

MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

UNIT-I

Organisational behaviour is a study which involves examining and analysing the human behaviour in an organisation. An organisation may be divided into top-level(owners), middle level(management) and low level(employees). Organisational behaviour studies the interaction within these levels and how the people at different levels respond or behave in a situation.

Nature of Organisational Behaviour

1. **Diversity:** Organizational behaviour recognizes the unique differences among individuals, valuing diversity in backgrounds, skills, and perspectives as a source of strength and innovation within a company.
2. **Adaptability:** It emphasizes the need for organizations to be adaptable, allowing them to respond effectively to changes in the market, technology, and workforce dynamics.
3. **Motivation:** Understanding what motivates employees is crucial in Organisational Behaviour, as it directly influences productivity, job satisfaction, and retention rates within an organization.
4. **Leadership:** Effective leadership is a cornerstone of Organisational Behaviour, as leaders shape the culture, set the vision, and guide employees towards achieving organizational goals.
5. **Communication:** Clear and open communication channels are vital for the smooth operation of an organization, facilitating collaboration and minimizing misunderstandings.
6. **Productivity:** Organisational Behaviour aims to enhance productivity by optimizing the work environment, ensuring that employees have the resources and support they need to perform at their best.
7. **Well-being:** Employee well-being is a focus area in Organizational Behaviour, with the understanding that a healthy work-life balance contributes to better performance and lower turnover.
8. **Innovation:** Encouraging innovation is part of Organizational Behaviour, as it drives growth and keeps organizations competitive in their respective industries.

9. **Ethics:** Organizational Behaviour upholds ethical standards and practices, ensuring that organizations operate with integrity and respect for all stakeholders.

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The scope of Organizational Behaviour (OB) encompasses the study of individual behaviour, group dynamics, and organizational structure within the context of how these factors influence and are influenced by the organization's effectiveness and performance.

1. Individual Behaviour:

- **Personality:**

How individual personality traits (e.g., introversion/extroversion, optimism/pessimism) impact work performance and interactions.

- **Perception:**

How individuals interpret and make sense of their surroundings, influencing their actions and decisions.

- **Motivation:**

Factors that drive employees to perform, including intrinsic and extrinsic motivators.

- **Attitudes and Values:**

How employees' attitudes and values shape their job satisfaction, commitment, and overall behaviour.

- **Learning:**

How individuals acquire new knowledge and skills, and how this affects their work performance.

- **Decision-making:**

How individuals make choices in various work-related situations.

- **Stress and Well-being:**

The impact of work-related stress on individual performance and how to promote employee well-being.

2. Group Behaviour:

- **Group Dynamics:**

How individuals interact within teams, including communication, leadership, conflict resolution, and decision-making processes.

- **Teamwork and Collaboration:**

Understanding how teams form, function, and achieve goals through effective collaboration.

- **Leadership:**

Examining different leadership styles and their impact on employee motivation, performance, and satisfaction.

- **Communication:**

The role of effective communication in building cohesive teams and fostering positive working relationships.

- **Conflict Resolution:**

Strategies for managing and resolving conflicts that may arise within teams or between individuals.

3. Organizational Structure and Design:

- **Formal Structure:**

How the organization's structure (e.g., hierarchy, departmentalization, reporting relationships) influences employee behaviour and overall effectiveness.

- **Organizational Culture:**

The shared values, beliefs, and norms that shape employee behavior and organizational performance.

- **Organizational Change:**

How organizations manage and implement change, and how employees respond to these changes.

4. Other Key Areas:

- **Organizational Development:**

Efforts to improve organizational effectiveness through planned interventions and changes.

- **Motivation and Job Satisfaction:**

Understanding what motivates employees and how to create a work environment that fosters job satisfaction.

- **Training and Development:**

Providing employees with the skills and knowledge they need to perform their jobs effectively.

- **Work-Life Balance:**

Promoting a healthy balance between work and personal life to enhance employee well-being and reduce stress.

Evolution of Organizational Behaviour (1890s - Present)

Early Management Theories (Late 19th - Early 20th Century)

- **Scientific Management (1890s-1910s):** Frederick Winslow Taylor, considered the father of scientific management, introduced time-and-motion studies to analyze and improve work processes. Taylor's principles included developing a scientific approach to tasks, selecting and training workers scientifically, and building cooperation between management and workers. His goal was to increase productivity by optimizing and standardizing tasks.
- **Bureaucratic Management (1920s-1930s):** Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy emphasized a structured, formal network of relationships among specialized positions in the organization. He advocated for a clear hierarchy of authority, well-defined rules and procedures, and impersonal relationships between managers and employees.

Human Relations Movement (1930s-1950s)

- **Hawthorne Studies (1924-1932):** Elton Mayo conducted the Hawthorne Studies, which explored how different work conditions affected productivity. Initially focused on physical work conditions, the studies revealed that social factors and employee attitudes had a significant impact on performance.
- **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943):** Abraham Maslow developed a theory of human motivation which is based on the hierarchy of needs. It includes basic physiological needs to self-actualization. As per Maslow, individuals are motivated to fulfill these

needs in order, starting with basic needs like food and shelter, moving up to safety, social belonging, esteem, and finally self-actualization.

Organizational Behaviour as a Field (1950s-1970s)

- **Theory X and Theory Y (1960):** American professor Douglas McGregor proposed two contrasting theories about worker motivation and management styles. Theory X assumes that employees are naturally lazy, dislike work, and must be coerced or controlled to achieve organizational goals. In contrast, Theory Y suggests that employees are inherently motivated, seek responsibility, and can be trusted to work towards organizational objectives if provided with the right conditions.
- **Contingency Theory (1960s-1970s):** Contingency theory posits that there is no single best way to manage an organization. Instead, the effectiveness of a management style or organizational structure depends on various situational factors.

