SHORT QUESTIONS & ANSWERS: [Each carries 02 Marks]

Q.1. What is the difference between personality and perception?---2013

Ans.

Personality	Perception
Personality is the way someone behaves or reacts to situations.	Perception is the process of taking in your surroundings.
It's an external reaction.	It's an internal reaction.
Personality is formed by biological, psychological, and social factors this affects what personality is and it is behavior, how we act.	Perception can be formed by experiences throughout your time. life experiences, learned ways of thinking, interactions with people, negative/positive influences, form our perception of our environment.

Q.2. Distinguish between Introversion and Extroversion?----2013

Ans.

Introversion	**Extroversion**
Involved more with themselves.	Involved more with friends and family.
Get energized when alone.	Get bored when alone.
Have a few friends.	Have a lot of friends.
Sit quietly and listen.	Speak a lot and usually remain in limelight.

Q.3.What are five categories of motivational needs described by Maslow?----2013

Ans. Five categories of motivational needs described by Maslow are:

1. Biological and Physiological needs - air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep, etc.

2. **Safety needs** - protection from elements, security, order, law, limits, stability, etc.

3. **Belongingness and Love needs** - work group, family, affection, relationships, etc.

4. **Esteem needs** - self-esteem, achievement, mastery, independence, status, dominance, prestige, managerial responsibility, etc.

5. **Self-Actualization needs** - realising personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.

Q.4. What is personality? What are its major determinants -----2013

Ans. The word personality is derived from a Greek word "persona" which means "to speak through." Personality is the combination of characteristics or qualities that forms a person's unique identity. It signifies the role which a person plays in public.

The major determinants of Personality are:

- Brain
- Physical Factors
- Situational Factors
- Social Factors
- Cultural & Religious Factors
- Heredity Factors

Q.5. State the personality Traits? -----2014

Ans. Major personality traits influencing organizational behavior are:

1.Locus of control   4.Self monitoring

2.Machiavellianism(Mach)   5.Risk-Taking

3.Self-esteem   6.Type 'A' & Type 'B' Personality

Q.6. . Explain Herzberg's Two factor Theory?---2014

Ans. This theory says that there are some factors (motivating factors) that cause job satisfaction, and motivation and some other also separated factors (hygiene factors) cause dissatisfaction. That means that these feelings are not opposite of each other, as it has always previously been believed. It is also called motivation-hygiene theory.

Q.7. What is Super ego? - ----2011

Ans. According to Freud, the superego is the social component of our personality that is represented by our conscience and is based on our ideal of perfection. The superego is the last component of personality to develop. The main concern of the superego is whether an action is right or wrong. The superego is not concerned with reality.

Q.8. What is Machiavellianism? ----2011

Ans. Machiavellianism in politics is the political doctrine of Machiavelli, which denies the relevance of morality in political affairs and holds that craft and deceit are justified in pursuing and maintaining political power. Machiavellianism in politics is the political doctrine of Machiavelli, which denies the relevance of morality in political affairs and holds that craft and deceit are justified in pursuing and maintaining political power.

Q.9.Identify the managerial implications of social perceptions?----2014

Ans. The managerial implications of social perceptions are:-

(1) knowing that other people have thoughts, beliefs, emotions, intentions, desires, and the like,

(2) being able to "read" other people's inner states based on their words, behavior, facial expression and the like, and

(3) adjusting one's actions based on those "readings". That is, a socially competent person can make note of other people's facial expressions, tone of voice, posture, gestures, words, and the like, and on the basis of these clues, make reasonably accurate judgments about that person's state of mind, emotions, and intentions.

Q.10. Distinguish between self-esteem and self-efficiency?----2012

Ans. Self efficacy is the ability to motivate ourself to get things accomplished (stop smoking, finish school, get up on time every day to get to a job, etc.) . Where as, Self esteem is how we feel about ourself (positive or negative) based on all factors about ourself (appearance, personality, education, family, character, achievement, etc.)

Self-Efficacy: Capacity or power to produce a desired effect. Where as, Self-Esteem: A feeling of pride in ourself.

Q.11. Outline the BIG Five Personality dimensions?----2014 & 2015

Ans. The Big Five are five broad factors (dimensions) of personality traits. They are:

- Extraversion (sometimes called Surgency). The broad dimension of Extraversion encompasses such more specific traits as talkative, energetic, and assertive.
- Agreeableness. Includes traits like sympathetic, kind, and affectionate.
- Conscientiousness. Includes traits like organized, thorough, and planful.
- Neuroticism (sometimes reversed and called Emotional Stability). Includes traits like tense, moody, and anxious.
- Openness to Experience (sometimes called Intellect or Intellect/Imagination). Includes traits like having wide interests, and being imaginative and insightful.

Q.12. What are the characteristics of Type-A personality?----2012

Ans. Type A people mainly have the following behavior and outlook in life:

- These people are high-achievers.
- They are constantly in a race to achieve higher goals.
- They find it difficult to accept failure.
- They feel like time is an opponent that they have to beat every day.

Q.13. Differentiate the approaches to motivation by Maslow and Herzberg's? ----2012

Ans. The differentiation between Maslow & Herzber's theories of motivation are:

(i) Maslow formulated his model on the basis of experience whereas Herzberg developed his theory on the basis of empirical studies.

(ii) Maslow takes into account all needs of individuals whereas Herzberg looks at only those needs which are concerned with environment.

(iii) Maslow considers lower level needs such as pay, safety, working conditions etc., as motivators whereas Herzberg considers these only as hygiene factors and not motivators.

(iv) Maslow theory is applicable to all types of employees whereas Herzberg's theory is mainly applicable to professional persons.

Q.14. Define Locus of Control?----2015

Ans. Locus of control refers to the extent to which individuals believe they can control events affecting them. Individuals with a strong internal locus of control believe events in their life derive primarily from their own actions: for example, when receiving exam results, people with an internal locus of control tend to praise or blame themselves and their abilities. People with a strong external locus of control tend to praise or blame external factors such as the teacher or the exam.

Q.15. Define Halo Effect? ---2015

Ans. The halo effect is a cognitive bias in which an observer's overall impression of a person, company, brand, or product influences the observer's feelings and thoughts about that entity's character or properties. Under halo effect, a person is perceived on the basis of a single trait. It generally occurs during performance appraisal where the supervisor rates an employee on the basis of only one trait e.g. intelligence, punctuality, cooperativeness appearance etc.

Q.16. Who developed ERG theory of Motivation? -----2011

Ans. The psychologist Clayton Alderfer developed ERG theory of Motivation.

Q.17. What do you mean by Type 'B' Personality ?------2012

Ans. Typically, Type 'B' Personality people have the following characteristics:

- They enjoy their achievements.
- They are not too stressed out to excel.
- They are more accepting of failures.
- They enjoy games and competitions, not for the sole objective of winning but for the love of the game.
- They are reflective and innovative.

Q.18. What is Emotional Intelligence?-----2013

Ans. Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior. Emotional intelligence also reflects abilities to join intelligence, empathy and emotions to enhance thought and understanding of interpersonal dynamics. Currently, there are three main models of EI:

- Ability model
- Mixed model (usually subsumed under trait EI)
- Trait model

Q.19. Differentiate between Values & Attitudes ? -----2013

Ans.

Values	Attitudes
1. Values are belief systems that guide our behavior	Attitudes are our likes and dislikes towards things, people and objects
2. Values decide what we think as right, wrong, good, or unjust	Attitudes are responses that are a result of our values
3. Values are more or less permanent	Attitudes are a result of our experiences and do change with favorable experiences

Q.20. State the Vroom's theory of Motivation ?

Ans. The Vroom's theory of Motivation emphasizes on three elements: Valence, Expectancy and Instrumentations. Vroom suggests that an employee's beliefs about Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valence interact psychologically to create a motivational force such that the employee acts in ways that bring pleasure and avoid pain.

Q.21. State the McClelland theory of Motivation?

Ans. David McClelland identified three motivators that he believed we all have: a need for achievement, a need for affiliation, and a need for power. People will have different characteristics depending on their dominant motivator.

According to McClelland, these motivators are learned (which is why this theory is sometimes called the Learned Needs Theory).

Q.22. State the Attribution Theory?

Ans. Attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do. According to Heider a person can make two attributions 1) internal attribution, the inference that a person is behaving in a certain way because of something about the person, such as attitude, character or personality. 2) external attribution, the inference that a person is behaving a certain way because of something about the situation he or she is in.
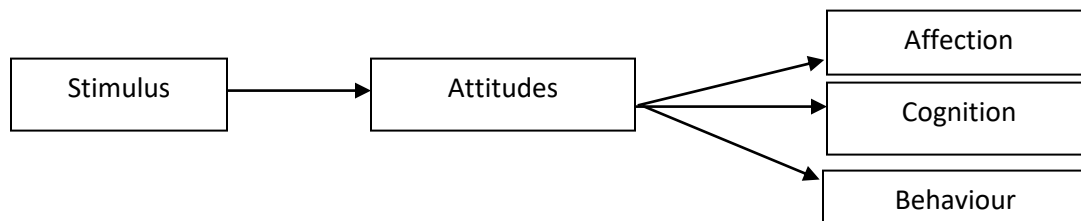
Q.23. Mention the various Indicators under MBTI?

Ans. The various indicators under MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) are:

a) Sensising
b) Intuiting
c) Judging, and
d) Perceiving.

Q.24. State the components of attitudes?

Ans. The structure of a person's attitude consists of three vital components-affective, cognitive and Behaviour.

Q.25. Define Job Attitude?

Ans. A job attitude is a set of evaluations of one's job that constitute one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job.

[1] Overall job attitude can be conceptualized in two ways. Either as affective job satisfaction that constitutes a general or global subjective feeling about a job.

[2] or as a composite of objective cognitive assessments of specific job facets, such as pay, conditions, opportunities and other aspects of a particular job.

[3] Employees evaluate their advancement opportunities by observing their job, their occupation, and their employer.

LONG QUESTIONS & ANSWERS:

Q.1. Define Perception? Discuss the different factors that affect our perception in understanding human behavior. ----2014, 2015.   [10 Marks]

Ans. Meaning of perception:

It is surprising that we receive some objects and reject others. It is equally surprising that an object received is understood differently by different people. Some view a painting as beautiful while others may see the same painting as ugly. The answer is perception, a strong component of human organism.

Definition:

 "Perception is the process of becoming aware of situations, of adding meaningful associations to sensations."

 "Perception can be defined as the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking, and reacting to sensory stimuli or data."

Factors Influencing Perception

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 perciver'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 toughnegotiations. This attitude with doubtless affect 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 other. 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 sub ordinate'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 perceivers 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 other 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 int he environmental situation.

