

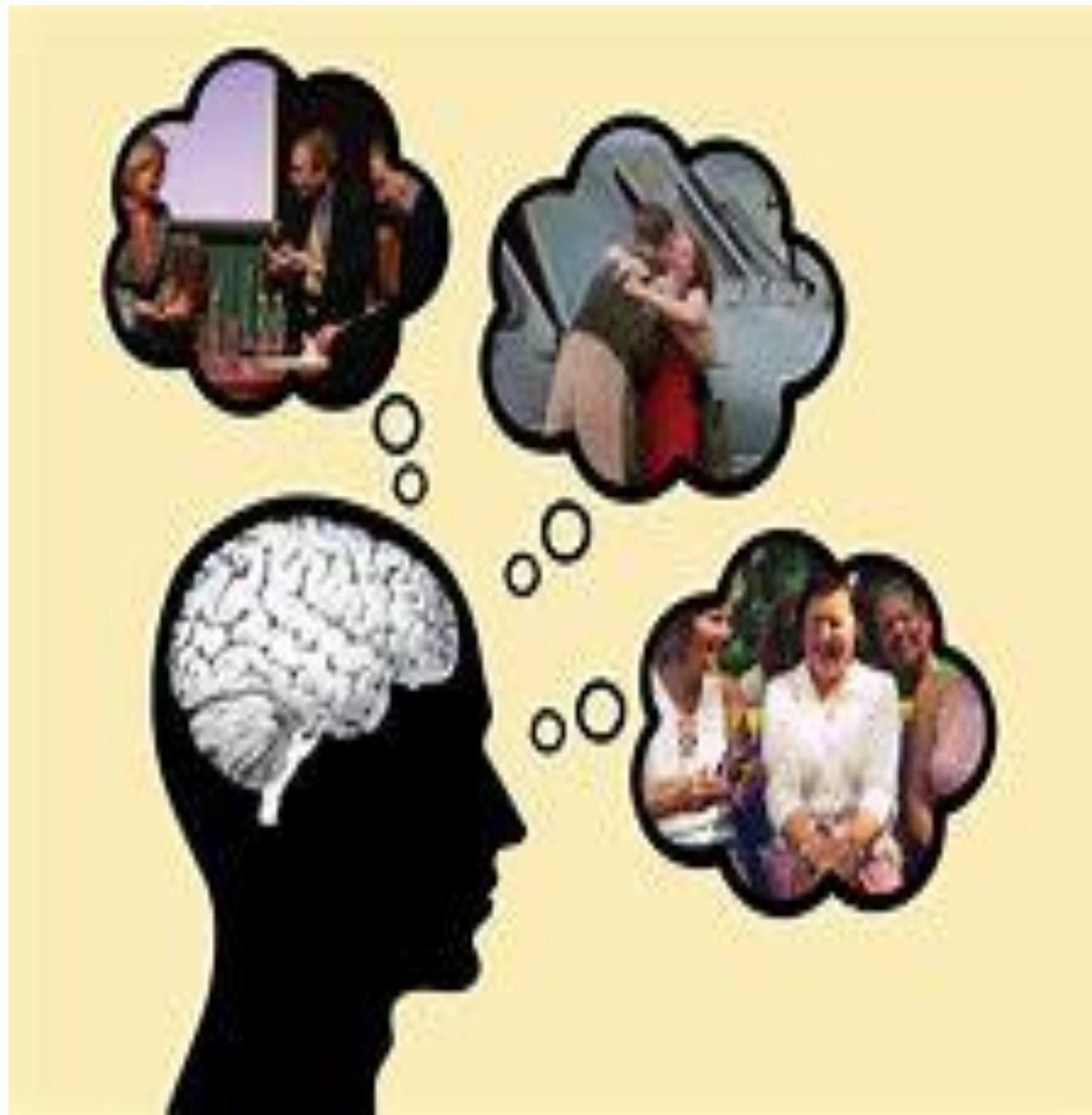
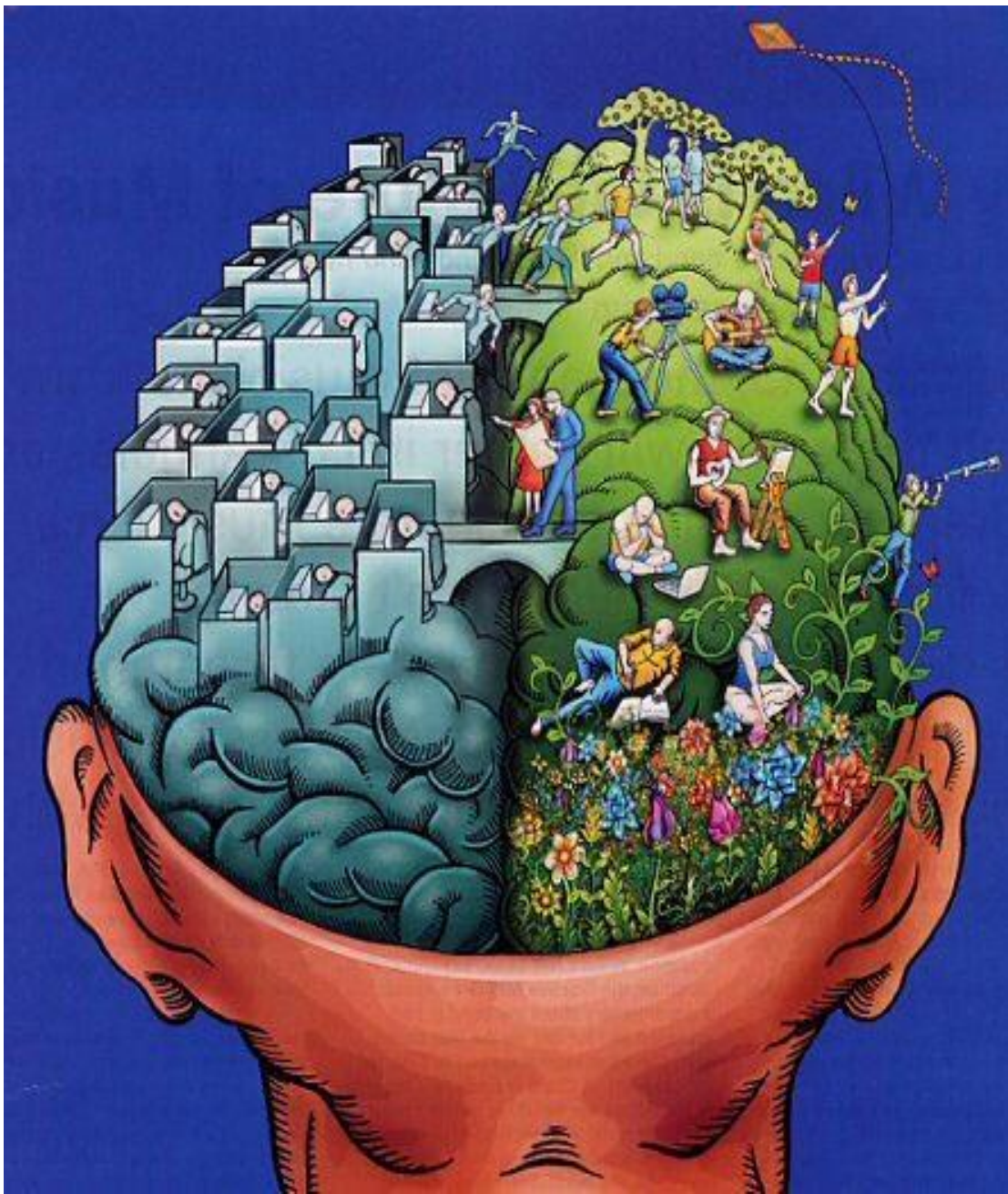
Organisational Behaviour