Modern Developments (1980s-Present)

- **Organizational Culture (1980s):** Edgar Schein and other scholars emphasized the significance of organizational culture, which includes shared values, beliefs, and norms that shape behaviour within an organization.
- **Transformational Leadership (1980s-1990s):** James MacGregor Burns introduced the concept of transformational leadership, later expanded by Bernard Bass. Transformational leaders inspire followers to overachieve their own self-interests for the betterment of the organization.
- **Positive Organizational Behaviour (1990s-Present):** Positive organizational behaviour (POB) focuses on the study and application of positive psychological capacities and strengths that are measurable, developed, and manageable for performance improvement.
- **Diversity and Inclusion (2000s-Present):** Recent trends emphasize on the relevance of promoting diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) in the workplace. Research and practices focus on creating environments where diverse talents can thrive, recognizing the benefits of diverse perspectives for innovation, problem-solving, and organizational success.

CONCEPTS RELEVANCE TO OB:

Individual Behaviour:

OB examines how individual characteristics like personality, motivation, and perception influence their actions at work.

Group Dynamics:

It explores how individuals interact within teams, including communication patterns, conflict resolution, and leadership styles.

Organizational Structure:

OB analyses how organizational design and culture affect employee behaviour and performance.

Motivation and Satisfaction:

Understanding what motivates employees and how to foster job satisfaction is crucial for productivity and retention.

Change Management:

OB provides tools and strategies for navigating organizational change effectively, minimizing resistance, and maximizing engagement.

Conflict Resolution:

OB equips managers with techniques to address and resolve workplace conflicts constructively, promoting a positive and productive environment.

Performance Management:

OB principles are applied to improve individual and team performance through goal setting, feedback, and development initiatives.

Leadership:

OB explores different leadership styles and their impact on employee motivation, engagement, and overall organizational effectiveness.

Ethical Practices:

OB emphasizes the importance of ethical behaviour in the workplace, fostering a culture of integrity and trust.

Communication:

Effective communication is a cornerstone of OB, ensuring clear information flow and reducing misunderstandings.

Creating a Positive Work Environment:

OB principles help create a positive, inclusive, and productive work environment that attracts and retains talent.

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR OB**Challenges:****Managing Workforce Diversity:**

Organizations need to create inclusive environments that value the diverse backgrounds, perspectives, and skills of their employees. This includes addressing potential biases and ensuring equal opportunities for all.

Responding to Globalization:

Businesses are increasingly operating in a globalized world, requiring adaptation to different cultures, laws, and economic systems. Managing cross-border teams and understanding diverse work styles is crucial.

Coping with Change:

The pace of change is accelerating, driven by technological advancements and shifting market conditions. Organizations need to be agile and adaptable to survive and thrive.

Stimulating Innovation:

Innovation is essential for competitive advantage, requiring organizations to foster a culture of creativity, experimentation, and risk-taking.

Improving Ethical Behaviour:

Ethical considerations are paramount, requiring organizations to establish clear ethical guidelines and promote a culture of integrity.

Balancing Work-Life Conflicts:

Employees face increasing pressure to balance work and personal responsibilities, making work-life balance a significant concern for both employees and organizations.

Opportunities:

- **Improving People Skills:**

Investing in employee training and development can enhance skills, improve performance, and foster a more engaged workforce.

- **Enhancing Quality and Productivity:**

Implementing quality management programs and focusing on process improvement can lead to higher quality products and services, increased efficiency, and improved customer satisfaction.

- **Empowering Employees:**

Delegating authority, fostering autonomy, and encouraging employee participation can boost motivation, engagement, and job satisfaction.

- **Creating Positive Work Environments:**

Promoting a positive and supportive work environment can improve employee morale, reduce stress, and increase productivity.

- **Developing E-Organizations and E-Commerce:**

Embracing technology and digital platforms can open up new opportunities for growth, innovation, and improved communication.

- **Improving Customer Service:**

Understanding customer needs and expectations is crucial for providing excellent customer service, which can lead to increased loyalty and positive word-of-mouth.

FACTORS INFLUENCING INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR:

- **Personal Factors:**

These include biographical characteristics (age, gender, education, etc.) and learned characteristics like personality, perception, attitudes, and values.

- **Psychological Factors:**

Personality traits, perception, attitudes, values, and learning all play a significant role in shaping individual behaviour.

- **Organizational Factors:**

These encompass the physical environment, organizational structure, leadership style, and reward systems within a workplace.

- **Environmental Factors:**

Economic conditions, social and cultural norms, legal and political factors all contribute to the context within which individuals operate.

SOCIAL THEORY

Social theory in organizational behaviour explores how social interactions and group dynamics influence individual behaviour within organizations. It examines how social factors, like group norms, peer pressure, and relationships, affect employees' attitudes, decisions, and actions. Key theories include Social Learning Theory and Social Identity Theory.

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

It refers to discretionary employee actions that contribute to the overall effectiveness of an organization but are not formally rewarded or part of an employee's job description.

Key aspects of OCB:

- **Discretionary:** OCB is not mandated or expected; it's a choice made by the employee.
- **Beyond job description:** These actions are not part of an employee's formal duties.
- **Beneficial to the organization:** OCB contributes to the overall effectiveness and success of the organization.

- **Not formally rewarded:** While OCB is valuable, it's not typically tied to a formal reward system.

UNIT-II

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE

PERSONALITY:

Personality in organizational behaviour refers to the enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that characterize individuals in the workplace.

DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

Personality is shaped by a combination of biological, social, cultural, and situational factors. These determinants influence an individual's unique patterns of thoughts, emotions, and behaviours.

Biological Factors: These include inherited traits, physical characteristics, and physiological processes like brain structure and the nervous system. These factors provide the foundation for personality development.