2) Characteristics of the Target : Characteristics in the target that is beingobserved can affect what is perceived. Physical appearance pals 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 a 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 individual's behaviours can be accounted for by the situation, and that it may not reflect the individual's disposition.

Q.2. Define Perception? Discuss the process involved in it? -----2011.   [10 Marks]

Ans. Meaning of perception:

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Definition:

"Perception is the process of becoming aware of situations, of adding meaningful associations to sensations."

"Perception can be defined as the process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking, and reacting to sensory stimuli or data."

Perceptual Process:

Perception process is composed of six processes, viz.,

These processes are influenced by the perceiver and the situation.

I. Receiving:

Perception is a process of receiving and interpreting stimuli. The perceptual process begins when stimuliare received through sensory organs.These stimuli enter our organism through the sensory organs- vision, hearing, smell, touch, taste. We maynot be able to report the existence of certain stimuli, but our behaviour reveals that we are often subject totheir influence. Stimuli need not be external to us they may

be internal also. External stimuli include lightwaves, sound waves, mechanical energy or pressure, and chemical energy from objects that one can smelland taste. Internal stimuli include energy generated by muscles, food passing through the digestive system,and glands secreting behaviour influencing hormones.

II. Perceptional Selectivity (Selecting Stimuli):

The process of filtering information received by our senses is called selecting stimuli or selectiveattention. Several factors influence selective attention. Two sets of factors govern the selection of stimuli:There are

(A) External and (B) Internal

. Internal factors include:

- Personality - Personality traits influence how a person selects perceptions. For instance, conscientious people tend to select details and external stimuli to a greater degree.
- Motivation - People will select perceptions according to what they need in the moment. They will favor selections that they think will help them with their current needs, and be more likely to ignore what is irrelevant to their needs.
- Experience - The patterns of occurrences or associations one has learned in the past affect current perceptions. The person will select perceptions in a way that fits with what they found in the past.

External factors include:

- Size - A larger size makes it more likely an object will be selected.
- Intensity - Greater intensity, in brightness, for example, also increases perceptual selection.
- Contrast - When a perception stands clearly out against a background, there is a greater likelihood of selection.
- Motion - A moving perception is more likely to be selected.
- Repetition - Repetition increases perceptual selection.
- Novelty and familiarity - Both of these increase selection. When a perception is new, it stands out in a person's experience. When it is familiar, it is likely to be selected because of this familiarity.

III. Perceptional Organization:

The perceptional selection related to the discussion of external and internal factors, which helped gain the perceiver's attention. The stimuli received must be organized so as to assign some meaning to them. Thisaspect of forming bits of information into meaningful wholes is called the perpetual organization. Thereare three dimensions to the perpetual organization, viz., figure ground, perpetual grouping, and perpetualconstancy.

(i) Figure Ground:

The ground principle states that relationship of a target to its background influences perception. In other words, according to the principle, perceived objects stand out as separable from their general background.For example, illustrate the figure ground principle. Figure may at first look like a white vase. However, if white is taken as the background, we see two gray profiles
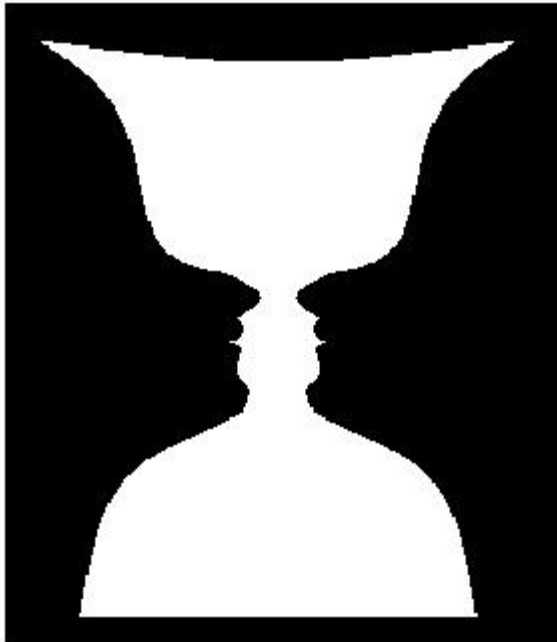
We can see figure-ground relationship through senses other than vision. For example, we may hear thesong of a bird against a background of outdoor noises or the melody played by the violin against theharmony of the rest of the orchestra.

(ii) Perpetual Grouping:

The principles of grouping first defined by gestalt psychologists include similarity proximity closure, andcontinuity.

(a) Similarity:

The principle of similarity is exemplified when objects of similar shape, size, or color tendto be grouped together. In an organization, for example, all employees who wear white-collars may be perceived as a common group, when, in reality, each worker is a unique individual

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The signs in the figure are perceived as five rows rather than the seven columns, even though the distances between the rows and columns are equal.

(b) Proximity:

The principle of proximity underlines the tendency to perceive stimuli, which are near oneanother as belonging together.For example, several employees in an organization may be identified as a single group because of physical proximity. Similarly, several workers working on a machine are perceived to be one group and the groupas a whole is held responsible for any failure in the machine.Figure demonstrates the

proximity principle. The eight circles in the figure are seen as pairs of two, three,or four depending on their nearness to one another.
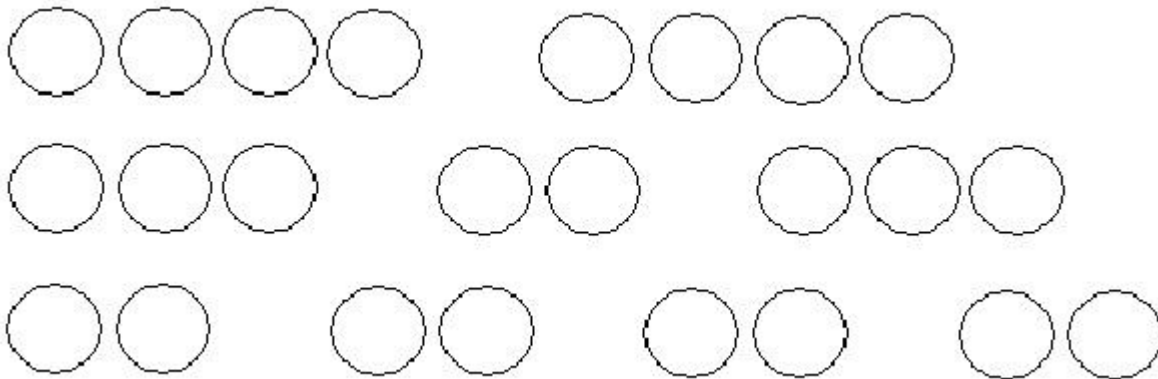

(c) Closures:

The principles of closures states that a person has a tendency to perceive a whole when noneexists. The person's perpetual process will close the gaps, which are unfilled from sensory inputs.In figure the figures are recognized as a square, triangle, and number.
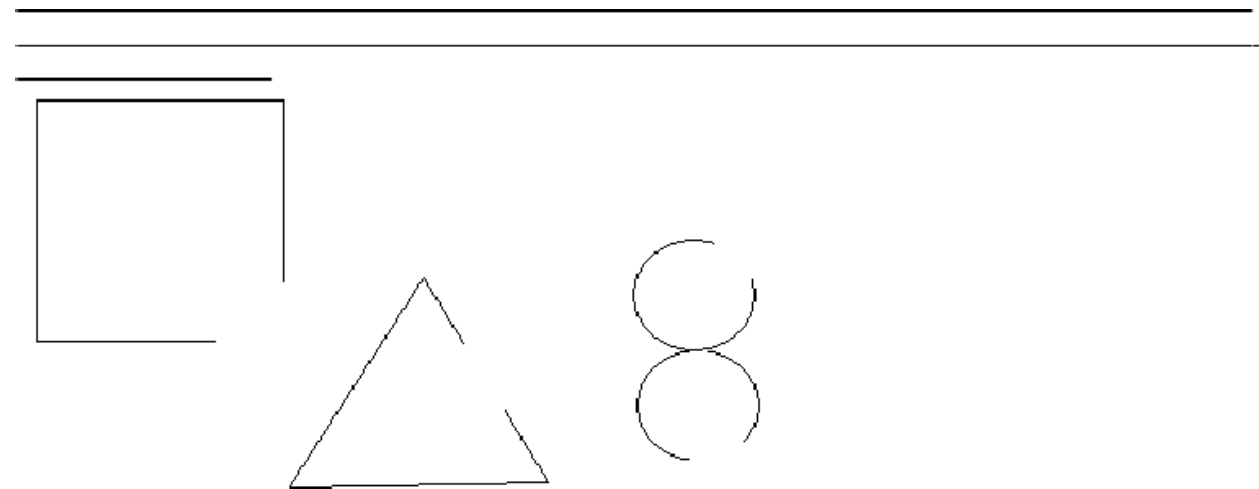
(d) Continuity:

The principle of continuity assumes that an individual tends to perceive continuous linesor patterns. The individual sees only obvious lines but fails to have creative thinking. A new decisions for a product, for example, may be perceived by him as mere lines but the innovative ideas are lost by him. For example, (A) in this figure though the curved line is broken, it is perceived as a continuous line, so also straight line is not seen with semicircles but as a continuous line (B) the dots are perceived as existing in the same line of direction continuously.
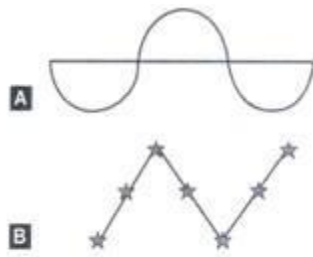
Figs 3.5A and B: Continuity

(iii) Perpetual Constancy:

A more subtle part of perpetual organization is constancy, our ability to perceive certain characteristics of an object as remaining constant, despite variations in the stimuli that provide us with our information.Such constancy amidst changing stimuli is indispensable if we are to adjust to our world. There are severalaspects of constancy.

(a) Shape constancy:

One of these, shape constancy, is exemplified whenever an object appears tomaintain its shape despite marked changed in the retinal image. For example, we see the top of a glass bottle as "circular" whether we view it from the side or from the top.

(b) Size constancy:

Another is size constancy, which refers to the fact that as an object is moved farther away we tend to see it as more or less invariant in size. For example, football players on the opposite sideof the field do not look appreciably smaller than those closer to you on the field even though their imageson the retina are much smaller.

(c) Color constancy:

Then there is the color constancy, which implies that familiar objects are perceivedto be of the same color in varied conditions. For example, the owner of a blue car sees it as blue whether looking at it in bright sunlight, in dim illumination, or under a yellow street light.Constancy gives a person a sense of stability in a changing world. If constancy were not at work the worldwould be very chaotic and disorganized for the individual. An organizational example would be theworker who must select a piece of material or a tool of the correct size from a wide variety of materialsand tools at varying distances from a workstation. Without perpetual constancy, the sizes, and colors of objects would change as the worker moved about and would make the job almost impossible

Q.3. Explain the importance of perception in OB? ----2012 [05 Marks]

Ans. The importance of perception in OB are as follows:

(i) Perception is very important in understanding the human behaviour, because every person perceives the world and approaches the life problems differently- Whatever we see or feel is not necessarily the same as it really is.

