

A Comprehensive Guide to Organizational Behavior (OB)

Introduction to Organizational Behavior

What is an Organization? An organization is a structured group of individuals working together, often within a company, to achieve specific goals. This structure allows for the coordination of activities and resources to accomplish objectives that would be difficult for individuals to achieve alone.

What is Behavior? Behavior refers to the way in which one acts or conducts oneself, especially towards others. It is the observable actions and responses of individuals and groups.

What is Organizational Behavior (OB)? Organizational Behavior (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behavior within an organization. The core purpose is to apply this knowledge to improve an organization's effectiveness, productivity, and employee satisfaction.

Key Characteristics of OB:

- **Multidisciplinary:** OB draws upon theories, principles, and models from psychology (individual focus), sociology (group focus), anthropology (cultural focus), and political science (power and conflict focus).
- **Multilevel Analysis:** OB examines behavior at three distinct levels:
 - **Individual Level:** Focusing on aspects like personality, perception, motivation, and learning.
 - **Group Level:** Focusing on teamwork, leadership, communication, conflict, and group dynamics.
 - **Organizational Level:** Focusing on culture, structure, change, and human resource policies.
- **Goal-Oriented and Applied Science:** The ultimate aim of OB is not just to understand behavior but to shape it. It provides managers with the tools to predict, influence, and control organizational behavior to achieve desired outcomes.

The Historical Foundations of Management Thought

The study of OB evolved through several distinct phases of management thought.

1. The Classical Movement

This was the first systematic attempt to make management a science. It emerged during the Industrial Revolution and focused primarily on maximizing efficiency and productivity.

Core Beliefs:

- Workers are primarily motivated by economic rewards.
- The organization should be a rational, efficient machine.
- Emphasis is on structure, specialization, and top-down control.

The Classical Movement has three main branches:

A. Scientific Management (Frederick W. Taylor) Taylor, known as the "father of scientific management," sought to find the one best way to perform any task to maximize efficiency.

His Five Principles are:

1. **Science, Not Rule of Thumb:** Replace traditional, intuitive methods with scientifically studied and tested methods. Taylor used **time and motion studies** to break down each job into its component parts and determine the most efficient way to perform them.
2. **Scientifically Select and Train Employees:** Workers should be chosen based on their innate abilities for a specific task and then trained exhaustively to perform that task in the prescribed "best way."
3. **"One Best Way":** Management is responsible for developing a science for each element of work. There is one single, most efficient method for every job.
4. **Divide Work Between Managers and Workers:** Introduce a clear division of labor. Managers should be responsible for planning, preparing, and supervising (a concept Taylor called **functional foremanship**), while workers should be responsible for the execution of tasks.
5. **Pay Based on Results (Incentive Wage Systems):** Implement performance-based pay, such as a **piece-rate system**, where workers are paid based on their output. This directly links an employee's self-interest (earning more) to the organization's goal (higher productivity).

B. Administrative Management (Henri Fayol) While Taylor focused on the individual worker's efficiency, Fayol focused on the entire organization and the functions of management. He proposed 14 universal principles of management.

Fayol's 14 Principles of Management:

1. **Division of Work:** Specialization allows individuals to build expertise and improve efficiency.
2. **Authority and Responsibility:** Authority (the right to give orders) must be commensurate with responsibility (the obligation to achieve results).
3. **Discipline:** Respect for rules and agreements is essential. It requires good leadership at all levels.
4. **Unity of Command:** Each employee should receive orders from only one superior to avoid confusion and conflict.
5. **Unity of Direction:** There should be one head and one plan for a group of activities with the same objective.
6. **Subordination of Individual Interest to General Interest:** The interests of the organization as a whole must take precedence over the interests of any individual or group.
7. **Remuneration:** Compensation should be fair and satisfactory to both employees and the employer.
8. **Centralization:** The degree to which decision-making authority is concentrated at the top (centralization) or dispersed throughout the organization (decentralization) must be appropriate to the situation.
9. **Scalar Chain:** There should be a clear, unbroken line of authority from the top of the organization to the bottom.
10. **Order:** There should be a place for everything and everyone. Materials and people should be in the right place at the right time.
11. **Equity:** Managers should be both fair and kind to their subordinates.
12. **Stability of Tenure of Personnel:** High employee turnover is inefficient. Organizations should provide orderly personnel planning and ensure replacements are available to fill vacancies.
13. **Initiative:** Employees at all levels should be encouraged to show initiative—thinking out and executing plans.
14. **Esprit de Corps:** Promoting team spirit and building harmony and unity within the organization is crucial for success.

