the models of organizational behavior.
- 6. Describe the nature and scope of OB.



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UNIT-II-Individual Behaviour - I

SYLLABUS

Attitudes – Sources - Types - Functions of Attitudes – Attitude and Job satisfaction, Emotions and Moods – Emotional Intelligence – OB Applications of Emotions and Moods, Learning – Theories of Learning. Personality – Determinants of personality- Theories of Personality – psycho-analytical, social learning, job-fit, and trait theories. Values – Importance - Types of Values – Linking Individual personality and values to the work place.

ATTITUDE

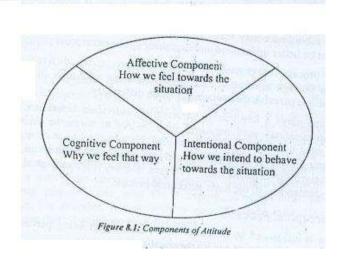
- An attitude can be defined as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, event, activities, ideas, or just about anything in our environment.
- A settled way of thinking or feeling typically reflected in a person's behavior.
- Attitude reflects an individual's work behaviour and performance.

COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE

Attitude has three components, which are as follows:

- Affective component
- Cognitive component
- Intentional component

The figure 8.1 shows the components of attitude.



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The affective component of an attitude reflects 'feelings and emotions' that an individual has towards a situation. The cognitive component of an attitude is derived from 'knowledge' that an individual has about a situation. Finally, the intentional component of an attitude reflects how an individual 'expects to behave' towards or in the situation. For example, the different components of an attitude held towards a firm, which supplies inferior products and that too irregularly could be described as follows:

- "I don't like that company"—Affective component.
- "They are the worst supply firm I have ever dealt with"—Cognitive component.
- "I will never do business with them again"'—Intentional component.

People try to maintain consistency among the three components of their attitudes. However, conflicting circumstances often arise. The conflict that individuals may experience among their own attitudes is called 'cognitive dissonance.

FUNCTION OF ATTITUDES

Four Important Functions

- The Adjustment function
- The Ego-Defensive function
- The Value-Expressive function
- The Knowledge function

The Adjustment Function

- People modify their attitudes to adjust to their work environment.
- When supervisors treat employees fairly and compensate them with equal pay for equal work, they employees them to develop a positive attitudes towards the organisation and the superiors
- But if management does not treat them well and fails to give them equitable remuneration for their services they will develop a negative attitude towards the organisation.

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• Such attitudes help employees adapt to their environment and from the basis for their future behaviours.

The Ego-Defensive Function

- Attitudes not only enable employees to adapt to their environment but also help them defend their self images.
- Take the case of a senior executive who is not very effective manager and makes poor decision.
- When his subordinate point out his mistake he may not be take in the right sprit.
- Instead of admitting his shortcomings and making suitable amends, the senior executive may become defensive and try to protect his ego.

The Value-Expressive Function

People may express their values through their attitudes.

For ex:

If a manager wants employee to work harder, he may tell that the employees has a tradition of hard work and every employee in the company expected to respect that tradition and work accordingly.

The Knowledge Function

• Attitudes provide a standard of reference which allows people to understand and explain their environment.

For ex:

A union leader may have develop a negative attitude towards management due to the fact that sometime in the past management had tried to manipulate the workers by making false promises.

• Due to that experience the union leader may regard anything set by the management as a means to manipulate the workers.

Irrespective of the reality at a given point of time, the leader will try to interpret any action or promise on management on the basis of standard of reference set by him.

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Learning

Learning is an important psychological process that-determines human behavior. Learning can be defined as "relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice". There are four important points in the definition of learning:

- 1. Learning involves a change in behavior, though this change is not necessarily an improvement over previous behavior. Learning generally has the connotation of improved behavior, but bad habits, prejudices, stereotypes, and work restrictions are also learned.
- 2. The, behavioral change must be relatively permanent. Any temporary change in behavior is not a part of learning.
- 3. The behavioral change must be based oh some form of practice or experience.
- 4. The practice or experience must be reinforced in order so as to facilitate learning to occur.

COMPONENTS OF THE LEARNING PROCESS

The components of learning process are: drive, cue stimuli, response, reinforcement and retention.

Drive

Learning frequently occurs in the presence of drive - any strong stimulus that impels action. Drives are basically of two types -primary (or physiological); and secondary (or psychological). These two categories of drives often interact with each other. Individuals operate under many drives at the same time. To predict a behavior, it is necessary to establish which drives are stimulating the most.

Cue Stimuli

Cue stimuli are those factors that exist in the environment as perceived by the individual. The idea is to discover the conditions under which stimulus will increase the probability of eliciting a specific response. There may be two types i of stimuli with respect to their results in terms of response concerned: generalization and discrimination.

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Generalization occurs when a response is elicited by a similar but new stimulus. If two stimuli are exactly alike, they will have the same probability of evoking a specified response. The principle of generalization has important implications for human learning. Because of generalization, a person does not have to 'completely relearn each of the new tasks. It allows the members to adapt to overall changing conditions and specific new assignments. The individual can borrow from past learning experiences to adjust more smoothly to new learning situations.

Discrimination is a procedure in which an organization learns to emit a response to a stimulus but avoids making the same response to a similar but somewhat different stimulus. Discrimination has wide applications in 'organizational behavior. For example, a supervisor can discriminate between two equally high producing workers, one with low quality and other with high quality.

Responses

The stimulus results in responses. Responses may be in the physical form or may be in terms of attitudes, familiarity, perception or other complex phenomena. In the above example, the supervisor discriminates between the worker producing low quality products and the worker producing high quality products, and positively responds only to the quality conscious worker.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement is a fundamental condition of learning. Without reinforcement, no measurable modification of behavior takes place. Reinforcement may be defined as the environmental event's affecting the probability of occurrence of responses with which they are associated.

Retention

The stability of learned behavior over time is defined as retention and its contrary is known as forgetting. Some of the learning is retained over a period of time while others may be forgotten.

LEARNING THEORIES

Classical Conditioning

The work of the famous Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov demonstrated the classical conditioning process. When Pavlov presented a piece of meat to the dog in the experiment, Pavlov noticed a great

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deal of salivation. He termed the food an unconditioned stimulus and the salivation an unconditioned response. When the dog saw the meat, it salivated. On the other hand, when Pavlov merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of a bell each time the meat was given to the dog. The dog eventually learned to salivate in response to the ringing of the-bell-even when there was no meat. Pavlov had conditioned the dog to respond to a learned stimulus. Thorndike called this the "law of exercise" which states that behavior can be learned by repetitive association between a stimulus and a response.

Classical conditioning has a limited value in the study of organizational behavior. As pointed out by Skinner, classical conditioning represents an insignificant part of total human learning. Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific or particular fashion. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event. As such it explains simple and reflexive behaviors. But behavior of people in organizations is emitted rather than elicited, and it is voluntary rather than reflexive. The learning of these complex behaviors can be explained or better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

Operant Conditioning

An operant is defined as a behavior that produces effects. Operant conditioning, basically a product of Skinnerian psychology, suggests that individuals emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning is a voluntary behavior and it is determined, maintained and controlled by its consequences.

Operant conditioning is a powerful tool for managing people in organizations. Most behaviors in organizations are learned, controlled and altered by the consequences; i.e. operant behaviors. Management can use the operant conditioning process successfully to control and influence the behavior of employees by manipulating its reward system. Reinforcement is anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behavior. Four types of reinforcement strategies can be employed by managers to influence the behavior of the employees, viz., positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and punishment.

Positive Reinforcement

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Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior by the presentation of a desirable consequence (reward). In other words, a positive reinforce is a reward that follows behavior and is capable of increasing the frequency of that behavior. There are two typos of positive: reinforces: primary and secondary. Primary reinforcers such as food, water and sex are of biological importance and have effects, which are independent of past experiences. For instance, a primary reinforcer like food satisfies hunger need and reinforced food-producing behavior. Secondary reinforcers like job advancement, recognition, praise and esteem result from previous association with a primary reinforcer. Primary reinforcers must be learned. In order to apply reinforcement procedures successfully, management must select reinforcers that are sufficiently powerful and durable.

Negative Reinforcement

The threat of punishment is known as negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcers also serve to strengthen desired behavior responses leading to their removal or termination.

Extinction

Extinction is an effective method of controlling undesirable behavior. It refers to non-reinforcement. It is based on the principle that if a response is not reinforced, it will eventually disappear. Extinction is a behavioral strategy that does not promote desirable behaviors but can help to reduce undesirable behaviors.

Punishment

Punishment is a control device employed in organizations to discourage and reduce annoying behaviors of employees.

OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

Observational learning results from watching the behavior of another person and appraising the consequences of that behavior. It does not require an overt response. When Mr. X observes that Y is rewarded for superior performance, X learns the positive relationship between performance and rewards without actually obtaining the reward himself. Observational learning plays a crucial role in altering behaviors in organizations.

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Cognitive Learning

Here the primary emphasis is on knowing how events and objects are related to each other. Most of the learning that takes place in the classroom is cognitive learning. Cognitive learning is important because it increases the change that the learner will do the right thing first, without going through a lengthy operant conditioning process.

LEARNING THEORY AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

The relevance of the learning theories for explaining and predicting of organizational behavior is marginal. This does not mean that learning theories are totally irrelevant. Learning concepts provide a basis for changing behaviors that are unacceptable and maintaining those behavior that are acceptable. When individuals engage in various types of dysfunctional behavior such as late for work, disobeying orders, poor performance, the manager will attempt to educate more functional behaviors.

Learning theory can also provide certain guidelines for conditioning organizational behavior. Managers know that individuals capable of giving superior performance must be given more reinforces than those with average or low performance.

Managers can successfully use the operant conditioning process to control and influence the behavior of employees; by manipulating its reward system.

Personality

- Personality is the sum total of an individual's psycho-physical systems that determines his/her behavior in a given environment situation.
- Personality of individual also affects human behaviour.
- An individual's personality is influenced by the personal life and where he/she is working.

For example; We find in our day to day life that some people are quiet and passive, while others are loud and aggressive in their behaviours. Therefore, understanding human behaviour in organization in a better way underlines the need to understand personality in its various aspects.

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Definition

• According to Hilgard, "personality may be understood as the characteristic patterns of behaviour and modes of thinking that determine a person's adjustment to the environment"

• According to Allport, "the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.

PERSONALITY FORMATION

The personality formation of an individual starts at birth and continues throughout his life. Three major types of factors play important roles in personality formation, which are as follows:

- *Determinants:* The most widely studied determinants of personality are biological, social and cultural. People grow up in the presence of certain hereditary characteristics (body shape and height), the social context (family and friends) and the cultural context (religion and values). These three parts interact with each other to shape personality. As people grow into adulthood, their personalities become very clearly defined and generally stable.
- *Stages:* According to Sigmund Freud human personality progresses through four stages: dependent, compulsive, oedipal and mature. This concept of stages of growth provides a valuable perspective to organizational behavior. Experienced managers become aware of the stages that their employees often go through. This helps them 19 deal with these stages effectively and promote maximum growth for the individual and for the organization.
- *Traits:* Traits to personality are also based on psychology. According to some trait theories, all people share common traits, like social, (political, religious and aesthetic preferences but each individual's nature differentiates that person from all others.

Personality theories

Critics of personality theory claim personality is "plastic" across time, places, moods, and situations. Changes in personality may indeed result from diet (or lack thereof), medical effects, significant events, or learning. However, most personality theories emphasize stability over fluctuation.

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Trait theories

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Association, personality traits are "enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself that are exhibited in a wide range of social and personal contexts." Theorists generally assume a) traits are relatively stable over time, b) traits differ among individuals (e.g. some people are outgoing while others are reserved), and c) traits influence behavior.

Personality traits are very important in organizational behavior. In particular, five personality traits especially related to job performance have recently emerged from research. Characteristics of these traits can be summarized as follows:

- **1.** *Extroversion:* Sociable, talkative and assertive.
- 2. Agreeableness: Good-natured, cooperative and trusting.
- **3.** *Conscientiousness:* Responsible, dependable, persistent and achievement-oriented.
- **4.** *Emotional Stability:* Viewed from a negative standpoint such as tense, insecure and nervous.
- **5.** *Openness to Experience:* Imaginative, artistically sensitive and intellectual.

Identifying the above "big five" traits related to performance reveals that personality plays an important role in organizational behavior. Besides physical appearance and personality traits, the aspects of personality concerned with the self-concept such as self-esteem and self-efficacy and the person-situation interaction also play important roles.

Type theories

Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people. Personality types are distinguished from personality traits, which come in different levels or degrees. According to type theories, for example, there are two types of people, introverts and extraverts. According to trait theories, introversion and extraversion are part of a continuous dimension, with many people in the middle.

Psychoanalytic theories

Psychoanalytic theories explain human behavior in terms of the interaction of various components of personality. Sigmund Freud was the founder of this school. Freud drew on the

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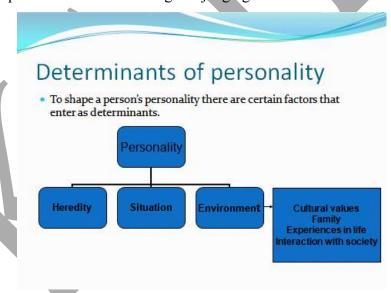
physics of his day (thermodynamics) to coin the term psychodynamics. Based on the idea of converting heat into mechanical energy, he proposed psychic energy could be converted into behavior. Freud's theory places central importance on dynamic, unconscious psychological conflicts

Behaviorist theories

Behaviorists explain personality in terms of the effects external stimuli have on behavior. It was a radical shift away from Freudian philosophy. This school of thought was developed by B. F. Skinner who put forth a model which emphasized the mutual interaction of the person or "the organism" with its environment.

Cognitive theories

In cognitivism, behavior is explained as guided by cognitions (e.g. expectations) about the world, especially those about other people. Cognitive theories are theories of personality that emphasize cognitive processes such as thinking and judging.



Determinants of personality

Heredity

Heredity is the transmission of the qualities from the parents to children through a biological mechanism lying in the chromosomes of the germ cells. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, temperament, muscle composition and biological rhythms are the examples of heredity.

• Environment

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Environment plays a larger role in shaping personality. The aspects of environment that influence personality formation include cultural values, family, experiences in life and interaction with society.