(ii) If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behaviour in the changed circumstances by understanding their present perception of the environment.

(iii) With the help of perception, the needs of various people can be determined, because people's perception is influenced by their needs. Like the mirrors at an amusement park, they distort the world in relation to their tensions.

(iv) Perception is very important for the manager who wants to avoid making errors when dealing with people and events in the work setting. This problem is made more complicated by the fact that different people perceive the same situation differently. In order to deal with the subordinates effectively, the managers must understand their perceptions properly.

Thus, for understanding the human behaviour, it is very important to understand their perception, that is, how they perceive the different situations. People's behaviour is based on their perceptions of what reality is, not on reality itself. The world as it is perceived is the world that is important for understanding the human behaviour.

Q.4. Discuss the various factors which affect the personality development of an individual? ----- 2011.   [10 Marks]

Ans. Personality does not evolved by a single factor. It is a mixture of a lot of things. Some of those factors are psychological, some are physical, some are biological and some are even hereditary. So,some of the basic factors are as below:

1. Biological factors: The general biological characteristics of human biological system influence the way in which human beings tend to see external data interpret and respond to them. The study of biological contribution to personality can be divided into three major categories hereditary, brain and physical stature.

- Hereditary: Hereditary is the transmission of the qualities from the ancestor to descendent through a mechanism primarily lying in the chromosomes of the germ cell. Hereditary predisposes a certain mental, physical and emotional states. It has been established through research that those psychological characteristics can be transmitted through hereditary. However such conclusive proof is not available for human beings.
- Brain: The second biological factor is brain, which is supposed to pay a role in personality. The structure of brain determines personality, though no conclusive proof is available so far about the role of brain in personality formation.
- Physical Features: The third biological factor determining personality formation is physical characteristics and rate of maturation. An individual external appearance, which is biologically determined, is an important ingredient of personality. Ina narrow sense personality is referred to the physical features of a person. A person's physical feature has some influence over his personality because he will effect influence on others and in turn will affect his self-concept.

2. Family and social factors: Family and social groups have most significant impact on personality development. These groups have their impact through socialization and identification process.

- Socialization Process: Socialization is process by which the individual infant acquires, from the enormously wide range of behaviour potentialities that are open to him at birth, those behaviour patterns that are customary and are acceptable according to the standards of his family and social group. Socialization process starts with initial contact between mother and her new infant. Later on other members of the family and social group influence the socialization process.
- Identification Process: The identification process occurs when a person tries to identify himself with some person to whom he feels ideal in the family. First identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour between the child and model. Second identification can be looked in as the child motives or desires to be like the model. Third it can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

3. Home environment: Total home environment is critical factor in personality development. For E.g. children with markedly institutional upbringing or children in cold unstimulating home have much greater

potential to be emotionally maladjusted than children raised by parents in warm and loving and stimulating environment.

- Family Members: Parents and other family members have a strong influence on the personality development of the child. Parents have more effect on the personality development as compared to other members of the family.
- Social Groups: Besides a person's home environment and family members there are other influences arising from the social placement of the family as the person is exposed to agencies outside the home, particularly the school, friendship and other work groups. Similarly socio economic group also affect personality.

4. Cultural Factors: Culture is the underlying determinant of human decision making. It generally determines attitude towards independence, aggression competition and co-operation. Each culture expects and trains its members to behave in the way that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he/she is likely to encounter and the values and the personality characteristics that will be reinforced and learned.

5. Situational factors: Apart from biological, sociological and cultural factors situational factors also determine personality development. Situation exerts an important press on the individual it exercises constraint and may provide push. This aspect is very important for organization behaviour because manager has control over the organizational situation.

Q.5. Identify and describe the Big-Five personality dimensions? ----2014   [10 Marks]

Ans. Personality is best explained through the BIG FIVE model given by John Bearden. In contemporary psychology, the **"Big Five" factors** (or **Five Factor Model**; **FFM**) of personality are five broad domains or dimensions of personality which are used to describe human personality.
The Big five factors are <u>Openness</u>, <u>Conscientiousness</u>, <u>Extraversion</u>, <u>Agreeableness</u>, and <u>Neuroticism</u> (OCEAN, or CANOE if rearranged). The Neuroticism factor is sometimes referred to as Emotional Stability.
The Big Five factors and their constituent traits can be summarized as follows:

- **Openness** – (inventive / curious vs. consistent / cautious). Appreciation for <u>art</u>, <u>emotion</u>, <u>adventure</u>, unusual ideas, <u>curiosity</u>, and variety of experience.
  Openness is a general appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, imagination, curiosity, and variety of experience. The trait distinguishes imaginative people from down-to-earth, conventional people. People who are open to experience are intellectually curious, appreciative of art, and sensitive to beauty. They tend to be, compared to closed people, more creative and more aware of their feelings. They are more likely to hold unconventional beliefs.
  People with low scores on openness tend to have more conventional, traditional interests. They prefer the plain, straightforward, and obvious over the complex, ambiguous, and subtle. They may regard the arts and sciences with suspicion or even view these endeavors as uninteresting.

High score   Low score

High score	Low score
■ Finds routines and systems constricting ■ Enjoys challenging the status quo ■ Champions change - accepts risks ■ Idealistic, with a variety of interests ■ Creative thinker and problem solver ■ Unconventional and intellectual ■ Thinks on feet, improvises	■ Follow rules and procedures ■ Risk-averse and cautious of change ■ Adapts rather than creates new approaches ■ Conservative and serious ■ Obedient to corporate methodology ■ Practical and down to earth ■ Adheres to guidelines and systems

- **Conscientiousness** – (efficient / organized vs. easy-going / careless). A tendency to show <u>self-discipline</u>, act <u>dutifully</u>, and aim for <u>achievement</u>; planned rather than spontaneous behavior.
  Conscientiousness is a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement. The trait shows a preference for planned rather than spontaneous behavior. It influences the way in which we

control, regulate, and direct our impulses. Conscientiousness includes the factor known as <u>Need for Achievement</u> (NAch).

High score

- Flexible and informal approach to work
- Multi-tasker
- Not detail conscious - expedient
- Prefers 'big picture' - strategic
- Less committed to formal tasks
- Works well in a chaotic environment
- Dislikes paper work - unstructured

Low score

- Structured approach to work
- Quality-conscious and detailed
- Plans and forecasts - organized
- Reliable and efficient
- Persevering and dutiful
- Committed to the job - striving
- Keen to achieve goals

- **Extraversion** – (outgoing / energetic vs. shy / reserved). Energy, positive emotions, <u>surgency</u>, and the tendency to seek <u>stimulation</u> in the company of others.

  Extraversion is characterized by positive emotions, surgency, and the tendency to seek out stimulation and the company of others. The trait is marked by pronounced engagement with the external world. Extraverts enjoy being with people, and are often perceived as full of energy. They tend to be enthusiastic, action-oriented individuals who are likely to say "Yes!" or "Let's go!" to opportunities for excitement. In groups they like to talk, assert themselves, and draw attention to themselves.

  Introverts lack the social exuberance and activity levels of extraverts. They tend to seem quiet, low-key, deliberate, and less involved in the social world. Their lack of social involvement should not be interpreted as shyness or depression. Introverts simply need less stimulation than extraverts and more time alone. They may be very active and energetic, simply not socially.

High score

- Reserved and shy in company
- Able to concentrate on long tasks
- Prefers a calm environment
- Dislikes the limelight and attention
- Inhibited and somewhat reluctant in teams
- Not a natural communicator
- Deliberate, and reflects on things
- Lacks spontaneity

Low score

- Open and talkative
- Competitive, enthusiastic and persuasive
- Enjoys a fast pace and variety at work
- Gregarious
- Socially active and energetic
- Can be impulsive or indiscreet
- Needs praise - enjoys attention
- Can lack concentration in routine or long tasks

- **Agreeableness** – (friendly / compassionate vs. cold / unkind). A tendency to be <u>compassionate</u> and <u>cooperative</u> rather than <u>suspicious</u> and <u>antagonistic</u> towards others.

  Agreeableness is a tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others. The trait reflects individual differences in general concern for social harmony. Agreeable individuals value getting along with others. They are generally considerate, friendly, generous, helpful, and willing to compromise their interests with others. Agreeable people also have an optimistic view of human nature. They believe people are basically honest, decent, and trustworthy.

  Disagreeable individuals place self-interest above getting along with others. They are generally unconcerned with others' well-being, and are less likely to extend themselves for other people. Sometimes their skepticism about others' motives causes them to be suspicious, unfriendly, and uncooperative.

High score

- Empathetic and consensus oriented
- Enjoys team participation
- Tolerant of others
- Seen as kind and generous
- Patient and democratic with others
- Can find disciplining others difficult
- Can be seen as too soft or submissive
- Naturally democratic management style

Low score

- Self reliant and independent - pushy
- Not a natural team player - dominant
- Goal oriented - tough and determined
- Capable of dealing with 'office politics'
- Drives through obstacles
- Somewhat impatient with weaker colleagues
- Able to make unpopular decisions
- Autocratic management style

- **Neuroticism** – (sensitive / nervous vs. secure / confident). A tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as <u>anger</u>, <u>anxiety</u>, <u>depression</u>, or <u>vulnerability</u>.

  Neuroticism is the tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, or depression. It is sometimes called emotional instability. Those who score high in neuroticism are emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress. They are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. Their negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time, which means they are often in a bad mood. These problems in emotional regulation can

diminish the ability of a person scoring high on neuroticism to think clearly, make decisions, and cope effectively with stress.

At the other end of the scale, individuals who score low in neuroticism are less easily upset and are less emotionally reactive. They tend to be calm, emotionally stable, and free from persistent negative feelings. Freedom from negative feelings does not mean that low scorers experience a lot of positive feelings.

High score	Low score
■ Unsure of self, hesitant, checks with superiors ■ Prone to anxiety under pressure ■ Dislikes making big/important decisions ■ Not ambitious, somewhat pessimistic ■ Concerned by change or the unexpected ■ May be temperamental, low emotional control ■ Nervous presenting self or own ideas	■ Relaxed, calm under pressure ■ High self esteem ■ Decisive, asserts him/herself ■ Optimistic, enjoys taking lead ■ Resilient to pressure ■ Copes with the unexpected ■ Enjoys autonomy, ambitious

Q.6. Discuss in details the major personality traits influencing organizational behavior ? [10 Marks]

Ans: Major personality traits influencing organizational behavior

1.Locus of control: It is the degree to which people believe that they are the masters of their own fate. Individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that events result primarily from their own behavior and actions. Those with a low internal locus of control believe that powerful others, fate, or chance primarily determine events.