C. Bureaucratic Management (Max Weber) Weber proposed an ideal, rational, and impersonal organizational form called a **bureaucracy**. He believed this was the most efficient form of organization for large, complex enterprises.

Characteristics of Weber's Bureaucracy:

- **Clear Hierarchy:** A well-defined chain of command where each position is under the authority of a higher one.
- **Division of Labor:** Jobs are broken down into simple, routine, and well-defined tasks.
- **Formal Rules and Procedures:** A consistent set of abstract rules and standard operating procedures govern all organizational decisions and activities.
- **Impersonal Relationships:** Decisions are based on rules and facts, not personal feelings or relationships. This is designed to eliminate nepotism and favoritism.

- **Employment Based on Technical Qualifications:** Hiring and promotion are based on technical competence and qualifications, not on whom you know.

Limitations of the Classical Approach:

- It largely ignored the human and social needs of employees.
 - It viewed workers as mere cogs in a machine, leading to dehumanization.
 - Its rigid structures could stifle creativity and innovation.
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The Evolution of Management Thought: Neo-Classical and Modern Approaches

As the limitations of the classical approach became apparent, new perspectives emerged that emphasized the human element.

1. The Human Relations Movement

This movement began as a reaction to the mechanistic view of the classical theorists. It highlighted the importance of social and psychological factors in determining worker productivity and satisfaction.

The Hawthorne Studies: Conducted by Elton Mayo and his colleagues at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric, these studies were initially designed to study the effect of physical conditions (like lighting) on productivity. The unexpected findings were revolutionary:

- **The Hawthorne Effect:** Employees modified their behavior and improved their performance simply because they were aware they were being studied and felt special attention was being paid to them.
- **Importance of Social Factors:** Productivity was influenced more by informal social pressures, group norms, and a sense of belonging than by physical work conditions or financial incentives.
- **Informal Groups:** The studies revealed the existence of powerful informal groups within the organization that established their own norms and could significantly influence behavior.

These findings marked a pivotal shift, establishing that productivity is influenced more by social relationships, attention, and employee morale than by physical or economic factors alone.

2. The Human Resource Approach

This approach built upon the Human Relations Movement, arguing that people are not just resources to be managed but assets to be developed. It emphasized employee growth and self-actualization.

Key Thinkers:

- **Abraham Maslow (Hierarchy of Needs):** Proposed that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy. Once a lower-level need (e.g., physiological, safety) is satisfied, it no longer motivates, and the next higher level (e.g., social, esteem, self-actualization) becomes the motivator. This theory suggested that managers must understand the diverse needs of employees.
- **Douglas McGregor (Theory X and Theory Y):** Proposed two contrasting sets of assumptions managers hold about employees.
 - **Theory X** assumes employees are inherently lazy, dislike work, avoid responsibility, and must be coerced, controlled, and directed. This aligns with the Classical view.
 - **Theory Y** assumes employees are creative, seek responsibility, are self-directed, and can find work as natural as play. This view encourages participative management, empowerment, and decentralization.

3. Modern Approaches

Modern OB recognizes that organizations are complex, open systems that interact with their dynamic environments.

- **Systems Approach:** Views the organization as an interconnected set of elements (subsystems like production, marketing, finance, HR) that function together as a whole. A change in one part (e.g., a new technology in production) affects all other parts. This emphasizes interdependence and a holistic view.
- **Contingency Approach (Situational Approach):** Posits that there is no single "best way" to manage or organize. The most effective course of action is *contingent* (dependent) upon the internal and external situation. Factors like technology, environmental stability, and workforce diversity determine which management style or organizational structure will be most effective.

Specific Contingency Theories of Leadership:

- **Fiedler's Contingency Theory:** A leader's effectiveness depends on the match between their leadership style (task-oriented or relationship-oriented) and the favorableness of the situation (based on leader-member relations, task structure, and the leader's positional power).

