

Unit 1

Introduction to ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Meaning:

Meaning of Organizational Behavior

Organizational Behavior (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact of individuals, groups, and structures on behavior within organizations. It aims to apply such knowledge to improve organizational effectiveness.

Key Points:

1. **Definition:**

- Fred Luthans (2010): "Organizational Behavior is the understanding, prediction, and management of human behavior in organizations."
- Robbins (2012): "OB is the systematic study of the actions and attitudes of people within organizations."

2. **Purpose:**

- Enhance understanding of how people behave in different organizational settings.
- Improve organizational performance by managing human behavior effectively.

3. **Scope:**

- Includes studying individual behavior, group dynamics, organizational culture, communication, leadership, motivation, and decision-making.

Definition of organisational behaviour

According to Keith Davis "organizational behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organizations. It is human tool for the human benefit. It applies broadly to behaviour of people in all type of organization such as business, government, schools, etc. it helps people, structure, technology, and the external environment blend together in to an effective operative system".

Stephen Robins defines as a "field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have an organization for the purpose of applying such knowledge improving an organization's effectiveness".

There are many definitions about organisational behaviour; every definition must include three important features, (1) organisational behaviour is the study of human behaviour, (2) study

about behaviour in organisations and (3) knowledge about human behaviour would be useful in improving an organisation's effectiveness.

Organisational behaviour is the study of what an individual thinks feels or does in and around an organisation, both individual and in group. It investigates people's emotions and behaviour, behaviour & performances in a team, systems & structures of organisations. It helps to explore and provide an understanding of all the factors that are necessary to create an effective organisation.

NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational behaviour has emerged as a separate field of study. The nature it has acquired is identified as follows :

1. A Separate Field of Study and not a Discipline Only

By definition, a discipline is an accepted science that is based on a theoretical foundation. But, O.B. has a multi-interdisciplinary orientation and is, thus, not based on a specific theoretical background. Therefore, it is better reasonable to call O.B. a separate field of study rather than a discipline only.

2. An Interdisciplinary Approach

Organizational behaviour is essentially an interdisciplinary approach to study human behaviour at work. It tries to integrate the relevant knowledge drawn from related disciplines like psychology, sociology and anthropology to make them applicable for studying and analysing organizational behaviour.

3. An Applied Science

The very nature of O.B. is applied. What O.B. basically does is the application of various researches to solve the organizational problems related to human behaviour. The basic line of difference between pure science and O.B. is that while the former concentrates of fundamental researches, the latter concentrates on applied researches. O.B. involves both applied research and its application in organizational analysis. Hence, O.B. can be called both science as well as art.

4. A Normative Science

Organizational Behaviour is a normative science also. While the positive science discusses only cause effect relationship, O.B. prescribes how the findings of applied researches can be applied to socially accepted organizational goals. Thus, O.B. deals with what is accepted by individuals and society engaged in an organization. Yes, it is not that O.B. is not normative at all. In fact, O.B. is normative as well that is well underscored by the proliferation of management theories.

5. A Humanistic and Optimistic Approach

Organizational Behaviour applies humanistic approach towards people working in the organization. It, deals with the thinking and feeling of human beings. O.B. is based on the belief that people have an innate desire to be independent, creative and productive. It also realizes that people working in the organization can and will actualize these potentials if they are given proper conditions and environment. Environment affects performance of workers working in an organization.

6. A Total System Approach

The system approach is one that integrates all the variables, affecting organizational functioning. The systems approach has been developed by the behavioural scientists to analyse human behaviour in view of his/her socio-psychological framework.

SCOPE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The three internal organizational elements viz., people, technology and structure and the fourth element, i.e., external social systems may be taken as the scope of O.B.

1. People

The people constitute the internal social system of the organization. They consist of individuals and groups. Groups may be large or small, formal or informal, official or unofficial. They are dynamic. They form, change and disband. Human organization changes everyday. Today, it is not the same as it was yesterday. It may change further in the coming days. People are living, thinking and feeling being who created the organization and try to achieve the objectives and goals. Thus, organizations exist to serve the people and not the people exist to serve the organization.