Those with a high internal locus of control have better control of their behavior, tend to exhibit more political behaviors, and are more likely to attempt to influence other people than those with a low external locus of control. Those with a high internal locus of control are more likely to assume that their efforts will be successful. They are more active in seeking information and knowledge concerning their situation.

One's "locus" (Latin for "place" or "location") can either be internal (meaning the person believes that they control their life) or external (meaning they believe that their environment, some higher power, or other people control their decisions and their life).

2.Machiavellianism(Mach): Machiavellianism in politics is the political doctrine of Machiavelli, which denies the relevance of morality in political affairs and holds that craft and deceit are justified in pursuing and maintaining political power.

Machiavellianism can be summarized in the following three lines:

•   gain and use power.

•   Ends justify the means.

•   If it is worth it, use it.

An individual high in Mach is pragmatic(able to solve problems in a practical way), maintains emotional distance and believes that ends justify the means. Such individuals succeed in situations where there are minimum rules and regulations and in those which involve face to face interaction rather than indirect communication.

3.Self-esteem : People differ in the degree to which they like or dislike themselves. Self esteem determines the expectation of success by an individual. People having high self esteem believe that they possess the ability to succeed at work.

4.Self monitoring : Self monitoring refers to the process through which people regulate their own behavior in order to "look good" so that they will be perceived by others in a favorable manner. It

distinguishes between high self-monitors, who monitor their behavior to fit different situations, and low self-monitors, who are more cross-situationally consistent.

5.Risk-Taking :

☐High Risk-taking Managers

☐Make quicker decisions.

☐Use less information to make decisions.

☐Operate in smaller and more entrepreneurial organizations.

☐Low Risk-taking Managers

☐Are slower to make decisions.

☐Require more information before making decisions.

☐Exist in larger organizations with stable environments.

6.Personality types:

Type A personality : Aggressive involvement in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more in less and less time and, if necessary, against the opposing efforts of other things or people.

Type A's

1.   Are always moving, walking, and eating rapidly.

2.   Feel impatient with the rate at which most events are taking place.

3.   Strive to think or do two or more things at once.

4.   Cannot cope with leisure time.

5.   Are obsessed with numbers, measuring their success in terms of how many or how much of everything they acquire.

Type B's

1.   Never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience.

2.   Feel no need to display or discuss either their achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation.

3.   Play for fun and relaxation, rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost.

4.   Can relax without guilt.

Q.7. Explain briefly the importance of personality in OB? [05 Marks]

Ans: The importance of personality in work place are as below:-

Creativity:- A person's ability to think creatively stems from her personality. Brainstorming sessions and one-on-one idea exchanges with employees can help spark creativity. When employees are allowed to apply their creativity to solving company issues, the company benefits from a wider variety of ideas and options. Managers must maintain control over creativity, however, to prevent aggressive personalities

from dominating. Policies regarding the submission of ideas can help keep aggressive personalities in check while still benefiting from their creativity.

Retention:- Appealing to an employee's individual personality can help increase job satisfaction and reduce employee turnover. For example, rather than assume that all employees welcome challenges, you should talk with them to gauge their feelings on job duties. Some employees might prefer routine jobs with few changes or surprises, while others might look forward to challenges. By gauging employee personalities, you can better match employees with job duties.

Teamwork:- Some people are not inclined to work well in a team. They are strongly independent, or they prefer to follow their own set of instructions. These personality traits are important to discover in the interview process through written tests and personal discussions. Hiring someone who does not value teamwork can significantly hinder a work team's progress.

Production:- Some people are just not motivated and cannot be motivated. When their personal productivity drops and they are consistently behind on deadlines, they drag down their department and the company as a whole. This also causes resentment and frustration among staffers who are forced to work harder to make up for the drop in productivity. They may even slow down their own productivity if the uninspired employee is kept on at the company. A general drop in morale will occur.

Q.8. Define Motivation ? Explain Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory of Motivation. -------2012 & 2013. [10 Marks]

Ans: Motivation may be defined as a planned managerial process, which stimulates people to work to the best of their capabilities, by providing them with motives, which are based on their unfulfilled needs.

"Motivation means a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish desired goods." —William G. Scott

Maslow – hierarchy of needs

This is the earliest and most widely known theory of motivation, developed by Abraham Maslow (1943) in the 1940s and 1950s.

This theory condenses needs into five basic categories. Maslow ordered these needs in his hierarchy, beginning with the basic psychological needs and continuing through safety, belonging and love, esteem and self-actualization (Figure 2). In his theory, the lowest unsatisfied need becomes the dominant, or the most powerful and significant need. The most dominant need activates an individual to act to fulfil it. Satisfied needs do not motivate. Individual pursues to seek a higher need when lower needs are fulfilled.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often shown in the shape of a pyramid: basic needs at the bottom and the most complex need (need for self-actualization) at the top. Maslow himself has never drawn a pyramid to describe these levels of our needs; but the pyramid has become the most known way to represent his hierarchy.
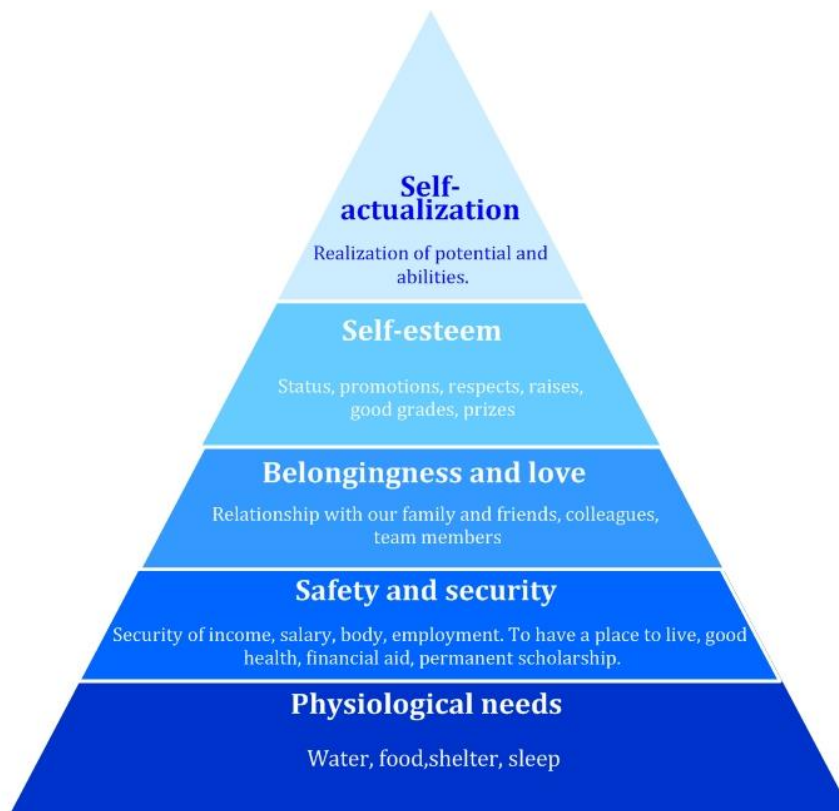
1. Physiological needs (e.g. food, water, shelter, sleep)

It includes the most basic needs for humans to survive, such as air, water and food. Maslow emphasized, our body and mind cannot function well if these requirements are not fulfilled.

These physiological needs are the most dominant of all needs. So if someone is missing everything in his/her life, probably the major motivation would be to fulfil his/her physiological needs rather than any others. A person who is lacking food, safety, love (also sex) and esteem, would most probably hunger for food (and also for money, salary to buy food) than for anything else.

If all the needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then overruled by the physiological needs, all other needs may turn into the background. All capacities are put into the attendance of satisfying hunger. Any other things are forgotten or got secondary importance.

2. Safety and security (secure source of income, a place to live, health and well-being)

If the physiological needs are relatively well contented, new needs will appear, the so called safety needs. Safety needs refer to a person's desire for security or protection. Basically everything looks less important than safety and protection (the physiological needs even sometimes). The healthy and fortunate adults in our culture are largely satisfied in their safety needs. The peaceful, sure, safety and unwavering society makes us feel in safety enough from criminal assaults, murder, unbelievable natural catastrophes, and so on. In that case people no longer have any safety needs as first-line motivators.

Meeting with safety needs demonstrated as a preference for insurance policies, saving accounts or job security, etc., we think about the lack of economic safety. Children have a greater need to feel safe. That is the reason why this level is more important for children.

Safety and security needs include: Personal security; Financial security; Health and well-being; Safety mesh against accidents, illnesses and their adverse impacts.

To tell the truth, in real dangers and traumas – like war, murder, natural catastrophes, criminal assault, etc. -, the needs for safety become an active, first-line and dominant mobilizer of human beings.

3. Belongingness and love (integration into social groups, feel part of a community or a group; affectionate relationships)

If both the physiological and the safety needs are fulfilled, the affection, love and belongingness needs come into prominence. Maslow claimed people need to belong and accepted among their social groups. Group size does not mean anything: social groups can be large or small. People need to love and be loved – both sexually and non-sexually – by others. Depending on the power and pressure of the peer group, this need for belonging may overbear the physiological and security needs.

Love needs involve giving and receiving affections (love is not synonymous with sex – sex is a physiological need). When they are unsatisfied, a person will immediately eliminate the lack of friends, peers and partner. Many people suffer from social nervousness, loneliness, social isolation and also clinical depression because of the lack of this love or belongingness factor.

4. Esteem (respect for a person as a useful, honourable human being)

In our society most people long for a stable and high valuation of themselves, for the esteem of others and for self-respect or self-esteem.

Esteem means being valued, respected and appreciated by others. Humans need to feel to be valued, such as being useful and necessary in the world. People with low self-esteem often need respect from others. Maslow divided two types of esteem needs: a 'lower' version and a 'higher' version. The 'lower' version of esteem is the need for respect from others: for example attention, prestige, status and loving their opinion. The 'higher' version is the need for self-respect: for example, the person may need independence, and freedom or self-confidence.

The most stable and therefore the healthiest self-esteem is based on respect from others. External fame or celebrity and unwarranted adulation won't cause self-esteem, although you feel better for a while.

5. Self-actualization (individual's desire to grow and develop to his or her fullest potential)

'What humans can be, they must be.' Self-actualization reflects an individual's desire to grow and develop to his/her fullest potential. People like opportunities, choosing his/her own versions, challenging positions or creative tasks. Maslow described this level as the 'need to accomplish everything that one can, to become the most that one can be'. Maslow believed that people must overcome their other needs – described above -, not only achieve them. At this level, individual differences are the largest.

