

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR FINAL NOTES – ADM 2336

Chapter 1: What is organizational behaviour?

- **Organizational behaviour** – Field of study devoted to understanding, explaining, and ultimately improving the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in organizations
- **What are the 3 main goals of organizational behaviour?**
Understanding, explaining, and ultimately improving the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in organizations

Chapter 2: Job Performance

Types of Task Performance

Task performance – Employee behaviours that are directly involved in the transformation of organizational resources into the goods and services that the organization produces

- **Routine task performance** – Well-known or habitual responses by employees to predictable task demands (Ex. Flight attendant robotically demonstrating how to put on seatbelt)
- **Adaptive task performance** – Thoughtful responses by an employee to unique or unusual task demands (Ex. Flight attendants response to emergency procedures)
- **Creative task performance** – Ideals or physical outcomes that are both novel and useful (Ex. Suggestion of the first two-piece swimsuit in fashion meeting)

Types of Citizenship Behaviour

Citizenship behaviour – Voluntary employee behaviours that contribute to organizational goals by improving the context in which work takes place

- **Interpersonal citizenship behaviour** – Going beyond normal job expectations to assist, support, and develop co-workers and colleagues
 - **Helping** – Assisting co-workers who have heavy workloads, aiding them with personal matters, and showing new employees the ropes when they are first on the job
 - **Courtesy** – Sharing important information with co-workers
 - **Sportsmanship** – Maintaining a positive attitude with co-workers through good and bad times
- **Organizational citizenship behaviour** – Going beyond normal expectations to improve operations of the organization, as well as defending the organization and being loyal to it
 - **Voice** – Speaking up to offer constructive suggestions for change, often in reaction to a negative work event

- **Civic virtue** – Participation in company operations at a deeper-than-normal level through voluntary meetings, readings, and keeping up with news that affects the company
- **Boosterism** – Positively representing the organization when in public

Counterproductive Behaviour – Employee behaviours that intentionally hinder organization goal accomplishment

- **Property deviance** – Behaviours that harm the organization’s assets and possessions
 - Sabotage – Purposeful destruction of equipment, organizational processes, or company products
 - Theft – Stealing company products or equipment from the organization
- **Production deviance** – Intentionally reducing organizational efficiency of work output
 - Wasting resources – Using too many materials or too much time to do too little work
 - Substance abuse – The abuse of drugs or alcohol before coming to work or while on the job
- **Political deviance** – Behaviours that intentionally disadvantage other individuals
 - Gossiping – Casual conversation about other people in which the facts are not confirmed as true
 - Incivility – Communication that is rude, impolite, discourteous, and lacking in good manners
- **Personal aggression** – Hostile verbal and physical actions directed toward other employees
 - Harassment – Unwanted physical contact or verbal remarks from a colleague
 - Abuse – Employee assault or endangerment from which physical and psychological injuries may occur

Chapter 3 – Organizational Commitment

Types of Commitment

Organizational commitment – An employee’s desire to remain a member of an organization

- **Affective commitment** – An employee’s desire to remain a member of an organization due to a feeling of emotional attachment (*staying because you ‘want’ to*)
 - Emotion-based reasons: relaxing atmosphere, job duties are rewarding
- **Continuance commitment** – An employee’s desire to remain a member of an organization due to an awareness of the costs of leaving (*staying because you ‘have’ to*)

- Cost-based reasons: salary and benefits – cost of living is more here than in other neighbourhood, school system is better for the kids in this area
- **Normative commitment** – An employee’s desire to remain a member of an organization due to a feeling of obligation (*staying because you ‘ought’ to*)
 - Obligation-based reasons: my boss has invested so much time in training me, my organization gave me my start

Models of Affective Commitment

- **Erosion model** – A model that suggests that employees with fewer bonds with co-workers are more likely to quit the organization
- **Social influence model** – A model that suggests that employees with direct linkages to co-workers who leave the organization will themselves become more likely to leave

Concept of Embeddedness

Embeddedness – An employee’s connection to and sense of fit in the organization and community

- Concept that demonstrates the work and non-work forces that bind us to our current employer
- Embeddedness strengthens continuance commitment by providing more reasons why a person needs to stay in his or her current position

Responses to Negative Work Events

1. **Exit** – A response to a negative work event in which one becomes often absent from work or voluntarily leaves the organization
2. **Neglect** – A passive, destructive response to a negative work event in which one’s interest and effort in work decline
3. **Voice** – A response, often in reaction to a negative work event, in which an employee offers constructive suggestions for change
4. **Loyalty** – A passive response to a negative work event in which one publicly supports the situation but privately hopes for improvement

Types of Withdrawal

Psychological withdrawal – Mentally escaping the work environment

- Daydreaming – A form of psychological withdrawal in which one’s work is interrupted by random thoughts or concerns
- Socializing – A form of psychological withdrawal in which one verbally chats with co-workers about non-work topics
- Looking busy – A form of psychological withdrawal in which one attempts to appear consumed with work when not performing actual work tasks
- Moonlighting – A form of psychological withdrawal in which employees use work time and resources to do non-work-related activities
- Cyberloafing – A form of psychological withdrawal in which employees surf the Internet, e-mail, and IM to avoid doing work-related activities

