**OB**

**Short Questions**

**Q.1.a**. Natures of OB: OB is a part of general management and not the whole of management. It represents behavioral approach to management. OB contains a body of theory, research and application associated with a growing concern for people at the work place. It helps in understanding human behaviour in work organizations.

**b.** Learning is the process of acquiring new, or modifying existing, knowledge, behaviors, skills, values, or preferences.

**c.** Abraham Maslow has given need hierarchy theory of Motivation.

**d.** Popular characteristics include shy, aggressive, submissive, lazy, ambitious, loyal, or timid. These characteristics, when they are exhibited in a large number of situations, are called Personality traits.

**e**. Perception is the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the presented information, or the environment.

**f**. Grapevine communication is informal workplace dialogue in its purest form: it is characterized by conversations between employees and superiors that do not follow any prescribed structure or rule-based system. Grapevine communication spreads rapidly and likely touches each person throughout the organization.

**g**. Conflict resolution techniques: avoidance or withdrawal, smoothing, compromising, competition, problem solving.

**h**. Transactional leadership is a style of leadership in which leaders promote compliance by followers through both rewards and punishments. Through a rewards and punishments system, transactional leaders are able to keep followers motivated for the short-term.

**i**. A performance appraisal is a regular review of an employee's job performance and overall contribution to a company. Also known as an "annual review," "performance review or evaluation," or "employee appraisal," a performance appraisal evaluates an employee's skills, achievements and growth, or lack thereof.

**j**. Revolution is fast and reversible - evolution is slow and irreversible. For organizations, the choice of revolutionary or evolutionary change is generally thrust upon them by powerful internal or external factors or a combined approach, by taking the revolutionary approach and then make evolutionary changes.

**Question No. 2**

**b.** Determinants of Personality

(1) Biological Factors:

Heredity: It means the transmission of the qualities such as physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition, reflexes etc, from the ancestors and parents to the descendants. Heredity is generally more important in determining a person’s temperament than his values and ideals.

Brain: There is a general feeling that brain plays an important role in the development of one’s personality. However, no conclusive proof is available so far about the nature of relationship between the brain and personality.

Physical features: An individual’s external appearance may have a tremendous effect on his personality. Such factors include height, weight, colour, facial features, etc. of the individual.

Family and Social factors: The development of individual’s personality is also influenced by his family and other social groups. The infant acquires those behaviour patterns that are customary and acceptable to the standards of the family and the community where the family lives. The status of the family in the society influences individual’s perception about self, others, work, money, etc.,

(3) Situational factors: An individual’s personality may change in different situations. The demands of different situations may call for different aspects of one’s personality. Therefore, we should not look at the personality factor in isolation.

(4) Other factors:

1. Temperament: Temperament is the degree to which one responds emotionally.

Interest: An Individual normally has many interests in various areas. The successful persons in the same occupation have to a large extent, the same interests.

Character: Character primarily means honesty. It is resistance to stealing and cheating others.

Schema: It is an individual’s belief, frame of reference, perception and attitude which the individual possesses towardss the management, the job, working conditions, pay, fringe benefits, incentive system, and development programmes in the organization.

Motives: Motives are the inner drives of an individual. They represent goal directed behaviour of individual.

**2. c**. **Classical conditioning:** Classical conditioning deals with the association of one event with another desired event resulting in a desired behaviour or learning. It is a type of conditioning where an individual responds to some stimulus that would invariably produce such a response. Learning through classical conditioning was first studied by Ivan Pavlov, a famed Nobel Prize winning Physiologist, at the turn of the 20th century.

Pavlov conducted an experiment on a dog to study the relation between the dog’s salivation and the ringing of a bell. A simple surgical procedure helped him to measure accurately the amount of saliva secreted by the dog. When Pavlov presented a piece of meat to the dog, he noticed a great deal of salivation. He termed the food an unconditioned response. When the dog saw the meat, it salivated. During the second stage, Pavlov merely rang a bell (neutral stimuls), the dog did not salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of the bell each time the meat was given to the dog. Thus meat and ringing of the bell were linked together. The dog eventually learnt to salivate in response to the ringing of the bell even when there was no meat. Pavlov conditioned the dog to respond to a learned stimulus.

Thorndike called this the “law of exercise” which states that behaviour can be learned by repetitive association between a stimulus and a response.

Classical conditioning represents only a very small part of total human learning. So it has a limited value in the study of organizational behaviour. In the words of S.P.Robbins, “Classical conditioning is passive”. Something happens and we react in a specific or particular way. It is elicited in response to a specific identifiable event and as such it explains simple and reflexible behaviours. But behaviour of people in organizations is emitted rather than elicited.