2. Structure

Structure defines the sole relationship of people in an organization. Different people in an organization are given different roles and they have certain relationship with others. It leads to division of labour so that people can perform their duties or work to accomplish the organizational goal. Thus, everybody cannot be an accountant or a clerk. Work is complex and different duties are to be performed by different people. Some may be accountant, others may be managers, clerks, peons or workers. All are so related to each other to accomplish the goal in a co-ordinated manner. Thus, structure relates to power and duties. One has the authority and others have a duty to obey him.

3. Technology

Technology imparts the physical and economic conditions within which people work. With their bare hands people can do nothing so they are given assistance of buildings, machines, tools, processes and resources. The nature of technology depends very much on the nature of the organization and influences the work or working conditions. Thus, technology brings effectiveness and at the same restricts people in various ways.

4. Social System

Social system provides external environment which the organization operates. A single organization cannot exist also. It is a part of the whole. One organization cannot give everything and therefore, there are many other organizations. All these organizations influence each other. It influences the attitudes of people, their working conditions and above all provides competition for resources and power.

O.B. is the study of human behaviour at work in organizations. Accordingly, the scope of O.B. includes the study of individuals, groups and organization/structure. Let us briefly reflect on what aspects each of these three cover.

Individuals

Organizations are the associations of individuals. Individuals differ in many respects. The study of individuals, therefore, includes aspects such as personality, perception, attitudes, values, job satisfaction, learning and motivation.

Groups of Individuals

Groups include aspects such as group dynamics, group conflicts, communication, leadership, power and politics and the like.

Functions of Organizational Behavior

Organizational Behavior (OB) helps in understanding and improving human behavior within organizations. Its main functions include:

1. Understanding Human Behavior:

- Helps managers comprehend individual and group behavior.
- Provides insights into employee attitudes, motivation, and performance.

2. Improving Interpersonal Relations:

- Encourages better communication, cooperation, and conflict resolution.
- Strengthens team dynamics and fosters collaboration.

3. Motivation and Leadership:

- Guides managers in implementing motivational strategies.
- Assists in identifying leadership styles suitable for different situations.

4. Organizational Change and Development:

- Supports managing organizational change effectively.
- Provides tools for ensuring smooth transitions during restructuring or innovation.

5. Enhancing Productivity:

- Identifies factors affecting employee productivity.
- Helps in creating strategies to maximize efficiency and output.

6. Decision-Making:

- Analyzes behavioral patterns that influence decision-making processes.
- Aids in fostering participative and informed decision-making.

7. Cultural and Ethical Management:

- Focuses on maintaining ethical practices within the organization.

- Promotes a culture that aligns with organizational goals.

Organizing Process

The organizing process involves arranging resources and activities in a structured manner to achieve organizational objectives. The steps include:

1. Identification of Objectives:

- Clearly define the organization's goals and objectives.
- Ensures alignment of resources and activities with these goals.

2. Division of Work:

- Break down tasks into smaller, manageable units.
- Assign responsibilities to individuals or teams.

3. Departmentalization:

- Group related activities into departments or divisions.
- Facilitates specialization and efficiency.

4. Assignment of Authority and Responsibility:

- Delegate authority to individuals based on their roles.
- Ensure accountability for tasks performed.

5. Coordination:

- Establish mechanisms for integrating activities across departments.
- Avoid duplication of efforts and ensure smooth workflow.

6. Evaluation and Feedback:

- Monitor organizational activities to ensure they align with objectives.
- Provide feedback for improvements where necessary.

Making Organizing Effective

To ensure that organizing is effective, consider the following principles and practices:

1. Clarity of Objectives:

- Clearly communicate organizational goals to all employees.
- Ensure that every team member understands their role in achieving these goals.

2. Appropriate Structure:

- Design a structure that suits the organization's size, complexity, and objectives.
- Avoid overly rigid or excessively flexible structures.

3. Proper Delegation:

- Delegate tasks effectively to avoid overburdening managers.
- Ensure employees have the authority and resources to perform their roles.

4. Unity of Command:

- Ensure each employee reports to a single superior.
- Prevent confusion caused by conflicting instructions.

5. Effective Communication:

- Establish open channels of communication.
- Use feedback mechanisms to address issues promptly.

6. Flexibility:

- Incorporate flexibility to adapt to changes in the business environment.
- Regularly review and update organizational processes and structures.

7. Employee Involvement:

- Involve employees in decision-making processes.
- Foster a sense of ownership and commitment toward organizational goals.