Social Factors: This encompasses the environments and relationships that shape a person from infancy onward, including family, peer groups, and social roles. Social interactions and experiences play a crucial role in shaping personality.

Cultural Factors: Cultural norms, values, and beliefs influence how individuals think, feel, and behave. Cultural factors contribute to the development of personality by shaping acceptable behaviours and social expectations.

Situational Factors: Specific contexts and situations can also influence personality by triggering different behaviours. For example, a person might act more introverted in a formal setting and more extroverted in a casual setting.

THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

1. Psychoanalytic Theory: Developed by Sigmund Freud, this perspective emphasizes the influence of the unconscious mind on behavior and personality.

- Freud proposed that personality is shaped by the interplay of the id (primitive desires), ego (reality-oriented self), and superego (moral conscience).

- Childhood experiences, particularly those related to psychosexual stages (oral, anal, phallic, latency, genital), are believed to play a crucial role in shaping personality.

2. Humanistic Theory: This perspective highlights the importance of self-actualization and personal growth in personality development.

- Developed by Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers, it focuses on the individual's inherent drive to reach their full potential and the importance of self-concept and self-esteem.
- Humanistic psychology emphasizes free will, individual experience, and the potential for positive change and personal growth.

3. Trait Theory: This approach focuses on identifying and measuring stable personality traits that differentiate individuals.

- It suggests that personality can be understood through a set of core traits, such as extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness.
- Trait theories aim to describe and categorize personality based on consistent patterns of behavior across different situations and over time.

4. Social Cognitive Theory: This perspective emphasizes the role of cognitive processes, learning, and social interactions in shaping personality.

- Albert Bandura's theory suggests that personality is developed through observation, imitation, and reciprocal interactions between an individual's thoughts, behaviors, and environment.
- Social cognitive theory highlights the importance of self-efficacy (belief in one's ability to succeed) and observational learning in personality development.

These are some of the major theories used to understand personality. Each theory offers valuable insights into the complexities of human personality, but no single theory can fully explain all aspects of personality.

Erik Erikson's stages of personality development

Erik Erikson's stages of personality development and Chris Argyris's immaturity-to-maturity continuum are related concepts that explore how individuals develop throughout their lives. Erikson's theory outlines eight psychosocial stages, each characterized by a conflict that shapes personality. Argyris's theory proposes that personality development progresses along a

continuum from immaturity to maturity, with seven key characteristics differentiating the two states.

Erik Erikson's Psychosocial Stages:

Erikson's theory posits that individuals progress through eight stages of psychosocial development, from infancy to adulthood. Each stage presents a unique conflict that individuals must resolve to develop a healthy personality. These stages include:

1. Trust vs. Mistrust (0-1 year):

Infants develop a sense of trust when their needs are consistently met.

2. Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt (1-3 years):

Toddlers develop a sense of independence and self-control when encouraged to explore.

3. Initiative vs. Guilt (3-6 years):

Preschoolers assert themselves and take initiative, or they may develop a sense of guilt if their actions are discouraged.

4. Industry vs. Inferiority (6-12 years):

Children develop a sense of competence and accomplishment through learning and mastering new skills.

5. Identity vs. Confusion (12-18 years):

Adolescents explore their identity and values, or they may experience confusion about their role in the world.

6. Intimacy vs. Isolation (18-40 years):

Young adults form close relationships and develop intimacy, or they may experience isolation.

7. Generativity vs. Stagnation (40-65 years):

Adults contribute to society and future generations, or they may feel stagnant and unproductive.

8. Integrity vs. Despair (65+ years):

Older adults reflect on their lives and either find a sense of integrity and fulfilment or experience despair.

Chris Argyris's Immaturity-to-Maturity Continuum:

Argyris's theory focuses on the development of personality from immaturity to maturity, suggesting that individuals progress along a continuum of seven characteristics. These characteristics are:

1. **Passivity to Activity:** From being passive and dependent on others to being active and self-directed.
2. **Dependence to Independence:** From being dependent on others to being independent and self-reliant.
3. **Limited Behaviour to Diverse Behaviour:** From having a limited range of behaviours to displaying a wider variety of behaviours.
4. **Shallow to Deep Interests:** From having superficial and fleeting interests to developing deeper and more lasting interests.
5. **Short-Term Perspective to Long-Term Perspective:** From focusing on immediate gratification to considering long-term consequences.
6. **Subordinate Position to Equal or Superordinate Position:** From being in a subordinate position to having equal or higher status.
7. **Lack of Self-Awareness to Self-Awareness and Self-Control:** From lacking self-awareness to having a greater understanding of oneself and the ability to control one's actions.

PERSONALITY-JOB FIT

A good personality-job fit can lead to increased job satisfaction, performance, and reduced turnover, while a poor fit can result in dissatisfaction, stress, and ultimately, job searching.

- **Person-Job Fit (PJF):**

This focuses on the match between an individual's skills, abilities, personality, and values with the demands and requirements of a particular job.

- **Person-Environment Fit (PE Fit):**

This is a broader concept that encompasses the overall compatibility between an individual and their work environment, including the job itself, the organization's culture, and the team.

- **Holland's Theory:**

This theory categorizes individuals and jobs into six themes (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional) and suggests that people are most satisfied and productive when working in environments that align with their personality type.

Benefits of a Good Personality-Job Fit:

- **Increased Job Satisfaction:**

When a person's personality traits are well-suited to their job, they are more likely to enjoy their work and feel a sense of fulfilment.

- **Improved Performance:**

A good fit can lead to increased motivation, engagement, and ultimately, better job performance.

- **Reduced Turnover:**

Employees who are happy and engaged in their work are less likely to seek out other job opportunities.