• Cultural values

Culture establishes the norms, attitudes and values that are passed along from generation to generation. People born in different cultures may have different values that shape their personality which would significantly influence their behavior.

For example; Work ethics like hard work is greatly valued but laziness is considered sinful according to western culture. But this value does not influence everyone within western culture to the same degree. Hence though culture has an impact on the development of an employee's personalities, not all individuals respond to cultural influences equally.

Family

Family also plays a major role in influencing the personality of individual. Parents and siblings influence the personality development of most individual. If it is an extended family with grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins, they can also play important roles in influencing the personality of an individual.

Generally speaking an individual's development is influenced by three main ways by their parents.

- * Through their own behaviour and their present state of mind influenced by the situation.
- * Parents are role models for children.
- * Children are rewarded or punished for their behaviours by their parents.

• Experiences in life

The numerous roles and experiences that people have had in their life time is an important source of personality differences.

For example; If a person A is taking Rs.1000 from B on loan with the promise of returning it in one month, B believes that A will return and so gives it to A. He waits for one month. When A never shows up and get escape from B, and later it creates mistrusts on A. When much experience happens to him for 2 or 3 times with different persons he will have a principle of not giving money to any people at all.

Thus, his experience in life changes his personality.

• Interaction with society

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*A person can be understood by his company (friends, people he moves with).

*Individuals are influenced by the people they interact more than with their parents, siblings,

friends and colleagues.

* When they work in a group they just accept their values and adopt their cultures and moves

on.

Values

Values can be defined as those things that are important to or valued by someone. That someone can

be an individual or, collectively, an organization.

Value is a concept that describes the beliefs of an individual or culture. A set of values may be

placed into the notion of a *value* system.

Types of values

Universal Values: These are values that there is nearly unanimous agreement as to the importance

of them. These would include Sanctity of human life, Peace, and human dignity.

Instrumental Values: These are values that can be used to get something else. In other words the

value is an instrument which allows you to get some other things. Examples of these would include

Progress (which allows leisure time), Freedom (Through which we can get dignity and/or self

actualization), and Knowledge (which helps us get economic prosperity, and progress).

Intrinsic Values: Something has intrinsic worth simply because of what it is and not necessarily

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include beauty, artistic expression, and happiness. We value them because they are an important

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Prerequisite Values: These are values that are necessary before you can get to some bigger goal. It

is similar to the prerequisite course that you must take in order to get to the more advanced course.

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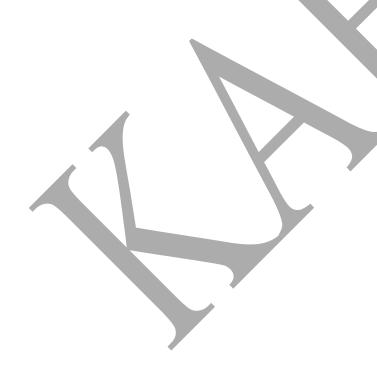
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Paramount Values: Think of this type of value like you think of Paramount Studios with the large mountain. It is the value which is above all other things. Some examples of this might include freedom (which many people have given up their lives for and see as essential to a decent life) or sanctity of life (which if we do not value or have renders everything else worthless).

Operative Values: These types of values are the ways that we make judgements on how to live the rest of our lives. We use these values as the overarching and guiding principles which tell us what is always right and wrong. These are things such as Integrity, Honesty, and Loyalty.



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Part A (ONE Mark) Multiple Choice Questions Online Examination

Part B

(2 Marks)

- 1. State the functions of attitude
- 2. What are the sources of attitudes?
- 3. What are the determinants of personality?
- 4. What is personality?
- 5. What is attitude and what are the types of it?
- 6. What are the components of attitude?
- 7. What is value system?
- 8. State how personality influences individual's behaviour in organizations.

Part C (8 Marks)

- 1. Explain the various types of attitudes.
- 2. Explain emotional intelligence as a managerial tool.
- 3. Describe the various theories of personality.
- 4. How personality influences organizational behavior? Discuss.
- 5. What is the relationship between values and behaviour? Comment.
- 6. Describe the features of Learning.
- 7. Discuss the various theories of learning.

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UNIT-II-Individual Behaviour - I

SYLLABUS

Attitudes – Sources - Types - Functions of Attitudes – Attitude and Job satisfaction, Emotions and Moods – Emotional Intelligence – OB Applications of Emotions and Moods, Learning – Theories of Learning. Personality – Determinants of personality- Theories of Personality – psycho-analytical, social learning, job-fit, and trait theories. Values – Importance - Types of Values – Linking Individual personality and values to the work place.

ATTITUDE

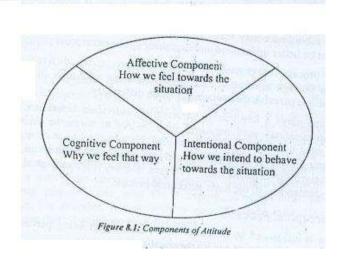
- An attitude can be defined as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, event, activities, ideas, or just about anything in our environment.
- A settled way of thinking or feeling typically reflected in a person's behavior.
- Attitude reflects an individual's work behaviour and performance.

COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE

Attitude has three components, which are as follows:

- Affective component
- Cognitive component
- Intentional component

The figure 8.1 shows the components of attitude.



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The affective component of an attitude reflects 'feelings and emotions' that an individual has towards a situation. The cognitive component of an attitude is derived from 'knowledge' that an individual has about a situation. Finally, the intentional component of an attitude reflects how an individual 'expects to behave' towards or in the situation. For example, the different components of an attitude held towards a firm, which supplies inferior products and that too irregularly could be described as follows:

- "I don't like that company"—Affective component.
- "They are the worst supply firm I have ever dealt with"—Cognitive component.
- "I will never do business with them again"'—Intentional component.

People try to maintain consistency among the three components of their attitudes. However, conflicting circumstances often arise. The conflict that individuals may experience among their own attitudes is called 'cognitive dissonance.

FUNCTION OF ATTITUDES

Four Important Functions

- The Adjustment function
- The Ego-Defensive function
- The Value-Expressive function
- The Knowledge function

The Adjustment Function

- People modify their attitudes to adjust to their work environment.
- When supervisors treat employees fairly and compensate them with equal pay for equal work, they employees them to develop a positive attitudes towards the organisation and the superiors
- But if management does not treat them well and fails to give them equitable remuneration for their services they will develop a negative attitude towards the organisation.

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• Such attitudes help employees adapt to their environment and from the basis for their future behaviours.

The Ego-Defensive Function

- Attitudes not only enable employees to adapt to their environment but also help them defend their self images.
- Take the case of a senior executive who is not very effective manager and makes poor decision.
- When his subordinate point out his mistake he may not be take in the right sprit.
- Instead of admitting his shortcomings and making suitable amends, the senior executive may become defensive and try to protect his ego.

The Value-Expressive Function

People may express their values through their attitudes.

For ex:

If a manager wants employee to work harder, he may tell that the employees has a tradition of hard work and every employee in the company expected to respect that tradition and work accordingly.

The Knowledge Function

• Attitudes provide a standard of reference which allows people to understand and explain their environment.

For ex:

A union leader may have develop a negative attitude towards management due to the fact that sometime in the past management had tried to manipulate the workers by making false promises.

• Due to that experience the union leader may regard anything set by the management as a means to manipulate the workers.

Irrespective of the reality at a given point of time, the leader will try to interpret any action or promise on management on the basis of standard of reference set by him.

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Learning

Learning is an important psychological process that-determines human behavior. Learning can be defined as "relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice". There are four important points in the definition of learning:

- 1. Learning involves a change in behavior, though this change is not necessarily an improvement over previous behavior. Learning generally has the connotation of improved behavior, but bad habits, prejudices, stereotypes, and work restrictions are also learned.
- 2. The, behavioral change must be relatively permanent. Any temporary change in behavior is not a part of learning.
- 3. The behavioral change must be based oh some form of practice or experience.
- 4. The practice or experience must be reinforced in order so as to facilitate learning to occur.

COMPONENTS OF THE LEARNING PROCESS

The components of learning process are: drive, cue stimuli, response, reinforcement and retention.

Drive

Learning frequently occurs in the presence of drive - any strong stimulus that impels action. Drives are basically of two types -primary (or physiological); and secondary (or psychological). These two categories of drives often interact with each other. Individuals operate under many drives at the same time. To predict a behavior, it is necessary to establish which drives are stimulating the most.

Cue Stimuli

Cue stimuli are those factors that exist in the environment as perceived by the individual. The idea is to discover the conditions under which stimulus will increase the probability of eliciting a specific response. There may be two types i of stimuli with respect to their results in terms of response concerned: generalization and discrimination.

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Generalization occurs when a response is elicited by a similar but new stimulus. If two stimuli are exactly alike, they will have the same probability of evoking a specified response. The principle of generalization has important implications for human learning. Because of generalization, a person does not have to 'completely relearn each of the new tasks. It allows the members to adapt to overall changing conditions and specific new assignments. The individual can borrow from past learning experiences to adjust more smoothly to new learning situations.

Discrimination is a procedure in which an organization learns to emit a response to a stimulus but avoids making the same response to a similar but somewhat different stimulus. Discrimination has wide applications in 'organizational behavior. For example, a supervisor can discriminate between two equally high producing workers, one with low quality and other with high quality.

Responses

The stimulus results in responses. Responses may be in the physical form or may be in terms of attitudes, familiarity, perception or other complex phenomena. In the above example, the supervisor discriminates between the worker producing low quality products and the worker producing high quality products, and positively responds only to the quality conscious worker.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement is a fundamental condition of learning. Without reinforcement, no measurable modification of behavior takes place. Reinforcement may be defined as the environmental event's affecting the probability of occurrence of responses with which they are associated.

Retention

The stability of learned behavior over time is defined as retention and its contrary is known as forgetting. Some of the learning is retained over a period of time while others may be forgotten.

LEARNING THEORIES

Classical Conditioning

The work of the famous Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov demonstrated the classical conditioning process. When Pavlov presented a piece of meat to the dog in the experiment, Pavlov noticed a great

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deal of salivation. He termed the food an unconditioned stimulus and the salivation an unconditioned response. When the dog saw the meat, it salivated. On the other hand, when Pavlov merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of a bell each time the meat was given to the dog. The dog eventually learned to salivate in response to the ringing of the-bell-even when there was no meat. Pavlov had conditioned the dog to respond to a learned stimulus. Thorndike called this the "law of exercise" which states that behavior can be learned by repetitive association between a stimulus and a response.

Classical conditioning has a limited value in the study of organizational behavior. As pointed out by Skinner, classical conditioning represents an insignificant part of total human learning. Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific or particular fashion. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event. As such it explains simple and reflexive behaviors. But behavior of people in organizations is emitted rather than elicited, and it is voluntary rather than reflexive. The learning of these complex behaviors can be explained or better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

Operant Conditioning

An operant is defined as a behavior that produces effects. Operant conditioning, basically a product of Skinnerian psychology, suggests that individuals emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning is a voluntary behavior and it is determined, maintained and controlled by its consequences.

Operant conditioning is a powerful tool for managing people in organizations. Most behaviors in organizations are learned, controlled and altered by the consequences; i.e. operant behaviors. Management can use the operant conditioning process successfully to control and influence the behavior of employees by manipulating its reward system. Reinforcement is anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behavior. Four types of reinforcement strategies can be employed by managers to influence the behavior of the employees, viz., positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and punishment.

Positive Reinforcement

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Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior by the presentation of a desirable consequence (reward). In other words, a positive reinforce is a reward that follows behavior and is capable of increasing the frequency of that behavior. There are two typos of positive: reinforces: primary and secondary. Primary reinforcers such as food, water and sex are of biological importance and have effects, which are independent of past experiences. For instance, a primary reinforcer like food satisfies hunger need and reinforced food-producing behavior. Secondary reinforcers like job advancement, recognition, praise and esteem result from previous association with a primary reinforcer. Primary reinforcers must be learned. In order to apply reinforcement procedures successfully, management must select reinforcers that are sufficiently powerful and durable.

Negative Reinforcement

The threat of punishment is known as negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcers also serve to strengthen desired behavior responses leading to their removal or termination.

Extinction

Extinction is an effective method of controlling undesirable behavior. It refers to non-reinforcement. It is based on the principle that if a response is not reinforced, it will eventually disappear. Extinction is a behavioral strategy that does not promote desirable behaviors but can help to reduce undesirable behaviors.

Punishment

Punishment is a control device employed in organizations to discourage and reduce annoying behaviors of employees.

OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

Observational learning results from watching the behavior of another person and appraising the consequences of that behavior. It does not require an overt response. When Mr. X observes that Y is rewarded for superior performance, X learns the positive relationship between performance and rewards without actually obtaining the reward himself. Observational learning plays a crucial role in altering behaviors in organizations.

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Cognitive Learning

Here the primary emphasis is on knowing how events and objects are related to each other. Most of the learning that takes place in the classroom is cognitive learning. Cognitive learning is important because it increases the change that the learner will do the right thing first, without going through a lengthy operant conditioning process.

LEARNING THEORY AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

The relevance of the learning theories for explaining and predicting of organizational behavior is marginal. This does not mean that learning theories are totally irrelevant. Learning concepts provide a basis for changing behaviors that are unacceptable and maintaining those behavior that are acceptable. When individuals engage in various types of dysfunctional behavior such as late for work, disobeying orders, poor performance, the manager will attempt to educate more functional behaviors.

Learning theory can also provide certain guidelines for conditioning organizational behavior. Managers know that individuals capable of giving superior performance must be given more reinforces than those with average or low performance.

Managers can successfully use the operant conditioning process to control and influence the behavior of employees; by manipulating its reward system.

Personality

- Personality is the sum total of an individual's psycho-physical systems that determines his/her behavior in a given environment situation.
- Personality of individual also affects human behaviour.
- An individual's personality is influenced by the personal life and where he/she is working.

For example; We find in our day to day life that some people are quiet and passive, while others are loud and aggressive in their behaviours. Therefore, understanding human behaviour in organization in a better way underlines the need to understand personality in its various aspects.

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Definition

• According to Hilgard, "personality may be understood as the characteristic patterns of behaviour and modes of thinking that determine a person's adjustment to the environment"

• According to Allport, "the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.