8. Coordination and Integration:

- Ensure all departments and individuals work in harmony.
- Use tools like cross-functional teams and integrated systems to improve coordination.

Understanding Individual Behavior

Individual behavior refers to how a person acts within an organization based on personal traits, attitudes, and perceptions. Studying this behavior helps managers predict and influence workplace outcomes.

Attitude

Attitude refers to a psychological tendency expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor. It is a crucial determinant of behavior in organizations.

Components of Attitude (ABC Model):

1. **Affective Component:**
 - Refers to emotions or feelings associated with an object or situation.
 - Example: Feeling happy about a promotion.
2. **Behavioral Component:**
 - Refers to the tendency to behave in a certain way based on attitude.
 - Example: Working harder after receiving recognition.
3. **Cognitive Component:**
 - Refers to beliefs or thoughts about an object or situation.
 - Example: Believing that teamwork improves productivity.

Types of Attitudes in Organizations:

1. **Job Satisfaction:**
 - Reflects an employee's positive or negative feelings about their job.
 - Higher satisfaction often leads to improved performance and reduced turnover.
2. **Organizational Commitment:**
 - Indicates an employee's loyalty and attachment to the organization.
 - Includes affective commitment (emotional attachment) and continuance commitment (perceived cost of leaving).
3. **Work Engagement:**
 - Refers to the level of enthusiasm and dedication an employee shows toward their work.
4. **Attitude Toward Change:**
 - Reflects how employees perceive and react to organizational changes.

Functions of Attitude:

1. **Knowledge Function:**
 - Helps individuals make sense of their environment.
 - Example: Employees use past experiences to evaluate new tasks.
2. **Instrumental Function:**
 - Guides behavior to achieve goals or avoid unpleasant outcomes.
 - Example: Developing a positive attitude toward teamwork to secure a promotion.
3. **Ego-Defensive Function:**
 - Protects self-esteem by justifying actions or beliefs.
 - Example: Blaming external factors for a missed deadline.
4. **Value-Expressive Function:**
 - Reflects personal values and self-identity.
 - Example: Supporting environmentally friendly practices due to personal beliefs.

PERCEPTION

Perception (from the Latin perceptio) is the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the presented information, or the environment.

Perception is our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and action in response to these stimuli. Through the perceptual process, we gain information about properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival.

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

- i) In the perceiver
- ii) In the Object or target being perceived or
- iii) In the context of the situation in which the perception is made.

1. Characteristics of the Perceiver: Several characteristics of the perceiver can affect perception. When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she stands for, that

interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of the individual perceiver. The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are:

a) **Attitudes:** The perceiver's attitudes affect perception. For example, Mr. X is interviewing candidates for a very important position in his organization - a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male. Mr. X may feel that women are not capable of holding their own in tough negotiations. This attitude without doubt affects his perceptions of the female candidates he interviews.

b) **Moods:** Moods can have a strong influence on the way we perceive someone. We think differently when we are happy than we do when we are depressed. In addition, we remember information that is consistent with our mood state better than information that is inconsistent with our mood state. When in a positive mood, we form more positive impressions of others. When in a negative mood, we tend to evaluate others unfavourably.

c) **Motives:** Unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perceptions. For example, in an organizational context, a boss who is insecure perceives a subordinate's efforts to do an outstanding job as a threat to his or her own position. Personal insecurity can be translated into the perception that others are out to "get my job", regardless of the intention of the subordinates.

d) **Self - Concept:** Another factor that can affect social perception is the perceiver's self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person. In contrast, a negative self-concept can lead a perceiver to pick out negative traits in another person. Greater understanding of self allows us to have more accurate perceptions of others.

e) **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. For example, the supervisor who has just been reprimanded by his boss for coming late is more likely to notice his colleagues coming late tomorrow than he did last week.

f) **Cognitive structure:** Cognitive structure, an individual's pattern of thinking, also affects perception. Some people have a tendency to perceive physical traits, such as height, weight, and

appearance, more readily. Cognitive complexity allows a person to perceive multiple characteristics of another person rather than attending to just a few traits.

g) **Expectations:** Finally, expectations can distort your perceptions in that you will see what you expect to see. The research findings of the study conducted by Sheldon S Zalking and Timothy W Costello on some specific characteristics of the perceiver reveal

i) Knowing oneself makes it easier to see others accurately.

ii) One's own characteristics affect the characteristics one is likely to see in other.

iii) People who accept themselves are more likely to be able to see favourable aspects of other people.

iv) Accuracy in perceiving others is not a single skill. These four characteristics greatly influence how a person perceives other in the environmental situation.