Q.7. Describe the nature & importance of Motivation? ------2014   [10 Marks]

Ans: Motivation is no doubt an essential ingredient of any Organisation. It is the psychological technique which really executes the plans and policies through the efforts of others.

Following are the outstanding Features of the concept of motivation:

1. Motivation is a personal and internal feeling: Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates within an individual.

2. Motivation is need based: If there are no needs of an individual, the process of motivation fails. It is a behavioural concept that directs human behaviour towards certain goals.

3. Motivation is a continuous process: Because human wants are unlimited, therefore motivation is an ongoing process.

4. Motivation may be positive or negative: A positive motivation promotes incentives to people while a negative motivation threatens the enforcement of disincentives.

5. Motivation is a planned process: People differ in their approach, to respond to the process of motivation; as no two individuals could be motivated in an exactly similar manner. Accordingly, motivation is a psychological concept and a complex process.

6. Motivation is different from job satisfaction: Motivation is the act to satisfy needs and desires. Job satisfaction results only when such needs and desires are fulfilled. Job satisfaction is the outcome of motivation.

Importance of Motivation

1.   Maximum utilization of factors of production : workers perform the work sincerely through the inspiration of motivation.

2.   Willingness to work: Motivation influences the willingness of people to work. A man is technically, mentally and physically fit to perform the work but they may not be willing to work.

  3. Reduced absenteeism: Financial incentive schemes coerce the workers to work more. This reduces absenteeism.

4. Reduced labour turnover: Motivation has both financial and non-financial incentive schemes. This helps to retain the existing labourers.

5. Availability of right personnel: Financial and non- financial incentives not only retain the existing employees but also attract the employees from outside the enterprise.

6. Building of good labour relations : Motivation helps to solve the labour problems of absenteeism, labour turnover, indiscipline and grievance.

7. Increase in the efficiency and output: Both workers and management have got benefits from motivational plans.

8. Sense of belonging: A proper motivation scheme promotes closer rapport between enterprise and workers.

9. Basis of co-operation : Efficiency and output are increased through co-operation. The co-operation could not be obtained without motivation, so motivation is a basis of co-operation.

10. Helps in realizing organizational goals : Organizational goals are achieved quickly through motivation. Motivated employee have a feeling of total involvement in the performance of organization task.

Q. 9. Explain briefly the Herzberg's, Alderfer's and McClelland theory of Motivation? [10 Marks]

Ans: **Herzberg – Two factor theory**

It is also called motivation-hygiene theory.

This theory says that there are some factors (motivating factors) that cause job satisfaction, and motivation and some other also separated factors (hygiene factors) cause dissatisfactio. That means that these feelings are not opposite of each other, as it has always previously been believed.

Herzberg's five factors of job satisfaction (motivating factors):

• achievement

• recognition

• work itself

• responsibility

• advancement

Only these factors can motivate us. But at the same time we need the lack of dissatisfactions (we need hygiene factors, "workpeace") to achieve more efficient work.

Herzberg's five factors of job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors – deficiency needs):

• company policy and administration

• supervision

• salary

• interpersonal relationships

• working conditions

Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction. According to Herzberg the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors which define the job context.
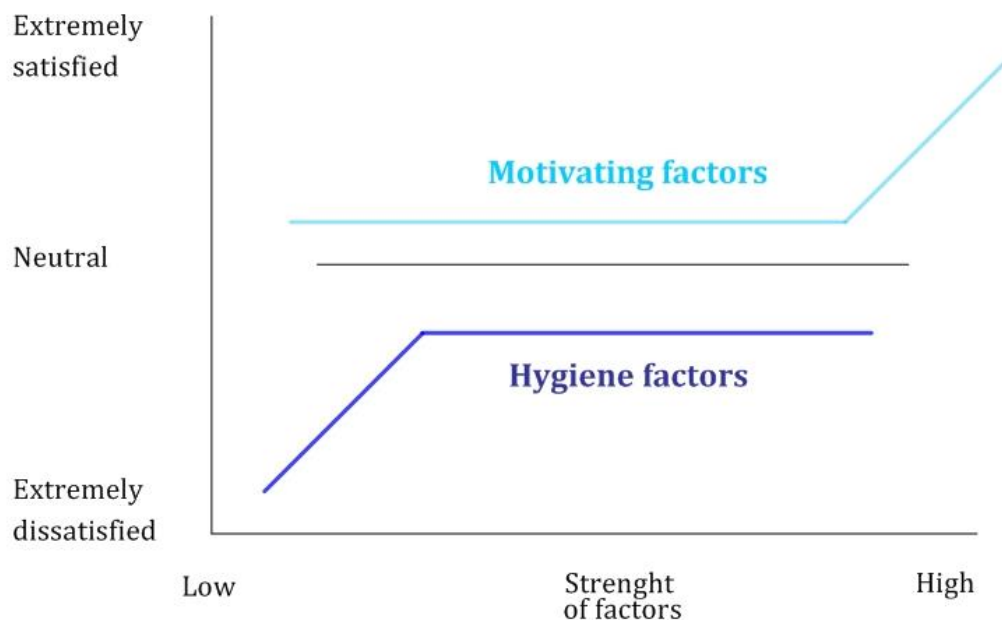
If the hygiene factors, for example salary, working conditions, work environment, safety and security are unsuitable (low level) at the workplace, this can make individuals unhappy, dissatisfied with their job. Motivating factors, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction, and motivation is based on an individual's need for personal growth. If these elements are effective, then they can motivate an individual

to achieve above-average performance and effort. For example, having responsibility or achievement can cause satisfaction (human characteristics).

Hygiene factors are needed to ensure that an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed to ensure employee's satisfaction and to motivate an employee to higher performance.

Alderfer – ERG theory: Existence needs, relatedness needs and growth needs

Alderfer distinguished three steps or classes of needs: existence, relatedness and growth. Maslow's physiological and safety needs belong together to existence needs. Relatedness can be harmonised to belongingness and esteem of others. Growth is the same as Maslow's self-esteem plus self-actualization. Both Maslow and Alderfer tried to describe how these needs, these stages of needs become more or less important to individuals.

• Existence needs: These include needs for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual's physiological and physical safety needs.

• Relatedness needs: Individuals need significant relationships (be with family, peers or superiors), love and belongingness, they strive toward reaching public fame and recognition. This class of needs contain Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs.

• Growth needs: Need for self-development, personal growth and advancement form together this class of need. This class of needs contain Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs.

Alderfer agreed with Maslow that unsatisfied needs motivate individuals. Alderfer also agreed that individuals generally move up the hierarchy in satisfying their needs; that is, they satisfy lower-order before higher-order needs. As lower-order needs are satisfied, they become less important, but Alderfer also said: as higher-order needs are satisfied they become more important. And it is also said that under some circumstances individuals might return to a lower need. Alderfer thought that individuals multiply the efforts invested in a lower category need when higher categorized needs are not consequent.

McClelland – Need for achievement, affiliation and power

In the early 1960s McClelland – built on Maslow's work – described three human motivators. McClelland claimed that humans acquire, learn their motivators over time that is the reason why this theory is sometimes called the 'Learned Needs Theory'. He affirms that we all have three motivating drivers, and it does not depend on our gender or age. One of these drives or needs will be dominant in our behaviour.

McClelland's theory differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's, which focus on satisfying existing needs rather than creating or developing needs. This dominant motivator depends on our culture and life experiences, of course (but the three motivators are permanent). The three motivators are:

• Achievement: a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery

• Affiliation: a need for love, belonging and relatedness

• Power: a need for control over one's own work or the work of others

These learned needs could lead to diversity and variety between employees. More precisely, prioritization and importance of these motivational needs characterises a person's behaviour. As we wrote, although each person has all of these needs to some extent, only one of them tends to motivate an individual at any given time.

Q.10. Explain briefly the Process Theories of Motivation (Vroom's expectancy Theory & Porter Lawler model)?   [10 Marks]

Ans: **Vroom's expectancy theory**

The expectancy theory places an emphasis on the process and on the content of motivation as well, and it integrates needs, equity and reinforcement theories.

Victor Vroom's expectancy theory aims to explain how people choose from the available actions. Vroom defines motivation as a process that governs our choices among alternative forms of voluntary behaviour. The basic rationale of this theory is that motivation stems from the belief that decisions will have their desired outcomes.

The motivation to engage in an activity is determined by appraising three factors. These three factors are the following :

• Expectancy – a person's belief that more effort will result in success. If you work harder, it will result in better performance.

In this case the question is: "Am I capable of making a good grade on a math test if I learn more?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the effort to learn math, on knowledge of math, on the previous experience of math test results, on self-efficacy and specific self-rated abilities.

• Instrumentality – the person's belief that there is a connection between activity and goal. If you perform well, you will get reward.

In this case the question is that: "Will I get the promised reward (a good mark) for performing well on a math test?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the accuracy and consistency of marking. If one day I get a good grade and another day I get a bad grade for the same performance, then the motivation will decrease.

• Valence – the degree to which a person values the reward, the results of success.

In this case the question is that: "Do I value the reward that I get?" Appraisal of this factor is based on the importance of its subject (math), the good mark, and the good performance in general.

Vroom supposes that expectancy, instrumentality and valence are multiplied together to determine motivation. This means that if any of these is zero, then the motivation to do something will be zero as well.

 A person who doesn't see the connection between effort and performance will have zero expectancy. A person who can't perceive the link between performance and reward will have zero instrumentality. For a person who doesn't value the anticipated outcome, reward will have zero valence.

For example if I think:

- that no matter how hard I'm studying I can't learn math due to lack of necessary skills or

- that no matter how good I perform on the test I don't always get good mark so the reward is unpredictable, not dependent on my success or

- the good mark from math is not important for me, and I'm not interested in math, so the reward is not attractive, then I won't be motivated to learn for the exam.

The expectancy theory highlights individual differences in motivation and contains three useful factors for understanding and increasing motivation.

Porter Lawler model

Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler came up with a comprehensive theory of motivation, combining the various aspects that we have so far been discussing and using two additional variables in their model. Though built in large part on Vroom's expectancy model. Porter and Lawler's model is a more complete model of motivation. This model has been practically applied also in their study of managers. This is a multi variate model which explains the relationship that exists between job attitudes and job performance.

Assumptions:
This model is based on four basic assumptions about human behaviour:
(i) As mentioned above, it is a multi variate model. According to this model, individual behaviour is determined by a combination of factors in the individual and in the environment.
(ii) Individuals are assumed to be rational human beings who make conscious decisions about their behaviour in the organisations.
(iii) Individuals have different needs, desires and goals.
(iv) On the basis of their expectations, individuals decide between alternate behaviours and such decided behaviour will lead to a desired outcome.