**Fig: Stages in classical conditioning**

I Before conditioning

US UR

(Meat) (salivation)

Neutral stimulus No response

(Bell)

II During conditioning

CS

(Bell)

US UR

(Meat) (salivation)

III After conditioning

CS CR

(Bell) (salivation)

**2.f**. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**:** Abraham Maslow thought that a person’s motivational needs can be arranged in a hierarchical manner. In essence, he believed that once a given level of need is satisfied, it no longer serves to motivate. The next higher level of need has to be activated in order to motivate the individual Maslow identified five levels in his need hierarchy.

Self - actualization

Esteem Needs

Love Needs

Safety Needs

Physiological Needs

**Fig.14 Maslow’s hierarchy of Needs**

**1. Physiological needs:** The needs of hunger, thirst, sleep and sex are physiological needs. According to the theory, once these basic needs are satisfied, they no longer motivate.

**2. Safety needs:** Maslow stressed emotional as well as physical safety. The whole organization may become a safety – seeking mechanism. For example, membership in a trade union is a safety need. Once these safety needs are satisfied, they no longer motivate.

**3. Love needs:** Maslow’s use of the word love has many misleading connotations, such as sex, which is actually a physiological need. Perhaps a more appropriate word describing this level would be belongingness or affiliation. Membership in formal and informal work groups is a belongingness need.

**4. Esteem needs:** The esteem level represents the higher needs of humans. The needs for power, achievement, and status can be considered to be part of this level.

**5. Needs for self – actualization:** This level represents the culmination of all the lower, intermediate, and higher needs of humans. People, who have become self – actualized, are self fulfilled and have realized all their potential. Self – actualization is the person’s motivation to transform perception of self into reality.

**Alderfer’s ERG Theory**

The most recent extension of the Herzberg and, especially, the Maslow content theories of work motivation come from the work of Clayton Alderfer. He formulated a need category model that was more in line with the existing empirical evidence. Similar to Maslow and Herzberg, he does feel that there is value in categorizing needs and that here is basic distinction between lower – order needs and higher order needs.

Alderfer identified three groups of core needs; Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (hence ERG theory). The existence needs are concerned with survival (physiological Well-being). The relatedness needs stress the importance of interpersonal, social relationships. The growth needs are concerned with the individual’s intrinsic desire for personal development.

Fig . Shows how these groups of needs are related to the Maslow and Herzberg categories. Obviously, they are very close but the ERG needs do not have strict lines of democration.

Herzberg’s Maslow’s Alderfer’s

Two factors Hierarchy of Needs ERG Needs

RELATEDNESS

SELF – ACTUALIZATION

ESTEEM

LOVE

SAFETY

PHYSIOLOGICAL

MOTIVATORS

HYGIENE FACTORS

GROWTH

EXISTENCE

Figure 16: The relationship between Alderfer’s ERG Needs, Maslow’s Five – level

hierarchy, and Herzberg’s two – factor theory.

Alderfer is suggesting more of a continuous of needs than hierarchical levels or two factors of prepotency needs. Unlike Maslow and Herzberg, he does not contend that a lower level need has to be fulfilled before a higher level need is motivating. For example, under ERG theory the person’s background or cultural environment may dictate that the relatedness needs will take precedence cover unfulfilled existence needs and that the more the growth needs are satisfied, the more they will increase in intensity.

## 2. e. Importance of Perception

Perception is a subjective, active and creative process through which we assign meaning to sensory information to understand ourselves and others. It can be defined as our recognition and interpretation of sensory information. It also includes how we respond to the information.

It is the process by which an organism detects and interprets information from the external world by means of the sensory receptors. It is our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli.

Through the perceptual process, we gain information about the properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival.

Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us; it allows us to act within our environment.

1. Perception is very important in understanding human behavior because every person perceives the world and approaches life problems differently. Whatever we see or feel is not necessarily the same as it really is. When we buy something, it is not because it is the best, but because we take it to be the best.
2. If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behavior in the changed circumstances by understanding their present perception of the environment. One person may be viewing the facts in one way which may be different from the facts as seen by another viewer.
3. With the help of perception, the needs of various people can be determined, because people’s perception is influenced by their needs.
4. Perception is very important for the manager who wants to avoid making errors when dealing with people and events in the work setting. This problem is made more complicated by the fact that different people perceive the same situation differently. In order to deal with the subordinates effectively, the managers must understand their perceptions properly.
5. Perception can be important because it offers more than objective output; it ingests an observation and manufactures an altered reality enriched with previous experiences.