2) **Characteristics of the Target :** Characteristics in the target that is being observed can affect what is perceived. Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. Extremely attractive or unattractive individuals are more likely to be noticed in a group than ordinary looking individuals. Motions, sound, size and other attributes of a target shape the way we see it. Verbal Communication from targets also affects our perception of them. Nonverbal communication conveys a great deal of information about the target. The perceiver deciphers eye contact, facial expressions, body movements, and posture all in an attempt to form an impression of the target.

3) **Characteristics of the Situation:** The situation in which the interaction between the perceiver and the target takes place, has an influence on the perceiver's impression of the target. The strength of the situational cues also affects social perception. Some situations provide strong cues as to appropriate behaviour. In this situation, we assume that + i.e individual's behaviours can be accounted for by the situation, and that it may not reflect the individual's disposition.

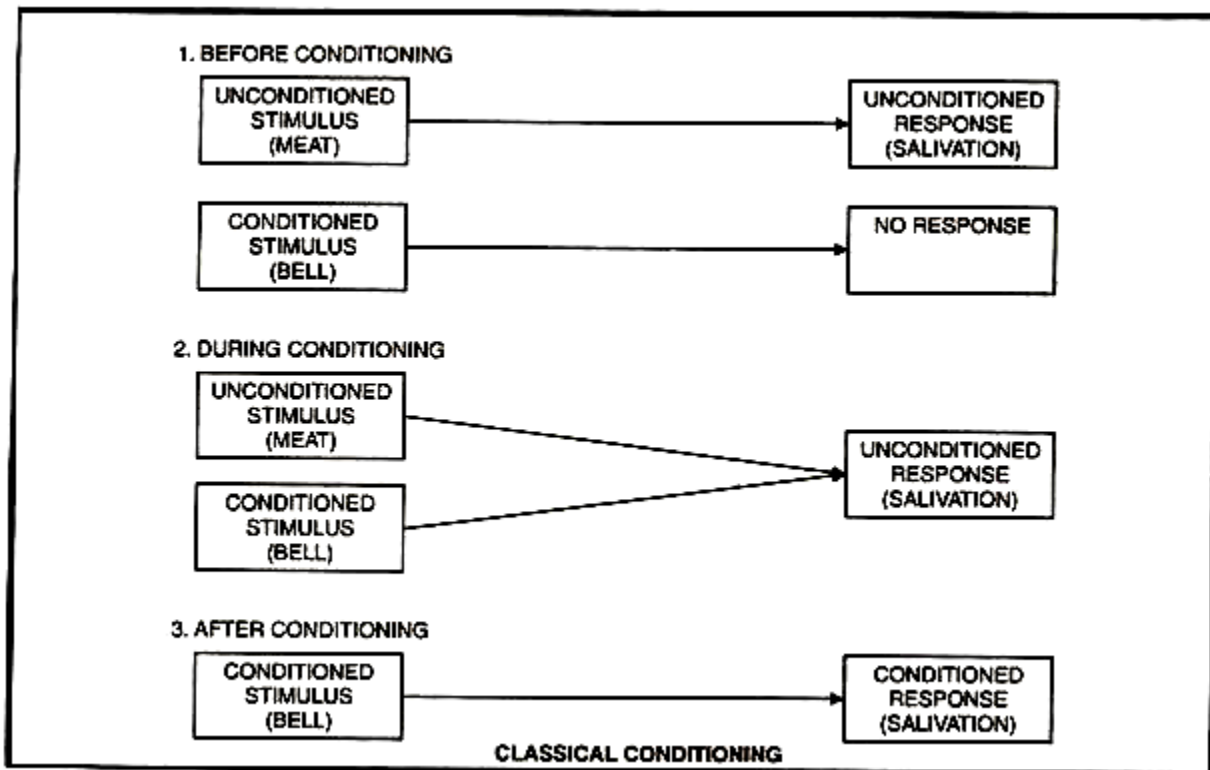
LEARNING

Learning can be defined as the permanent change in behaviour due to direct or indirect experience. It means change in behaviour, attitude due to education and training, practice and experience. It is completed by acquisition of knowledge and skills which are relatively permanent.