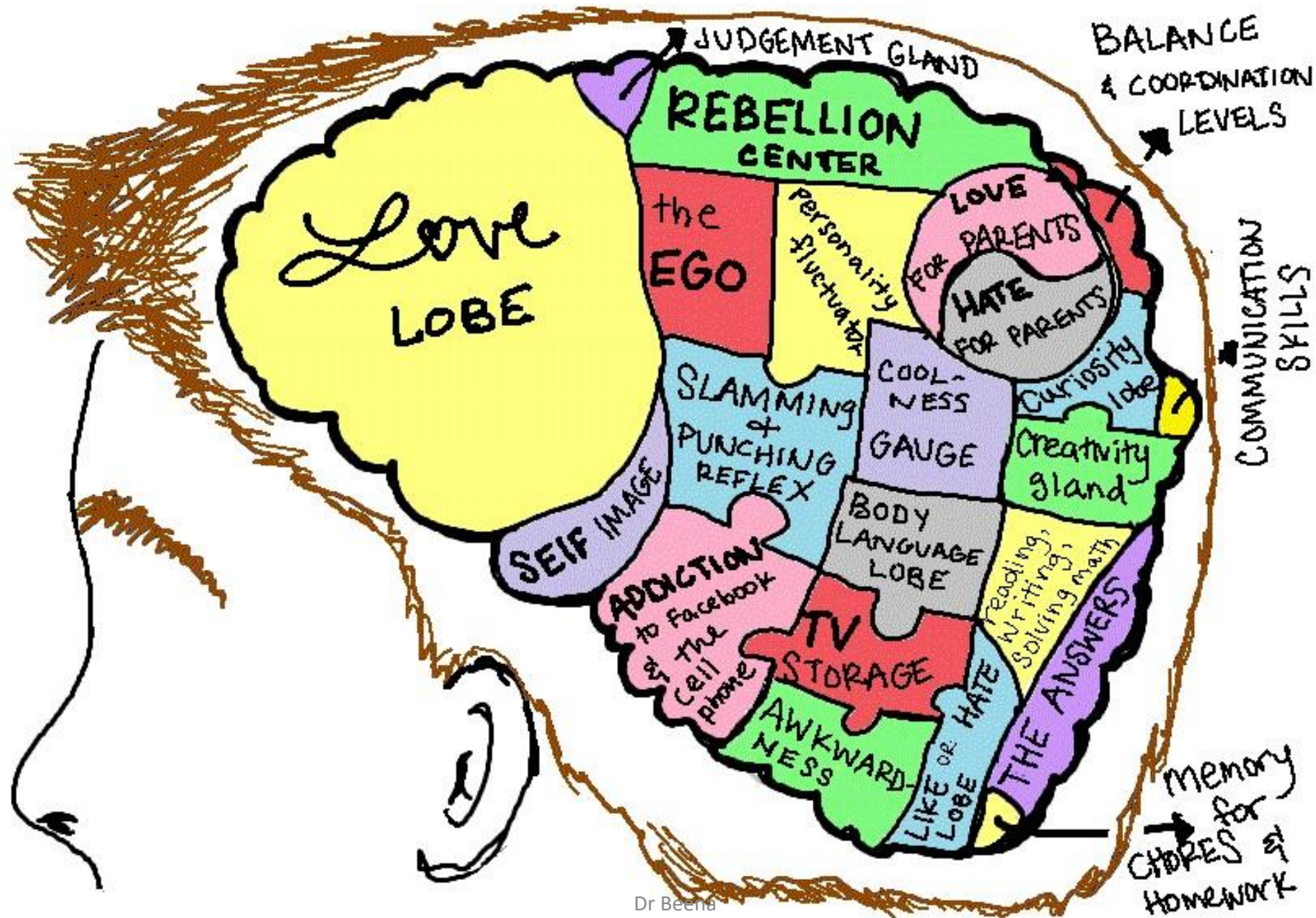
Unit 1

Introduction- meaning- definition- nature-key elements- Historical Development-Fundamental Concepts- relevance & importance of OB in modern business organisations

Personality- meaning and definition- determinants of personality- personality traits

Personality traits influencing OB, theories of personality- intra-psychic theory of Sigmund, Carl Jung's Introvert Extrovert theory, Sheldon's physiognomy theory, Carl Roger's Self Theory





Introduction

- Meaning:
- OB is concerned with the study of human behaviour at work
- It is the study and application of knowledge about how people as individuals and as groups behave or act in organisations.
- It is concerned with the study of how and why people behave in organisations and also their behaviour affect the performance of the organisation.

Definition

“Organisational behaviour is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour in organisations.”- Fred Luthans.

“Organisational Behaviour can be defined as the study and application of knowledge about human behaviour related to other elements of an organisation such as structure, technology and social systems.”- L M Prasad.

“Organisational behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organisations.”- Davis and Newstream

Nature

- A separate field of study and not a discipline only.
- An inter disciplinary approach
- An applied science
- A normative science- helps in applying the findings to social applications
- A humanistic and optimistic approach
- A total system approach

Key elements

1. people- individuals and group
2. Structure- the rights and responsibilities according to structure
3. Technology
4. Interactive behaviour- formal and informal relations and behaviour
5. Environment- both internal and external

Historical development

- Traces back to Kautilya's Arthashastra – 4th century B C
- Industrial revolution- contributions of Robert Owen
- Scientific Management- F W Taylor- father of Scientific management (right people for right job), Mr and Mrs Frank Gilbreth
- Human relations school- employee compensation and morale, humans are not machines
- The great depression of America(1930s) resulted in unemployment, mgt realised that along with production, finance and personnel is also important.
- Hawthorne experiments –conducted at Western Electric factory at the Hawthorne of Chicago (late 1920 and early 1930s)

Hawthorne experiments

1. Illumination study- productivity v/s illumination- test group and the control group
2. Relay room experiments- place of work, length of the working day, length and time of rest, number of working days, method of payment, supply of free lunch, hot tea etc
3. Bank wiring room experiment- the influence of the informal group

Implications of Hawthorne experiments

- Social factors in production
- Informal groups
- Leadership – formal and informal
- Communication
- Conflict
- supervision

Fundamental Concepts

- Individual difference
- Perception
- A whole person
- Motivated behaviour
- The desire for involvement
- The value of a person- not to be treated like other 2 factors capital & labour)
- Human dignity
- Social system
- Mutuality of interest
- Holistic concept- holistic concepts

Relevance & importance of OB in modern business organisations

- Understanding Human Behaviour- at individual level, inter personal level, group level and inter group level
- Controlling and directing human behaviour- use of power and sanction, leadership, communication, building organisational climate, organisational adaptations.

Personality

- Derived from the Latin word per sonare which means “to speak through”
- Personality means different things to different people.
- Some take it as the physical features or the charm or the dressing or the response to situations.
- Personality is too complex to define
- There are more than 3000 words to define personality.
- In total, personality means, how people affect others, how they understand others and how they view themselves.

Definitions

- ✓ “Personality may be understood as the characteristic patterns of behaviour and modes of thinking that determine a person’s adjustment to the environment.” – Hilgard et al
- ✓ “personality can be described as how he understands and views himself, and his pattern of inner and outer measurable traits.” –Ruch
- ✓ “ Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment”- Allport

Determinants of personality

- I. Biological factors: Heredity, brain, physical features
- II. Social or family factors: familiarisation and identification
- III. Cultural factors
- IV. Situational factors

Heredity

- Characteristics passed on from the parents and grand parents
- Passed through genes in Chromosomes
- Physical and psychological features
- Height, weight, colour, hair, some diseases

Brain

- Size and shape of the brain
- The depth of the curves
- The different cells in brain
- Electrical stimulation

Physical features

- Too tall
- Too fat
- Handsome
- Ugly
- The special child etc

Social or family factors

Socialisation or familiarisation process

- The child starts familiarising the situations
- Familiarising the people

Identification

- Child begins to identify with some members of the family.
- Starts imitating them.