Elements:

The various elements of this model are explained in the following figure:
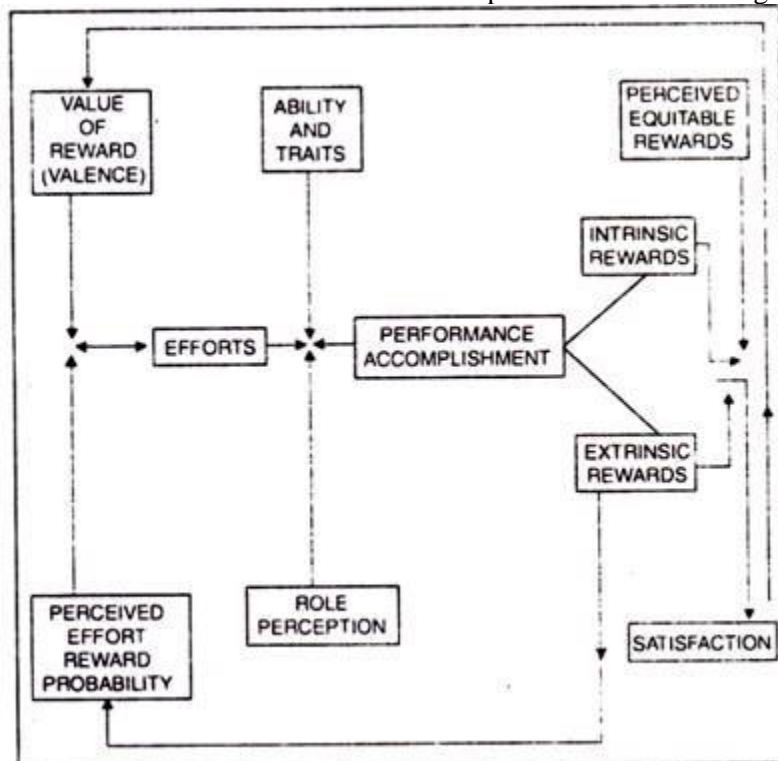

Various Elements of Model

1. Effort: Effort refers to the amount of energy which a person exerts on a job.

2. Value of Reward: First of all people try to figure out whether the rewards that are likely to be received from doing a job will be attractive to them. This is referred to as valence in Vroom's theory. A person who is looking for more money, for example, extra vacation time may not be an attractive reward. If the reward to be obtained is attractive or valent then the individual will put extra efforts to perform the job. otherwise he will lower his effort.

3. Perceived Effort Reward Probability: In addition, before people put forth any effort, they will also try to assess the probability of a certain level of effort leading to a desired level of performance and the possibility of that performance leading to certain kinds of rewards. Based on the valence of the reward and the effort reward probability, people can decide to put in certain level of work effort.

4. Performance: Effort leads to performance. The expected level of performance will depend upon the amount of effort, the abilities and traits of the individual and his role perceptions. Abilities include knowledge, skills and intellectual capacity to perform the job. Traits which are important for many jobs are endurance, pre-servance, and goal directedness. Thus, abilities and traits will moderate the effort-performance relationship.

5. Rewards: Performance leads to certain outcomes in the shape of two types of rewards namely extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards are the external rewards given by others in the organization in the form of money, recognition or praise. Intrinsic rewards are internal feelings of job sell esteem and sense of competence that individuals feel when they do a good job.

6. Satisfaction: Satisfaction will result from both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. However, for being satisfied, an individual will compare his actual rewards with the perceived rewards if actual rewards meet or exceed perceived equitable rewards, the individual will feel satisfied and if these are less than the equitable rewards, the individual will feel dissatisfied.

Q.11. Discuss the Contemporary Theories – Equity Theory of Work Motivation?   [10 Marks]

Ans: The equity theory states that people are motivated if they are treated equitably, and receive what they consider fair for their effort and costs.

The theory was suggested by Adams (1965) and is based on Social Exchange theory.

According to this theory, people compare their contribution to work, costs of their actions and the benefits that will result to the contribution and benefits of the reference person. If people perceive that the ratio of their inputs-outputs to the ratio of referent other's input-output is inequitable, then they will be motivated to reduce the inequity (Figure).
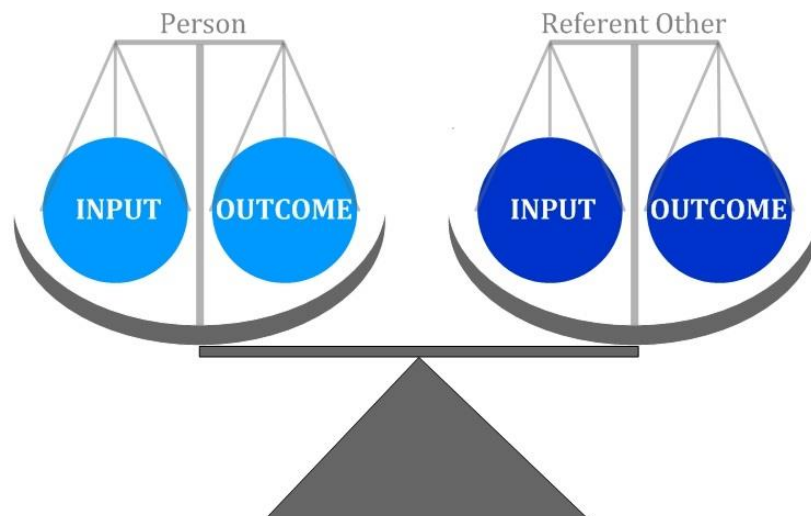
At the workplace the workers put inputs into the job, such as education, experience, effort, energy, and expect to get some outcomes such as salary, reward, promotion, verbal recognition, and interesting and challenging work each in equal amounts (Figure 6).
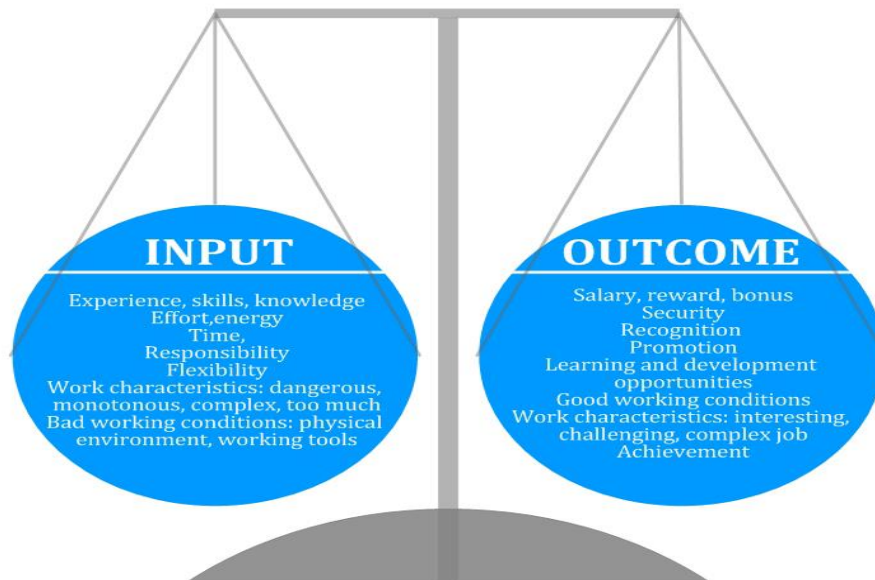

Figure : Examples for the inputs and outcomes in the equity theory

The equity theory works not just in the workplace, but at school as well. For example, when for the same oral exam performance two students get different marks, then inequity exists. In this case, the student who gets the worse mark may lose his/her motivation to learn (reduce his/her efforts), or persuade the teacher to give him/her a better mark, or change the perception of the reference person's performance ("I did not know everything, but my classmate could answer all the questions"). At the school it can demotivate students if someone who never studies or who never performs better than the others always gets good mark. The greater the inequity the greater the distress an individual feels, which will motivate the endeavour to make the outcomes and the inputs equal compared to the reference person.

When inequity exists, a person might…

• reduce his/her inputs, efforts, quantity or quality of his/her work

• try to increase his/her outputs (ask for better mark, or pay raising)

• adjust his/her perception of reference person or his/her outcomes or inputs (re-evaluate his/her or the reference person's effort or outcome)

• change the reference person

• quit the situation.

The problem with equity theory is that it does not take into account differences in individual needs, values, and personalities. For example, one person may perceive a certain situation as inequitable while another does not. Nevertheless ensuring equity is essential to motivation.

Q.12. What do you understand by attitudes ? Discuss how attitudes are formed. Also highlights the importance of attitude in work place.   [10 Marks]

Ans: Attitudes are our feelings, thoughts and behavioral tendencies towards a specific object or situation. Attitude is a predisposition to respond to a certain set of facts. Attitudes are evaluative statements – either favourable or unfavorable, concerning the objects, people or events. In the language of the layman, we may describe an attitude as the way we feel about something. This may be a feeling towards college, cricket team, temple, democracy, parents, things, ideas, policies and so on.

Characterstics of Attitudes
Attitudes can be distinguished in terms of (characterized by) their valence, multiplexity, relation to needs, and centrality.
1. **Valence:** It refers to the magnitude or degree of favourableness or unfavourableness towards the object / event. If a person is relatively indifferent towards an object then his attitude has low valence. On the contrary, if a person is extremely favourable or unfavorable towardss an attitude object, then his attitude will have a high valence.
2. **Multiplexity:** It refers to the number of elements constituting the attitude. For example, one student may show interest in studies, but another shows interest, in addition works hard, sincere and serious. Similarly, an employee may feel simply loyal to an organisation. But another may feel loyal, respectful, fearful and dependent.
3. **Relation to needs:** Attitudes can also vary in relation to the needs they serve. For instance, attitudes of an individual towards the pictures may serve only entertainment needs. On the other hand, attitudes of an individual towards task may serve strong needs for security, achievement, recognition and satisfaction.
4. **Centrality:** It refers to the importance of the attitude object to the individual. The attitudes which have high centrality for an individual will be less succeptible to change.

Attitude Formation
The question often arises "where do attitudes come from"? Attitudes are basically learned. People are not born with specific attitudes; rather they acquire them through the "process of learning". The determinants of a person's attitudes are as follows:

1. **Experience:** Individuals learn attitudes through job experiences. They develop attitudes about such factors as salary, performance reviews, job design, work group affiliation and managerial capabilities.
2. **Association:** The major groups, associations, geographic region, religion, educational background, race, sex, age and income – class strongly influence our attitudes.
3. **Family:** Individuals develop certain attitudes from their family members – parents, brothers, sisters, etc.
4. **Peer groups:** As people approach their adulthood, they increasingly rely on their peer groups for approval, attitude. We often seek out others who share attitudes similar to our own, or else we change our attitudes to confirm to the attitudes of those in the group whose approval is important to us.
5. **Society:** Social class, religious affiliation, culture, languages and the structure of society influence the formation of attitudes. For ex., the attitudes of Russians towards communism are radically different from those held by an average American.
6. **Personality factors:** Personality factors such as individuality, self – confidence, independence, creativity, innovation, defensiveness etc., also determine the formation of attitudes.