Physical withdrawal – A physical escape from the work environment

- Tardiness - A form of physical withdrawal in which employees arrive late to work or leave early
- Long breaks - A form of physical withdrawal in which employees take longer-than-normal lunches or breaks to spend less time at work
- Missing meetings - A form of physical withdrawal in which employees neglect important work functions while away from the office
- Absenteeism - A form of physical withdrawal in which employees do not show up for an entire day of work
- Quitting - A form of physical withdrawal in which employees voluntarily leave the organization

Chapter 4: Job Satisfaction

Value percept theory – A theory that argues that job satisfaction depends on whether the employee perceives that his or her job supplies those things that he or she values

- Common facets employees consider in judging their job satisfaction: pay satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction, satisfaction with the work itself
- **Satisfaction with the work itself has the strongest influence on overall satisfaction**

Job Characteristics Theory – A theory that argues that five or four characteristics combine to result in high levels of satisfaction with the work itself

- **Variety** – The degree to which a job requires different activities and skills
- **Identity** - The degree to which a job offers completion of a whole, identifiable piece of work
- **Significance** - The degree to which a job really matters and impacts society as a whole
 - These 3 characteristics contribute to meaningfulness of work – a psychological state indicating the degree to which work tasks are viewed as something that counts in the employee’s system of philosophies and beliefs
- **Autonomy** - The degree to which a job allows individual freedom and discretion regarding how the work is to be done
 - This characteristic contributes to responsibility of outcomes – a psychological state indicating the degree to which employees feel they are key drivers of the quality of work output
- **Feedback** - The degree to which a job itself provides information about how well the job holder is doing
 - This characteristic contributes to the knowledge of results – a psychological state indicating the extent to which employees are aware of how well or how poorly they are doing

Knowledge and skill – The degree to which employees have the aptitude and competence needed to succeed on their job

Growth need strength – The degree to which employees desire to develop themselves further

- These are called “moderators” that influence the strength of the relationship between variables

Job enrichment – When job duties and responsibilities are expanded to provide increased levels of core job characteristics

Difference Between Moods and Emotions

Moods – States of feelings that are mild in intensity, last for an extended period of time, and are not directed at anything

- Engaged, Pleasant, Disengaged, Unpleasant

Emotions – Intense feelings, often lasting for a short duration, that are clearly directed at someone or some circumstance

- Positive: joy, pride, relief, hope, love, compassion, Negative: anger, anxiety, fear, guilt, shame, sadness, envy, disgust

Emotion labour – **The management of their emotions that employees must do to complete their job duties successfully**

- Flight attendants are told to “put on a happy face”, salespeople are trained to suppress any annoyance with customers

Chapter 5 – Stress

Primary and Secondary Appraisal

Primary appraisal – Evaluation of whether a demand is stressful and, if it is, the implications of the stressor in terms of personal goals and well-being

Secondary appraisal – When people determine how to cope with the various stressors they face

Types of Stressors

Hindrance stressor – Stressful demands that are perceived as hindering progress toward personal accomplishments and goal attainment

- **Work hindrance stressors**
 - Role conflict – Others’ having differing expectations of what an individual needs to do in a role
 - Role ambiguity – A lack of direction and information about what needs to be done in a role
 - Role overload – An excess of demands of an employee preventing him or her from working efficiently
 - Daily hassles – Minor day-to-day demands that interfere with work accomplishment
- **Non-work hindrance stressors**

- Work-family conflict – A form of role conflict in which the demands of a work role hinder the fulfillment of the demands in a family role (or vice versa)
- Negative life events – Events such as divorce or death of a family member that tend to be appraised as a hindrance
- Financial uncertainty – Uncertainties with regard to the potential for loss of livelihood, savings, or the ability to pay expenses

Challenge stressors – Stressful demands that are perceived as opportunities for learning, growth and achievement

- **Work challenge stressors**
 - Time pressure – The sense that the amount of time allotted to do a job is not quite enough
 - Work complexity – The degree to which job requirements tax or just exceed employee capabilities
 - Work responsibility – The number and importance of the obligations that an employee has to others
- **Non-work challenge stressors**
 - Family time demands – The amount of time committed to fulfilling family responsibilities
 - Personal development – Participation in activities outside of work that foster growth and learning
 - Positive life events – Events such as marriage or the birth of a child that tend to be appraised as a challenge

Type A Behaviour Pattern – People who tend to experience more stressors, to appraise more demands as stressful, and to be prone to experiencing more strains

- Type A people have a strong sense of time-urgency and tend to be impatient, hard-driving, competitive, controlling, aggressive, and even hostile
- If you walk, talk, and eat at a fast pace and are easily annoyed with people you are most likely a Type A