Cultural factors

- The culture in which the child is brought up
- Culture is the complex of believes, values and techniques for dealing with the people.
- Transmitted from one generation to the other.
- Every culture expects and trains its people to behave in a particular pattern which is acceptable by it.

Situational factors

- Situation determines the behaviour
- Puts pressure on the people
- Sometimes pushes or pulls

Personality traits

- It is a way in which one individual differs from the other.
- There are 16 main personality traits

01	Reserved	v/s	Outgoing	09	Trusting	v/s	Suspicious
02	Less intelligent	v/s	More intelligent	10	Practical	v/s	Imaginative
03	Affected by feeling	v/s	Emotionally stable	11	Forthright	v/s	Shrewd
04	Submissive	v/s	Dominant	12	Self-assured	v/s	Apprehensive
05	Serious	v/s	Happy-go-lucky	13	Conservative	v/s	Experimenting
06	Expedient	v/s	Conscientious	14	Group dependent	v/s	Self-sufficient
07	Timid	v/s	Venturesome	15	Uncontrolled	v/s	Controlled
08	Tough minded	v/s	sensitive	16	relaxed	v/s	tense

Type A and type B personalities

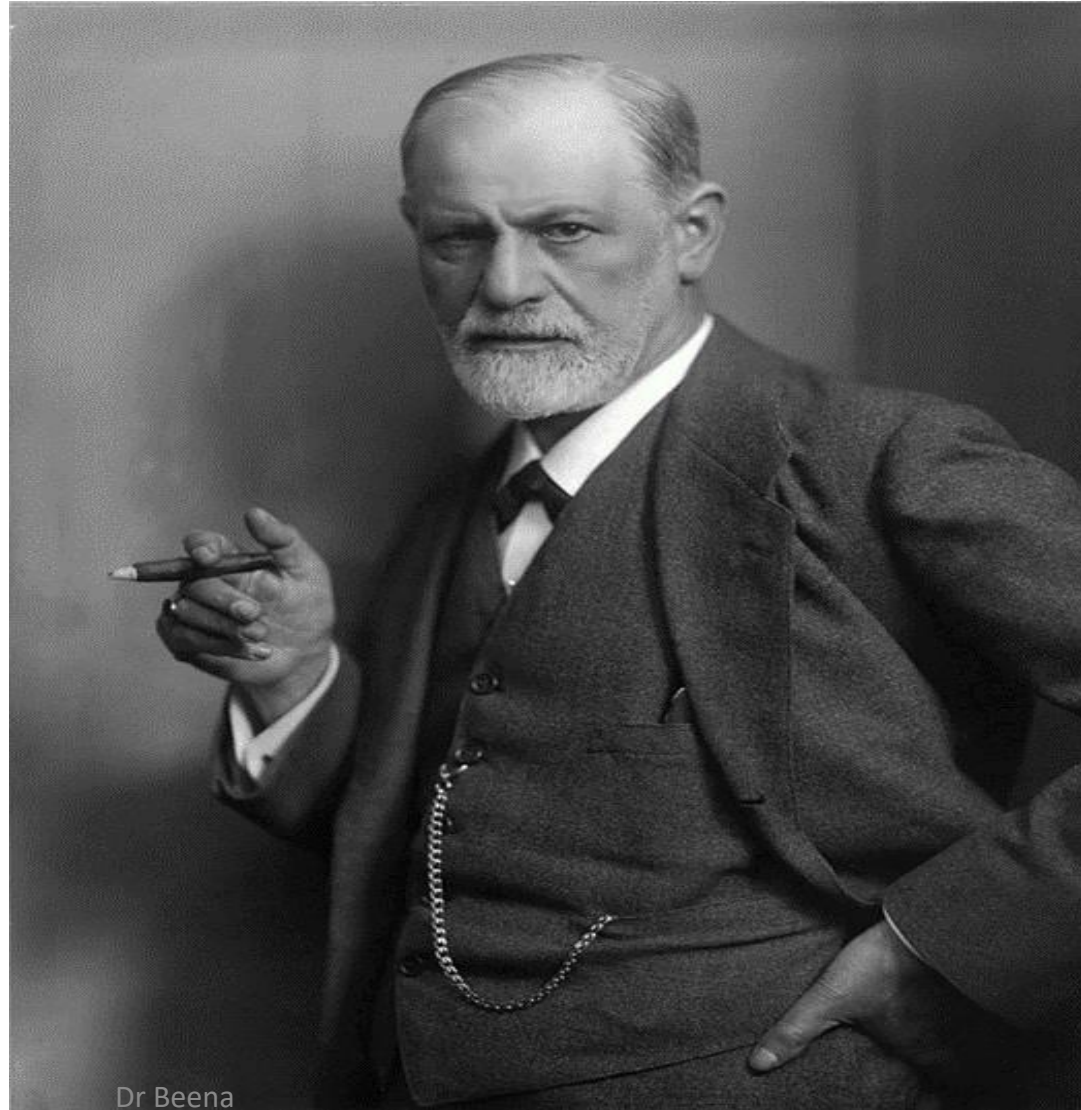
- Type A: hard working, achievement oriented, impatient, work holics. Aggressive and prone to heart attack.
- Type B: easy going, sociable, free from urgency of time, non-competitive
- Judging personalities: like to follow a plan, make decisions and need only what is essential for their work.

Theories of personality

- I. Psychoanalytic theory
- II. Type theory
- III. Trait theory
- IV. Social learning theory
- V. Self theory

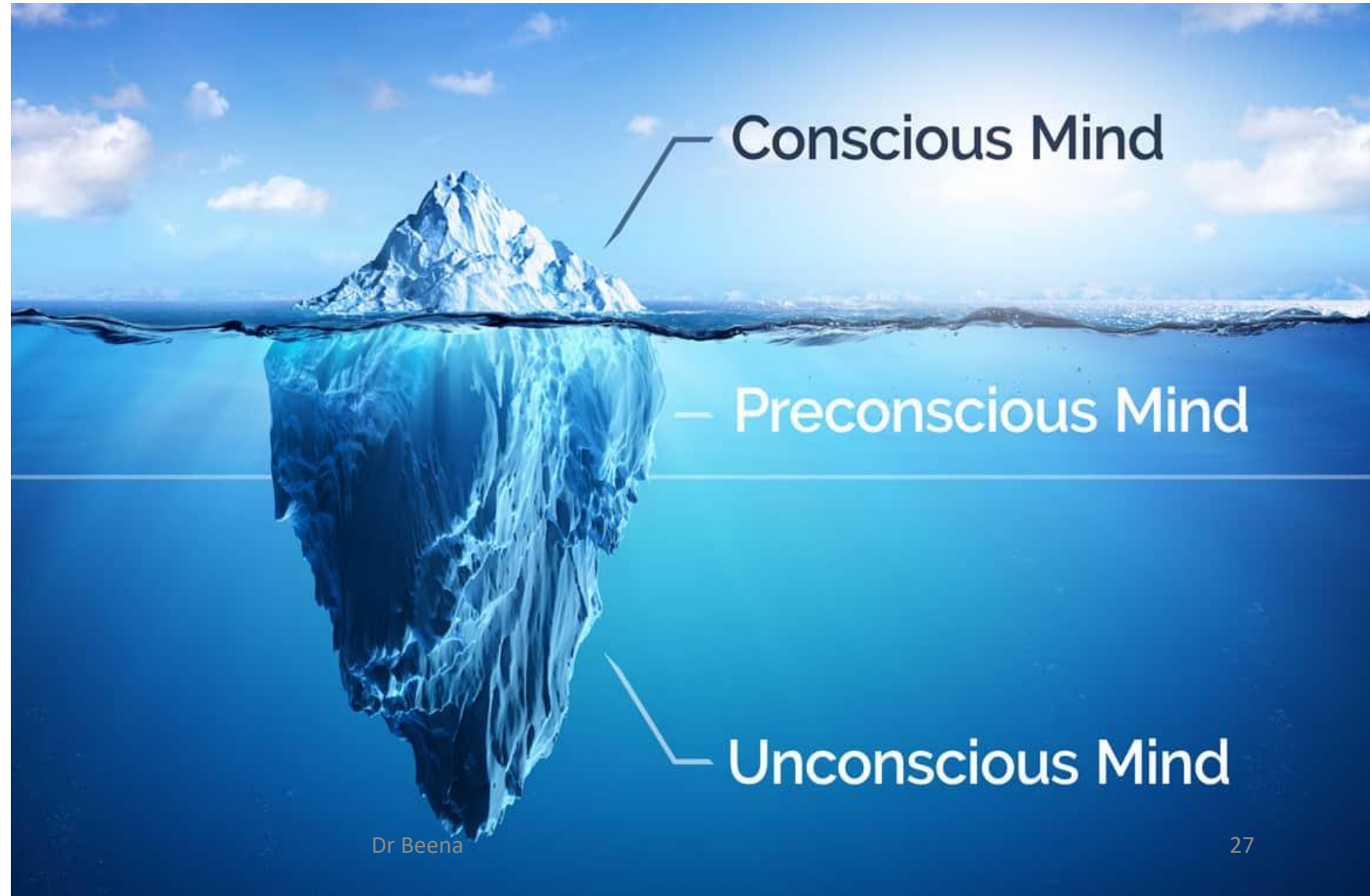
Psychoanalytic theory (Intra psychic theory)