- **Enhanced Creativity and Innovation:**

When individuals feel comfortable and challenged in their roles, they are more likely to contribute creative ideas and solutions.

Assessing Personality-Job Fit:

- **Personality Assessments:**

Tools like the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) or Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS) can help individuals understand their personality traits and preferences.

- **Behavioural Interviews:**

Asking targeted questions about past experiences and work styles can provide insights into how a candidate might handle the demands of a particular role, according to Work ology.

- **Work Sample Tests:**

Having candidates' complete tasks that are representative of the job's responsibilities can reveal their abilities and how well they align with the role.

- **Cultural Assessments:**

Evaluating a candidate's values and how they align with the organization's culture is crucial for ensuring a good fit.

PERCEPTION

- Perception, the way we interpret and understand the world, is influenced by a combination of internal and external factors.
- Internal factors include our personal characteristics like attitudes, personality, motives, interests, past experiences, and expectations.
- External factors include characteristics of the perceived object, such as its size, intensity, novelty, and the surrounding situation.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION

Internal Factors:

- **Needs and Motives:**

Our current needs and motivations can significantly influence what we perceive. For example, someone who is hungry might be more likely to notice food-related stimuli.

- **Past Experiences:**

Our previous encounters and knowledge shape how we interpret new situations and objects. If someone has had a positive experience with a particular brand, they may be more likely to perceive its products favorably.

- **Attitudes and Beliefs:**

Our pre-existing attitudes and beliefs act as a filter through which we process information. For instance, someone who holds strong opinions about a particular political party might interpret news related to that party in a way that aligns with their views.

- **Personality:**

Our personality traits can influence our perception. Optimistic individuals might tend to focus on the positive aspects of a situation, while pessimistic individuals might focus on the negative.

- **Expectations:**

What we expect to see or experience can influence our perception. If we anticipate a certain outcome, we might be more likely to interpret events in a way that confirms our expectations.

External Factors:

- **Size and Intensity:**

Larger and more intense stimuli are more likely to be noticed than smaller or less intense ones. A loud noise, a bright light, or a large object will likely grab our attention more readily than a soft sound, dim light, or a small object.

- **Contrast:**

Contrasting stimuli stand out more than stimuli that blend in with the background. A bright red object on a white background will be more noticeable than a red object on a red background.

- **Novelty and Familiarity:**

Novel or unfamiliar stimuli tend to attract attention, as do familiar stimuli in a novel context.

- **Motion:**

Moving objects tend to be more noticeable than stationary objects.

- **Repetition:**

Repeated stimuli are more likely to be noticed and remembered than single exposures.

- **Surrounding Situation:**

The context in which a stimulus is presented can influence perception. A familiar object in an unfamiliar setting might be perceived differently than in a familiar setting.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY

Attribution Theory

Attribution Theory provides a framework for understanding how people explain the causes of behaviour and events.

Types of Attributions

Attributions can be broadly categorized into several types:

Internal vs. External Attributions:

- *Internal Attributions:* These are explanations based on an individual's inherent characteristics, such as personality traits, abilities, and efforts.
- *External Attributions:* These are explanations that ascribe behaviour to situational factors outside the individual's control, such as luck, other people's actions, or the environment.

Stable vs. Unstable Attributions:

- **Stable Attributions:** These suggest that the cause of behaviour is consistent and unchanging over time.
- **Unstable Attributions:** These imply that the cause of behavior can vary over time and is not consistent.

Controllable vs. Uncontrollable Attributions:

- **Controllable Attributions:** These imply that the individual had control over the situation or outcome.
- **Uncontrollable Attributions:** These suggest that the individual had no control over the situation or outcome.

MOTIVATION

Motivation is the internal drive that compels individuals to act, persist, and achieve goals.

1. Intrinsic Motivation:

- This type of motivation arises from within the individual, based on personal enjoyment, interest, or a sense of fulfilment.
- Examples include reading a book for pleasure, learning a new hobby for personal growth, or solving a challenging puzzle for the satisfaction of accomplishment.

2. Extrinsic Motivation:

- This type of motivation is driven by external factors, such as rewards, recognition, or avoiding punishment.
- It involves engaging in an activity to obtain something outside of the activity itself.
- Examples include working for a salary, studying to get good grades, or cleaning your room to avoid getting scolded.

Hierarchy of Needs theory:



Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a theory of motivation that suggests that human behavior is driven by a hierarchy of needs, progressing from basic physiological requirements to more complex psychological needs.

1. Physiological Needs:

These are the most basic needs for survival, such as food, water, shelter, and sleep.

2. Safety Needs:

Once physiological needs are met, individuals seek safety and security, including personal security, financial security, and health.

3. Love and Belonging Needs:

This level focuses on social needs, such as the need for relationships, love, friendship, and a sense of belonging.

4. Esteem Needs:

Individuals strive for a sense of self-esteem, confidence, achievement, and respect from others.

5. Self-Actualization Needs:

This is the highest level of the hierarchy, representing the desire to fulfill one's potential and achieve personal growth.

Theory X and Theory Y:

Assumptions of Theory X

- Dislike their work.

- Avoid responsibility and need constant direction.
- Have to be controlled, forced and threatened to deliver work.
- Need to be supervised at every step.
- Have no incentive to work or ambition, and therefore need to be enticed by rewards to achieve goals.

Assumptions of Theory Y:

- Happy to work on their own initiative.
- More involved in decision making.
- Self-motivated to complete their tasks.
- Enjoy taking ownership of their work.
- Seek and accept responsibility, and need little direction.
- View work as fulfilling and challenging.
- Solve problems creatively and imaginatively.

Two factor theory

1. Hygiene Factors (Dissatisfiers):

- These factors are related to the work environment and context, not the work itself.
- When present, they prevent dissatisfaction, but they don't necessarily motivate employees to work harder.