PERSONALITY FORMATION

The personality formation of an individual starts at birth and continues throughout his life. Three major types of factors play important roles in personality formation, which are as follows:

- *Determinants:* The most widely studied determinants of personality are biological, social and cultural. People grow up in the presence of certain hereditary characteristics (body shape and height), the social context (family and friends) and the cultural context (religion and values). These three parts interact with each other to shape personality. As people grow into adulthood, their personalities become very clearly defined and generally stable.
- *Stages:* According to Sigmund Freud human personality progresses through four stages: dependent, compulsive, oedipal and mature. This concept of stages of growth provides a valuable perspective to organizational behavior. Experienced managers become aware of the stages that their employees often go through. This helps them 19 deal with these stages effectively and promote maximum growth for the individual and for the organization.
- *Traits:* Traits to personality are also based on psychology. According to some trait theories, all people share common traits, like social, (political, religious and aesthetic preferences but each individual's nature differentiates that person from all others.

Personality theories

Critics of personality theory claim personality is "plastic" across time, places, moods, and situations. Changes in personality may indeed result from diet (or lack thereof), medical effects, significant events, or learning. However, most personality theories emphasize stability over fluctuation.

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Trait theories

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Association, personality traits are "enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself that are exhibited in a wide range of social and personal contexts." Theorists generally assume a) traits are relatively stable over time, b) traits differ among individuals (e.g. some people are outgoing while others are reserved), and c) traits influence behavior.

Personality traits are very important in organizational behavior. In particular, five personality traits especially related to job performance have recently emerged from research. Characteristics of these traits can be summarized as follows:

- **1.** *Extroversion:* Sociable, talkative and assertive.
- 2. Agreeableness: Good-natured, cooperative and trusting.
- **3.** Conscientiousness: Responsible, dependable, persistent and achievement-oriented.
- **4.** *Emotional Stability:* Viewed from a negative standpoint such as tense, insecure and nervous.
- **5.** *Openness to Experience:* Imaginative, artistically sensitive and intellectual.

Identifying the above "big five" traits related to performance reveals that personality plays an important role in organizational behavior. Besides physical appearance and personality traits, the aspects of personality concerned with the self-concept such as self-esteem and self-efficacy and the person-situation interaction also play important roles.

Type theories

Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people. Personality types are distinguished from personality traits, which come in different levels or degrees. According to type theories, for example, there are two types of people, introverts and extraverts. According to trait theories, introversion and extraversion are part of a continuous dimension, with many people in the middle.

Psychoanalytic theories

Psychoanalytic theories explain human behavior in terms of the interaction of various components of personality. Sigmund Freud was the founder of this school. Freud drew on the

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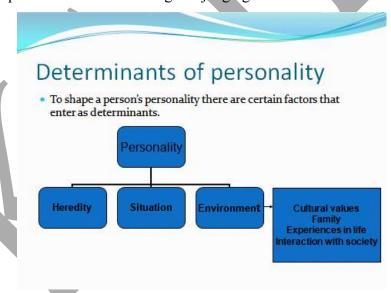
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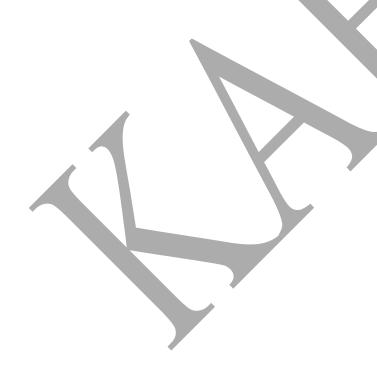
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| | | PART A | | | |
|---|--|---|---|--|---|
| | | Unit II | | | |
| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
| According to Robert Katz, when managers have the mental ability to analyze and diagnose complex situations, they possess skills. | Technical | Leadership | Problem solving | Conceptual | Conceptual |
| What sort of goals does Management By Objectives (MBO) emphasize? | Tangible, verifiable and measurable | Achievable, controllable and profitable | Challenging, emotional and constructive | Hierarchical, attainable and effective | Tangible, verifiable and measurable |
| Today's managers understand that the success of any effort at improving quality and productivity must include | Quality management programs | Customer service improvements | Employee's participation | Manufacturing simplification | Employee's participation |
| Which of the following would be least likely to pose a barrier to cross-cultural communications? | Tone difference | Word Connotations | Political correctness | Differences among perception | Political correctness |
| Which of the following theory is proposed by Clayton Alderfer? | Theory X and Y | Hierarchy of needs | ERG theory | Learning theory | ERG theory |
| Concept of MBO was introduced by: | Peter. F.Drucker | Mary Parker | Henry Fayol | Philip Kotler | Peter. F.Drucker |
| Mr. Sunil's one-day salary was deducted because of his uninformed leave, as he was already warned about this behaviour. It is an example of which method of shaping behaviours? | Reinforceme nt | Positive Reinforcemen t | punishment | Negative Reinforcement | punishment |
| While managing political behaviours in organization, the manager requires discouraging: | Negotiation | Relationships | Self interest | Dialogue | Self interest |
| People with which type of personality trait commonly make poor decisions because they make them too fast? | Туре А | Туре В | Self monitors | Extroverts | Туре А |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|--|--|--|--|--|---|
| Which of the following is an environmental force that shapes personality? | Gender | Height | Experience | Brain size | Experience |
| Factors other than satisfaction that impact one's decision to leave a current job include all of the following EXCEPT: | Labour market conditions | Length of tenure with the organization | Organization al citizenship behavior | Expectations about alternative job opportunities | Expectations about alternative job opportunities |
| Praveen is dissatisfied with his job but believes that his supervisor is a good man who will do the right thing. Praveen has decided that if he just waits, conditions will improve. Praveen's approach to this problem is termed as: | Exit | Voice | Loyalty | Neglect | Loyalty |
| Which of the following leadership behaviours are identified by the path-goal theory? | Supportive, employee- oriented, laissez-faire and participative | Achievement- oriented, supportive, humanistic, and directive | - | Directive, participative, supportive, and laissez- faire | Participative, achievement- oriented, directive, and supportive |
| Which of the following is not a trait dimension in Big 5 personality trait? | Extroversion | Agreeableness | EGO | Culture | EGO |
| In which stage of the conflict process does conflict become visible? | Illumination | Intensions | Behaviour | Cognition | Behaviour |
| Which dimension of Big 5 personality traits represents artistically sensitive, refined etc. | Culture | Emotional stability | Conscientiou sness | Extroversion | Culture |
| refers to the network of personal and social relations that is developed spontaneously between people associated with each other. | Formal organization | Informal organization | Business organization | Government organization | Informal organization |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|---|---|--|---|---|---|
| The cognitive process through which an individual selects, organizes but misinterprets environmental stimuli is known as | Perception | Projection | Selective perception | Mis- perception | Mis- perception |
| The more consistent behaviour, the more the observer is inclined to | Attribute it to interpretatio n | Attribute it to internal causes | Attribute it to consensus | Attribute it to external causes | Attribute it to internal causes |
| Which of the following is one of the relationships proposed in expectancy theory? | Reward- satisfaction relationship | Satisfaction- performance relationship | Rewards- personal goals relationship | Effort- satisfaction relationship | Rewards- personal goals relationship |
| In Maslow's hierarchy needs which of the following pair of needs is ranked as" lower order needs"? | Physiologica l and safety needs | Physiological and social need | Self actualization and safety needs | Social and esteem needs | Physiological and social need |
| Maslow grouped the five needs into two categories | Higher-order needs and Lower-order needs | Supreme needs and local needs | Self needs and others needs | Luxurious needs and comfort needs | Higher-order needs and Lower-order needs |
| If everyone who is faced with a similar situation responds in the same way, attribution theory states that the behaviour shows | Consensus | Similarity | Reliability | Consistency | Consensus |
| Your boss never gives you the benefit of the doubt. When you were late back from lunch, he assumed that you had simply taken too much time. He never considered that the elevators were out and you had to walk up 10 flights of stairs. Your boss is guilty of | Self-serving bias | Selective perception | | Inconsistency | Fundamental attribution error |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Mr.Sajeev rated Mr. Rajiv high in his job evaluation because both belong to same area and graduated from the same University. It is an example of: | Central Tendency | Halo effect | Similar-to- me effect | Mis- perception | Similar-to-me effect |
| All the following are dimensions of Intellectual ability EXCEPT: | Inductive reasoning | Dynamic strength | Deductive reasoning | number aptitude | Inductive reasoning |
| What do we call it when we judge someone on the basis of our perception? | Stereotyping | Categorizing | Halo effect | Prototyping | Stereotyping |
| Sobha is an honest and straightforward person. She believes her employees are all similarly honest and straightforward, ignoring signs that they may be manipulating her. What perceptual shortcut is Sobha most likely using? | Contrast effect | Halo effect | Stereotyping | Projection | Projection |
| Sathish has a low absenteeism rate. He takes responsibility for his health and has good health habits. He is likely to have a(an): | Internal locus of control | External locus of control | Core locus of control | High emotional stability level | Internal locus of control |
| Raju believes that men perform better in oral presentations than women. What shortcut has been used in this case? | Halo effect | Projection | Contrast effect | Stereotyping | Stereotyping |
| Mr. Manoj, Manager ABC Company found that skills of workers and machinery used by them as compared to the competitors in the market are obsolete within a year, which type of challenge ABC Company is facing? | High Quality and Low Quality | Globalization and Culture | Rapid Pace of Change | Multiple Stakeholders | Rapid Pace of Change |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|---|--|---|--|---|---|
| What term is used to describe voluntary and involuntary permanent withdrawal from an organization? | Absenteeism | Turnover | Downsizing | truancy | Turnover |
| is discretionary behaviour that is not part of an employee's formal job requirement, but that promotes the effective functioning of the organization. | Productivity | Motivation | Organization al citizenship | Organizational behavior | Organizationa 1 citizenship |
| Individual-level independent variables include all of the following except. | Leadership | Learning | Perception | motivation | Leadership |
| Which of the following statements is true about the term "ability", as it is used in the field of organizational behaviour? | It refers to an individual's willingness to perform various tasks | It is a current assessment of what an individual can do | It refers exclusively to intellectual skills | It refers exclusively to physical skills | It is a current assessment of what an individual can do |
| Which of the following is not a biographical characteristic? | political affiliation | age | Sex | tenure | political affiliation |
| Experiments performed by Ivan Pavlov led to what theory? | classical conditioning | operant conditioning | social learning | behavior shaping | classical conditioning |
| What role did the meat play in Pavlov's experiment with dogs? | an unconditione d response | a conditioned stimulus | a conditioned response | an unconditioned stimulus | an unconditioned stimulus |
| In Pavlov's experiment, the bell was a/an. | an unconditione d stimulus | an unconditioned response | a conditioned stimulus | a conditioned response | a conditioned stimulus |
| Operant conditioning argues that . | behavior is reflexive | behavior is unlearned | behavior is a function of its consequence s | the tendency to repeat a behavior is very strong | behavior is a function of its consequences |
| Which of the following researchers thought that reinforcement was the central factor involved in behavioural change? | | Fayol | Skinner | Deming | Skinner |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|--|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| According to operant conditioning, when behaviour is not reinforced, what happens to the probability of that behaviour occurring again? | It increases | It declines | It remains unchanged | It becomes zero | It declines |
| What do we call the view that we can learn both through observation and direct experience? | situational learning theory | classical learning | social learning theory | the Pavlov principle | social learning theory |
| Four processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual. Which of the following is not one of those processes? | attention processes | retention processes | motor reproduction processes | consequential processes | consequential processes |
| Which of the following processes deals with how well an individual remembers a model's action after it is no longer readily available? | Attitudinal | Retention | motor reproduction | reinforcement | Retention |
| What do we call the practice of reinforcing closer and closer approximations of a desired behaviour | Modeling | Shaping | classical conditioning | social learning | Shaping |
| Suspending an employee for dishonest behaviour is an example of which method of shaping behaviour | Extinction | negative reinforcement | punishment | reaction | punishment |
| The application of reinforcement concepts to individuals in the work setting is referred to as | classical conditioning | self- management | Reengineerin g | OB Mod | OB Mod |
| Syam is always late coming to work and the manager cut his increment. This is an example of. | positive reinforceme nt | negative reinforcement | Punishment | extinction | positive reinforcement |
| What is the process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment? | Interpretatio n | environmental analysis | Outlook | perception | Outlook |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|---|---|--|---|--|--|
| Two people see the same thing at the same time yet interpret it differently. Where do the factors that operate to shape their dissimilar perceptions reside? | the perceivers | the target | the timing | the context | the context |
| What is the most relevant application of perception concepts to OB? | the perceptions people form about each other | the perceptions people form about their employer | the perceptions people form about their culture | the perceptions people form about society | the perceptions people form about each other |
| What is the name of the theory that deals with how we explain behaviour differently depending on the meaning we assign to the actor? | behavioral theory | judgment theory | selective perception theory | attribution theory | behavioral theory |
| In attribution theory, what is distinctiveness? | whether an individual displays consistent behaviors in different situations | whether an individual displays different behaviors in different situations | whether an individual displays consistent behaviors in similar situations | whether an individual displays different behaviors in similar situations | whether an individual displays different behaviors in similar situations |
| is once view of reality | Attitude | Perception | Outlook | Personality | Perception |
| is the dynamic organization within the individual that determine his unique adjustment to the environment | Perception | Attitude | Behavior | personality | Attitude |
| Most of the learning that takes place in the Class room is | Classical conditioning | Operant conditioning | Cognitive learning | Social learning | Cognitive learning |
| are those factors that exists in the environment as perceived by the individual | Physiologica l drive | Psychological drive | Cue stimuli | Reinforcement | Cue stimuli |
| is the process of screening out information that we are uncomfortable with or that contradict to our beliefs | Perceptual context | Selective perception | Halo effect | Stereotyping | Halo effect |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|---|-------------|----------------------|-------------------------|-------------|----------------------|
| The extent to which individuals consistently regard themselves as capable, worthy, successful etc. is | Self esteem | Authoritariani sm | Tolerance for ambiguity | Workhollism | Authoritariani sm |

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UNIT-III-Individual Behaviour - II

SYLLABUS

Perception – factors influencing perception - Person Perception – Attribution Theory – Frequently Used Shortcuts in Judging Others- Perceptual Process- Perceptual Selectivity - Organization Errors of perception – Linkage between perception and Decision making. Communication – Process – Directions of communication – interpersonal and organizational communication – Barriers to effective communication

Perception - Meaning

- A process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.
- Perception is a process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to stimuli.
- Perception is the process of receiving information about and making sense of the world around us. It involves deciding which information to notice, how to categorize this information and how to interpret it within the framework of existing knowledge.