Sigmund Freud



Three elements of brain

1. Pre-conscious
2. Conscious
3. unconscious



Three components of mind

- I. The Id
- II. The Ego
- III. The Super ego

The Id

- Source of psychic energy
- Basic system of personality
- Present at the time of birth
- Raw, animalistic, unorganised
- Knows no law, obeys no rules
- Childish state of mind
- Seeks immediate pleasure

The Ego

- Individual starts learning to separate unreality from reality, bad from good and black from white.
- Can postpone the desire to a most appropriate time or place.
- Id and ego always go in opposite direction.
- Tries to delay the desires

Super Ego

- Noble thoughts, feelings and ideas.
 - Considered as the conscience.
 - Acts as the sensor
 - Distinguishes between good and bad
 - Insists morality
-
- There is always a fight among Id, Ego and Super ego.

Type theory- William Sheldon



Three body types

- I. Endomorph
- II. Mesomorph
- III. Ectomorph



Ectomorph



Mesomorph



Endomorph

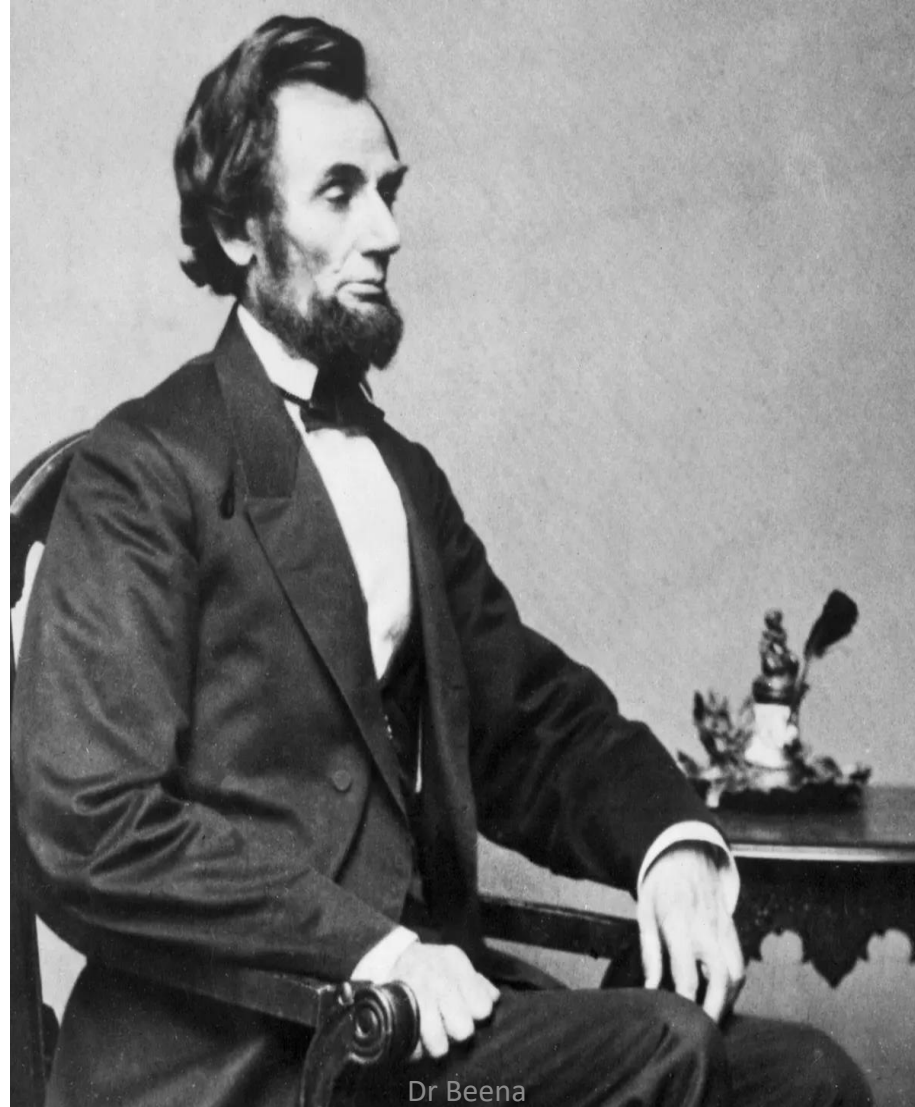
Characteristics

endomorphs	mesomorphs	ectomorphs
Bulky Jovial Fat and thick compared to height Seeks comfort Loves fine food Eats too much Loved by all	Strong and tough Good and proportional physic Physic is liked by all Interested muscular activities Aggressive Runs fast Likes adventurous activities	Thin Poor physic Introverts Avoids social contacts Labelled-absent minded professors Brilliant Have less friends Rarely speak unless others speak