Examples include:

- Salary and benefits: Adequate pay and benefits are expected, and their absence can lead to dissatisfaction.
- Company policies: Fair and transparent policies are important for a positive work environment.
- Supervision: Effective and supportive supervision is crucial for employee morale.
- Working conditions: A safe, comfortable, and appropriate workspace is essential.
- Job security: Employees need to feel secure in their positions.

2. Motivators (Satisfiers):

- These factors are related to the job content and the work itself.
- When present, they can lead to increased job satisfaction and motivation.

Examples include:

- Achievement: The opportunity to accomplish challenging tasks and goals.
- Recognition: Being acknowledged and appreciated for one's contributions.
- The work itself: Engaging and meaningful work that provides a sense of purpose.
- Responsibility: Having autonomy and control over one's work.
- Advancement: Opportunities for growth, promotion, and career development.

MCCLELLAND'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION

McClelland's Theory of Motivation, also known as the Three Needs Theory, proposes that individuals are primarily driven by three needs: achievement, affiliation, and power.

Need for Achievement (nAch):

Individuals with a high need for achievement are driven to excel, overcome challenges, and achieve goals. They prefer tasks that offer moderate risk and provide clear feedback on their performance.

Need for Affiliation (nAff):

Those with a high need for affiliation value strong relationships and social connections. They prefer working in collaborative environments and seek approval from others.

Need for Power (nPow):

Individuals with a high need for power are motivated by influence, control, and authority. They may thrive in leadership roles and enjoy competitive situations.

Self- Determination theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a motivational theory that proposes humans have innate psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and that satisfying these needs is essential for optimal development and well-being.

- **Autonomy:**

The need to feel volitional and self-endorsed in one's actions. It's about feeling like you're the origin of your own behaviour.

- **Competence:**

The need to feel effective and capable in one's interactions with the environment. It's about feeling a sense of mastery and accomplishment.

- **Relatedness:**

The need to feel connected to and cared about by others. It's about belonging and social connection.

GOAL SETTING THEORY

Goal-setting theory, developed by Edwin Locke and Gary Latham, posits that setting specific and challenging goals can significantly enhance motivation and performance. This theory emphasizes that clear, well-defined goals, especially when coupled with feedback and commitment, lead to better outcomes than vague or easy goals.

Key Principles of Goal-Setting Theory:

- **Specificity:**

Goals should be clearly defined and unambiguous, leaving no room for interpretation.

- **Challenge:**

Goals should be difficult enough to motivate individuals to strive for higher performance, but also achievable.

- **Commitment:**

Individuals need to be committed to their goals, believing in their attainability and importance.

- **Feedback:**

Regular feedback on progress is crucial for maintaining motivation, identifying areas for improvement, and adjusting strategies.

- **Task Complexity:**

The complexity of the task should be considered when setting goals, ensuring that individuals are not overwhelmed or discouraged.

SELF-EFFICACY THEORY

Self-efficacy theory, developed by Albert Bandura, is a social cognitive theory that emphasizes the importance of individuals' beliefs in their own capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations.

Bandura identified four main sources of self-efficacy:

- **Mastery Experiences:** Past successes in similar situations build confidence.
- **Vicarious Experiences:** Observing others succeed, especially those similar to oneself, can increase self-efficacy.
- **Verbal Persuasion:** Encouragement and positive feedback from others can boost self-belief.
- **Physiological and Emotional States:** How individuals feel emotionally and physically can influence their perceived self-efficacy.

RE – ENFORCEMENT THEORY:

Reinforcement theory, rooted in behaviourism, explains how consequences shape and maintain behaviour. It proposes that behaviours followed by positive outcomes (reinforcements) are more likely to be repeated, while those followed by negative outcomes (punishments) are less likely to occur.

The principles are,

Reinforcement:

The process of increasing the likelihood of a behaviour by following it with a desirable outcome.

Punishment:

The process of decreasing the likelihood of a behaviour by following it with an undesirable outcome.

Positive Reinforcement:

Adding a desirable stimulus to increase a behaviour (e.g., giving a bonus for good performance).

Negative Reinforcement:

Removing an aversive stimulus to increase a behaviour (e.g., taking away a chore for completing homework).

Extinction:

Decreasing a behaviour by withholding reinforcement (e.g., ignoring a child's tantrum to make it stop).

Operant Conditioning:

A type of learning in which behaviour is modified by its consequences.

1. Comparison:

Employees constantly compare their inputs and outputs to those of others in their referent group.

2. Perception of Fairness:

Based on this comparison, employees form a perception of whether their situation is fair or not.

3. Motivation:

If an employee perceives equity, they are more likely to be motivated and satisfied with their job.

4. Restoring Equity:

If an employee perceives inequity, they may try to restore balance by:

- Adjusting their inputs (e.g., working less hard).
- Seeking to increase their outputs (e.g., asking for a raise).
- Distorting their perception of inputs or outputs (e.g., convincing themselves they are working harder than they actually are).
- Choosing a different referent other.
- Leaving the situation (e.g., quitting their job).

EXPECTANCY THEORY:

Expectancy theory, developed by Victor Vroom, proposes that motivation is a result of an individual's expectations about their efforts, performance, and the value of the outcomes they receive.

The theory is based on three key components:

Expectancy:

This refers to the belief that effort will lead to successful performance. For example, an employee might believe that studying hard will lead to a good grade on an exam.

Instrumentality:

This is the belief that performance will lead to a specific outcome, such as a reward. For example, the employee might believe that a good grade will lead to a good score on their report card.

Valence:

This is the value or attractiveness of the outcome to the individual. For example, the employee might highly value a good report card because it leads to praise from their parents or a scholarship opportunity.