PERCEPTION – Definition

- According to *Udai pareek*, "perception can be defined as the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data".
- Stephen P.Robbins defines perception as "a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment".

Factors influencing perception

A number of factors operate to shape and sometimes distort perception. These factors can reside,

- In the perceiver
- In the object or *target* being perceived or
- In the context of the *situation* in which the perception is made.

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Factors in the perceiver

• Attitudes: Attitudes are learned predisposition towards aspects of our environment. They are positively or negatively directed towards certain people. The perceiver's attitudes affect perception.

• *Motives*: Unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exerts a strong influence on their perceptions.

Interest: The focus of our attention appears to be influenced by our interests. Because our individual interests differ considerably, what one person notices in a situation can differ from what others perceive.

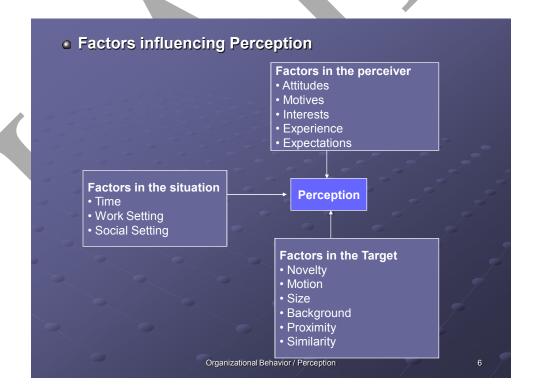
Factors in the object or target

Novelty: Something new and unusual; an innovation.

• Motion: motion is a change in position of an object with respect to time.

Proximity: nearness or closeness in a series.

• Similarity: The quality or state of being similar.



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The Perceptual Process

1.Sensation

An individual's ability to detect stimuli in the immediate environment.

2 Selection

The process a person uses to eliminate some of the stimuli that have been sensed and to retain others for further processing.

3.Organization

The process of placing selected perceptual stimuli into a framework for "storage."

4.Translation

The stage of the perceptual process at which stimuli are interpreted and given meaning.

1. Receiving stimuli

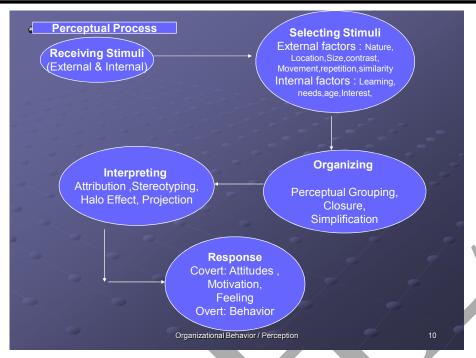
- The perception process starts with the reception of stimuli.
- The stimuli are received from the various sources. i.e.; internal & external.
- Stimuli may be external (such as sound waves) & internal as energy generation.

2. Selection of stimuli

- Selection of stimuli is not made at random, but depending on the two types of factors namely,
 Internal & external factors
- Internal factors relate to the perceiver such as his or her age, learning, interest etc.
- External factors relate to stimuli such as intensity of stimuli, its size, movement, repetition etc
- People selectively perceive objects or things which interest to them most in a particular situation and avoid those for which they are indifferent. This is called *selective perception*.

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Selective perception involves the following *two* psychological principles;

- 1. Figure ground principle We select stimuli for further processing that we consider important for us.
- The meaning bits and pieces of stimuli are called the *figure* and the meaningless ones are leveled as *ground*.
- More attention is given to figure and less to ground.
- Relevancy Relevancy is yet another principle involved in selective perception.
- People selectively perceive things that they consider relevant to meet their needs and desires.
- 2. Organization of stimuli
- Organizing the bits of information into a meaningful whole is called organisation.
- There are three ways by which the selected data i.e., inputs are organized. They are;
- Grouping
- Closure
- Simplification

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MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION OF PERCEPTION

MEANING

People in organisation are always judging each other.

Manager's must appraisal their subordinate performance.

APPLICATION OF PERCEPTION

- Employment interview
- Performance evaluation
- Performance expectation
- Employee loyalty

EMPLOYEMENT INTERVIEW

- An input into WHO IS HIRED &WHO IS REJECTED in any organization in the employment interview.
- A "GOOD APPLICANT" is probably characteristics more by the absence of unfavorable characteristics than by the presence of favorable characteristics.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

- An employee's performance appraisal very much depends on the perceptual process.
- The evaluator perceives to be "GOOD" or "BAD" employee characteristics the appraisal outcome.

PERFORMANCE EXPECTATION

- A manager's expectation of an individual affects both the manager's behaviour towards the individual and the individual response.
- Manager expects positive things from a group, the group delivers.

EMPOLYEE LOYALTY

- Few organization appreciate employees, especially those in the managerial ranks openly the firm.
- An employee who questions a top management decision may be seen as disloyal.

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IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

Most of the people want to make favourable impression on others.

- 1. Name –dropping 2. Flattery
- 3. Managing one's appearance

NAME DROPPING

It is a technique which involves mentioning an association with important people.

FLATTERY

It is a common techniques whereby compliant are give to an individual in order to win his/her approval.

MANAGING ONE'S APPEARANCE

Individual dress carefully the interview because they want to "LOOK THE PART" in order to get the job.

Impression management can lead to the perception that the user is "MANIPULATIVE or INSINCERE".

Organisation Errors of perception

- Common perceptual distortions include:
- Stereotypes or prototypes.
- Halo effects.
- Selective perception.
- Projection.
- Contrast effects.
- Self-fulfilling prophecy.
- > Stereotypes or prototypes.
- Combines information based on the category or class to which a person, situation, or object belongs.
- > Strong impact at the organization stage.
- Individual differences are obscured.
- ➤ Halo effects.

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Occur when one attribute of a person or situation is used to develop an overall impression of the individual or situation.

- Likely to occur in the organization stage.
- Individual differences are obscured.
- Important in the performance appraisal process.
- Selective perception.
- The tendency to single out those aspects of a situation, person, or object that are consistent with one's needs, values, or attitudes.
- > Strongest impact is at the attention stage.
- Perception checking with other persons can help counter the adverse impact of selective perception.
- Projection.
- The assignment of one's personal attributes to other individuals.
- Especially likely to occur in interpretation stage.
- Projection can be controlled through a high degree of self-awareness and empathy.
- Contrast effects.
- Cocur when an individual is compared to other people on the same characteristics on which the others rank higher or lower.
- Self-fulfilling prophecy.
- The tendency to create or find in another situation or individual that which one expected to find.
- Also called the "Pygmalion effect."
- Can have either positive or negative outcomes.
- Managers should adopt positive and optimistic approaches to people at work.

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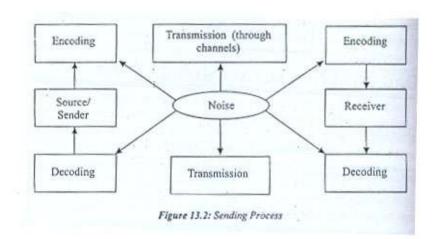
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Communication

Communication is one of the most frequently discussed dynamics in the entire field of organizational behavior. In practice, effective communication is a basic prerequisite for the attainment of organizational goals. Therefore, communication is considered to be the most important and most effective ingredient of the management process. Interpersonal communication is fundamental to all managerial activities. All other management functions involve communication in some form of directions and feedback. Thus, effective management is a function of effective communication.

COMMUNICATION PROCESS

The figure 13.2 presents a general view of the communication process, as a loop between the source and the receiver. In the simplest kind of communication, both the sender and the receiver perform the encoding and decoding functions automatically.



Source or Sender

The communication cycle begins when one person called the sender wants to transmit a fact, idea, opinion or other information to someone else. A manager, for instance, might call the research department to send the latest information on a particular market.

Encoding

The second step is to encode the message into a form appropriate to the situation. The encoding might take the form of words, facial expressions, gestures, physical actions and symbols such as numbers, pictures, graphs etc. Indeed, most communication involves a combination of these. The

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encoding process is influenced by the content of the message, the familiarity of the sender and receiver and other situational factors.

Transmission

After the message has been encoded, it is transmitted through the appropriate channel or medium. Common channels or media in organizations include face-to-face communication using the media of sound waves, light, letters and reports.

Decoding

The person to whom the message is sent, called the receiver interprets the meaning of the message through the process of decoding. This process may be simple and automatic, but it can also be quite complex. Even when you are just reading a letter, you may need to use all your knowledge of the language, your experience with the letter-writer and so on. If the intended message and the received message differ a great deal, there is a communication gap and misunderstanding is likely to follow.

Receiver

The receiver can be an individual, a group, or an individual acting on behalf of a group. The sender has generally little control over how the receiver will deal with the message. The receiver may ignore it, decide not to try to decode, understand it or respond immediately. The communication cycle continues when the receiver responds by the same steps back to the original sender, which is called the feedback.

Noise

In the communication process, noise takes on a meaning slightly different from its usual one. Noise refers to any type of disturbance that reduces the clearness of the message being transmitted. Thus, it might be something that keeps the receiver from paying close attention such as someone coughing, other people talking dosely, a car driving by etc. It can be a disruption such as disturbance in a telephone line, weak signal due to bad weather etc. It can also be internal to the receiver such as tiredness or hunger or minor ailments, which may affect the message.

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FORMS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Although interpersonal and group forms of communication pertain even at the broadest organizational levels, they do not sufficiently describe the paths of all messages transmitted in organizations. Individuals can send and receive messages across whole organizational levels and departments by means of vertical communication or the informal communication network. Non-verbal communication is also important and can be a part of interpersonal, group and organizational communication.

Vertical Communication

Vertical communication is the communication that flows both up and down the organizational hierarchy. This communication typically takes place between managers and their superiors or subordinates.

Upward Communication

Upward Communication consists of messages moving up the hierarchy from subordinates to superiors. The content of upward communication usually includes requests, suggestions or complaints and information the sub-ordinate thinks is of importance to the superior.

Downward Communication

Downward Communication consists of messages moving down the hierarchy from superiors to subordinates. The content of downward communication often includes directives, assignments, performance feedback and information that the superior thinks are of value to the sub-ordinate.

Transactional Communication

Wenburg and Wilmont suggest that instead of communication being "upward" or "downward" which is inter-communication, it should be "transactional" communication, which is mutual and reciprocal because, "all persons are engaged in sending and receiving messages simultaneously. Each person is constantly sharing in the sending and receiving process and each person is affecting the other". In the transactional process, the communication is not simply the flow of information, but it develops a personal linkage between the superior and the subordinate.

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Informal Communication

Another term for informal communication network is the grapevine. Informal networks are found in all organizations. It is in the form of gossip in which a person spreads a message to as many other people as possible who may either keep the information to themselves or pass it on to others. The content of gossip is likely to be personal information or the information about the organization itself.

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

The communication must be interpreted and understood in the same manner as it was-meant to be sent by the sender, otherwise it will not achieve the desired result and a communication breakdown will occur. There are certain external roadblocks to effective communication. In addition, there are personal factors, which affect communication.

Some of the organizational barriers and some of the interpersonal barriers to effective communication are discussed below:

Noise Barriers

Noise is any external factor, which interferes with the effectiveness of communication. The term is derived from noise or static effects in telephone conversation or radio wave transmission. It may cause interference in the process of communication by distraction or by blocking a part of the message or by diluting the strength of the communication. Some of the sources contributing towards noise factor are:

Poor Timing

A message sent on poor timing acts as a barrier. For instance, a last minute communication with a deadline may put too much pressure on the receiver and may result in resentment. A message must be sent at an appropriate time to avoid these problems. Hence the manager must know when to communicate.

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Inappropriate Channel

Poor choice of channel of communication can also be contributory to the misunderstanding of the message. The manager must decide whether the communication would be most effective if it is in writing or by a telephone call or a face-to-face conversation or a combination of these modes.

Improper or Inadequate Information

Information must be meaningful to the employee and should be precise or to the point. Too little or too much information endangers effective communication. Ambiguity in use of words will lead to different interpretations.

Physical Distractions

Any physical distractions such as telephone interruptions or walk-in visitors can interfere with the effective face-to-face communication process.

Organizational Structure

Communication may be blocked, chaotic or distorted if the channels are not clear or if there are bottlenecks. Hence the organization structure should be such that the chain of command and channels of communication are clearly established and ithe responsibility and authority are clearly assigned and are traceable.

Information Overhead

Overload occurs when individuals receive more information than they are capable of processing. The result could be confusion or some important information may be laid aside for the purpose of convenience.

Network Breakdown

Network breakdown may be intentional or due to information overload and time pressures under which a communication has to be acted upon. Some factors contributing to such disruptions are:

- The managers may withhold important negative information.
- The secretary may forget to forward a memo.

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• There may be professional jealousy resulting in closed channels.

Interpersonal Barriers

There are many interpersonal barriers that disrupt the effectiveness of the communication process and generally involve such characteristics that either the sender or the receiver can cause

communication problems. Some of these are:

Filtering

Filtering refers to intentionally withholding or deliberate manipulation of information by the sender, either because the sender believes that the receiver does not need all the information or that the receiver is better off not knowing all aspects of a given situation. It could also be that the receiver is

simply told what he wants to hear.

Semantic Barriers

These barriers occur due to differences in individual interpretations of words and symbols. The words and paragraphs must be interpreted with the same meaning as was intended. The choice of a wrong word or a comma at a wrong place in a sentence can sometimes alter the meaning of the intended message. For example, a nightclub advertisement sign, "clean and decent dancing every night except Sunday", could lead to two interpretations. First, that there is no dancing on Sundays

and second, that there is dancing on Sundays, but it not clean and decent.

Perception

Perception relates to the process through which we receive and interpret information from our environment and create a meaningful word out of it. Different people may perceive the same situation differently. Hearing what we want to hear and ignoring information that conflicts with what we know can totally distort the intent or the content of the message. Some of the perceptual situations that may distort a manager's assessment of people resulting in reduced effectiveness of the communication are:

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• A manager may perceive people to belong to one category or another as stereotypes, rather than unique and distinct individuals. For example, he may perceive women to be less efficient managers.