- **Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey-Blanchard):** Leaders should adapt their style based on the readiness or maturity of their followers. The four styles are: Telling (high directive, low supportive), Selling (high directive, high supportive), Participating (low directive, high supportive), and Delegating (low directive, low supportive).
 - **Path-Goal Theory (House):** Leaders motivate followers by (1) clarifying the path to achieving goals and (2) removing obstacles. Leaders can adopt different styles (directive, supportive, participative, achievement-oriented) depending on the needs of their team and the task environment.
 - **Decision-Making Theory:** Suggests that managers should tailor their decision-making approach (autocratic, consultative, group-based) based on the nature of the problem, its complexity, and the need for acceptance by subordinates.
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Fundamental Concepts of Individual Behavior

OB is built on a set of fundamental principles that explain why people behave the way they do in organizations.

1. Individual Differences: People are unique in terms of personality, skills, values, and perceptions. Therefore, a motivational technique that works for one employee may not work for another. **2. Perception:** People's behavior is based on their *perception* of reality, not on reality itself. Two people can witness the same event but interpret it differently. **3. A Whole Person:** When you hire an employee, you hire the whole person, not just their skills. Their personal life, emotions, and attitudes come with them to work and affect their performance. **4. Motivated Behavior:** Behavior is not random; it is driven by a person's desire to fulfill certain needs. **5. Desire for Involvement:** Most employees have a desire to be involved in decisions that affect their work, which can lead to greater commitment and job satisfaction. **6. Value of the Person:** People want to be treated with respect, dignity, and fairness. Ethical treatment is a fundamental right. **7. Mutuality of Interest:** Organizations need people to be productive, and people need organizations to provide income and purpose. There is a mutual interdependence. **8. Organizational Systems and Culture:** Behavior is shaped by the broader organizational environment, including its formal structure, culture, and reward systems. **9. Cause-and-Effect Relationships:** Human behavior follows cause-and-effect patterns. Understanding these patterns helps managers predict and influence behavior. **10. Scientific Study:** OB relies on systematic, evidence-based research and data to understand behavior, rather than on intuition or common sense alone.

Personality in Organizations

Definition: Personality is the dynamic organization within an individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment. It is the stable pattern of behaviors and consistent internal states that explain a person's behavioral tendencies.

Major Personality Theories:

- **Trait Theory:** Focuses on identifying, measuring, and describing consistent personality characteristics, or "traits." The **Big Five Model** is the most dominant trait theory in OB.
- **Psychodynamic Theory (Sigmund Freud):** Emphasizes the role of unconscious motives, conflicts, and early childhood experiences in shaping personality.
- **Social-Cognitive Theory (Albert Bandura):** Proposes that personality is shaped by the continuous interaction between personal factors (cognition), behavior, and the environment (reciprocal determinism). A key concept is **self-efficacy**—a person's belief in their own capability to execute a task.

Determinants of Personality:

- **Biological Factors:** Heredity (genetics), brain structure, and physical characteristics.
- **Psychological Factors:** Cognitive styles, emotional intelligence, and personal values and beliefs.
- **Social Factors:** Influence of family, peer groups, work relationships, and the process of socialization.
- **Cultural Factors:** The traditions, language, norms, and values of the society one is raised in.
- **Situational Factors:** The specific context or environment can temporarily influence behavior, even if core personality remains stable.

The Big Five Personality Model

This model categorizes personality into five broad dimensions:

1. **Openness to Experience:** Imaginative, curious, creative vs. practical, conventional, prefers routine.
2. **Conscientiousness:** Organized, dependable, disciplined, achievement-oriented vs. disorganized, unreliable, impulsive.
3. **Extraversion:** Sociable, talkative, assertive, energetic vs. solitary, reserved, shy.
4. **Agreeableness:** Trusting, cooperative, compassionate, good-natured vs. suspicious, uncooperative, critical.
5. **Neuroticism (vs. Emotional Stability):** Anxious, insecure, emotionally unstable, prone to negative emotions vs. calm, secure, relaxed, emotionally resilient.