Importance of attitude in work place

A positive attitude in the workplace helps employees to accomplish tasks faster and in a better manner. The performance of employees to a great extent depends on the good relationship they share with their colleagues. A good relationship can be established only when employees demonstrate a positive attitude

towards their work and colleagues. Through positive energy, work becomes a pleasure and employees find it easier to achieve their goals.

A positive attitude has significant benefits for an individual in many aspects. Let's look at some of them below.

1. Career success: Employees' success in the workplace is measured through their performance. Employees with a positive attitude will always think of ways to accomplishing their task in a well defined manner instead of complaining or finding excuses for non-performance. This results in success either through promotion or increased compensation.

2. Productivity: With a positive attitude, employees tend to take more interest in what they do and deliver. Consequently, they produce better quality work with minimum errors. This improves their overall output as well as productivity.

3. Leadership: Working in an organization is all about managing a diverse workforce. Some employees earn respect easily and people often follow and listen to them. This is possible through the positive attitude demonstrated by leaders.

4. Team work: Good relationships among employees help them to build effective teams where all the members are united and work for a common cause. A positive attitude helps employees to appreciate each other's competencies and work as a team for achieving common objectives instead of being overly perturbed by inadequacies of team members.

5. Decision making: Having a positive attitude helps employees to take better decisions, in an objective manner. It triggers a healthy thought process, enabling employees to choose wisely and logically.

6. Motivation: Having a positive attitude helps in motivating employees to overcome obstacles that they may face during the course of their job. It also determines the way they see the world around them. The moment they are successful in overcoming obstacles, they are motivated to move forward.

7. Interpersonal relations: Customers prefer to deal with someone who is positive in nature. A positive attitude enables employees to share a better rapport with customers, earning valuable customer loyalty.

8. Stress management: Stress has a detrimental effect on the health of employees. So how can employees cope with it? Stress can be reduced through positive thinking; and with reduced stress, employees will enjoy better health and take fewer sick leaves.

In conclusion, a positive attitude at work is beneficial not only to the organization, but also to the employees on an individual basis.

Q.13. Discuss the relationship between attitudes and behavior?   [10 Marks]

Ans: The relationship between attitudes and behaviour is highly controversial. On one side, cognitive theorists believe that changes in attitudes affect the behaviour of individuals. In other words, change in behaviour calls for a change in attitudes of individuals. On the other side of argument, some theorists like Bem and others believe that changes in behaviour affect the attitude of individuals.
Perhaps the most famous research on this topic "behaviour and attitudes" was conducted by Richard La piere. Long back (from 1930 to 1932) La piere and a Chinese couple traveled around the entire USA by car. These people visited 251 restaurants and received warm welcome and were treated magnificently well. But after six months when La piere sent letters to the restaurants asking whether Chinese clientele would be accommodated, surprisingly over 93% of the respondents said "no" – i.e. Chinese would not be accommodated.

The essence of La Piere's work is that people acted in one way i.e. friendly and hospitably, whereas they responded to Chinese in a different way i.e. negative aspects and beliefs about Chinese. In other words, clearly there was a discrepancy between the actual behaviour and reported attitude. The results of this

research created an uproar among behavioural scientists who then attempted to define, redefine, measure and develop new theories of attitudes., Out of the refinement came some generalizations about attitudes and behaviour.

1. First of all, the more specific the measurement of attitude, the more it is to be related to the behaviour. La piere obtained extremely discrepant information about the prejudice towards Chinese people in America. He simply asked about Chinese people in general. He did not actually measure the attitude.
2. Attitudes are related to behaviour. There is no doubt about it, but they are influenced by situational factors such as pressures by union, top management etc.

Cognitive Dissonance theory: In the late 50s Leon Festinger advocated the "Cognitive Dissonance theory". It explains the linkage between attitudes and behaviour of employees.

Dissonance refers to a psychological inconsistency among different cognitions associated with internal attitudes and behaviour. Dissonance means simply inconsistency. Two cognitions are said to be in a dissonant (inconsistent) relation if one implies the opposite of the other. For instance, the cognition that "a person is a chain – smoker" is highly inconsistent with "cigarette smoking is extremely injurious and cancerous to health". Festinger argued that any kind of inconsistency is uncomfortable and the individual attempts to reduce dissonance and hence discomfort. Research also concluded that people, in general, seek to reduce dissonance by whatever the means.

Q.14. How can you develop Emotional Intelligence at the work place ? [05 Marks]

Ans: **EI** is the ability to recognize your emotions, understand what they're telling you, and realize how your emotions affect people around you. It also involves your perception of others: when you understand how they feel, this allows you to manage relationships more effectively.

Daneil Golemann an American psychologist, developed a framework of five elements that define emotional intelligence:

1. **Self-Awareness** – People with high EI are usually very **self-aware** ⊕. They understand their emotions, and because of this, they don't let their feelings rule them. They're confident – because they trust their intuition and don't let their emotions get out of control.
   They're also willing to take an honest look at themselves. They know their strengths and weaknesses, and they work on these areas so they can perform better. Many people believe that this self-awareness is the most important part of EI.

2. **Self-Regulation** – This is the ability to **control emotions** and impulses. People who self-regulate typically don't allow themselves to become too angry or jealous, and they don't make impulsive, careless decisions. They think before they act. Characteristics of self-regulation are thoughtfulness, comfort with change, **integrity** , and the ability to say no.
3. **Motivation** – People with a high degree of EI are usually **motivated** . They're willing to defer immediate results for long-term success. They're highly productive, love a challenge, and are very effective in whatever they do.
4. **Empathy** – This is perhaps the second-most important element of EI. **Empathy** is the ability to identify with and understand the wants, needs, and viewpoints of those around you. People with empathy are good at recognizing the feelings of others, even when those feelings may not be obvious. As a result, empathetic people are usually excellent at **managing relationships** , **listening** , and relating to others. They avoid stereotyping and judging too quickly, and they live their lives in a very open, honest way.
5. **Social Skills** – It's usually easy to talk to and like people with good social skills, another sign of high EI. Those with strong social skills are typically team players. Rather than focus on their own success first, they help others develop and shine. They can manage disputes, are excellent communicators, and are masters at building and maintaining relationships.

Q.15. What are the barriers to changing attitude? How attitudes can be changed. [05 Marks]

Ans: The barriers to Changing Attitudes are:

1. Escalation of Commitment: It refers to the prior commitment of people to a particular cause and their unwillingness to change.
2. Cognitive Dissonance: It explains the linkage between attitudes and behaviour of employees. The discomfort experienced by people feeling cognitive dissonance leads to efforts to reduce the tension by: i. Changing the attitudes, ii. Changing the behavior and iii. Rationalising the inconsistency.
3. Insufficient Information: Sometimes people see no reason why they would change their attitudes. The boss may not like a subordinate's negative attitudes, but the latter may be quite pleased with his behavior. Unless the boss can show the individual why a negative attitude is detrimental to career progress or salary increases or some other personal objective, the subordinate may continue to have negative attitude.

Managers are often confronted with the problem of changing attitudes of individual employees. Attitude changes may be classified into congruent and incongruent changes. By congruent change we mean a movement in the same direction. For ex. Conversion of a mild pro-war attitude into even more pro-war is called congruent attitude change. On the other hand, conversion of a pro-war attitude into anti-war constitutes incongruent attitude change.

An incongruent attitude change involves a change towards the other end of the continnum (in the opposite direction). Similarly turning dislike into like, unfavourableness into favourableness are also examples of incongruent attitude changes.

A manager attempting to change an individual employee's attitudes should keep in mind the following factors.

1. The characteristics of the communicator
2. The method of communication
3. The characteristics of the persons to be influenced
4. Situational factors

1. The characteristics of the communicator: One very important variable is status of the manager. The higher the status of the manager the higher the probability that he will be able to change the employee's attitude. Another important variable is the amount of prestige he carries on his head. The high prestige communicator produces the greatest amount of attitude change.

Changing attitude is also a function of the trust in the communicator by the employees. If the employees have faith in the manager, they accept the message and change their attitudes correspondingly. Finally, if a manager is liked by his subordinates, he is likely to be successful in bringing changes in the attitudes of his subordinates.

2. The Method of communication: Another influential factor in attitude change is the way the manager communicates the message to his employees. Communication should be easy and convincing so that it creates changes without any discomfort. A participative two-way effective communication is essential in bringing changes in the attitudes of employees. Empathy in communication is very important to make communication more effective.

3. The characteristics of the Target: The most important factor influencing the attitude change is the degree of commitment of the target (employees) to the initial attitude. And to change the attitude would be to admit the mistakes. Firmly held attitudes which people are behaviourally or morally committed are difficult to change. Further more, people who appear to be self-confident, strong and high self-esteem are difficult to change because they feel their attitudes are correct.

4. Situational factors: Situational factors are not only extensive but also play a major role in influencing the change in attitudes of people. Situational factors include the prevailing context, impact of group on individual members etc.

Q.16. Discuss in details the attribution theory by giving an example? [10 marks]

Attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Heider (1958) was the first to propose a psychological theory of attribution, but Weiner and colleagues (e.g., Jones et al, 1972; Weiner, 1974, 1986) developed a theoretical framework that has become a major research paradigm of social psychology. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do, i.e., attribute causes to behavior. A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behavior. Attribution theory is closely associated with the concept of motivation.