- A manager may make total assessment of a person based on a single trait. A pleasant smile may make a positive first impression.
- A manager may assume that his subordinate's perception about things and situations are similar to his own.

This perception limits the manager's ability to effectively respond to and deal with individual differences and differing views of work situations.

Cultural Barriers

The cultural differences can adversely affect the communication effectiveness, specially for multinational companies and enterprises.

Sender Credibility

When the sender of the communication has high credibility in the eyes of the receiver, the message is taken much more seriously and accepted at face value. If the receiver has confidence, trust and respect for the sender, then the decoding and the interpretation of the message will lead to a meaning of the sender. Conversely, if the sender is not trusted, then the receiver will scrutinize the message heavily and deliberately look for hidden meanings or tricks and may end up distorting the entire message. Similarly, if the source is believed to be an expert in a particular field then the listener may pay close attention to the message, and believe it specially if the message is related to the field of expertise.

Emotions

The interpretation of a communication also depends upon the state of the receiver at the time when message is received. The same message received when the receiver is angry, frustrated or depressed may be interpreted differently than when he is happy. Extreme emotions are most likely to hinder effective communication because rational judgments are replaced by emotional judgments.

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Multi-meaning Words

Many words in English language have different meanings when used in different situations. Accordingly, a manager must not assume that a particular word means the same thing to all people who use it. Hence, the managers must make sure that they use the word in the same manner as the receiver is expected to understand it, otherwise it will create a barrier to proper understanding of the message.

Feedback Barriers

The final source of communication barrier is the feedback or lack of it. Feedback is the only way to ascertain as to how the message was interpreted.

Overcoming Communication Barriers

It is very important for the management to recognize and overcome barriers to effective communication for operational optimization and this would involve diagnosing and analyzing situations, designing proper messages, selecting appropriate channels for communicating these messages, assisting receivers of messages in correct decoding and interpretation and providing an efficient and effective feedback system. Some of the steps that can be taken in this respect are as follows:

- 1 Feedback: Feedback helps to reduce misunderstandings. The information is transferred more accurately when the receiver is given the opportunity to ask for clarifications and answer to any questions about the message. Two-way communication, even though more time-consuming, avoids distrust and leads to trust and openness, which helps in building a healthy relationship contributing to communication effectiveness.
- 2 *Improve Listening Skills:* Good listening habits lead to better understanding and good relationships with each other. Some guidelines for effective listening are:
 - Listening requires full attention to the speaker. Do not let your mind wander or be
 preoccupied with something else, otherwise you will not be able to grasp the meaning of the
 message in its entirety.

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• The language used tone of the voice and emotions should receive proper attention. Listen for feelings in (he message content and respond positively to these feelings.

- Ask questions to clarify any points that you do not understand clearly and reflect back to the speaker, your understanding of what has been said.
- Make sure that there are no outside interruptions and interference during the course of conversation.
- Do not prejudice or value the importance of the message due to your previous dealings and experiences with the sender or your perceptions about him, positive or negative.
- Do not jump to conclusions before the message is over and is clearly understood.
- Summarize and restate the message after it is over to make sure about the content and the intent of the message.
- Develop Writing Skills: Clearly written messages can help avoid semantic and perception barriers. A well-written communication eliminates the possibility of misunderstanding and misinterpretation. When writing message it is necessary to be precise thus making the meaning as clear as possible so that it accomplishes the desired purpose. Some helpful hints in written communication are suggested by Robert Degise as follows:
 - *Keep words simple:* This will reduce your thoughts to essentials and the message will be easier to understand for the receiver. The message will be lost if the words are complex and do not lend to a clear single meaning.
 - **Do not be boggart down by rules of composition:** While the rules of grammar and composition must be respected, they should not take priority over the ultimate purpose of the communication.
 - *Write concisely:* Use as few words as possible. Do not be brief at the cost of completeness, but express your thoughts, opinions and ideas in the fewest number of words possible.
 - *Be specific:* Vagueness destroys accuracy, which leads to misunderstanding of the meaning or intent of the message. Accordingly, be specific and to the point.

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4. Avoid Credibility Gaps: Communication is a continuing process and the goal of the communication is complete understanding of the message as well as the creation of trust among all members of. the organization. Accordingly, the management must be sincere and should earn the trust of the subordinates. Management should not only be sensitive to the needs and feelings of workers but also its promises should be supported by actions. According to the studies conducted by J. Luft, openness and an atmosphere of trust builds healthy relationship and closes credibility gaps, thus contributing to communication effectiveness.



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Part A (ONE Mark) Multiple Choice Questions Online Examination

Part B

(2 Marks)

- 1. Define perception.
- 2. What are the factors influencing perception.
- 3. What is perceptual selectivity?
- 4. What is perception and its application in OB?
- 5. What are the Organizational errors in Perception?
- 6. State the barriers to effective Communication.
- 7. What is non-verbal Communication?

Part C (8 Marks)

- 1. Discuss the process involved in perception.
- 2. Elaborate the factors affecting perception.
- 3. Explain impression management.
- 4. What is meant by halo effect? How does it affect perception?
- 5. Distinguish between impression and perception.
- 6. What is job satisfaction? How can it influence Organization?
- 7. Explain the process of Communication.

| | | PART A | | | |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| | | Unit III | | | |
| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
| A learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object | Perception | Attitude | Behavior | personality | Perception |
| "I don't like that company"-iscomponents of attitude. | Affective component | Cognitive component | Intentional component | Individual Component | Cognitive component |
| "They are the worst firm I have ever dealt with" iscomponents of attitude. | Affective component | Cognitive component | Intentional component | Individual Component | Affective component |
| "I will never do business with them again" iscomponents of attitude. | Affective component | Cognitive component | Intentional component | Individual Component | Cognitive component |
| Which of the following is a method of measuring attitude? | Opinion survey | Interview | Scaling techniques | Questionnaire | Scaling techniques |
| Basis of "Autocratic Model of OB is | Economic resources | Power | Leadership | Partnership | Partnership |
| Basis of "Custodial Model of OB is | Economic resources | Power | Leadership | Partnership | Power |
| Basis of "Supportive Model of OB is | Economic resources | Power | Leadership | Partnership | Economic resources |
| Basis of "Collegial Model of OB is | Economic resources | Power | Leadership | Partnership | Leadership |
| Managerial orientation of "Autocratic Model" of OB is | Authority | Money | Support | Teamwork | Teamwork |
| Managerial orientation of "Supportive Model" of OB is | Authority | Money | Support | Teamwork | Authority |
| Managerial orientation of "Custodial model" of OB is | Authority | Money | Support | Teamwork | Support |
| Managerial orientation of "Collegial Model" of OB is | Authority | Money | Support | Teamwork | Money |
| Employees needs met by Autocratic Model is | Subsistence | Security | Status and Recognition | Self- actualization | Self- actualizatio n |
| Employees needs met by Custodial Model is | Subsistence | Security | Status and Recognition | Self- actualization | Subsistence |
| Employees needs met by Supportive Model is | Subsistence | Security | Status and Recognition | Self- actualization | Security |
| Employees needs met by Collegial Model is | Subsistence | Security | Status and Recognition | Self- actualization | Status and Recognition |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|--|---|--|---|--|--|
| " Person-Job fit" means | Persons physical fitness match with the job | Persons skills match with the job | Persons contributions match with the incentives offered by the organization | Persons education match with the job | Persons education match with the job |
| Which of the following is not an attribute of psychological individual difference? | Motivation | Learning | Personality | Complexion | Personality |
| Which of the following is not an attribute of physiological individual difference? | Appearance | Complexio n | Attitude | Body shape | Body shape |
| is a person's belief about his chances of successfully accomplishing a specific task | Self esteem | Job satisfaction | Self efficacy | Self appraisal | Self efficacy |
| Select the correct hierarchical order of qualities of an individual | Ability- Skills- Aptitude- Competency | Aptitude- Ability- Skills- Competenc y | Skills- Aptitude- Competency- Ability | Competency- Ability-Skills- Aptitude | Skills- Aptitude- Competenc y-Ability |
| As per Stimulus-Response Model, input for behaviour process is | Drive | Organism | Stimuli | Response | Organism |
| S-O-B-A Model combines the S-R Model and | Stimuli | Response | Human being | drive | Human being |
| An enduring attribute of a person that appears constantly in a variety of situation is | behavior | trait | attitude | culture | attitude |
| Sociable, talkative, assertive etc. are features of | introversion | agreeablene ss | extroversion | conscientiousn ess | agreeablene ss |
| Good natured, cooperative and trusting are the features of | introversion | agreeablene ss | extroversion | conscientiousn ess | extroversio n |
| Responsible, dependable, persistent and achievement oriented are features of | introversion | agreeablene ss | extroversion | conscientiousn ess | agreeablene ss |
| Imaginative, artistically sensitive etc. are features of | Openness | agreeablene ss | extroversion | conscientiousn ess | conscientio usness |
| Tensed, insecurity and nervousness are features of | emotional instability | agreeablene ss | extroversion | conscientiousn ess | emotional instability |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|---|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Some people strongly believe that each person have control of his own life. This is | extroversion | conscientio usness | internal locus of control | external locus of control | extroversio n |
| Some people think that what happens to them is a result of fate, chance, luck etc. this is | extroversion | conscientio usness | internal locus of control | external locus of control | internal locus of control |
| is the tendency of individual, which directs them to be inward and process ideas and thought within themselves | extroversion | Introversio n | internal locus of control | external locus of control | external locus of control |
| persons are likely to be most successful in the field of advertisement, sales department, public relation etc | extroversion | conscientio usness | internal locus of control | external locus of control | conscientio usness |
| persons are likely to be most successful in the field of research and work based on abstract idea. | extroversion | Introversio n | internal locus of control | external locus of control | extroversio n |
| indicates the level of uncertainty that people can tolerate to work efficiently without experiencing undue stress | Risk propensity | Authoritari anism | Tolerance for ambiguity | Workahollism | Authoritaria nism |
| The extent to which individual believes in importance of power, status difference in organization | Self esteem | Authoritari anism | Tolerance for ambiguity | Workahollism | Tolerance for ambiguity |
| is the extent of rigidity of a person's belief | Authoritaria nism | Dogmatism | Risk propensity | Tolerance for ambiguity | Dogmatism |
| is the degree to which an individual is willing to take chances and risky decisions | Authoritaria nism | Dogmatism | Risk propensity | Tolerance for ambiguity | Dogmatism |
| is manipulating and influencing others as a primary way of achieving one's goal | Authoritaria nism | Dogmatism | Risk propensity | Machiavelliani sm | Risk propensity |
| persons feel chronic sense of time urgency | Authoritaria nism | Dogmatism | Type A | Type B | Туре В |
| persons are easy going people and do not feel time urgency | Authoritaria nism | Dogmatism | Type A | Type B | Authoritaria nism |
| is an attitude reflects the extent to which an individual is gratified or fulfilled by his work | Motivation | Job satisfaction | Contribution | Cognitive dissonance | Job satisfaction |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|---|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| Maslow's "basic needs" are also known as | Social needs | Esteem needs | Safety needs | Physiological needs | Esteem needs |
| In Maslow's Need hierarchy which needs are shown between Esteem needs and Safety needs | Social needs | Esteem needs | Safety needs | Basic needs | Basic needs |
| ERG theory of motivation was proposed by | Maslow | F. Herzberg | Alderfer | Mc Gregor | Maslow |
| Under ERG theory, "R" stands fora. | Rationality | Responsibil ity | Remuneratio n | Relatedness | Remunerati on |
| Dual structure approach of motivation is developed by | Maslow | F. Herzberg | Alderfer | Mc Gregor | Mc Gregor |
| Under Herzberg's theory, factors causing dissatisfaction is called | Demotivator s | Negative stimuli | Hygiene factors | Defectors | Negative stimuli |
| Hygiene factors are | Satisfiers | Maintenanc e factors | Defectors | Motivation | Defectors |
| In Two Factor theory, "Salary" coming undera. | Satisfiers | Maintenanc e factors | Defectors | Motivation | Maintenanc e factors |
| Who propounded X and Y theory of motivation | Maslow | F. Herzberg | Alderfer | Mc Gregor | F. Herzberg |
| According toemployees love work as play or rest | X theory | Y theory | Z theory | Factor theory | X theory |
| Z theory is a Japanese approach of motivation developed by | Mc Clelland | William Ouchi | Alderfer | Mc Gregor | William Ouchi |
| According tothe managers and workers should work together as partners and of equal importance for the organizations success | X theory | Y theory | Z theory | Factor theory | Y theory |
| is an attempt through a formal program to integrate employees' needs and wellbeing with the intention of improved productivity, better involvement and satisfaction | Quality of Work life | Quality Circle | Alternative Work schedule | Job Redesign | Quality of Work life |
| is small groups of workers who meet regularly with their supervisor to solve work related problem | Quality of Work life | Quality Circle | Alternative Work schedule | Job Redesign | Quality Circle |
| The concept of Work-Week is related with | Quality of Work life | Quality Circle | Alternative Work schedule | Job Redesign | Alternative Work schedule |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|--|-------------|-----------|------------|-------------|------------|
| When a group gives some of its leadership positions to the members of other group, it is | Contracting | Co-opting | Co-alition | Competition | Co-opting |
| refers to the combination of two or more individuals, groups or organization for a common goal with a minimum common programme | Contracting | Co-opting | Co-alition | Competition | Co-alition |

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UNIT-IV- Group Behaviour

SYLLABUS

Foundation of Group Behavior - Concept of Group - Types of Groups - Stages of Group Development - Group Norms - Group Cohesiveness - Group Decision making - Understanding working teams - types of teams- creating effective teams- Turning individuals to team players. Power and Politics - Bases of Power - Power tactics. Conflict - Meaning - Transition in conflict thoughts- Conflict Process- Negotiation

GROUP

- A Group is a collection of two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular common objective.
- A group may be defined as a collection of people who have a common purpose or objective, interact with each other to accomplish the group objectives are aware of one another and perceive themselves to be part of group.
- **For example**; a crowd in front of a shop in the market watching India Vs Pakistan one day cricket match on TV will not be called as **group** because people do not interact with one another, do not know one another, and also do not share a common purpose.