# 2. h. Difference between Recruitment and Selection

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Basis | Recruitment | Selection |
| Meaning | It is an activity of establishing contact between employers and applicants. | It is a process of picking up more competent and suitable employees. |
| Objective | It encourages large number of Candidates for a job. | It attempts at rejecting unsuitable candidates. |
| Process | It is a simple process. | It is a complicated process. |
| Hurdles | The candidates have not to cross over many hurdles. | Many hurdles have to be crossed. |
| Approach | It is a positive approach. | It is a negative approach. |
| Sequence | It precedes selection. | It follows recruitment. |
| Economy | It is an economical method. | It is an expensive method. |
| Time Consuming | Less time is required. | More time is required. |

**2.i.** Organisational culture is the set of important understandings, such as norms, values, attitudes, and beliefs, shared by organisational members. The essential core of organisational culture is system of shared meaning among members. Organisational climate has strong impact on the performance of the organisation. It has basic elements of culture and they are artifacts, espoused values and basic assumptions. It is expressed in terms of norms, values, attitudes and beliefs shared by organisational members. Organisational culture has its key functions and they include sense of identity, enhancement of commitment and reinforcement of behaviour.   
The primary characteristics of an organisational culture are as follows: -  
 Innovation and Risk Taking: It can be described as the degree or extent to which employees are encouraged to take innovative steps and calculated risk.

* + Attention to Detail: It can be described as degree or extent to which employees are expected to pay attention to details.
  + Outcome Orientation: It can be described as the degree or extent to which management focuses outcome rather than on process to achieve outcome.
  + People Orientation: It can be described as the degree or extent to which management gives attention to effect of decisions on people working in the organisation and on its shareholders.
  + Team Orientation: It can be described as the degree or extent to which works are organised around team rather than individuals.
  + Aggressiveness: It can be described as the degree or extent to which people are aggressive or competitive rather than unconcerned or relaxed.
  + Stability: It can be described as the degree or extent to which maintaining status quo is emphasized in contrast to growth.

## 2.k. Barriers to Effective Communication

Common sources of noise are explained in this section. How many of these examples can you remember affecting your conversations with friends, classmates, or coworkers?

### Physical Conditions

Sometimes “noise” is just exactly that—loud or distracting sounds that make it impossible to hear or concentrate. Or the general level of background noise can be so intense that it is hard to focus for long on one particular voice.

### Filtering

Personal and particular experiences color how people view the world and how they communicate. A message sender sees the world through one set of filters (experiences and values) and the receiver sees it through a different set of filters.

### Selective Perception

Selective perception is the tendency to either “under notice” or “over focus on” stimuli that cause emotional discomfort or contradict prior beliefs. For instance, some people live purposefully healthy lifestyles by frequently exercising and eating only nutritious food but still smoke cigarettes.

### Information Overload

We have all been in situations when we felt that too much information was coming at us. When this happens, we feel overwhelmed and fear that we will not be able to retain any information at all. Sometimes it is not just the quantity of communication but the level that causes overload. If the message contains information that is new to the receiver, including processes or concepts that are not familiar, then the chances of overload increase greatly.

### Semantics

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words and phrases. You might hear one person say to another “Let’s not argue semantics,” meaning he doesn’t want to get caught up in trivial and unimportant details or playing with words.

### Denotation and Connotation

Some words have a connotation for one group of people that is not shared by another. “That’s sick!” could be a compliment or an insult, depending upon the listener. (You probably already know that slang does not belong in written business communications.) Fortunately for all of us, paying attention to the context of the message often reduces confusion

### Emotional Disconnects

Almost the first thing parents learn is never to try to have a rational discussion with a screaming toddler or an angry teenager.

**LONG QUESTIONS**

### Q.4. What is A Group?

Every organization is a group unto itself. A group refers to two or more people who share a common meaning and evaluation of themselves and come together to achieve common goals. In other words, a group is a collection of people who interact with one another; accept rights.

### Types of Groups:

One way to classify the groups is by way of formality – formal and informal. While formal groups are established by an organization to achieve its goals, informal groups merge spontaneously. Formal groups may take the form of command groups, task groups, and functional groups.

#### 1. Command Groups:

Command groups are specified by the organizational chart and often consist of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to that supervisor. An example of a command group is a market research firm CEO and the research associates under him.

#### 2. Task Groups:

Task groups consist of people who work together to achieve a common task. Members are brought together to accomplish a narrow range of goals within a specified time period. Task groups are also commonly referred to as task forces. The organization appoints members and assigns the goals and tasks to be accomplished.