THEORIES OF LEARNING

1. Classical Conditioning:

Classical conditioning is the association of one event with another desired event resulting in a behaviour. The most well known experiments on classical conditioning were conducted by Ivan Pavlov, the Russian psychologist, who won the Nobel Prize for his experiments on this subject. Pavlov conducted an experiment on dogs and tried to establish a Stimulus-Response (S-R) connection. He tried to relate the dog's salivation and the ringing of the bell. In his experiments, he put some meat in front of dogs.



The dogs responded to this stimulus by salivating. This response was instinctive or unconditioned. Pavlov next began to ring a bell at the same time as the meat was presented. Ringing the bell in itself, without the presentation of meat, was not connected to any responses.

Classical conditioning



But by ringing the bell at the same time as presentation of meat, Pavlov established a relationship between the two stimuli-the bell and the meat- in the mind of the dogs. By continuing this process, the ringing of bell alone was sufficient stimulus to elicit a response of salivating, even when no meat was presented. Thus, the bell became a conditioned stimulus, resulting in conditioned or learned response.

The above diagram explains that the meat was an unconditioned stimulus. It caused the dog to react in a certain way i.e. noticeable increase in salivation. This reaction is called the unconditioned response. The bell was an artificial stimulus or conditioned stimulus. But when the bell was paired with the meat (an unconditioned stimulus), it eventually produced a response. After conditioning, the dog started salivating in response to the ringing of the bell alone. Thus, conditioned stimulus led to conditioned response.

In an organisational setting we can see classical conditioning operating. For example, at one manufacturing plant, every time the top executive from the head office would make a visit, the plant management would clean up the administrative offices and wash the windows. This went on for years.

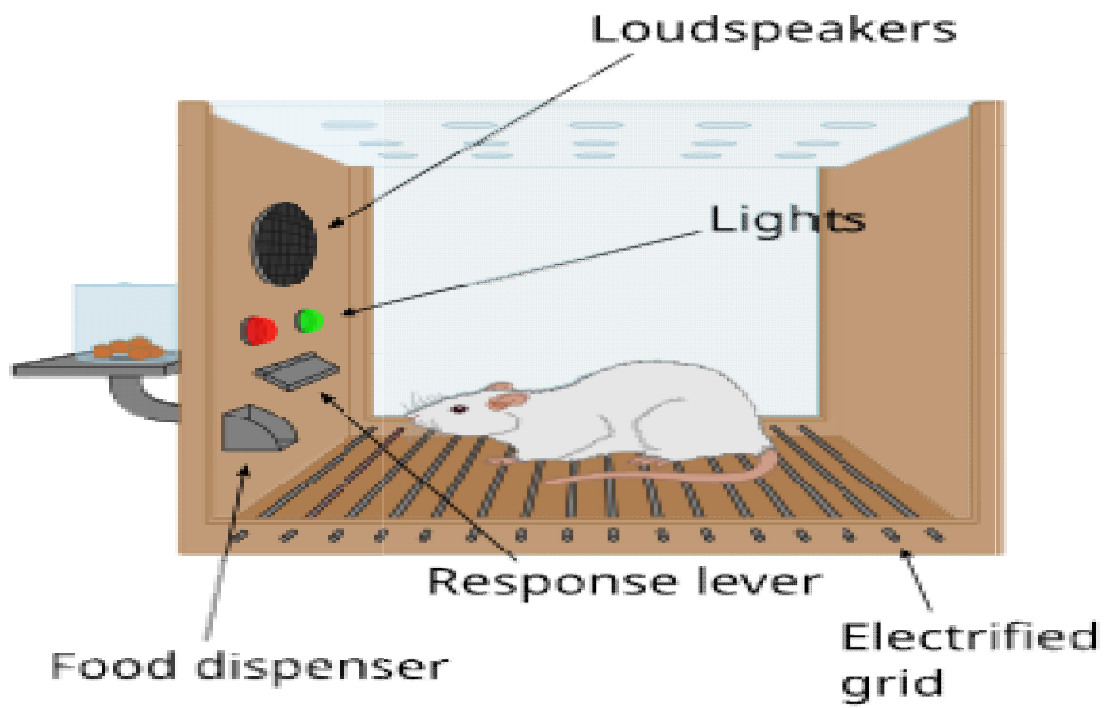
Eventually, employees would turn on their best behaviour and look prim and proper whenever the windows were cleaned even on those occasions when the cleaning was not paired with the visit from the top brass. People had learnt to associate the cleaning of the windows with the visit from the head office.