Types of Groups

There are mainly two ways of classifying groups, they are;

- 1. Formal &
- 2. Informal groups

Formal Groups- Groups established by the organisation to achieve organizational goals are called formal groups.

- It is again classified as;
- Command group
- Task group

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Project group

Committees

Command Group

- A command group is composed of a supervisor (manager) and the subordinates who report directly to that supervisor.
- A command group is determined by the organizational chart.
- **For eg:** In the department of business administration of a university, For example, the head of the department and the other faculty members in the department would comprise command group.

Task group

- A task group comprises of persons working together to complete a common task.
- However a task group can cross command relationships.
- For example: In a university if a student is accused of a campus crime, it may involve interaction among the head of the department, the dean of the school, the proctor, the registrar of the university.

Project group

- Project groups are formed to complete a specific project.
- The life of the project group normally coincides with the length of the project
- Assigning a research project to a university professor by the university grants commission is an example of project group.

Committees

- Committees are usually created outside the usual command group structure to solve recurring problems.
- The life of a committee may be relatively long or short.
- An example of committees is a university's examination discipline committee created to solve disciplinary problems relating to examination.

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Informal groups

• Groups which are not formal are informal.

- These are groups that are neither formally created nor controlled by the organisations.
- These groups are natural formations in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact.
- For e.g.: 4 employees belonging to four different dept taking lunch together represent an e.g. of an informal group.

The various kinds of informal groups are;

Friendship groups: Friendship groups are associations of people who like each other and who like to be together.

• Such groups are formed because members have one or more common characteristics, such as age, political beliefs, religious values, and other bonds of attraction.

Interests groups

- Interest groups are composed of individuals who may not be members of the same organisation but they are united by interest in a common issue.
- For e.g.: Interest groups may include a group of university professors who organize a seminar on law & order problems in the north eastern region of India.

Reference group

• A reference group is a special type of informal group that people use to evaluate themselves. A reference group may not be an actual one that meets together; it can be an imaginary group.

STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

- Stage 1 Forming
- Stage 2 -Storming
- Stage 3 Norming
- Stage 4 Performing

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• Stage 5 - Adjouring

Forming stage

- The first stage for almost every group is an orientation stage.
- This stage is marked by a great deal of caution, confusion, courtesy and uncertainty about the groups purpose, structure and leadership.
- The formal leader exerts a great influence in structuring the group and shaping member expectations.
- This stage is complete when members of the group have begun to think of themselves as part of a group.
- In this stage members get to know each other and seek to establish ground rules.

Storming stage

- The storming stage is one of inter-group conflict.
- This stage is characterized by conflict, confrontation, concern and criticism.
- Struggles for individual power and influences are common.

In case the conflict becomes extremely intense and dysfunctional, the group may dissolve or continue as an ineffective group that never advances to higher levels of group maturity.

• In this stage the members come to resist control by group leaders and show hostility.

Norming stage

- In this stage members work together, developing close relationships and group demonstrates cohesiveness.
- Members develop a strong sense of group identity and loyalty and warm friendly feelings that friends have for each other.
- This stage is completed when a common set of expectations defining appropriate behaviour has been developed.

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Performing stage

- In this stage the group becomes fully functional and involve in activities aimed at achieving the goals defined in the norming stage.
- Although the members may be involved in independent activities, they are committed to the achievement of group goals.
- This is the highest level of group maturity.
- This stage is marked by team work, role clarity and task accomplishment.
- Conflict is identified and resolved through group discussion.
- The members of the group are aware of group's processes and the extent of their own involvement in the group.

Adjourning stage

- This is the last stage of group development for temporary groups that have only specific task to perform.
- In this stage the members are concerned with finishing their activities.
- The feelings of members vary at this stage.
- While some may be happy at the groups accomplishment, others may be depressed that they would be losing their friends after the group is disbanded.
- Groups are adjourned for two reasons;]
- First, the group has completed its task.
- Second, the members decide to disband and close the group with sentimental feelings.
- These groups may disband either after meeting their goals.

Group Norms

- Group norm is a standard of behaviour.
- Group norm is a rule that tells the individual how to behave in a particular group.
- Group norms identify the standards against which the behaviour of group members will be evaluated and help the group members know what they should or should not do.
- Norms could be formal or could be informal.

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Types of Group Norms

There are two types of group norms, which are as follows:

- **Behavior norms:** Behavior norms are rules that standardise how individuals act while working on a day-to-day basis. Examples are. "do not come to committee meetings unless you have read the reports to be "discussed", "greet every customer with a smile", etc. These norms tend to reflect motivation, commitment to the organization and therefore result in high level of performance.
- *Performance norms:* Performance norms are rules that standardize employee output and number of hours worked.

Group norms have the following characteristics;

- As personality reveals an individual, so group norms do for groups.
- Norms serve as the basis for behaviour of group members.
- They predict and control the behaviour of members in groups.
- Norms are applied to all members of the group though not uniformly.

Group Cohesiveness

- Group Cohesiveness (also known as cohesion) is the force of bringing group members closer together.
- Group cohesion means the degree to which the group members are attracted to each other and remain within the group.
- Cohesiveness binds all the group members to work as one man to attain the set goals.
- Cohesiveness has two dimensions: emotional (or personal) and task-related.
- The *emotional aspect* of cohesiveness is derived from the connection that members feel to other group members and to their group as a whole

According to Rensis Likert, "cohesiveness is the attractiveness of the members towards the group or resistance of the members leaving it". It refers to the attachment of members with the group.

According lo K. Aswathappa, "cohesiveness is understood as the extent of liking each member has towards others and how far everyone wants to remain as the member of the group". Attractiveness is the key to cohesiveness. Cohesiveness is the extent to which group members are loyal and

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committed lo the group and to each other. In a highly cohesive group, the members work well together, support and trust one another and are generally effective at achieving their chosen goals.

A group that lacks cohesiveness will not be very much coordinated. Its members will not support one another and they may face difficulty in reaching their goals.

Advantages of Group Cohesiveness

The advantages of group cohesiveness are as follows:

- The members of cohesive groups have high morale.
- The members don't have conflicting views, which decreases the chances of in clash among the views of group members at the workplace or elsewhere.
- Individuals of cohesive groups have no anxiety at the workplace.
- Members of cohesive groups are regular at their work.
- Cohesiveness increases productivity.
- Organizations gain from the members of cohesive group because they communicate better they share ideologies and respect opinions of fellow employees.

The following factors can increase group cohesiveness:

- Competitiveness with other groups.
- Inter-personal attraction.
- Favourable evaluation from outsiders.
- Agreement on goals.
- Frequent interaction. The following factors decrease cohesiveness:
- Large group size.
- Disagreement on goals.
- Competitiveness within group.
- Domination by one or more members.
- Unpleasant experiences.

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Power

Power is easy to feel but difficult to define. It is the potential ability of a person or group to influence another person or group. It is the ability to get things done the way one wants them to be done. Both formal and informal groups and individuals may have power; it does not need an official position or the backing of an institution to have power. Influence can take many forms. One person has influenced another if the second person's opinions, behavior or perspectives have changed as a result of their interaction. Power is a factor at all levels of most organizations. It can be a factor in almost any organizational decision.

POWER AND AUTHORITY

Sometimes power and authority is used synonymously because of their objective of influencing the behavior of others. However, there is difference between the two. Power does not have any legal sanctity while authority has such sanctity. Authority is institutional and is legitimate. Power, on the other hand, is personal and does not have any legitimacy. But stilt, power is a crucial factor in influencing the behavior in organizational situation.

Sources of Power

John R. P. French and Bertram Raven identified five bases or sources of power: legitimate, reward, coercive, expert and referent power.

Legitimate Power

A person's position within organization provides him with legitimate power. The organization gives managers the power to direct the activities of their subordinates. Legitimate power is similar to formal authority and hence it can be created, granted, changed or withdrawn by the formal organization. The structure of the organization also identifies the strength of the legitimate authority by position location. For instance, higher-level positions exercise more power than lower-level positions in a classical hierarchical organizational structure. Organizations vary in how much legitimate power they grant to individuals. In such organizations, everyone knows who has the most power and few people challenge the power structure.

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Reward Power

This type of power is the extent to which one person has control over rewards that are valued by another. The greater the perceived values of such rewards, the greater the power. Organizational rewards include pay, promotions and valued office assignments. A manager who has complete control over such rewards has a good deal of power. Manager who uses praise and recognition has also a good deal of power.

Coercive Power

People have, coercive power if they have control over some form of punishment such as threat of dismissal, suspension, demotion or other method of embarrassment for the people. Perhaps, a manager can cause psychological harm also lo an employee. A manager's coercive power increases with the number and severity of the sanctions over which the manager has control. Although the use of coercive power is often successful in the short run, it tends to create resentment and hostility and therefore is usually detrimental to the organization in the long run.

Expert Power

It is more of personal power than organizational power. Expert power is that influence which one wields as a result of one's experience, special skill or knowledge. This power occurs when the expert threatens to withhold his knowledge or skill. Since any person who is not easily replaceable has more power as compared to those who are easily replaceable. If the sub-ordinates view their superior as competent, and knowledgeable, naturally they will obey and respect the superior. To the extent, that a low-ranking worker has important knowledge not available to a superior, he is likely to have more power.

Referent Power

A person who is respected by certain others for whatever reason has referent power over those people. A person with referent power may have charisma and people who respect that person are likely to get emotionally involved with the respected person and identify with, accept and be willing to follow him or her. People with referent power are often imitated by others with the star's actions, attitudes and dress. This imitation reflects the rising star's power over the imitations.

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POLITICAL BEHAVIOR AND ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS

Power and politics are inextricably interwoven with the fabric of an organization's life. In any organization, at any given moment, a number of people are seeking to gain and use power to achieve their own ends. This pursuit of power is political behavior. Organizational politics refers to the activities carried out by people to acquire, enhance and use power and other resources to obtain their preferred outcomes in a situation where there is uncertainly or disagreement. One great organizational scholar, Tushman defined politics, 'as the structure and process of the use of authority and power to affect definition of goals, directions and the other major parameters of the organization. Decisions are not made in rational or formal way but rather through compromise accommodation and bargaining.

Managing Political Behavior

The very nature of political behavior makes it difficult to manage or even approach in a rational and systematic manner. However a manager who understands why people use political behavior and the techniques people usually employ has the best chance to manage political behavior successfully.

People use political behavior in organizations in response to the five main factors:

- Ambiguous goals
- Scarce resources
- Technology and the environment
- Non-Programmed decisions
- Organizational change

FACTORS INFLUENCING POLITICAL BEHAVIOR

Ambiguous Goals

When the goals of a department or the entire organization are ambiguous then there is more room available for playing politics. Some people may use the ambiguity to manipulate the situation for their benefit

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Scarce Resources

When resources are scarce, people have the tendency to use political behavior to make sure that they get the biggest possible share of the resource.

CHANGES IN TECHNOLOGY AND ENVIRONMENT

Organizational effectiveness is largely a function of the organization's ability to appropriately respond to external environment which is highly dynamic and generally unpredictable as well as adequately adopt to complex technological developments. Thus, political behavior is increased when the internal technology is complex and when external environment is highly volatile.

Non-Programmed Decisions

Sometimes, the companies have to make a lot of non-Programmed decisions on certain issues. These decisions are not based on clear standards and precedents, because such issues involve many factors and variables that are complex in nature. Hence decisions are taken on intuition, bunch and guesses and all these subjective feelings can be affected by political behavior.

Organizational Change

Whenever there are changes in the organizational structure and policies, peoples in powerful positions have the opportunity to play politics. These changes may include restructuring of a division or creating a division, personnel changes, introducing a new product line and all these changes influence political behavior when various individuals and groups try to control the given situation.

It is widely accepted that managers have to be politicians in order to maintain their positions in the organizational hierarchy as well as serve the interests of their units. Pfeiffer, who has done extensive research on -the subject of power in organizations, states as follows:

"If there is one concluding message, it is that it is probably effective and it is certainly normal that these managers do behave as politicians. If is even better that some of them are quiet effective at it. In situations in which technologies are uncertain, preferences are conflicting, perceptions are selective and biased and information processing capacities are constrained, the model of an effective politician may be an appropriate one for both the individual and for the organization in the long-run".

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TECHNIQUES OF POLITICAL BEHAVIOR

The most commonly used techniques of political behavior are:

• Controlling information

• Controlling lines of communication

Controlling agenda -

• Using outside experts

• Game playing

Image building

Building coalitions

One technique of political behavior is to control the dissemination of critical information to others.

The more critical (he information and fewer the people who have it, the stronger is political power base of those who possess these information.

Controlling lines of communication is another political technique related to the flow of information.

People who have some control over lines of communication can yield considerable political power.

For example, the secretary may have considerable power in deciding who sees the boss and who does not at a given time. She may use this power in favoring those whom she likes and frustrating those against whom she may have it grudge.

Controlling the agenda also gives a person power over information. The person who controls a meeting's agenda, for instance, may consistently put a particular item last on the list and then take up time so that meeting adjourns before considering the item.

The opinions of outside experts and consultants often curry much weight in organizations and many consultants can be swayed by political interests. Consultants know who is paying them and even honest consultants are likely to give opinions consistent with those of their employer. Hence, hiring an outside consultant can be a clever political move.

Game playing can range from fairly innocent to very manipulative. It involves people doing something insincere, but not outright illegal or unethical to gain political ends. For instance, a manager who does not want to answer a committee's tough questions may, for instance, avoid meeting by going out of the town on the day of meeting.

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Image building is creating positive impression reflected by the personality, appearance and style. Some of the factors that enhance a preferred image consist of being well dressed, having a pleasant smile, being attractive, honest, sociable and loyal to the organizational interests. In addition, always project an image of competence and self-assurance.

Building coalitions or alliance is another technique of gaining political power. It is necessary to have the alliance with the right people. Coalition building can become simply a matter of quid pro quo: I will support you if you will support me.

Managing Political Behavior

Though it is virtually impossible to eliminate political behavior in organizations, it is possible to reduce it, if a manager understands the reasons for it and the techniques of political behavior. Politics when carried to the extreme can damage morale, create enemies, destroy loyalty, damper cooperative spirit and much time and energy is spent planning attacks and counter attacks which are detrimental to organizational health. Accordingly, combating politics must be undertaken by the top management and some of the steps that can be undertaken are: open communication, reduction of uncertainty and creating awareness.