Examples of assigned tasks are the development of a new product, the improvement of a production process, or designing the syllabus under semester system.

Other common task groups are ad hoc committees, project groups, and standing committees. Ad hoc committees are temporary groups created to resolve a specific complaint or develop a process are normally disbanded after the group completes the assigned task.

#### 3. Functional Groups:

A functional group is created by the organization to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional groups remain in existence after achievement of current goals and objectives. Examples of functional groups would be a marketing department, a customer service department, or an accounting department.

### Factors Affecting Group Behaviour:

The success or failure of a group depends upon so many factors. Group member resources, structure (group size, group roles, group norms, and group cohesiveness), group processes (the communication, group decision making processes, power dynamics, conflicting interactions, etc.) and group tasks (complexity and interdependence).

#### 1. Group Member Resources:

The members’ knowledge, abilities, skills; and personality characteristics (sociability, self- reliance, and independence) are the resources the group members bring in with them. The success depends upon these resources as useful to the task.

#### 2. Group Structure:

**Group Size:**

Group size can vary from 2 people to a very large number of people. Small groups of two to ten are thought to be more effective because each member has ample opportunity to take part and engage actively in the group. Large groups may waste time by deciding on processes and trying to decide who should participate next.

Evidence supports the notion that as the size of the group increases, satisfaction increases up to a certain point. Increasing the size of a group beyond 10-12 members’ results in decreased satisfaction. It is increasingly difficult for members of large groups to identify with one another and experience cohesion.

**Group Roles**:

In formal groups, roles are always predetermined and assigned to members. Each role shall have specific responsibilities and duties. There are, however, emergent roles that develop naturally to meet the needs of the groups.

These emergent roles will often substitute the assigned roles as individuals begin to express themselves and become more assertive. Group roles can then be classified into work roles, maintenance roles, and blocking roles.

Work roles are task-oriented activities that involve accomplishing the group’s goals. They involve a variety of specific roles such as initiator, informer, clarifier, summarizer, and reality tester.

**Group Norms**:

Norms define the acceptable standard or boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, shared by group members. They are typically created in order to facilitate group survival, make behaviour more predictable, avoid embarrassing situations, and express the values of the group.

Each group will create its own norms that might determine from the work performance to dress to making comments in a meeting. Groups exert pressure on members to force them to conform to the group’s standards and at times not to perform at higher levels. The norms often reflect the level of commitment, motivation, and performance of the group.

The majority of the group must agree that the norms are appropriate in order for the behaviour to be accepted. There must also be a shared understanding that the group supports the norms. It should be noted, however, that members might violate group norms from time to time.

If the majority of members do not adhere to the norms, then they will eventually change and will no longer serve as a standard for evaluating behaviour. Group members who do not conform to the norms will be punished by being excluded, ignored, or asked to leave the group.

**Q.6.Leadership Theories**

Interest in leadership increased during the early part of the twentieth century. Early leadership theories focused on what qualities distinguished between leaders and followers, while subsequent theories looked at other variables such as situational factors and skill levels. Several theoretical approaches have been developed to explain leadership. However, although many different leadership theories have emerged, most can be classified into one of the following major types. It is important to recognize, however, that these leadership theories are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

* Trait theories
* Behavioural theories
* Situational contingency theories
* Participative theories
* Transactional theories
* Transformational theories

**Trait theories**: [Trait theories](http://psychology.about.com/od/theoriesofpersonality/a/trait-theory.htm) assume that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioural characteristics shared by leaders. It is the earliest approach used to study leadership, having been first used more than a century ago. Initially, the focus was on which traits differentiated “great persons” from the masses. Later studies that used this approach examined differences between leaders and non-leaders as well as trait predictions of outcomes. However, the findings were inconsistent.

More recent research has produced more promising results. Several traits that help identify important leadership strengths have been identified and most of these traits also tend to predict leadership outcomes (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991; House and Aditya, 1997; Yukl, 1998). A sample of these identified traits with positive implications for successful leadership is presented below.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| * Energy and adjustment or stress tolerance | * Integrity |
| * Prosocial power motivation | * Perseverance or tenacity |
| * Achievement orientation | * Cognitive ability, social intelligence |
| * Emotional maturity | * Flexibility |
| * Self-confidence |  |

**Behavioural theories**: Behavioural theories of leadership focus on the actions of leaders not on mental qualities or internal states. According to this theoretical approach, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation. Behavioural theories emphasize what leaders actually do on the job and the relationship of this behaviour to leader effectiveness. Two major lines of behaviour research are (1) the classification of leadership behaviours into taxonomies and (2) the identification of behaviours related to criteria of leadership effectiveness.