Attribution Process
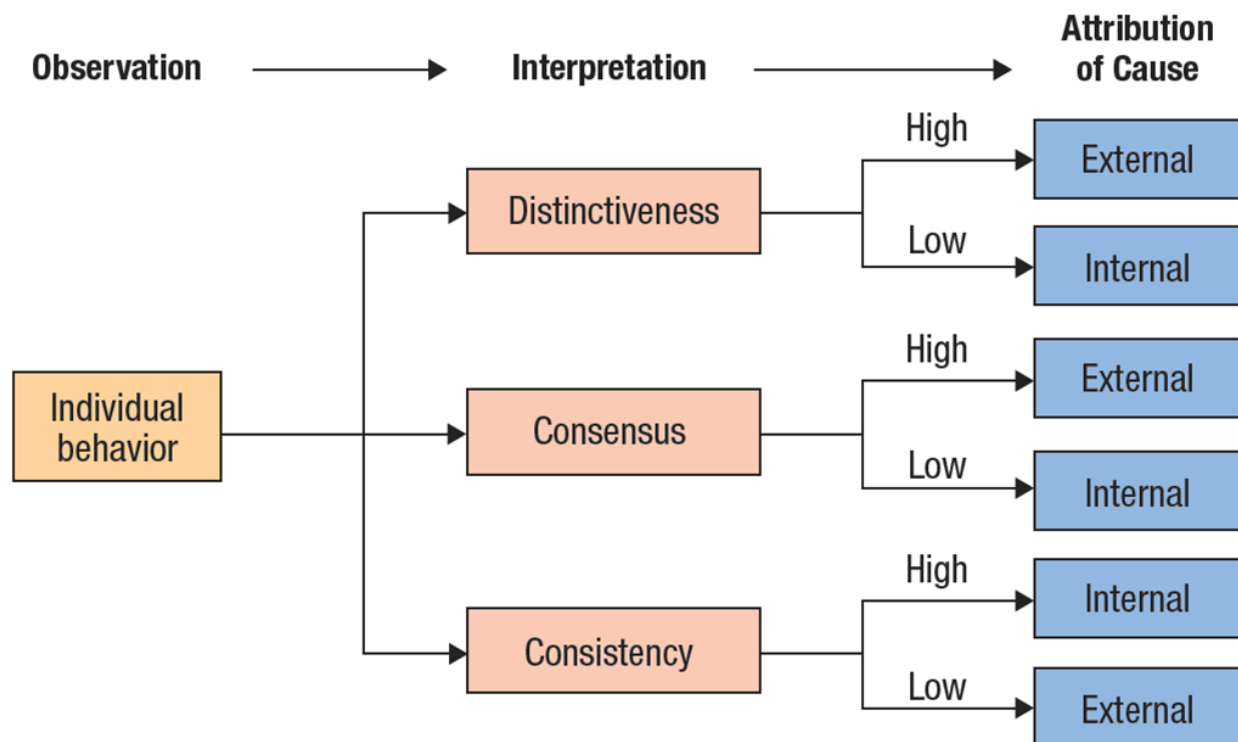
Under conditions of high consistency, high distinctiveness and high consensus, the perceiver will tend to attribute the behavior of the perceived person to external causes. When distinctiveness and concensus are low, the perceiver will tend to attribute the behavior to internal causes. Of course, other combinations of high and low consistency, distinctiveness and consensus are possible. Some combinations , however, may not provide the perceiver with a clear choice between internal and external causes.

Types

External attribution:- External attribution, also called situational attribution, refers to interpreting someone's behavior as being caused by the situation that the individual is in. For example, if Jacob's car tire is punctured he may attribute that to a hole in the road; by making attributions to the poor condition of the highway, he can make sense of the event without any discomfort that it may in reality have been the result of his bad driving.

Interpersonal attribution:-Sometimes, when one's action or motives for the action are questioned, one has to give reasons. Interpersonal attributions happen when the causes of the events involve two or more individuals.

Principles of Attribution

1. Attribution is a three stage process: (1) behavior is observed, (2) behavior is determined to be deliberate, and (3) behavior is attributed to internal or external causes.
2. Achievement can be attributed to (1) effort, (2) ability, (3) level of task difficulty, or (4) luck.
3. Causal dimensions of behavior are (1) locus of control, (2) stability, and (3) controllability.

Example of Attribution : ttribution theory has been used to explain the difference in motivation between high and low achievers. According to attribution theory, high achievers will approach rather than avoid tasks related to succeeding because they believe success is due to high ability and effort which they are confident of. Failure is thought to be caused by bad luck or a poor exam, i.e. not their fault. Thus, failure doesn't affect their self-esteem but success builds pride and confidence. On the other hand, low achievers avoid success-related chores because they tend to (a) doubt their ability and/or (b) assume success is related to luck or to "who you know" or to other factors beyond their control. Thus, even when successful, it isn't as rewarding to the low achiever because he/she doesn't feel responsible, i.e., it doesn't increase his/her pride and confidence.

Q.17. Write Short notes on: [05 Marks Each]

    a) **Social Perception**
    b) **The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) ----2015**
    c) **Personality and job – fit theory**
    d) **Components of attitude ---2015**
    e) **Job attitude**

Ans:

    a) Social Perception: Social perception consists of those processes by which we perceive other people. It is the processes of interpreting information about other people. We often appraise performance of others on the basis of how we perceive their behaviors. It is on the basis of accurate social or interpersonal perception that managers can cultivate effective and meaningful relationships with their peers, supervisors, as well as subordinates. The factors influencing social perception are, in a general sense, the same as those that influence perceptional selection, that is, both external and internal factors. However, when a human being perceives another human being, the factors may be categorized as follows:
1. Characteristics of the perceiver
2. Characteristics of the perceived
3. Characteristics of the situation or context

    b) The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI): The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) Step I is based on Carl Jung's theory of psychological type. It explains some of the main differences between people and is often used to help choose a career, improve relationships, develop leadership skills, etc. It indicates your personality preferences in four dimensions:
• Where you focus your attention – Extraversion (E) or Introversion (I)
•The way you take in information – Sensing (S) or INtuition (N)
•How you make decisions – Thinking (T) or Feeling (F)
•How you deal with the world – Judging (J) or Perceiving (P)
The four letters that make up your personality type can help you to understand yourself and your interactions with others.
The 16 personality types of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator instrument are listed here as they are often shown in what is called a "type table."

The Sixteen Myers-Briggs Personality Types

ISTJ—Most reliable Organized, compulsive, private, trustworthy, follows rules and regulations, practical	**ISFJ--Most loyal** Easy to collaborate with, works behind scenes, sacrifices readily, accountable
ISTP--Most pragmatic Observant, often seen as cool and aloof, practical, unpretentious, ready for anything	**ISFP—Most artistic** Warm, sensitive, unassuming, team player, in touch with self and nature
INTJ—Most independent Theoretical, skeptical, needs to be competent, sees world as chessboard, needs things "my way"	**INFP—Most idealistic** Has strong personal values, seeks inner order and peace, creative, nondirective, reserved with people
INTP—Most conceptual Challenges others to think, high need for competency, socially cautious, independent	**ENFP—Most optimistic** People-oriented, creative, seeks harmony with others, life of the party, better at starting than finishing
ESTP--Most fun Unconventional, fun, gregarious, lives for the here and now, problem-solver	**ESFP—Most generous** Sociable, spontaneous, loves surprises, cuts red tape, juggles many projects, shares readily
ESTJ--Most forceful Orderly and structured, sociable, opinionated, results-oriented, productive, traditional	**INFJ---Most reflective** Reflective, introspective, quietly caring, creative, eloquent speaker/writer, visionary
ENTP—Most inventive Given to brinksmanship, tests limits, enthusiastic, innovative, enjoys arguing both sides, likes challenges	**ENFJ—Most persuasive** Charismatic, idealistic, ignores unpleasantness, sees the potential in others, compassionate
ENTJ—Most commanding Visionary, gregarious, argumentative, planner, leader, impatient with incompetence	**ESFJ—Most harmonious** Gracious, thoughtful, lives to please, has strong interpersonal skills, accomplished host/hostess

c) Personality and job – fit theory: Personality-job fit theory revolves around the idea that every organization and individual has specific personality traits. The closer match between the traits of the person and the company equals a higher chance of workplace productivity and satisfaction.

The best personality fit will also decrease job turnover and stress, absenteeism, and poor job satisfaction. Personality-job fit theory or person-environment (P-E) fit is a match between a worker's abilities, needs, and values and organizational demands, rewards, and values.

Here are the six employee personality types and their matching job examples:

Realistic: Employees prefer physical activities that require coordination. They are also shy, inner-directed, and would excel in a factory or farmer environment.

Investigation: Employees enjoy analyzing and organizing and are naturally curious and independent. Jobs that would work well for this type of employee would be mathematician, scientist, or reporter.

Social: These employees enjoy helping and mentoring others. They would find a good fit with jobs such as social worker, teacher, counselor, and clinical psychologist.

Conventional: Employees enjoy regulation, order, and rules. They are efficient but unimaginative workers, and jobs such as accountant, bank teller, or file clerk would fit their personality type.

Enterprising: This type of worker prefers verbal activities and yearns for power. They are very confident and ambitious. The best jobs for this type of personality would be lawyer, real estate agent, or public relations.

Artistic: This last personality type prefers creativity and likes to use their imagination. The best job fit would be a painter, musician, writer, or interior decorator.

d) Components of attitude: The structure of a person's attitude consists of three vital components-affective, cognitive and Behaviour (Fig.)
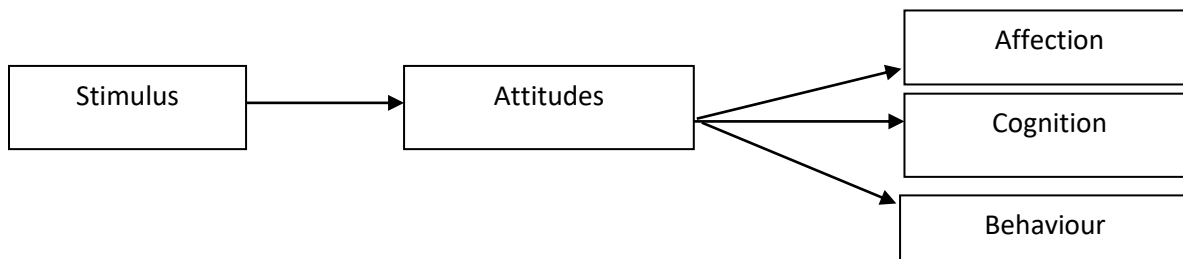
1.Affective component: The affective component refers to the emotions and feelings associated with an attitude object. This component is often expressed as like or dislike, good or bad, pleasing or displeasing, favourable or unfavourable.
In work organisations, the examples of affective components of a person x attitude towards Y may be:

X dislikes	Y on personal grounds
X dislikes	Y because he is liked by employer
X dislikes	Y because he makes more money than X
X dislikes	Y because he takes good decisions despite the lack of experience and training.

2. Cognitive component: Cognitive component represents the beliefs perceptions and opinions of a person about an attitude object. The beliefs may be based on a variety of learning experiences, rumours, misunderstandings, or any other information. You may believe that the manager is intelligent, or stupid, ethical or unethical, good or bad, or autocrat or democrat.
3. Overt component: It is also know as "behavioural" component or "conative" component. This component is concerned with the way one intends to behave a particular attitude object. Both the affective and cognitive components (feelings and beliefs) influence the way a person intends to behave towards an attitude object. For instance, if a person has a negative feeling or belief towards an object, he will be likely to behave negatively towards the object.

e) Job attitude: A job attitude is a set of evaluations of one's job that constitute one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job.
[1] Overall job attitude can be conceptualized in two ways. Either as affective job satisfaction that constitutes a general or global subjective feeling about a job.
[2] or as a composite of objective cognitive assessments of specific job facets, such as pay, conditions, opportunities and other aspects of a particular job.
[3] Employees evaluate their advancement opportunities by observing their job, their occupation, and their employer.