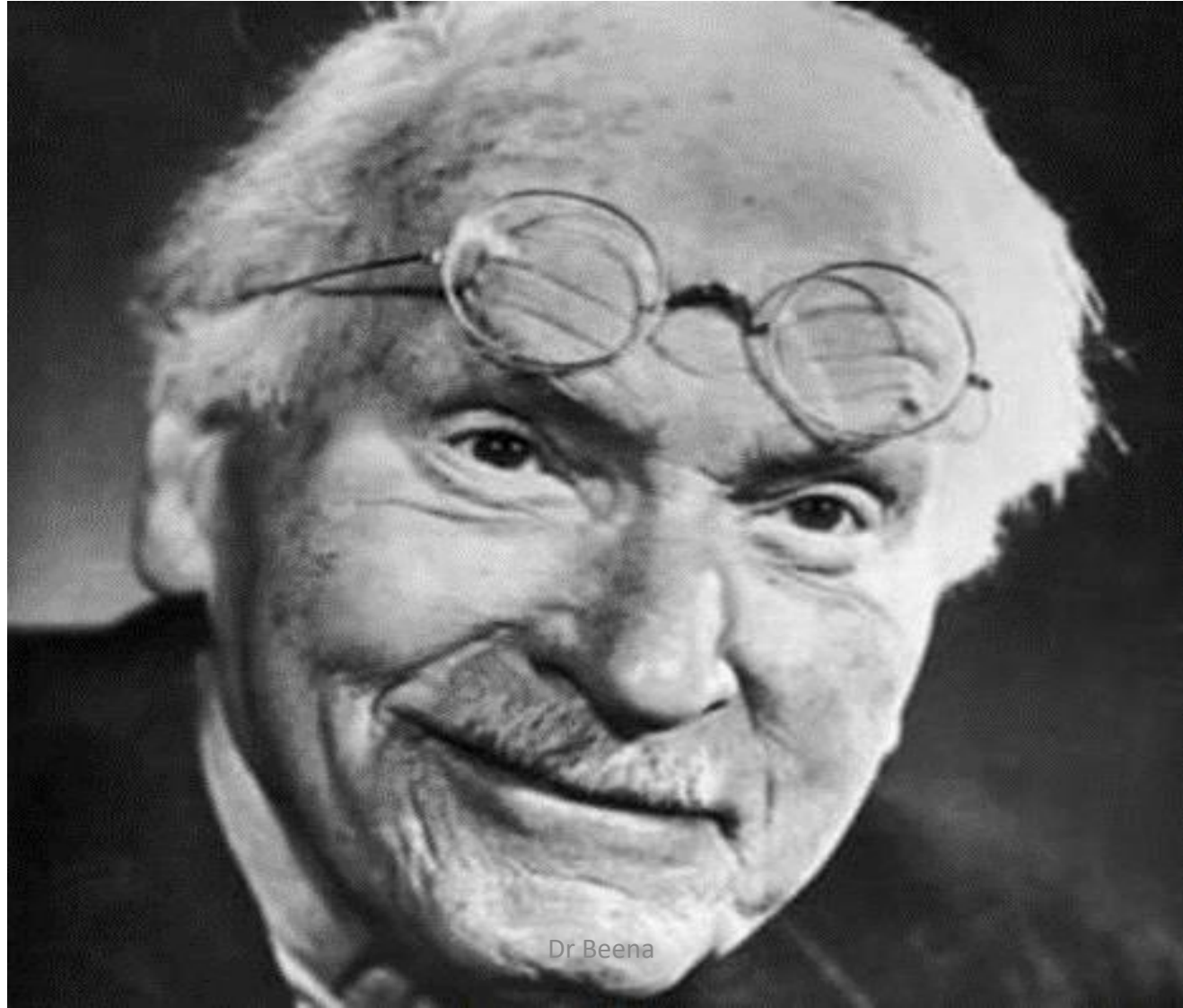
7 point scale to describe personality

- Sheldon has developed this scale to describe the personality
- In reality ,we find the mixture of all the three morphs.
- A pure endomorph is represented as 7-0-0
- A pure Meso morph 0-7-0
- A pure Ecto morph 0-0-7
- A real case is Abraham Lincoln, who was 1-5-6

Abraham Lincoln- 16th President 1861-1865



Extrovert-introvert theory of Karl Jung



- This theory is also called “Analytical psychology”
- Karl Jung divides people into two groups
- Extroverts and introverts

Extroverts

- Optimistic – those who look at the brighter side of life
- Sociable- mingle with people
- Mingles with people
- Share their feelings
- Carry little burden in mind
- Are childish
- Most of them are “Doers” and not thinkers

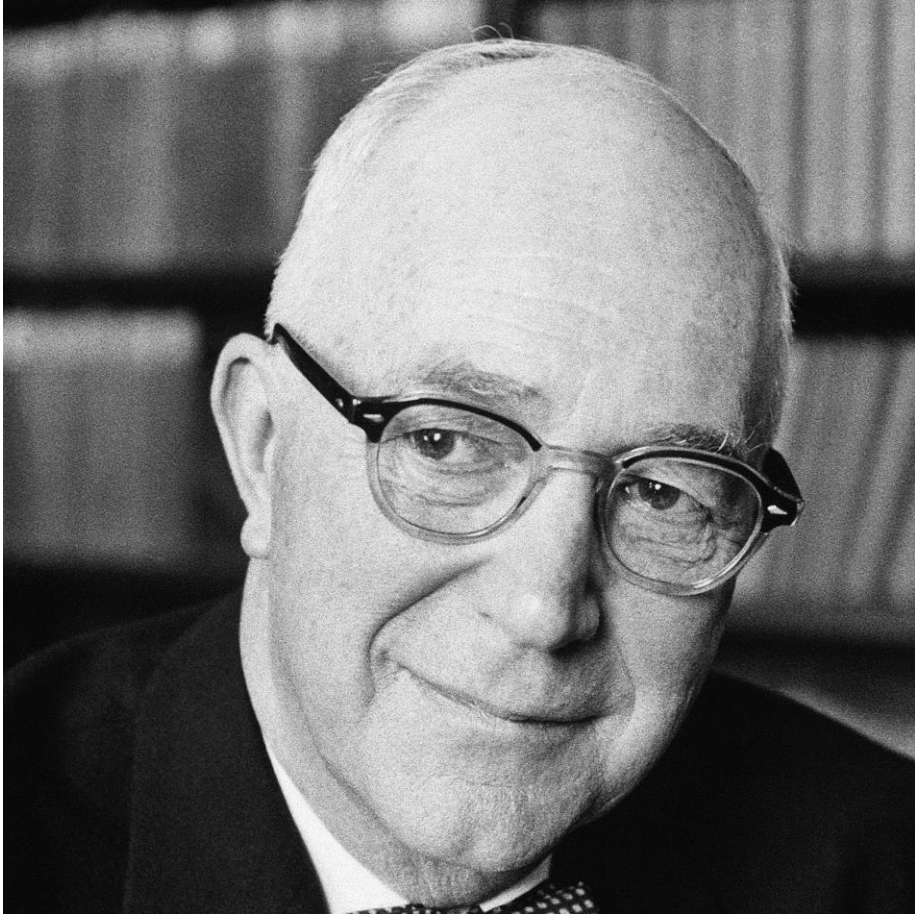
Introverts

- Inward directed people
- Do not mingle with people much
- Withdrawn kind
- Avoids social contact
- Rigid and less flexible
- Have less friends
- Rarely speak to people

Four dimensions which determine personality according to Jung

- Thinking
- Feeling
- Sensation
- Intuition

Trait theory – Allport and Cattell



Six common traits given by Allport

- Social
- Political
- Religious
- Economic
- Theoretical
- Asthetic- philosophy of beauty

Cattle's Theory

- 171 words to describe personality
- All these are divided into two categories
 - a. Source traits
 - b. Surface traits

Social learning theory

- Learning by observing and imitating
- Situation is one of the influencing factor of personality.
- Learning involves a change of mental make-up of an individual.
- Learning and reproduction requires the following
 1. Attention
 2. Retention
 3. Reproduction
 4. Motivation