UNIT-III

GROUP DYNAMICS:

Group dynamics refers to the way people behave and interact within a group setting. It encompasses the forces, processes, and characteristics that influence how groups form, function, and change over time. Understanding group dynamics is crucial for effective teamwork, leadership, and organizational success.

FOUNDATIONS OF GROUP BEHAVIOUR:

The foundations of group behaviour encompass the fundamental elements that shape how individuals interact and function within a group setting. These include understanding group dynamics, various types of groups, the impact of roles, norms, and status, and the influence of group size and cohesiveness.

Types of Groups:

Groups can be categorized as formal (command groups, task forces) or informal (friendship or interest groups). Formal groups are established by the organization's structure, while informal groups emerge from social interactions and shared interests.

THE STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Group development described by Bruce Tuckman's model, are Forming, Storming, Norming, Performing, and Adjourning. These stages represent a typical progression for teams as they mature and become more effective.

Here's a breakdown of each stage:

1. Forming:

This is the initial stage where team members are getting to know each other and learning about the group's purpose and goals. Uncertainty and tentative interactions are common.

2. Storming:

In this stage, conflicts and disagreements may arise as team members assert their opinions and roles. Power struggles and challenges to the leader can occur.

3. Norming:

As conflicts are resolved, the team begins to establish norms, roles, and working relationships. Cooperation and a sense of cohesion develop.

4. Performing:

The team functions effectively as a unit, focused on achieving its goals. Collaboration, problem-solving, and high productivity are characteristic of this stage.

5. Adjourning:

This final stage involves the completion of the group's tasks and the disbanding of the team. Members may reflect on their experiences and celebrate their accomplishments.

FACTORS AFFECTING GROUP AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

Several factors can significantly impact group and team performance. These include group composition, cohesiveness, norms, roles, and leadership style, as well as the processes used within the group and the external environment.

Group Composition:

The characteristics of individual members, including their knowledge, skills, abilities, and personality traits, play a crucial role in shaping group dynamics.

Cohesiveness:

Cohesive groups, where members feel a strong sense of belonging and unity, tend to perform better due to increased collaboration and mutual support.

Group Norms:

These are the unwritten rules that govern behavior within the group and can significantly impact productivity, communication, and decision-making.

Group Roles:

Clearly defined roles, including work roles and maintenance roles, help ensure that tasks are completed effectively and that group harmony is maintained.

Leadership:

The style and competence of the group leader can greatly influence motivation, communication, and overall team performance.

Group Processes:

How the group operates, including decision-making approaches, communication patterns, and conflict management strategies, can affect its ability to achieve goals.

Group Size:

The number of members in a group can influence communication, coordination, and the potential for social loafing (individuals putting in less effort due to diffusion of responsibility).

Communication:

Effective communication is essential for sharing information, coordinating efforts, and resolving conflicts.

COMMUNICATION PROCESS:

In organizational behaviour, the communication process is a series of actions that enable the exchange of information, ideas, and feelings within an organization to achieve common goals.

Components of the Communication Process:

Sender: The individual or group initiating the communication.

Message: The information, idea, or feeling being conveyed.

Channel: The medium through which the message is transmitted (e.g., email, face-to-face conversation, phone call).

Encoding: The process of translating the message into a transmittable form (e.g., words, symbols, gestures).

Decoding: The receiver's interpretation of the message.

Receiver: The individual or group who receives the message.

Feedback: The receiver's response to the sender, indicating understanding or lack thereof.

Types of Organizational Communication:

Formal Communication: Follows established organizational structures and procedures, including downward (management to employees), upward (employees to management), and horizontal (between colleagues at the same level) communication.

Informal Communication: Occurs through unofficial channels, like the "grapevine".

Internal Communication: Focuses on interactions within the organization.

External Communication: Involves communication with individuals or groups outside the organization, such as customers, vendors, or the public.

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Barriers to communication are obstacles that hinder the effective exchange of information and understanding between individuals or groups.

1. Physical Barriers:

Noise:

Loud environments, background chatter, or even static on a phone line can disrupt clear transmission of messages.

Distance:

Geographical separation or physical barriers like walls can make it difficult to communicate effectively.

Poor Lighting:

Inadequate lighting can make it hard to read non-verbal cues, facial expressions, and body language.

Technology Issues:

Poor internet connections, outdated equipment, or faulty devices can impede communication.

2. Linguistic Barriers:

Language Differences:

When individuals speak different languages, it can be challenging to understand each other without a translator.

Jargon and Technical Language:

Using specialized terms or jargon that is not understood by the receiver can create confusion.

Lack of Clarity:

Poorly worded messages, ambiguous phrasing, or incomplete information can lead to misunderstandings.

Different Dialects:

Even within the same language, variations in dialects can make it difficult to understand accents or specific word usage.

3. Psychological Barriers:

Emotional States:

Strong emotions like anger, sadness, or anxiety can cloud judgment and affect how messages are received and interpreted.

Preconceived Notions and Biases:

Prejudice, stereotypes, or negative attitudes towards the sender can prevent the receiver from fully understanding the message.

Defensiveness:

A defensive attitude can hinder listening and make it difficult to accept new information or perspectives.

Lack of Trust:

If there is a lack of trust between individuals, it can be difficult to communicate openly and honestly.

UNIT-IV

Leadership:

Leadership is the ability to guide, influence, and motivate individuals or teams towards achieving common goals.

TRAITS THEORY OF LEADERSHIP:

The Trait Theory of Leadership proposes that leaders possess specific innate qualities and characteristics that differentiate them from followers and enable them to be effective.

Innate Traits:

The theory focuses on inherent personality characteristics like intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability.

Born Leaders:

It suggests that effective leaders are naturally predisposed to lead due to these traits.

Trait Identification:

Researchers have sought to identify and measure specific traits associated with leadership success, using methods like personality tests and psychological profiling.