Open communication can reduce the political activity if all employees know how and why an organization allocates resources, the employees will be likely to put their energy into meeting the stated criteria for gelling resources rather than into political activity. If the organization is open about why it made particular decision, then employees will he less likely to think that the decisions were political and less likely to use political techniques to try to influence the next decision.

Uncertainty in the form of ambiguous goals and changes that affect the organization tends to increase the use of political activity. Reducing such uncertainty can, therefore, reduce the political behavior. Open communication is one of the ways an organization can reduce uncertainty. For instance, laying down clear criteria and making it transparent to the employees who will be laid off, in case of lay off the organization can reduce political behavior.

Finally, managers who develop an ability to recognize and predict political activity are in the best position to limit its effects. Managers with this awareness will expect an increase in political activity during times of organizational change and will learn how to handle it.

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CONFLICT - MEANING

• Conflict is a struggle between two or more forces that creates a tension that must be resolved.

• A process that begins when one party has negatively affected or is about to negatively affects something that the first party cares about.

• Conflicts may range from small disagreements to violence.

Definition

Conflict may be defined as the tension or disagreement between two or more individuals or groups over an issue of mutual interest.

SOURCES OF CONFLICT

Conflict can arise from a variety of sources. They can be classified as *structural factors and personal factors*.

Structural factors which stem from the nature of the organisation and the way in which work is organised.

Personal factors which arise from differences among the individuals

Functional Vs Dysfunctional conflict

(Aspects of conflict)

Functional conflict – Conflicts that support the goals and improve its performance are known as functional conflict

Functional: supports the goals of the group & improves performance

- Some of the positive or functional aspects of conflicts that may occur in organisations are;
- Conflicts bring cohesiveness in groups.
- Conflicts motivate group members to have concern for organisation.
- Conflict help to frame better goals
- Conflict lead to motivation
- Conflict promote change

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- Conflicts motivate group members to rely on organizational goals.
- Conflicts lead to high quality decisions.
- It has been recognized that some optimum level of conflict associated with stress will bring progressive outcomes in productivity.
- Hence there is close relationship between conflicts and organisational performance.

Dysfunctional conflict

<u>Dysfunctional</u>: hinders or destroys group performance.

- The negative part of a conflict which results in breakdown of organizational performance is called dysfunctional conflict.
- Conflicts destroy or stop the achievement of organizational goals and hence they are called as
 destructive conflicts.
- The performance of an organisation tends to deteriorate (get worse) when conflicts become too great.
- Dysfunctional conflict impedes (hinder) group or organizational performance and results in destructive outcomes.
- When certain members of a group strongly oppose the views of some other members and no one is willing to give way, the situation get outs of control and conflict intensifies.
- Dysfunctional conflict is conflict that leads to a decline in communication or the performance of a group.
- Dysfunctional conflict can be an overabundance (surplus) of conflict or a lack of sufficient motivating conflict.

Organizational Dysfunctional Conflict

- Dysfunctional conflict within an organization is motivated by egos of employees with competing ambitions.
- It often leads to higher stress and a likelihood that employees will burn out.
- Employees will also likely feel less satisfaction and less loyalty to the organization.

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Levels of conflict

- **Disagreement:** when two or more people are dealing with minor conflicting issues. Resolution can be achieved by finding out on which point or points they disagree, defining a mutually acceptable goal and dissolving or resolving the points of disagreement based on the goal.
- **Aggravation:** Prolonged disputes between individual people, such as continuing competition or "grudge matches." Resolution can be achieved by determining the basic issues of the grudge, and what it would take for the parties to be willing to set the dispute aside.
- **Civil Dispute:** Resolution: formalized, using the courts. Conflicted parties are no longer able to deal directly.
- **Criminal Disputes:** Resolution: again, these are handled in the courts.
- Regional Disputes: Courts are no longer considered appropriate. These have no immediate solution in law because the nature of the dispute transcends the solutions of the laws. Resolution: is achieved through symbolic or totemic gestures, and some form of compensatory sacrifice.
- War: Adjudicated through negotiation and reparation of a "diplomatic" nature.
- **Annihilation:** Solution to the whole destruction of the environment is the selection of the new species for the people deprived of "home" to inhabit.

Conflict Management

How to manage or resolve conflict?

1. Avoiding - Ignoring other group

- Avoiding is a low style on both assertiveness and cooperativeness.
- A person uses this style to stay away from conflict, ignore disagreements or to remain neutral.
- The avoidance approach is an aversion (dislike) to tension and frustration and may involve in a decision to let a conflict work itself out.
- Avoiding is a deliberate decision to sidestep a conflictual issue, postpone, addressing it later or to withdraw from a conflicting situation.
- In certain situations, it may be appropriate to avoid a conflict.

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• For e.g.: When parties are much angry and need time to cool down, it may be best to use avoidance.

2. Accomodating - Allowing other group to win

- A style in which one is concerned that other party's goals be met but relatively unconcerned with getting one's way is called accommodating.
- The accomodating style refers to cooperative and unassertive behaviours,
- Individuals using the accommodating style are typically evaluated favourably by others, but they will also be perceived as weak and submissive.
- In this style one party is willing to sacrifice in the interest of the other party.

3. Competing

- Working to dominate, control and win to win.
- This type of style is characterized by high assertion and low cooperation and represents a win lose approach to an interpersonal conflict.
- Those who use competing approach try to achieve their own goals without any concern for others.
- This style includes aspects of coercive power and dominance.
- In this style one tries to meet one's goals at the other party's expense.
- This type of style is characterized by high assertion and low cooperation.

4. Compromising

- Finding acceptable solution and makes everyone feel good.
- The compromising style is intermediate between both the assertive and cooperative dimensions.
- Compromising is commonly used and widely accepted as means of resolving conflicts.
- Each party tries to sacrifices something to reach a solution to the conflict.
- A typical give and take policy dominates the behaviour of the conflicting parties.
- Compromises are often made in the final hours of union-management negotiations.
- Compromising becomes an effective style when efforts toward collaboration have failed.

5. Collaborating

- Working together to solve problems.
- Collaborative style is marked by both assertiveness and cooperativeness.

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• Collaborating involves attempts to satisfy the needs of both the parties.

- It is based on win win style.
- An individual who uses this style tends to see conflict as natural, helpful and even leading to a more creative solution if handled properly.
- An individual who uses collaborating style is often seen as dynamic and evaluated favorably by others.

In this style a creative solution usually emerges because of joint effort



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Part A (ONE Mark) Multiple Choice Questions Online Examination

Part B

(2 Marks)

- 1. What is group dynamics?
- 2. What is group behavior and explain its concept?
- 3. Write notes on Formal groups.
- 4. Write notes on informal groups.
- 5. What is group cohesiveness?
- 6. Write notes on Group norms.
- 7 State the basis of Power

Part C (8 Marks)

- 1. Distinguish between team and group. How is an effective team developed?
- 2. Explain the methods for resolving conflicts.
- 3. Explain conflict management.
- 4. Explain the types of teams.
- 5. Elaborate the stages of Group development.
- 6. Bring out in detail the role of informal group in an Organization.
- 7. Describe the role of Power and Politics in an Organization.

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UNIT-V- Organizational Effectiveness

SYLLABUS

Organizational culture- Definitions and Characteristics of Culture- Types of Culture - Creating and Maintaining an Organizational Culture. Organizational change - Meaning- Forces for Change-Managing Planned Change - Factors in Organizational Change - Resistance to change- Overcoming resistance to change. Stress - Causes of stress - Effects of Occupational Stress- Coping Strategies for Stress.

Organizational culture

The term culture significances value beliefs morals, customs, habits, and knowledge by people living in a society.

Organizational culture is the acquisition of values, beliefs, attitudes, expectations etc. by the employees of organization.

Definition

Turnstall defined organisational culture as "A general constellation of beliefs, morals, value systems, behavioural norms and ways of doing business that are unique to each corporation"

Characteristics of culture

Observed behavioural regularities

When people in the organization interact with one another, they generally use common language, terminology and other rituals that relate to deference and demeanor.

Norms

Standards of behaviour are set to guide the organisational members how much work to do.

Dominant values

Organizations advocate some major values and expect the same to be imbibed by its organisational participants. A few examples of such popular values are high product quality, regularity and efficiency.

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Philosophy

Organisations set forth certain beliefs about how employees and customers are to be treated.

Rules

There are guidelines prescribed how the new participants of the organisations have to adopt so as to be accepted the full fledged members of their group in the organisation.

Organizational climate

Types of culture

Organizational culture may be of the following types:

- 1. Sub culture.
- 2. Dominant culture.
- 3. Strong Culture.
- 4. Weak culture.
- 5. Authorization Culture.
- 6. Participative Culture.
- 7. National culture.

SUB CULTURE:

Sub culture refers to a set of values that are shared by the employees are a particular department in an organization.

It is the results of problems are experienced peculiar to a particular department.

DOMINANT CULTURE:

It refers to a set of values that are shared by all the members of an organization.

STRONG CULTURE:

In the case of strong culture, the core value are intensely held and widely shared by all the members of an organization. The attitude of the employees in such an organization will be positive and the rate of labour turn over will be low.

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WEAK CULTURE:

In an organization having weak culture, the core values are not intensely held and widely shared by all the members of the organization. The employers in such an organization, obviously do not posses a positive attitude. The rate of turnover is also likely to be high.

AUTHORITARIAN CULTURE:

In this case the leader of the organization exercises full control over the subordinates who have to strictly carry out the orders and instruction of the formers.

PARTICIPATIVE CULTURE:

It is based on beliefs that are subordinate are motivated to occur that are when they are involved n the process of decision-making. It ensures the that the leader does not thrust his idea on the employees.

NATIONAL CULTURE: National culture is the value system and pride associated with a nation. Many people deny their national culture when they move to a new location, and embrace the national culture of their new home.

CREATING & MAINTAINING AN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

CREATING A CULTURE:

The founders start their organization with a vision of what their organization should be. Then the vision is imposed on all organizational members regarding product innovation, employee dress attire and compensation policies etc.

Process involved in the creation of culture is;

- 1. A single person has an idea or vision for an enterprise.
- 2. The founder brings in some people and creates a core group that shares a common vision with the founder. All in the core group accept the vision or idea and work on it.
- 3. The founding core group begins to act in concert to create an organization by raising funds, obtaining patents incorporating, locating space, building and so on.

SUSTAINING A CULTURE

Once a culture is created it needs to be sustained through reinforcement practices of human resources.

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The practices involved in sustaining a culture are as follows:

1. **Selection** - The first step involved in sustaining culture is the careful selection of entry level candidates.

The basic purpose of selection process is to appoint right people for the right job. By identifying the suitable candidate who can culturally match the organization culture ,selection helps sustain culture considerably.

2. Top management

Subordinates emulate their superiors. Hence the actions of top management such as what the managers say and how they behave have a major impact on the employees working at lower level.

Managerial actions like degree of freedom granded to the subordinates, prescription for the employee uniform, pay off in terms pay raises, promotions and other rewards also helps create a common history that is culture in the organization.

3. Socialisation

Socialisation is the process of adaptation.

New organizational members coming from different moods and mores are likely to disturb the common customs and beliefs already established in the organization.

Therefore the new employees need to be adapted to the organization. This adaptation process is called socialization.

It involves three phases:

Pre arrival

It refers to all the learning that occurs before a new member joins the organization.

Encounter

- It is the stage of induction which the new recruit joins the firm and put on the job.
- The role playing starts here.
- The recruit starts comparing expectations, the image which he had formed during pre arrival stage with reality.
- If the expectation and reality concur the encounter, the encounter is smooth.
- When the two differ, stress and frustration set in

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Metamorphosis

• It is the completion stage of changes and consolidation of changed behavior.

• In this stage employees master the skills required for their new roles and make the adjustment to the organization's norms and values.

• This is a voluntary process and conscious decision which enabled them to become compatible with the group and organization

CHANGING A CULTURE

- As organizations do not remain the same over a period of time, so is the case of culture as well. Culture established in one type of environment may not remain effective in changed environment. If it is so the organization must either adapt to new conditions of environment or it may not survive. Hence the need for change in organizational culture.
- Situations which facilitate changes in the culture;
- When the environment is going rapid changes and the company has always been highly value driven.
- When the industry is highly competitive and the environment changes quickly.
- When the company is truly at the threshold of becoming a large corporation.
- When the company is growing very rapidly.
- The other major factors that create right condition for change in culture include;
- A Dramatic crisis
- The example of such crisis may be a surprising financial set back, the loss of a major customer, or a dramatic technological breakthrough by a competitor which can change the market structure

Change in Leadership

Change in the leadership can also have a major impacts on organizational culture. New leadership at the organizational apex heralds signals of change.

STRESS – **Definition**

According to Hans Selye defines stress as "an adoptive response to the external situation that results in physical, psychological and or behavioural deviation for organizational participants"

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In general sense stress is the pressures people feel in life due to their reaction to situation.

Causes of stress

Environmental causes

Organizational causes / stressors

• Group causes / stressors

Coping Strategies

Coping is the way individuals handle either the stressors or themselves. A person sensing stressor, either consciously or unconsciously, chooses a way to respond to it.

This occurs through a secondary cognitive appraisal process, which is different from the primary cognitive appraisal in which one becomes aware of the stressor.

These are two functions of coping:

- i. Problem Solving Function: We may try to change the environment stressor on our own behaviour.
- **ii.** The second function of coping is to manage the physiological and emotional reactions to stress "so that they do not get out of hand and do not damage or destroy morale and social functioning". Basically, this means managing one's emotions. Lazarus suggests several different coping strategies:
- **iii. Information seeking:** It is trying to find out what the stressors are and what causes them. Because uncertainty is a property of stress, information seeking can be productive if the result is reduced. Stress was found to be higher for employees who actively sought and obtained information about a major organizational change which might have had negative effects on them.
- **iv. Direct action:** It may take several forms. When experiencing job stressors, you may work harder, take pills, change jobs or change the environment in some way.

Another form of direct action is to seek and develop social support. Acceptance and help from others buffer the effects of the stressors to well help you find more constructed solutions. If you are experiencing stress because of conflicting demands from your boss, you might seek out an older colleague with whom you can discuss the problem and come up with a solution that helps.

v.. Restraining action: These are times when the best way to deal with stress is not to act, especially when taking actions might lead to other, less desirable outcomes.