Classical conditioning represents only a very small part of total human learning. So it has a limited value in the study of organisational behaviour. Classical conditioning plays only a passive role. We will react in a particular way only if something happens. But in reality, the behaviour of people in organisations is voluntary rather than being reflexive. Their behaviour is not elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event but it is generally emitted. The learning of complex behaviour can be better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

2. Operant Conditioning:

Operant is defined as behaviour that produces effect. Operant conditioning is based on the work of B.F. Skinner who advocated that individuals emit responses that are rewarded and will not emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning argues that

Operant Conditioning



behaviour is a function of its consequences. Behaviour is likely to be repeated if the consequences are favourable. Behaviour is not likely to be repeated if the consequences are unfavorable. Thus the relationship between behaviour and consequences is the essence of the operant conditioning.

Based upon this direct relationship between the consequences and the behaviour, the management can study and identify this relationship and try to modify and control behaviour. Hence, certain types of consequences can be used to increase the occurrence of a desired behaviour and other types of consequences can be used to decrease the occurrence of undesired behaviour.

One can see examples of operant conditioning in the organisations. For instance, working hard and getting the promotion will probably cause the person to keep working hard in the future. On the other hand, if a boss assures his subordinate that he would be suitably compensated in the next performance appraisal, provided the employee works over time.

However, when the evaluation time comes, the boss does not fulfill his assurance to his subordinate, even though the latter had worked overtime. Next time, the subordinate coolly declines to work overtime when the boss requests him to do so. Thus, it can be concluded that the behaviour consequences that are rewarding increase the rate of response, while the aversive consequences decrease the rate of response. Operant conditioning techniques are extensively used in clinical and educational research, control of alcoholism and control of deviant children in a class room.

3. Social Learning:

Individuals can also learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something, as well as by direct experiences. Much of what we have learned comes from observing and imitating models-parents, teachers, peers, superiors, film stars etc. This view that we can learn through both observation and direct experience has called social learning theory.

This theory assumes that learning is not a case of environmental determinism (classical and operant views) or of individual determinism (The cognitive view). Rather it is a blending of both. Thus, social learning theory emphasizes the interactive nature of cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants. The influence of model is central to the social learning view point. Four processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual.

a. Attention Process:

People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. We tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available, important to us or similar to use in our estimation.

b. Retention Processes:

A model's influence will depend upon how well the individual remembers the model's action after the model is not longer readily available.

c. Motor Reproduction Processes:

After a person has seen a new behaviour by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modelled activities.

d. Reinforcement Processes:

Individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modeled behaviour if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviours that are positively reinforced will be given more attention, learned better and performed more often.

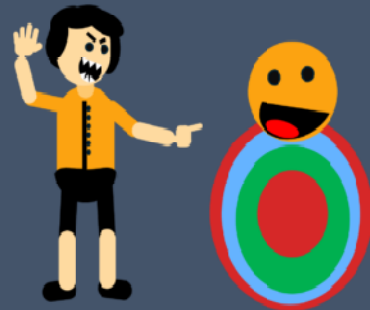
Social Learning

The Bobo Doll Experiment

Children
observed adults
mistreating a doll



And they mimicked
adults by mistreating
the doll too



PERSONALITY

Definition of personality

Personality means how a person affects others and how he understands and views himself as well as the pattern of inner and outer measurable traits and the person-situation interactions (Fred Luthans). According to Stephen P. Robbins, personality is the sum total ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others. It may be defined as those inner psychological characteristics that both determine and reflect how a person responds to his environment.

Personality can be defined as those inner psychological characteristics that both determine and reflect how a person responds to the environment.

Determinants

1. **Heredity**: Human behaviour is partly affected by heredity. The parent's qualities are passed on to the children through the molecular structure of genes located in the chromosomes. In our day to day life, so many times we use the term "Like father like son" as "Like Mother like daughter".

2. **Environment** : All personality traits are not determined by heredity. Environment also plays a very important role in the development of personality of a person. Environment comprises of culture, family, social and situational factors.