In the 1940s and 1950s, researchers at both the University of Michigan and the Ohio State University sought to identify the leadership behaviours that result in effective performance. Although there were slight differences in the findings of both research groups, the results revealed that subordinates perceive the behaviour of their leader primarily in terms of two independent categories, one dealing with people-oriented behaviours (*consideration*) and the other with task-oriented behaviours (*initiating structure*). A highly considerate leader is sensitive to people’s feelings and tries to make things pleasant for his or her followers. On the other hand, a leader who is high in initiating structure is more concerned about defining task requirements and other aspects of the work agenda. Subsequent research indicated that effective leaders should be high in both consideration and initiating structure behaviours (e.g., Schriesheim, Cogliser, & Neider, 1995).

More recently, Yukl, Wall, and Lepsinger (1990) presented a detailed taxonomy of effective leadership behaviours which included the following 11 categories of behaviour applicable to any leader.

**Situational Contingency Theories**: The trait and behavioural perspectives assume that leadership, by itself, has a strong impact on outcomes. Another development in leadership thinking recognizes, however, that outcomes may be more accurately predicted when leader traits and behaviours are considered in relation to situational contingencies—other important aspects of the leadership situation.

For example, according to House’s (1971) **Path-Goal Theory**, the most important activities of leaders are those that clarify the paths to various goals of interest to subordinates. Such goals might include a promotion, a sense of accomplishment, or a pleasant work climate. In turn, the opportunity to achieve such goals should promote job satisfaction, acceptance of the leader, and high work effort. In this way, the effective leader forms a connection between subordinates’ goals and the organization’s goals. The theory assumes that a leader’s key function is to adjust his/her behaviours by providing what is missing in the situational contingencies, such as those in the work setting. Aspects of the situation such as the nature of the task, the work environment, and subordinate attributes (e.g., ability) determine the optimal amount of each type of leader behaviour (directive, supportive, achievement-oriented, and participative) for improving subordinate satisfaction and performance.

**Fiedler’s contingency theory:** This theory of leadership effectiveness was based on studies of a wide range of group effectiveness, and concentrated on the relationship between leadership and organizational performance. This is one of the earliest situation-contingent leadership theories given by Fiedler. According to him, if an organization attempts to achieve group effectiveness through leadership, then there is a need to assess the leader according to an underlying trait, assess the situation faced by the leader, and construct a proper match between the two.

### Leader’s trait

In order to assess the attitudes of the leader, Fiedler developed the ‘least preferred co-worker’ (LPC) scale in which the leaders are asked about the person with whom they least like to work. The scale is a questionnaire consisting of 16 items used to reflect a leader’s underlying disposition toward others. The items in the LPC scale are pleasant / unpleasant, friendly / unfriendly, rejecting / accepting, unenthusiastic / enthusiastic, tense / relaxed, cold / warm, helpful / frustrating, cooperative / uncooperative, supportive / hostile, quarrelsome / harmonious, efficient / inefficient, gloomy / cheerful, distant / close, boring / interesting, self-assured / hesitant, open / guarded. Each item in the scale is given a single ranking of between one and eight points, with eight points indicating the most favorable rating.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Friendly** |  | | | | | | | | **Unfriendly** |
| **8** | **7** | **6** | **5** | **4** | **3** | **2** | **1** |

Fiedler states that leaders with high LPC scores are relationship-oriented and the ones with low scores are task-oriented. The high LPC score leaders derived most satisfaction from interpersonal relationships and therefore evaluate their least preferred co-workers in fairly favorable terms. These leaders think about the task accomplishment only after the relationship need is well satisfied. On the other hand, the low LPC score leaders derived satisfaction from performance of the task and attainment of objectives and only after tasks have been accomplished, these leaders work on establishing good social and interpersonal relationships.

### Situational factor

According to Fiedler, a leader’s behavior is dependent upon the favorability of the leadership situation. Three factors work together to determine how favorable a situation is to a leader. These are:

* **Leader-member relations -** The degree to which the leaders is trusted and liked by the group members, and the willingness of the group members to follow the leader’s guidance
* **Task structure -** The degree to which the group’s task has been described as structured or unstructured, has been clearly defined and the extent to which it can be carried out by detailed instructions
* **Position power -** The power of the leader by virtue of the organizational position and the degree to which the leader can exercise authority on group members in order to comply with and accept his direction and leadership

With the help of these three variables, eight combinations of group-task situations were constructed by Fiedler. These combinations were used to identify the style of the leader.