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Waiting before taking another course of action is probably a more effective way to cope with such stress.

vi. Psychological modes: Psychological coping reactions are quite common response to stress. Emotions and often subsequent behaviour, are determined in part by situation, and other defense mechanisms may change the perceptions of the objective environment, so much that the perceived environment is one in which the person can operate more comfortably, at least in the short run.

When psychological coping modes distort reality and are used extensively, they my represent a poor adjustment to stress. For example: if a person who consistently has a difficult time performing a job but denies the failure or attributes it to wrong causes, may continue to stay in an unsuccessful situation. In the long run, this may diminish selfesteem.

Sources of Stress

Stress is a result of the transactions and interaction between the person and the environment. Some stressors are in the objective environment while most are part of the psychological environment. Work factors and non-work factors are sources of stress.

Work factors

From the organization's point of view, work-induced health problems, both physical and mental, may create serious financial responsibility. It has been estimated, for example, that about 95% of workers compensation claims, resulting from mental stressors may be due to cumulative psychic workplace trauma, which is caused by employee abuse by manager. Major- work Setting stressors are:

i. Occupational factors: Some jobs are more stressful than others. Blue—Collar workers are more likely to be exposed to working conditions that lead to physical health problems because, many of their jobs are mostly physically dangerous or they are exposed to more toxic substances. Studies have shown that, those who work in routine jobs have high levels of alienation from work and boredom, and that machine paced work was more strongly related to tension, anxiety, anger, depression and fatigue than non-paced work. High-risk jobs make high psychological demands and provide low decision control. People in these jobs are constantly under pressure from others as they must respond in a way that the other person wishes, not in the way they would like to.

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ii. Role Pressure: Robert Kahn and a group of researchers at the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research examined the extent of role conflict and role ambiguity in organizations, their causes, how they relate to personal adjustment and how personality might modify the effects of role strain. This research is based on the premise that individuals are more effective at work roles when they are clear about what is expected of them and when they do not have severe conflicting

demands.

iii. Role conflict: It occurs when a person is in situation where there are pressures to comply with different and inconsistent elements. If the person complies with one demand, it is difficult or impossible to comply with other demands. The particular type of role conflict depends on the sources of the demands. An intercentral role conflict is inconsistent expectations from a single person.

STRESS MANAGEMENT

There are several ways to manage stress. It may be possible to charge the objective environment to remove a stressor or to alter the psychological environment that the person experiences. Perhaps it is possible to alter the stress symptoms in some way so that they will not have debilitating long-run effects. All of these general approaches work, and the most effective way to manage stress may be broad attack on several dimensions.

Personal Approaches to Stress Management

Stress can be managed, at least in the sense that a person can avoid stressful conditions, change them, or leave to cope more effective with them.

Psychological strategies

Psychological approaches to managing stress attempt to do one or more of the following:

- i. Change the environment in which the stressor exists.
- ii. Change the cognitive appraisal of the environment
- iii. Change some activity or behaviour to modify the environment

Counseling and psychotherapy have long been used to solve stress-induced problems.

Personnel trained in mental health intervention, work regularly with the person to determine the source of stress, help modify his on her outlook, and develop alternative ways to cope. Often this is

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done by helping a person gain enough self-confidence and self- esteem to try a different way of coping with stress.

Physiological Approaches

Being in good physical condition will help one deal more effectively with stress. Proper exercise, a wise diet, and not smoking are likely to yield positive physiological effects for anyone. Heart rate decreases, blood pressure is generally reduced, and the body becomes more resistant to pressures.

Organizational Change

- Organizational change refers to a modification or transformation of the organizations structure, processes or goods.
- Flexibility requires that organizations be open to change in all areas, including the structure of the organization itself.
- In a flexible organization, employees can't think of their roles in terms of a job description.

 They often have to change the tasks they perform and learn new skills.
- The most flexible organisations have a culture that values change and managers who know how to implement changes effectively.
- W.Cook and other states that change as, "the coping process of moving from the present state to the desired state that individuals, groups and organizations undertake in response to dynamic internal & external factors".
- Organizational change management (OCM) is a framework for managing the effect of new business processes, changes in organizational structure or cultural changes within an enterprise. Simply put, OCM addresses the people side of change management

Factors in organizational change

- External factors
- Internal factors

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1. External factors

Technological change

Rapid technological innovation is a major force for change in organizations, and those who fail to keep pace can quickly fall behind. Technological innovations bring about profound change because they are not just changes in the way work is performed.

Globalization

- The global economy means competitors are likely to come from across the ocean.
- Globalization for an organization means rethinking the most efficient ways to use resources, disseminate and gather information and develop people.

Social & Political changes

• A firm's fate is also influenced by such environmental pressures as social & political changes.

Workforce diversity

- Workforce diversity is a powerful force for change in organization.
- The demographic trends contributing to workforce diversity are;
- The workforce will be more culturally diverse than ever.
- The workforce is aging. There will be fewer young workers and more middle aged working.

Managing ethical behaviour

- Employees feel ethical dilemmas in their daily work lives.
- The need to manage ethical behaviour has brought about several changes in organizations.
- Ethical behaviour is expected in relationships with customers, environment & society.

2. Internal factors

Changes in managerial personnel

- One of the most frequent reasons for major changes in an organization is the change of executives at the top.
- Changes in the managerial personnel are thus a constant pressure for change.

Declining Effectiveness

Declining effectiveness is a pressure to change.

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Changes in work climate

• Changes in the work climate at an organization can also stimulate change.

Deficiencies in the existing system

- Another internal pressure for organizational change is the loopholes in the system.
- These loopholes may be unmanageable spans of control, lack of coordination between departments, lack of uniformity in politics, non-cooperation between line & staff etc.

Employee expectation

• Changes in employees expectations can also trigger changes in organizations

Resistance to change

Resistance to change is the action taken by individuals and groups when they perceive that a change that is occurring as a threat to them.

- To examine fundamental reasons why people and organizations resist change.
- To gain an appreciation that the adoption of innovation is a complex process involving a variety of people and factors.
- Resistance to change is the act of opposing or struggling with modifications or transformations that alter the status quo in the workplace.
- Managing resistance to change is challenging. Resistance to change can be covert or overt, organized or individual.
- However resistance to change happens, it threatens the success of the venture.
- It affects the feelings and opinions of employees at all stages of the adoption process. It affects productivity, quality, and relationships.
- Organizations can face resistance from various sources. The sources can be classified into individual and organizational sources.

Individual resistance

- Fear of the unknown
- New learning
- Disruption of stable friendship
- Distrust of management

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• Economic factors

Social factors

Organizational resistance

• Limited focus of change

• Group inertia

• Threat to expertise

• Threat to established power relationships

• Threat to established resource allocations



RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Although organizations initiate changes in order to adjust to the changes in their environments but people sometimes resist them. Therefore, managers need to recognize the manifestations of resistance both in themselves and in others, if they want to be more effective in supporting change. For example, managers can use the list given in following table.

| Acceptance | • | Enthusiasm | | |
|--------------|---|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| | • | Cooperation | | |
| | • | Cooperation under pressure from | | |
| | | management | | |
| | • | Acceptance | | |
| | • | Passive resignation | | |
| | • | Indifference | | |
| Indifference | • | Apathy: loss of interest in the job | | |
| | • | Doing only what is ordered | | |
| | • | Regressive behavior | | |
| | | | | |
| Passive | • | Non-learning | | |
| Resistance | • | Protests | | |
| | • | Working to rule | | |

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| | • | Doing as little as possible | | |
|----------------------|---|---|--|--|
| | | | | |
| Active Resistance | • | Slowing down | | |
| | • | Persona! withdrawal (increased time off | | |
| | | the job) | | |
| | • | Committing "errors" | | |
| | • | Spoilage | | |
| | • | Deliberate sabotage | | |

The sources of resistance to change within organizations are classified into organizational sources of resistance and individual sources of resistance.

Overcoming resistance to change

- Educating employees and improving communication with them
- Encouraging employee participation
- Facilitation and support
- Negotiation
- Coercion

The following methods of overcoming-resistance to change are as follows:

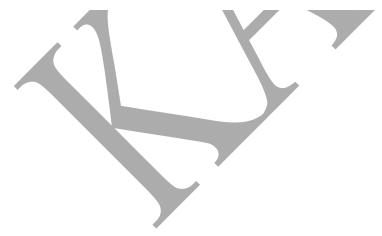
- *Participation:* Participation is generally considered the most effective technique for overcoming resistance to change. Employees who take part in planning and implementing change are better able to understand the reasons for the change than those who are not involved. They become committed to the change and make it work. Employees who have the opportunity to express their own ideas and to understand the perspectives of others are likely to accept change gracefully. It is a time consuming process.
- *Education and Communication:* Educating employees about the need for and the expected results of an impending change help reduce their resistance. Managers should maintain an open

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channel of communication while planning and implementing change. However, it is also a time consuming process.

- Facilitation of Change: Knowing ahead of lime that employees are likely to resist change then the manager should do as much as possible to help them cope with uncertainly and feeling of loss. Introducing change gradually, making only necessary changes, announcing changes in advance and allowing time for people to adjust to new ways of doing things can help reduce resistance.
- Force-Field Analysis: In almost any situation where a change is being planned, there are forces acting for and against the change. In force-field analysis, the manager list each set of forces and then try to remove or minimize some of the forces acting against the change.
- *Negotiation:* Where someone or some group will clearly lose out in a change and where that group has considerable power to resist, there negotiation is required. Sometimes it is a relatively easy way to avoid major resistance.
- *Manipulation and Cooperation:* This is followed when other tactics will not work or are too expensive. It can be quick and inexpensive, However, it can lead to further problems if people feel manipulated.
- *Explicit and Implicit Coercion:* This is adopted where speed is essential and where the change initiators possess considerable power. It is speedy and can overcome resistance.



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Part A (ONE Mark) Multiple Choice Questions Online Examination

Part B

(2 Marks)

- 1. Define culture.
- 2. Make a note on job stress.
- 3. What are the causes of Stress?
- 4. What are the factors in organizational change?
- 5. How to overcome resistance of change?
- 6. What is organization culture?
- 7. Make a short note on organizational change.

Part C (8 Marks)

- 1. Explain the types of culture.
- 2. Discuss the various types of stress.
- 3. What are the strategies for overcoming resistance to change? Discuss.
- 4. What are the challenges of workforce diversity? Comment.
- 5. Explain the reasons for resistance to change.
- 6. Explain the coping strategies for stress.
- 7. Explain the ways of creating and maintaining culture.

| | | PART A | | | |
|--|--|--|--|---|--|
| | | Unit V | | | |
| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
| Which of the following is not a norm? | Participation | Hunger | Positive Attitude | Confidentialit y | Hunger |
| Which of the following is not an example of group influence on an individual? | minority influence | deindividuatio n | social facilitation | social loafing | minority influence |
| Social facilitation is the term used to describe the tendency for the presence of others | to affect our likelihood to help | to either enhance or impair performance | to make a person act more extroverted | to make a person act more introverted | to either enhance or impair performance |
| What is the term used to describe when a person's identity and self-awareness are diffused by being in the presence of a group, and a person might act in an unrestrained manners? | deinstitution alization | deindividuatio n | decineratio n | declination | deindividuatio n |
| Which researcher coined the term "groupthink"? | Leon Festinger | Norman Triplett | Irving Janis | Irwin Yalom | Irving Janis |
| Research on working in pairs, teams, or in groups has shown that | collaboratio ns are never productive. | teamwork is never as good as working alone. | group problem solving tasks always dilute original ideas. | collaborations can be productive. | teamwork is never as good as working alone. |
| Minority influence can | never sway the majority of the group members to the other point of view. | steer other group members who hold the majority view over to the minority point of view. | decrease creativity. | increase superficiality. | steer other group members who hold the majority view over to the minority point of view. |
| It is through that group members can be inspired, motivated, and guided to be successful and productive. | fellowship | sportsmanship | Coercion | leadership | Coercion |

| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
|--|--|--|--|---|---|
| Which style of leadership focuses on goals, standards, and organization? | task leadership | social leadership | semantic leadership | transformatio nal leadership | task leadership |
| Which style of leadership focuses on team building, conflict resolution, and morale? | surrogate leadership | social leadership | transparent leadership | task leadership | social leadership |
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| The concept of organizational culture impacts all members of an organization. What type of variable is it? | Nano-level | Micro-level | Meso-level | Macro-level | Macro-level |

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| Organizational focuses on an individual's perception of events and behaviors expected in a given organization. | culture | climate | resilience | learning | climate |
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| Since the 1960s whenever NASA embarks on an important mission those in the control center eat peanuts for good luck. The shared meaning of this ritual makes it an example of an organizational | value | basic assumption | mission statement | cultural artifact | cultural artifact |
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| Cattell, primary and | 16 & 121 | 21 & 151 | 16 & 171 | 18 & 191 | 16 & 171 |
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| | | PART A | | | |
|--|--|--|--|---|--|
| | | Unit V | | | |
| Questions | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Answer |
| Which of the following is not a norm? | Participation | Hunger | Positive Attitude | Confidentialit y | Hunger |
| Which of the following is not an example of group influence on an individual? | minority influence | deindividuatio n | social facilitation | social loafing | minority influence |
| Social facilitation is the term used to describe the tendency for the presence of others | to affect our likelihood to help | to either enhance or impair performance | to make a person act more extroverted | to make a person act more introverted | to either enhance or impair performance |
| What is the term used to describe when a person's identity and self-awareness are diffused by being in the presence of a group, and a person might act in an unrestrained manners? | deinstitution alization | deindividuatio n | decineratio n | declination | deindividuatio n |
| Which researcher coined the term "groupthink"? | Leon Festinger | Norman Triplett | Irving Janis | Irwin Yalom | Irving Janis |
| Research on working in pairs, teams, or in groups has shown that | collaboratio ns are never productive. | teamwork is never as good as working alone. | group problem solving tasks always dilute original ideas. | collaborations can be productive. | teamwork is never as good as working alone. |
| Minority influence can | never sway the majority of the group members to the other point of view. | steer other group members who hold the majority view over to the minority point of view. | decrease creativity. | increase superficiality. | steer other group members who hold the majority view over to the minority point of view. |
| It is through that group members can be inspired, motivated, and guided to be successful and productive. | fellowship | sportsmanship | Coercion | leadership | Coercion |

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