Predicting Leadership:

The theory proposes that by identifying these traits, organizations can predict which individuals are likely to be successful leaders.

BEHAVIOURAL THEORY OF LADERSHIP

- **Focus on Actions:**

Instead of focusing on personality traits, behavioral theories examine what leaders do and how they act in various situations.

- **Learned Behaviour:**

These theories suggest that leadership skills are not innate but can be acquired through training, observation, and practice.

- **Leadership Styles:**

Behavioural theories categorize leadership into different styles (e.g., autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire) and explore how these styles impact team dynamics and performance.

- **Adaptability:**

Effective leaders are seen as adaptable, capable of adjusting their behaviours to suit different situations and the needs of their team.

- **Examples of Behavioural Theories:**

- **Michigan Leadership Studies:** Examined the impact of different leadership styles (employee-oriented vs. production-oriented) on group performance and satisfaction.
- **Ohio State Studies:** Identified two key dimensions of leadership behaviour: initiating structure and consideration.

- **Task-Oriented vs. People-Oriented:**

Behavioural theories often differentiate between leaders who prioritize tasks and those who focus on the well-being and relationships within the team.

- **Flexible and Customizable:**

The behavioural approach emphasizes that leaders can learn and adapt their behaviours to suit different situations and team needs, making it a flexible and customizable approach to leadership.

CONTINGENCY THEORY IN LEADERSHIP

The contingency theory was first developed by Fred Fiedler, who described two basic leadership styles: relationship-oriented and task-oriented. He guided that a leader's style is relatively fixed, but the most effective style depends on three key situational contingencies stated below.

Leader-member relations - How well the leader is liked and respected by group members.

Task structure - How clearly defined and structured the group's tasks are.

Position power - The amount of authority and control the leader has.

Fiedler argued that leader-oriented styles work best in situations that are either favourable or unfavourable for the leader. In contrast, task-oriented styles are most effective in situations with moderate favourability.

LEADER VS MANAGER:



SOURCES OF POWER

six key sources of power in leadership: legitimate, reward, coercive, expert, referent, and informational.

Formal Power:

- **Legitimate Power:**

This stems from the leader's formal position within the organization. It allows leaders to influence others based on their authority and hierarchical standing.

- **Reward Power:**

Leaders with reward power can influence others by offering incentives, promotions, or other desirable rewards.

- **Coercive Power:**

This type of power involves using threats or punishments to influence behavior. While it can be effective in the short term, it often leads to negative consequences in the long run.

- **Informational Power:**

Leaders with informational power possess knowledge or information that others need or desire.

Personal Power:

- **Expert Power:**

Leaders with expert power possess specialized knowledge or skills that others lack.

- **Referent Power:**

This power is based on the leader's charisma, personal charm, and ability to inspire others.

- **Connection Power:**

Leaders with connection power can leverage their network of relationships to influence others.

POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR IN ORGANISATION

Political behaviour in organizations refers to actions individuals or groups take to acquire, develop, and use power and resources to achieve desired outcomes, often involving navigating organizational structures and influencing others.

Key Aspects of Political Behaviour:

Power and Influence:

Individuals engage in political behaviour to gain or maintain power and influence within the organization, often through networking, persuasion, and coalition building.

Self-Interest:

Political behaviour is often driven by individual or group self-interest, potentially leading to competition and conflict.

Informal Processes:

It operates through informal channels and networks, often outside of formal organizational structures and procedures.

Ambiguity and Uncertainty:

In situations with unclear rules and distribution of outcomes, political behaviour may be more prevalent.

Potential for Dysfunction:

While some political behaviour can be constructive, it can also be dysfunctional if it leads to unethical practices, decreased productivity, or damage to morale.

Sources and Types of conflicts:

Conflict arises from various sources and can be categorized into different types, including interpersonal, intrapersonal, intergroup, and intragroup. Common sources of conflict include communication breakdowns, personality clashes, value differences, and competition for resources.

Types of Conflict:

- Interpersonal Conflict:

This type of conflict occurs between two or more individuals, often stemming from disagreements, misunderstandings, or clashing personalities.

- Intrapersonal Conflict:

This is an internal struggle within an individual, involving conflicting thoughts, emotions.

- Intergroup Conflict:

This type of conflict involves disagreements or tensions between different groups of people, such as teams, departments, or organizations.

- Intragroup Conflict:

This occurs within a single group, potentially arising from disagreements about goals, roles, or leadership.

Sources of Conflict:

- Communication Problems:

Misunderstandings, lack of clarity, and ineffective communication can easily lead to conflict.

- Personality Clashes:

Differences in personality traits, work styles, and communication preferences can create friction between individuals.

- Value Differences:

Conflicting beliefs, principles, or values can lead to disagreements and tensions, particularly in diverse settings.

- Resource Scarcity:

When resources are limited, competition for those resources can escalate into conflict.

- Goal Incompatibility:

When individuals or groups have conflicting goals, it can lead to tension and disagreements about priorities.

- Task Interdependence:

When individuals or groups rely on each other to complete tasks, disagreements about roles, responsibilities, or timelines can arise.

NEGOTIATION PROCESS

The negotiation process typically involves five key stages: preparation, opening, clarifying goals, bargaining, and agreement (or lack thereof).

1. Preparation: This initial stage is crucial for success. It involves researching the other party, understanding your own goals and limitations, and developing a strategy.

2. Opening: This stage is where the negotiation begins, with both parties presenting their initial positions and objectives.
3. Clarifying Goals: This stage focuses on deepening understanding and identifying shared interests.
4. Bargaining: This stage involves the actual negotiation, where parties propose and discuss solutions, make concessions, and attempt to reach an agreement.
5. Agreement (or Lack Thereof): The final stage involves either reaching a mutually acceptable agreement or acknowledging that no agreement can be reached.