Conscientiousness has been found to be the strongest predictor of job performance across many occupations.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

A very popular personality inventory that classifies people into 16 personality types based on four dichotomies:

- **Extraversion (E) vs. Introversion (I):** Where you direct your energy and get stimulation (the outer world vs. the inner world).
- **Sensing (S) vs. Intuition (N):** How you prefer to take in information (focus on facts and details vs. focus on patterns and possibilities).
- **Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F):** How you prefer to make decisions (based on logic and objectivity vs. based on values and impact on people).
- **Judging (J) vs. Perceiving (P):** How you deal with the outer world (preferring structure and decisiveness vs. preferring flexibility and spontaneity).

The MBTI is widely used for team building, improving communication, and increasing self-awareness.

Personality Attributes Influencing OB

- **Locus of Control:** The degree to which people believe they control their own fate.
 - **Internals** believe they are masters of their own destiny. They tend to be more proactive, take more responsibility, and be more motivated.
 - **Externals** believe their lives are controlled by outside forces (luck, fate, powerful others). They tend to be more passive and less satisfied.
- **Machiavellianism:** A personality trait characterized by manipulation, emotional detachment, and a focus on self-interest and power. High "Machs" are pragmatic, persuasive, and can be effective in negotiated situations but may be unethical.
- **Self-Esteem:** The degree to which individuals like or dislike themselves. High self-esteem is linked to greater confidence, willingness to take risks, and higher job satisfaction.
- **Self-Monitoring:** The ability to adjust one's behavior to external, situational factors. High self-monitors are adaptable and socially sensitive, making them good in roles requiring impression management (e.g., sales, politics).
- **Risk-Taking:** The willingness to take chances. High risk-takers make decisions more quickly and thrive in entrepreneurial or trading roles, while low risk-takers are more suited to roles requiring precision and deliberation.

- **Type A and Type B Personality:**

- **Type A:** Aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more in less time. They are always moving, multi-tasking, impatient, and feel a sense of time urgency. They are prone to stress.
 - **Type B:** Relaxed, easygoing, and non-competitive. They are more reflective and creative and experience less stress.
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Attitudes and Behavior

Definition: Attitudes are evaluative statements—either favorable or unfavorable—about objects, people, or events. They reflect how we feel about something.

Components of Attitudes (The ABC Model):

- **Affective Component:** The emotional or feeling segment of an attitude (e.g., "I am afraid of spiders").
- **Behavioral Component:** An intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something (e.g., "I will avoid going into the basement because there might be spiders").
- **Cognitive Component:** The opinion or belief segment of an attitude (e.g., "I believe spiders are dangerous").

How Attitudes are Formed: Attitudes are learned through:

- **Direct Experience** with an object or person.
- **Social Learning** (observing and modeling the attitudes of family, friends, and culture).
- **Conditioning** (associating a neutral stimulus with a positive or negative one).
- **Cognitive Processes** (forming attitudes that are consistent with our existing beliefs and values).

The Relationship Between Attitude and Behavior

Early research assumed a direct causal link ($A \rightarrow B$). However, Leon Festinger's **Cognitive Dissonance Theory** challenged this.

Cognitive Dissonance: This is the psychological discomfort (tension) a person experiences when they hold two or more conflicting cognitions (ideas, beliefs, values, or attitudes) simultaneously, or when their behavior contradicts their beliefs.

Example: An employee who values honesty (cognition) is asked by their boss to lie to a client (contradictory behavior). This creates dissonance.

People are motivated to reduce this discomfort by:

1. Changing their behavior (e.g., refusing to lie).
2. Changing their attitude (e.g., convincing themselves that "everyone lies in business, it's not a big deal").
3. Rationalizing or justifying the inconsistency (e.g., "I have to do this to keep my job and support my family").

Moderating Variables: The attitude-behavior relationship is stronger when:

- The attitude is **important** to the person.
 - The attitude is very **specific** to the behavior in question.
 - The attitude is easily **accessible** (readily comes to mind).
 - There are no strong **social pressures** to act differently.
 - The person has **direct experience** with the attitude object.
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Perception and Individual Decision-Making

Perception is the process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions to give meaning to their environment. It is a subjective process, meaning that two people can look at the same thing and perceive it differently.