B F Skinner



Albert Bandura

Types of learning

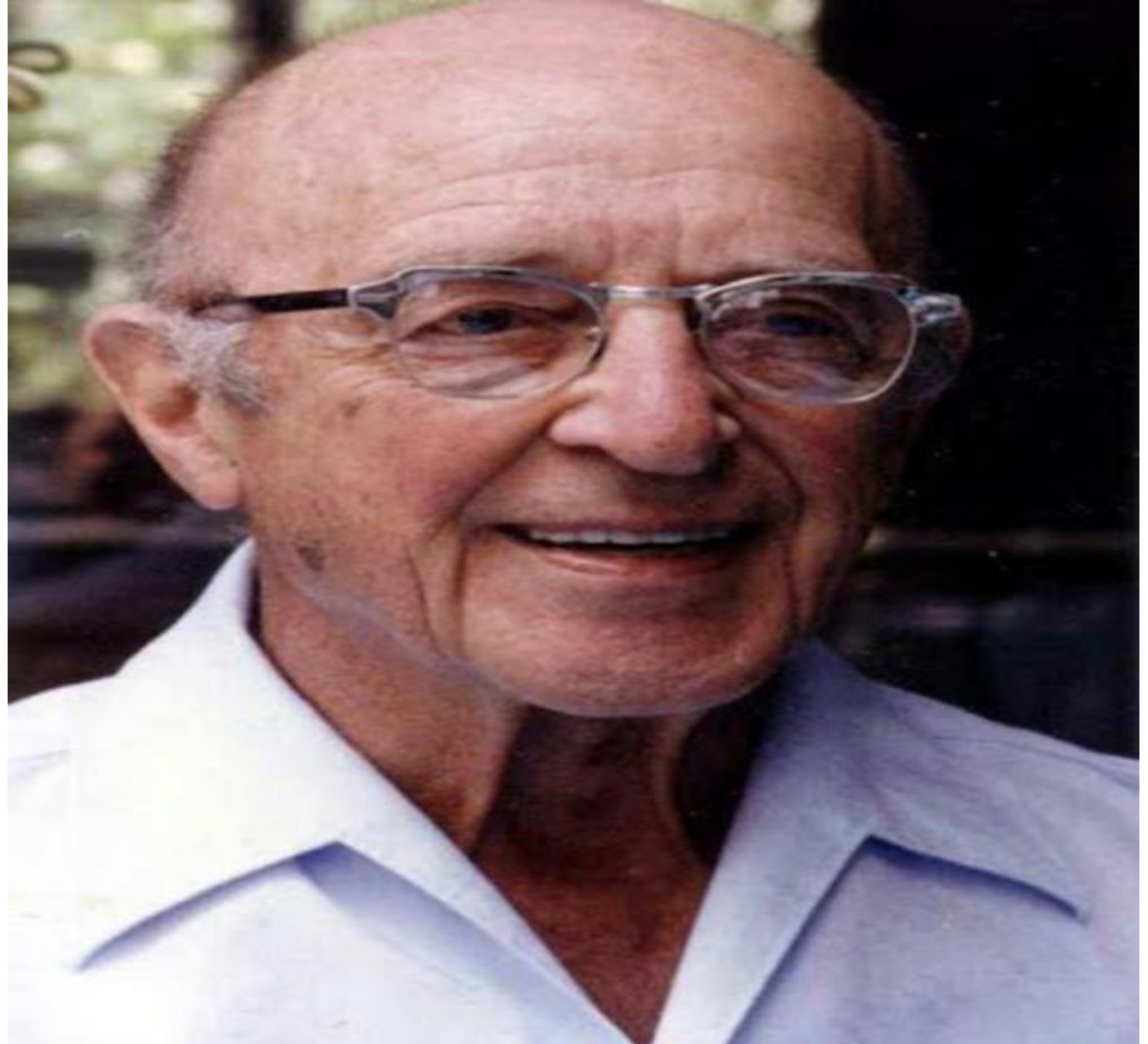
1. Direct learning- learning from one's own experience of getting reward or punishment for a particular behaviour
2. Indirect/vicarious learning- learning by observing others getting a reward or punishment for their behaviour.
3. Self- administered learning- learning through evaluating one's own behaviour through self praise or reproach. This is the best way of learning.

Pavlov's Theory

- Pavlov's theory is a learning procedure that involves pairing a stimulus with a conditioned response.
- In the famous experiments that Ivan Pavlov conducted with his dogs.
- Pavlov found that objects or events could trigger a conditioned response.
- Pavlov then designed an experiment using a bell as a neutral stimulus.
- As he gave food to the dogs, he rang the bell.
- Then, after repeating this procedure, he tried ringing the bell without providing food to the dogs.
- On its own, an increase in salivation occurred.
- The result of the experiment was a new conditioned response in the dogs.

Self Theory

- KARL ROGER



Features

- Considers the individual as,

1. Initiating
2. Creating
3. Influential

three different stages in determining the personality are,

1. Self concept
2. Organism
3. Development of self

1. Self concept

- Personal self- what I am according to me
- Social self (looking glass self)- what I am according to others
- Ideal self- what I want to be
- Real self- what really I am

2. Organism

- An individual's self image is confirmed when other's responses indicate his/her belief with which he/she is comfortable with.
- When that happens, the person is satisfied.
- If the personal self and the social self are the same, he/she gets complete satisfaction or organism

3. Development of self

- When the person is satisfied with his/her self image, he/she will try to develop it because they are happy with it.
- They try to continue with the same behaviour for a long time.

Unit II- Perception

- Meaning and definition, nature, importance, principles, factors, process, distortion
- Attitude- meaning, definition- nature- components- formation- functions-changing attitudes

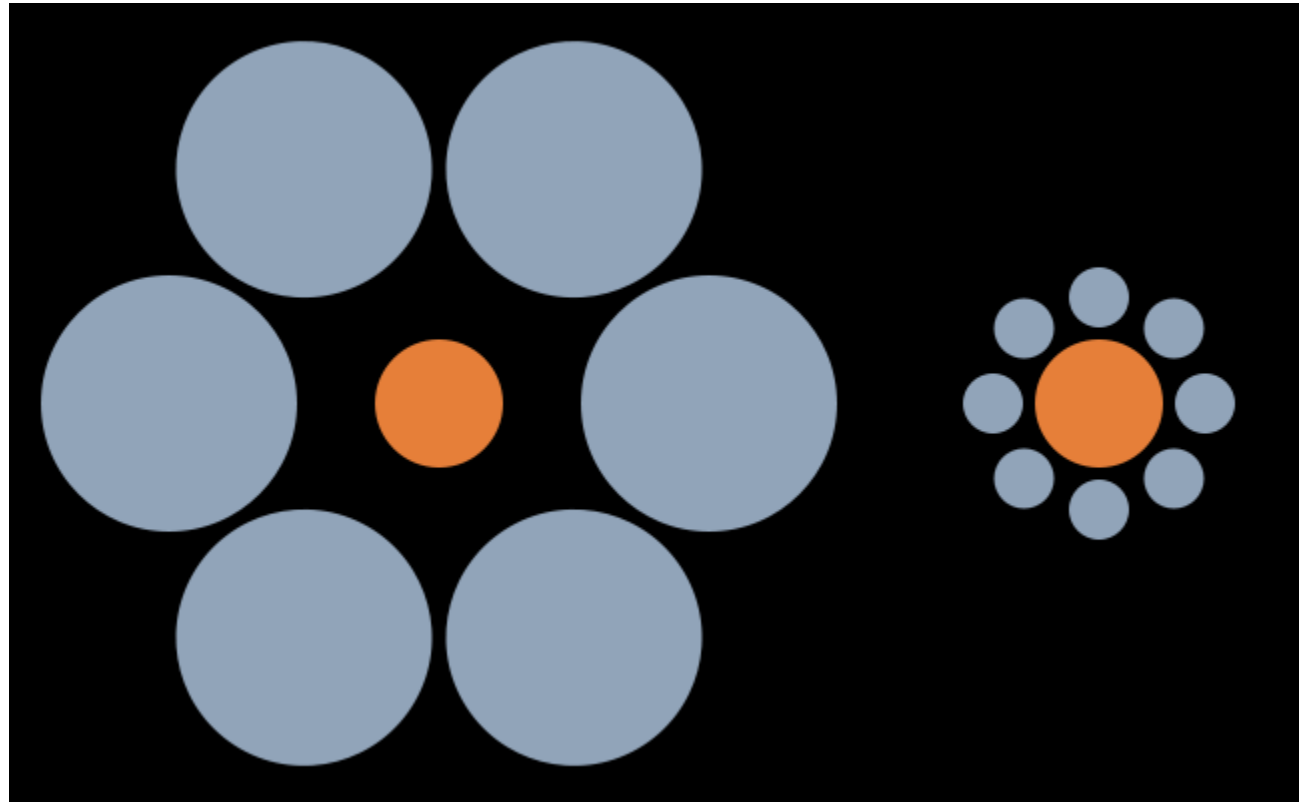
Perception

- “If everyone perceived every time, everything in the same way, things would be a lot similar”
- Perception is the act of “seeing what is there to be seen”.
- There are three variables that affect perception- the event, the environment and the perceiver.
- It is basically a psychological process.
- It is an intellectual process.