UNIT-V

STRESSORS IN THE WORKPLACE

Workplace stressors are factors in the work environment that can cause stress, potentially leading to both physical and emotional strain.

Physical symptoms include:

- fatigue
- muscular tension
- headaches
- heart palpitations
- sleeping difficulties, such as insomnia
- gastrointestinal upsets, such as diarrhoea or constipation
- dermatological disorders.

Psychological symptoms include:

- depression
- anxiety
- discouragement
- irritability
- pessimism
- feelings of being overwhelmed and unable to cope
- cognitive difficulties, such as a reduced ability to concentrate or make decisions.

Behavioural symptoms include:

- an increase in sick days or absenteeism
- aggression
- diminished creativity and initiative
- a drop in work performance
- problems with interpersonal relationships
- mood swings and irritability
- lower tolerance of frustration and impatience
- disinterest
- isolation.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES ON EXPERIENCING STRESS

Individual differences significantly impact how people experience stress. Factors like personality, coping mechanisms, past experiences, and even biological predispositions can influence whether someone perceives a situation as stressful and how they react to it. Some individuals are more prone to experiencing stress due to their personality traits (like Type A personalities), while others are more resilient and better equipped to handle challenging situations.

MANAGING WORKPLACE STRESS:

Prioritize and Organize:

Create daily to-do lists, rank tasks by importance, and tackle them one at a time. This helps in feeling more in control and reduces feelings of overwhelm, according to PSRI Hospital.

Set Boundaries:

Establish clear boundaries between work and personal time to avoid burnout. Avoid checking emails or taking work calls during personal hours.

Practice Relaxation Techniques:

Incorporate mindfulness, meditation, or deep breathing exercises into your daily routine to calm your mind and regain focus.

Improve Communication:

Openly communicate with supervisors and colleagues to ensure clear expectations and address any concerns or workload issues.

Seek Support:

Talk to trusted friends, family members, or colleagues about work-related stress. Consider professional counselling if needed.

Healthy Lifestyle:

Maintain a healthy diet, exercise regularly, and get enough sleep. These habits can significantly improve your ability to cope with stress.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND CLIMATE**Organizational Culture:**

- A system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes one organization from another.
- Values, norms, beliefs, assumptions, and rituals that guide employee behaviour and decision-making.
- Long-term, enduring aspects of the organization's identity.
- A company that values innovation might have a culture of experimentation and risk-taking.

Organizational Climate:

- The shared perceptions employees have about their work environment, including policies, practices, and procedures.
- Feelings, attitudes, and perceptions about the workplace, such as job satisfaction, motivation, and morale.
- Short-term, immediate perceptions of the workplace atmosphere.
- A team might experience a stressful climate during a deadline crunch, but a positive climate when celebrating a successful project.

WORK LIFE INTEGRATION PRACTICES:**work-life integration:**

Work-life integration is the practice of allowing employees to coordinate their personal and professional lives in a complementary way and fulfill both sets of responsibilities.

practices for achieving work-life integration:

Flexible Schedules:

Offer options like flexible start and end times, compressed workweeks, or the ability to work from different locations.

Remote Work:

Allow employees to work remotely, enabling them to manage personal tasks and errands during the workday without impacting productivity.

Task Prioritization:

Encourage employees to focus on the most important tasks and manage their workload efficiently, rather than simply logging long hours.

Regular Breaks:

Encourage employees to take short, regular breaks throughout the day to recharge and avoid burnout.

Mindfulness and Stress Management:

Promote practices like mindfulness, meditation, or other stress-reducing activities.

Self-Awareness:

Encourage employees to recognize signs of stress or fatigue and take proactive steps to address them.

KNOWLEDGE BASED ENTERPRISE- SYSTEMS AND PROCESSES:

Knowledge-based enterprises utilize systems and processes to manage and leverage knowledge assets for competitive advantage. This involves capturing, storing, sharing, and applying knowledge across the organization to enhance decision-making, innovation, and overall performance.

Knowledge Management (KM):

This is a core process, focusing on developing systems and practices for capturing, storing, and retrieving knowledge. It includes establishing knowledge-sharing platforms, conducting audits, and ensuring knowledge is readily accessible.

Knowledge-Based Systems (KBS):

These are computer systems that use knowledge and data to generate new knowledge and support decision-making. They often include a knowledge base (containing information), an interface engine (for data processing), and a user interface (for interaction). Examples include expert systems, intelligent tutoring systems, and those used in customer support.

Enterprise Knowledge Management (EKM):

This is a broader approach that encompasses the entire lifecycle of knowledge within an organization. It includes knowledge capture, organization, sharing, application, and maintenance.

Innovation Processes:

Knowledge-based enterprises foster a culture of innovation by implementing structured processes for idea generation, piloting new concepts, and learning from successes and failures.

Learning and Development:

Continuous learning opportunities and personalized development plans are crucial for employees to stay updated and contribute effectively.

Performance Management:

Knowledge-based metrics and recognition for knowledge-sharing behaviours are incorporated into performance evaluations.

NETWORKED AND VIRTUAL ORGANIZATIONS:

Networked and virtual organizations are flexible structures that leverage technology to connect geographically dispersed individuals and groups, enabling collaboration and resource sharing to achieve common goals.

Networked Organizations:

- **Decentralized Collaboration:**
- Networked organizations emphasize collaboration among autonomous entities, fostering a decentralized structure.
- **External Partnerships:**

- They leverage external partnerships and alliances, forming stable relationships with outsourcing partners.

Virtual Organizations:

- **Temporary Networks:**

Virtual organizations are temporary collaborations of independent entities that work together through technology to achieve specific goals.

- **No Central Physical Location:**

They operate without a central physical space, relying on digital networks.