The Perceptual Process:

1. **Receiving Stimuli (Sensation):** Information is received through the five senses.
2. **Selecting:** We cannot process all stimuli, so we selectively pay attention to certain things while ignoring others. This is influenced by our interests, needs, and expectations.
3. **Organizing:** Our brain organizes the selected information into meaningful patterns, using principles of grouping (proximity, similarity, etc.).
4. **Interpreting:** We assign meaning to the organized information. This is the most subjective step and is heavily influenced by our past experiences, personality, and motives.
5. **Reacting:** The final output is a behavior or action (overt or covert) based on our perception.

Factors Influencing Perception:

- **Factors in the Perceiver:** Attitudes, motives, interests, past experiences, and expectations.
- **Factors in the Target:** Novelty, motion, sound, size, background, and proximity.

- **Factors in the Situation:** Time, work setting, and social context.

Common Perceptual Errors (Shortcuts):

- **Halo Effect:** Drawing a general impression about an individual based on a single characteristic (e.g., intelligence, appearance).
- **Horn Effect:** The opposite of the halo effect; allowing one negative trait to overshadow all positive traits.
- **Selective Perception:** The tendency to selectively interpret what one sees based on one's interests, background, and attitudes.
- **Contrast Effect:** Evaluation of a person's characteristics is affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered.
- **Stereotyping:** Judging someone based on one's perception of the group to which that person belongs.
- **Fundamental Attribution Error:** The tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors when making judgments about the behavior of others.
- **Self-Serving Bias:** The tendency for individuals to attribute their own successes to internal factors (like ability or effort) while blaming failures on external factors (like bad luck or a difficult task).

Link Between Perception and Decision-Making

Decision-making is the process of choosing a course of action from among alternatives. Since the data we use to make decisions is filtered through our perceptions, our decisions are inherently subjective.

Models of Decision-Making:

- **Rational Decision-Making:** A logical, step-by-step approach where an individual defines a problem, identifies all criteria, weighs the criteria, generates all alternatives, evaluates them, and selects the optimal one. This is an ideal model but often unrealistic due to constraints.
- **Bounded Rationality:** In reality, our rationality is limited by our cognitive capacity, time, and information. Therefore, we **satisfice**—we seek a solution that is "good enough" rather than optimal.
- **Intuitive Decision-Making:** An unconscious process created from distilled experience. It's a "gut feeling" that can be highly effective, especially in situations of uncertainty or time pressure.

Common Biases and Errors in Decision-Making:

- **Overconfidence Bias:** Holding overly positive views of one's own knowledge and performance.
 - **Anchoring Bias:** Relying too heavily on the first piece of information encountered (the "anchor").
 - **Confirmation Bias:** Seeking out information that reaffirms our past choices and discounting information that contradicts them.
 - **Availability Bias:** Basing judgments on information that is readily available in memory (e.g., recent, vivid events).
 - **Escalation of Commitment (Sunk Cost Fallacy):** Increasing commitment to a previous decision in spite of negative information, due to having invested significant resources in it.
 - **Hindsight Bias:** The tendency to believe, after an outcome is known, that one would have accurately predicted it ("I knew it all along").
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Emotions, Emotional Intelligence, and Emotional Labour

Emotions are intense, discrete, and short-lived feelings that are a reaction to a specific event. They are crucial in the workplace as they influence behavior, decision-making, and interpersonal dynamics.

Emotional Intelligence (EI or EQ) is the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and use emotions effectively in oneself and others.

Key Dimensions of EI (Daniel Goleman's Mixed Model):

1. **Self-Awareness:** Knowing one's own emotions, strengths, weaknesses, and their impact.
2. **Self-Regulation:** The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods.
3. **Motivation:** A passion to work for reasons beyond money or status; being driven to achieve.
4. **Empathy:** The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people.
5. **Social Skills:** Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks.

Other Models of EI:

- **Ability Model (Mayer & Salovey):** Views EI as a pure intelligence involving the ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions.
- **Bar-On Model:** Focuses on a range of emotional and social competencies, including stress management and general mood (optimism).

Emotional Labour is the process of managing one's emotions to present a professionally required display of emotion to others. This is common in jobs that require frequent customer interaction (e.g., flight attendants, nurses, customer service reps).