Which grey square is darker?



Which orange circle is big?



What do you see in the picture?



How many squares are there?



Definitions

- “Perception can be defined as the process of receiving, selecting, organising, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data”. – Udai Pareek and others
- “A process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment”.- Stephen P Robins.

Perception v/s sensation

- Sensation happens through the sensory organs- eyes, ear, nose, tongue and skin.
- The vision, hearing, smell, taste and touch.
- These act as the raw inputs for perception.
- Thus sensation precedes perception.
- Perception is more than sensation.
- It involves a cognitive process.
- It filters, modifies or even change some of the sensory inputs.

Nature and importance of perception

- Perception helps in the following areas:
 1. Inter personal working relationship- very important to have mutual understanding and cordial relationship.
 2. Selection of employees- helps in knowing the human behaviour and perceptual issues and to select the right person for the right job.
 3. Performance appraisal- knowledge of OB and perception helps the managers to overcome the errors in appraising the employees.

Application of perception in organisations

- Perception can be applied in the following areas:
 1. Employment interview- helps in deciding who is to be selected.
 2. Performance appraisal- helps in the case of qualitative appraisal.
 3. Performance expectation- helps in bridging the gap between the expectations and the actuals.
 4. Employee effort- helps in judging the amount of effort to be put to achieve the organisation's goals.
 5. Employee loyalty- helps in measuring the loyalty of employees.
 6. Impression management- people try their level best just to manage impressions

Principles and factors in perception

- There are three important principles in perception:
 1. Selection of stimuli- every day a person gets thousands of stimuli and it is not possible to consider all of them. Therefore some of them are selected for further processing.
 2. Organisation of stimuli- when stimuli is not organised, it may not make any sense. Hence they are to be organised.
 3. Interpretation of stimuli- the organised stimuli is to be interpreted to give some conclusion. It depends on characteristics of stimuli, the situation, the social settings etc.

Factors affecting perception

- There are two kinds of factors

1. Internal factors
2. External factors

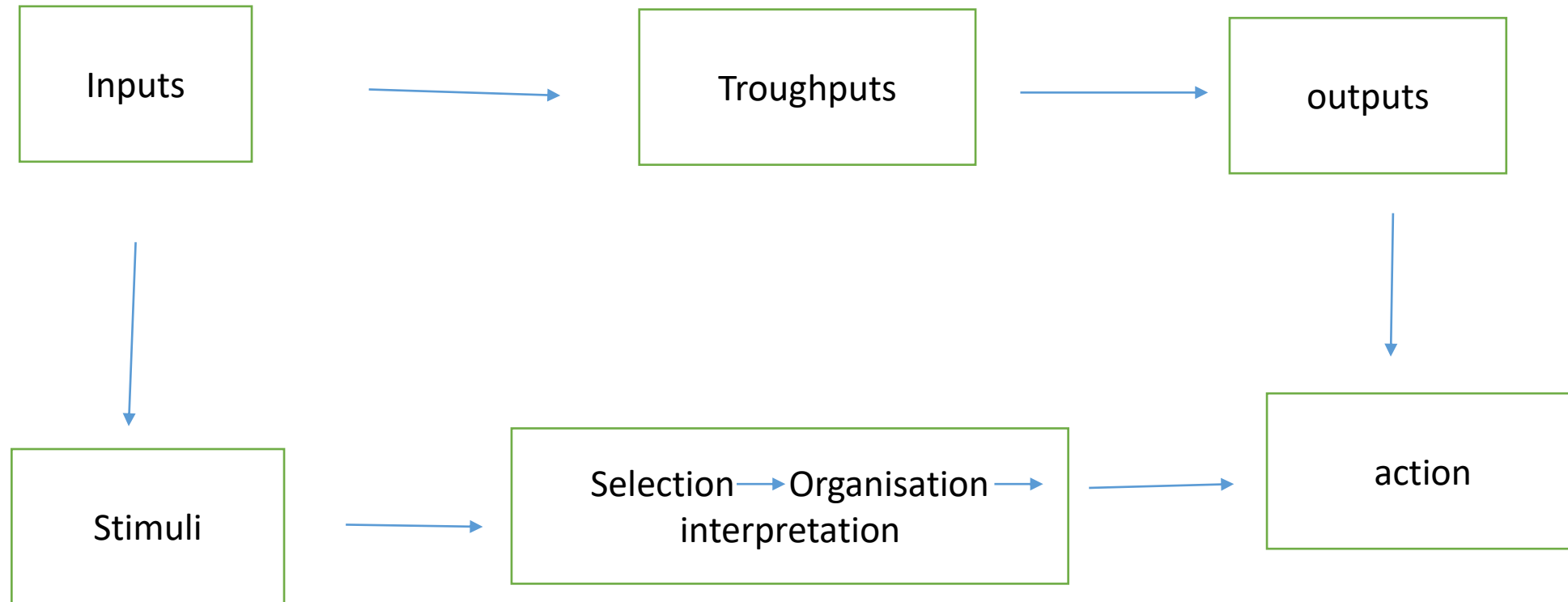
Internal factors:

1. Needs and desires- we tend to perceive things according to our internal needs and desires. Eg: if we are walking in a long desert and are thirsty, we tend to perceive the glare of sunlight as an oasis.
2. Personality- perception depends on one's personality. Optimist perceive things positively and pessimists negatively.
3. Experience- experience helps in perceiving things more accurately.

External factors

- 1.size- larger the size of the stimuli, more is the probability that it is perceived. Eg: a full page advertisement receives more attention than a few lines in a corner of the page.
2. Intensity- the more intense the stimuli, the more it is to be perceived. Eg: a loud noise, strong smell, bright colour etc.
3. Frequency/repetition- the repeated stimuli attracts more than a single one. That is the reason, advertisements are repeated more number of times.
4. Contrast- the stimuli which stands out against the background will receive more attention and perception will be better.
5. status- people with high status have more influence than the one having low status.
6. movement- moving objects attracts more attention than the static ones.

Process of perception



1. Receiving stimuli: stimuli is received through the sensory organs.
2. Selection of stimuli: not all the stimuli can be processed and therefore some of them are to be selected. Selection can be done by the following principles.
 - a. figure-ground- the stimuli is divided into two parts- figure and ground. The figure is given attention and the ground part is rejected.
 - b. Relevancy- people tend to consider only those which are relevant to them.

Organisation of stimuli

1. Grouping: according to the similarity- Eg: according to gender, locality, language, religion etc
2. Closure: completing the incomplete stimuli to make it meaningful
3. Simplification: to make the stimuli more understandable, simplify if they are complicated.

Interpretation

1. Halo effect: drawing conclusion by taking one single attribute. Eg: good looking people are good.
2. Stereo typing: judgements are made based on the traits of the group to which he/she belongs. EG: elderly women are motherly, aged are experienced, over-weight people are less disciplined.
3. Attribution: judging people based on cause-effect relationship. Eg: if a wealthy employee does over time, he is considered honest, and if a poor does over time, considered that he is doing it for money.

Factors influencing perception

1. Personality- secured v/s cold
2. Situation
3. Perceiver- the attitudes, motives, interests, experience
4. Action

How to improve perception

1. Accurate self perception
2. Improving self concept
3. Be empathetic
4. Have positive attitudes
5. Avoid perceptual distortions
6. Communicate openly

Distortion in perception

- Sometimes, certain factors lead to wrong perceptions. They are called distortions.
- They may be hallucinations or illusions
- Illusion: Eg: a rope may be perceived as a snake in the dark
- Hallucination: perception in the absence of any stimuli. Eg: a person claiming that he has seen ghost.