(a) **Culture** : Culture is sum total of learned believes, values and customs. Cultural factors determine now a person acts whether independently or dependently. Culture establishes norms, attitudes and values that are passed along from generation to generation.

(b) **Family**: Families influence the behaviour of a person especially in the early stages. The nature of such influence will depend upon the following factors:

- (i) Socio-economic level of the family
- (ii) Family size
- (iii) Birth order
- (iv) Race
- (v) Religion

(vi) Parent's educational level and Geographic location.

(c) **Social:** Socialization is a process by which an infant acquires customary and acceptable behaviour. Social life has a considerable impact on the individual's behaviour. A man is known by the company he keeps. Social groups influence the behaviour of the individuals.

(d) **Situational:** Situational factors also play a very important role in determining the personality of a person. Life is a collection of experiences. Some of the events and experiences can serve as important determinants of his personality.

Theories of Personality

A theory is a simple model of reality that helps us understand, explain, predict and deal with reality. We have some theories that explain an individual's personality.

1. Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory

This theory is based on the belief that man is encouraged more by unforeseen forces than the conscious and logical thought. Freud believed that most of the things in life are not present at the conscious level but they are present at an unconscious level.

The features of Freud's theory include three attributes – Id, Ego, and Superego.

- **Id** – It defines the innate component of personality. It is the impulsive and unconscious part of mind that seeks immediate satisfaction. **Example** – A hungry baby cries till he/she is fed.
- **Ego** – It is derived from Id and assists in dealing with the external world. It also helps in translating the inner needs into expressions. It deals with practical and rational thinking process. **Example** – We have a fight with our friend and expect the friend to talk first, even though both of us want to talk.
- **Superego** – It is different from ego and is partially unconscious. It includes the traditional values of society as interpreted by our parents. It also helps in the integral vision of punishment. **Example** – Ram came late today so he is grounded for a week.

2. Erikson's Theory

This theory states that personality is groomed throughout lifetime. He presents eight distinct stages each with two possible outcomes. Successful completion of each stage leads to a healthy personality. These stages are –

- **Infancy** – It is the period between 0-1 years of age. In this stage, children learn the ability to trust others depending on their caregivers. Unsuccessful completion in this stage results in anxiety and insecurity. **Example** – Children of this age are more comfortable with those faces they see more often and not with strangers.
- **Early Childhood** – It is the period between 1-3 years of age. In this stage, children learn to be independent. If given support, they become more confident else they become dependent over others. **Example** – Children in this age are taught how to walk, how to talk etc.
- **Play Age** – It is the period between 3-6 years of age. In this stage, children assert themselves frequently. The failure leads to development of a sense of guilt among them. **Example** – Children in this age group, need to be taught how to behave and should be taught to be focused.
- **School Age** – It is the period between 6 years of age till puberty. In this stage, children become more innovative. They feel confident and want to achieve their goals. If not encouraged they may feel inferior. **Example** – Teenagers should be protected and parents need to understand them and should handle them patiently.
- **Adolescence** – This stage is a transformation from childhood to adulthood. Here children find their own identity and should be guided and supported in order to help them choose the right direction. **Example** – Decision such as which stream to choose science or commerce etc. happens during this stage.
- **Young Childhood** – This stage is also known as young adulthood. Here, they begin to open up and become more intimate with others. **Example** – Making close friends.
- **Adulthood** – In this stage, they focus on establishing career and settling down with relationships that are important. **Example** – Applying for jobs.

Mature Adulthood – In this stage, a person is old and thus in this stage the productivity slows down. **Example** Taking care of the family.

- **Erikson's Theory – Eight stages of personality**

Stage	Age Range	Conflict (Crisis)	Virtue (Outcome)
1. Infancy	0 – 1½ years	Trust vs. Mistrust	Hope
2. Early Childhood	1½ – 3 years	Autonomy vs. Shame/Doubt	Willpower
3. Play Stage	3 – 6 years	Initiative vs. Guilt	Purpose
4. School Age	6 – 12 years	Industry vs. Inferiority	Competence
5. Adolescence	12 – 20 years	Identity vs. Confusion	(Fidelity) being true to oneself
6. Early Adulthood	20 – 30 years	Intimacy vs. Isolation	Love
7. Middle Adulthood	30 – 60 years	Generativity vs. Stagnation	Care
8. Old Age	60 years and above	Ego Integrity vs. Despair	Wisdom