Forms of Emotional Labour:

- **Surface Acting:** Hiding one's inner feelings and forgoing emotional expressions in response to display rules (e.g., faking a smile).
 - **Deep Acting:** Trying to actually *feel* the emotion that one is required to display (e.g., genuinely cultivating a sense of compassion for a patient).
 - **Emotional Dissonance:** The internal tension that arises when there is a conflict between felt emotions and emotions required to be displayed. Chronic dissonance can lead to stress and burnout.
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Motivation in the Workplace

Motivation is the process that accounts for an individual's **intensity** (how hard they try), **direction** (where they channel their effort), and **persistence** (how long they keep trying) of effort toward attaining a goal.

Core Elements of Motivation:

- **Activation:** The decision to initiate a behavior (getting started).
- **Persistence:** The continued effort toward a goal even when obstacles exist.
- **Intensity:** The amount of energy and focus put into the effort.

Theories of Motivation

Motivation theories are broadly classified into two categories:

1. Content Theories (Focus on *What* motivates): These theories identify internal factors that energize and direct behavior. They focus on needs and drives.

- **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs:** A pyramid of five needs: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. Lower-level needs must be satisfied before higher-level needs become motivators.
- **Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory:** Proposes that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposites.

- **Hygiene Factors** (e.g., salary, job security, work conditions) prevent dissatisfaction but do not motivate. If absent, they cause dissatisfaction.
- **Motivators** (e.g., achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility) are the true drivers of job satisfaction and motivation.
- **McClelland's Theory of Needs:** Focuses on three acquired needs that are major motives in work:
 - **Need for Achievement (nAch):** The drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards.
 - **Need for Power (nPow):** The need to make others behave in a way they would not have otherwise.
 - **Need for Affiliation (nAff):** The desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

2. Process Theories (Focus on *How* motivation occurs): These theories describe the cognitive processes that underlie behavior.

- **Equity Theory (Adams):** Employees compare their job inputs (effort, experience) and outcomes (salary, recognition) to those of others. Perceptions of inequity (under-reward or over-reward) create tension that motivates them to restore equity (e.g., by reducing effort, changing perceptions, or leaving the job).
- **Expectancy Theory (Vroom):** States that motivation is a function of three beliefs:
 1. **Expectancy:** "If I try hard, will I be able to perform well?" (Link between effort and performance).
 2. **Instrumentality:** "If I perform well, will I be rewarded?" (Link between performance and outcome).
 3. **Valence:** "Do I value the reward being offered?" Motivation is high when all three are high.
- **Goal-Setting Theory (Locke):** Specific and challenging goals, with feedback, lead to higher performance. Goals tell an employee what needs to be done and how much effort is required.

Leadership in Organizations

Leadership is the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals. It is not the same as management (which is about coping with complexity); leadership is about coping with change.

Key Leadership Styles:

- **Autocratic:** Leader makes decisions unilaterally.
- **Democratic (Participative):** Leader involves subordinates in decision-making.

- **Laissez-Faire (Delegative):** Leader provides little direction or supervision.
- **Transformational:** Leaders inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organization and are capable of having a profound effect on their followers.
- **Transactional:** Leaders guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements. Based on contingent rewards and management-by-exception.
- **Servant Leadership:** The leader's primary role is to serve the needs of their followers, helping them grow and succeed.
- **Authentic Leadership:** Leaders who know who they are, what they believe in, and act on their values openly and candidly, building trust.

Leadership Theories:

- **Trait Theories:** Focus on personal qualities and characteristics that differentiate leaders from non-leaders (e.g., drive, honesty, intelligence). Largely unsuccessful in identifying universal traits.
- **Behavioral Theories (Ohio State & Michigan Studies):** Focus on what leaders *do*. Identified two key behavioral dimensions:
 - **Initiating Structure (Task-Oriented):** The extent to which a leader defines and structures their role and the roles of subordinates toward goal attainment.
 - **Consideration (People-Oriented):** The extent to which a leader has job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and regard for their feelings.
- **Contingency Theories:** (As discussed earlier: Fiedler, Situational Leadership, Path-Goal) assert that effective leadership depends on the situation.

The Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton): A model that plots a leader's degree of **Concern for Production** (task) against their **Concern for People** (relationships). The model suggests that the best style is a **9,9 style (Team Management)**, which reflects a high concern for both people and production.