Attitude

- Attitude is a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way towards some objects, persons or events.
- “An enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive process with respect to some aspect of the individual world” – Krench and Crutchfield



Nature of attitude

1. Attitudes are related to the feelings and beliefs of people.
2. Attitudes respond to persons, objects or events.
3. Attitudes affect behaviour either positively or negatively.
4. Attitudes undergo changes.

Components

A. Group factors/components

- a) Family- the child learns attitudes from the family members. It is called socialisation process.
- b) Reference group- attitudes are learnt from the group to which an individual belong.
- c) Social class- the class to which an individual belong govern the behaviour pattern and also the general attitude.

B. Personality factors

research studies have revealed a positive relationship between personality factors and attitudes.

Formation and functions of attitudes

- There are mainly two sources for the formation of attitudes.

1. Direct experiences
2. Social learning

Direct experience:

- Attitudes are formed based on ones past experience.
- Attitudes derived from direct experience are more powerful, stronger, durable and are difficult to change.

Social learning:

- Attitudes learnt from family, peer groups, religion and culture.
- Learnt indirectly.

Values v/s attitudes

Attitudes	values
Attitudes exhibit pre disposition to respond	Values represent judgemental ideas like what is right
They refer to several beliefs relating to a specific object /situation	They represent a single belief focussed on objects/situations.
These are ones personal experiences	These are derived from social and cultural modes

Changing attitudes

- Techniques used for changing attitudes:
 1. Characteristics of attitudes
 2. The personality of the attitude holder
 3. The group affiliation of the attitude holder.

Characteristics of attitude:

1. Extremeness of attitude
2. Multiplicity
3. Consistency
4. The number and strength of the needs which are served by attitude
5. Interconnectedness
6. Certainty of related attitudes

Methods of attitude change

1. Communication of additional information
2. Approval and disapproval of a particular attitudes
3. Group influence
4. Inducing engagement in discrepant behaviour

In the organisational context,

1. Modifying reward systems in such a way that the reward is closely tied with individual or group performance.
2. Clearly defining employee's role
3. Setting challenging targets for those employees who are high achievers
4. Providing immediate feedback to employees about their job performance
5. Providing opportunities for employees to participate in decisions.
6. Exhibiting a caring attitude
7. Refraining from attacking the employee attitudes.

Unit III Motivation

- Meaning
- Process
- Theories: Maslow's, Herzberg's, Vroom's, Mc Gregor's
- Financial and non-financial incentives
- Group dynamics- meaning
- Types of groups
- Group behaviour
- Group norms
- Group cohesiveness
- Group effectiveness

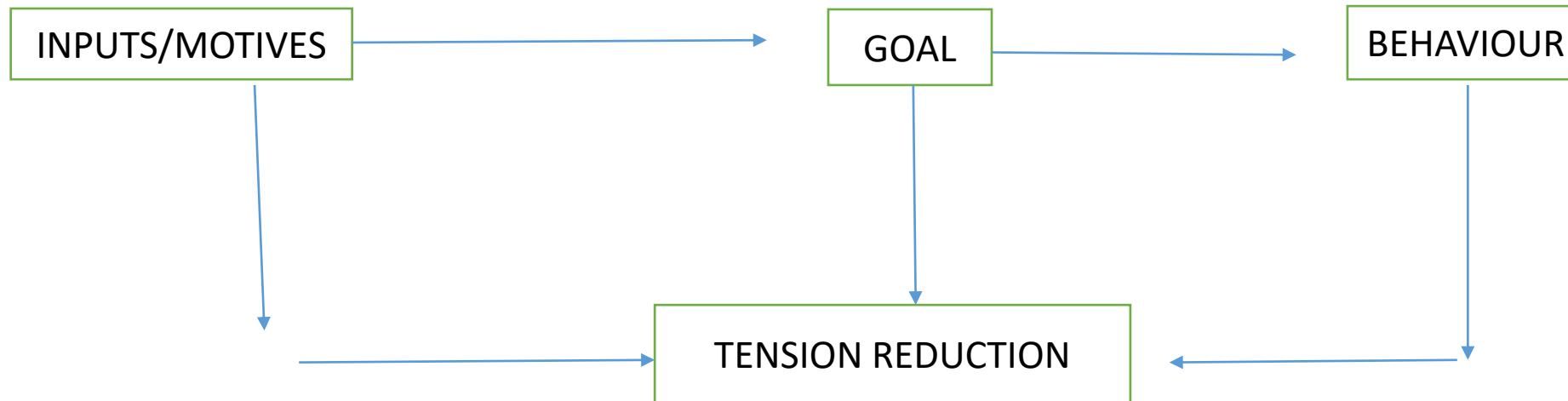
Motivation

- ‘Motivation’ is derived from the Latin word, ‘Mover’ which means ‘to move’.
- It is the inner state of mind that activates and directs our behaviour.
- “ Motivation is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive.” – Fred Luthans
- “Motivation is the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the effort and ability to satisfy some individual need.” – Stephen Robins

Nature of motivation

1. It is an internal feeling
2. A single motive can cause different behaviours- to gain prestige- one may join politics, get additional qualification change the style of external appearance etc.
3. Different motives may result in single behaviour.
4. Motives come and go
5. Motives interact with the environment

Process of motivation

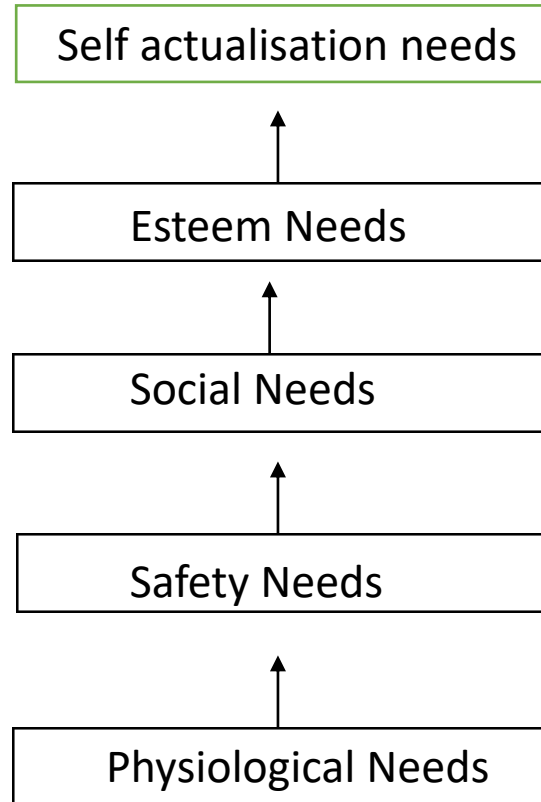


- Motives: motives prompt people to action.
- Goals: motives create a state of physiological or psychological imbalance. Attaining the goal restores balance.
- Behaviour: results in activities to be undertaken. It is directed to achieve the goal.

Theories of motivation

Maslow's need hierarchy theory

- Based on human needs
- All the needs are classified into a hierarchical order.



- Physiological needs: the basic needs for food, clothing, shelter, air and water. These needs are to be met first before any other need. After satisfying these needs, man thinks of the higher level needs.
- Safety needs: economic safety, protection from physiological danger, safety of the family, safety of work etc.
- Social needs: companionship, belongingness, socialisation at the work group and in the society.
- Esteem needs: refers to the self-esteem and self respect. Includes the needs which indicate self confidence, achievement, competence, knowledge and independence.
- Self-actualisation needs: represents the fulfilment of all the lower needs. It is the final step and refers fulfilment. Eg: a singer should sing, a soldier should fight a battle, a general should win a battle etc.