Types of Strain

Strains – Negative consequences of the stress response

- **Physiological strain** – Reactions from stressors that harm the human body
 - Can affect immune system, cardiovascular system, musculoskeletal system, and gastrointestinal system
- **Psychological strain** – Negative psychological reactions from stressors
 - Depression, anxiety, anger, lack of memory, forgetfulness, lack of creativity
- **Behavioural strains** – Patterns of negative behaviours that are associated with other strains
 - Grinding one's teeth, compulsive gum chewing, biting nails

Stress audit – An assessment of the sources of stress in the workplace

Reducing Stressors

Job sharing – When two people share the responsibilities of a single job

Chapter 6 – Motivation

Expectancy Theory – a theory that describes the cognitive process employees go through to make choices among different voluntary responses

- **Expectancy** – the belief that exerting a high level of effort will result in successful performance on some task
 - What factors shape our expectancy for a particular task?
 - Self-efficiency – the belief that a person has the capabilities needed to perform the behaviours required on some task
- **Instrumentality** – the belief that successful performance will result in some outcome or outcomes
 - Evidence indicates that many employees don't perceive high levels of instrumentality in their workplace
- **Valence** – the anticipated value of the outcome(s) associated with successful performance
 - Can be positive (I would prefer to have outcome X to not having it), negative (I would prefer not having outcome X to having it), zero (I'm bored, are we still talking about outcome X?)
 - Outcomes are more “positively valenced” when they help satisfy needs (needs: groupings or clusters of outcomes viewed as having critical psychological or physiological consequences)
 - **Extrinsic motivation: desire to put forth work effort due to some contingency that depends on task performance (pay, bonuses, benefits and perks, job security, support, free time, lack of disciplinary actions, lack of demotions)**
 - **Intrinsic motivation: desire to put forth work effort due to the sense that task performance serves as its own reward (enjoyment, interestingness, accomplishment, knowledge gain, skill development, lack of boredom, lack of anxiety, lack of frustration)**

Goal Setting Theory – a theory that views goals as the primary drivers of the intensity and persistence of effort

- The theory argues that assigning employees specific and difficult goals (goals that stretch an employee to perform at his or her maximum level while still staying within the boundaries of his or her abilities) will result in higher levels of performance than assigning no goals, easy goals or “do-your-best” goals
 - Self set goals – the internalized goals that people use to monitor their own progress (link to: intensity of effort, persistence of effort, task strategies), moderators affect the strength of the relationships between variables

- Three variables that specify when assigned goals will have stronger or weaker effect on task performance (called “moderators”)
 1. Feedback – refers to progress updates on work goals
 2. Task complexity – the degree to which the information and actions needed to complete a task are complicated
 3. Goal commitment – the degree to which a person is determined to reach the goal
- S.M.A.R.T goals – Acronym that stands for specific, measurable, achievable, results-based, time sensitive goals

Equity theory – a theory that suggests that employees create a mental ledger of the outcomes they receive for their job inputs, relative to some comparison other

- Unlike expectancy theory and goal setting theory, equity theory acknowledges that motivation doesn’t just depend on your own beliefs and circumstances, but also on what happens to others
- Suggests employees create a “mental ledger” of the outcomes (or rewards) they get from their job duties
 - Mental ledger contains inputs (or contributions and investments) they put into their job duties

Outcomes	Inputs
Pay	Effort
Seniority benefits	Performance
Fringe benefits	Skills and abilities
Status symbols	Education
Satisfying supervision	Experience
Workplace perks	Training
Intrinsic rewards	Seniority

Theory argues that you compare your ratio of outcomes and inputs to the ratio of some comparison other (another person who provides a frame of reference for judging equity)

Three general possibilities that can result from this “cognitive calculus”

1. **Your ratio of outcomes to inputs is balanced between you and your comparison other**
2. **Your ratio of outcomes to inputs is less than your comparison other’s** (underreward inequity)
 - Grow your outcomes by talking to your boss or stealing from the company
 - Shrink your inputs by lowering the intensity or persistence of effort
3. **Your ratio of outcomes to inputs is greater than your comparison other’s** (overreward inequity)
 - Shrink your outcomes (yeah right! ... let’s see what we can do about those inputs)

- Grow your inputs through more high-quality work or through some “cognitive distortion” (a reevaluation of the inputs an employee brings to a job, often occurring in response to equity distress)

Another way of restoring balance: change your comparison other

- Internal comparison: comparing oneself to someone in your same company
- External comparison: comparing oneself to someone in a different company

Psychological Empowerment – An energy rooted in the belief that tasks are contributing to some larger purpose (argues a similar set of 4 concepts can make work tasks intrinsically motivating)

- **Meaningfulness** – a psychological state reflecting one’s feelings about work tasks, goals, and purposes, and the degree to which they contribute to society and fulfill one’s ideals and passions
 - When a task is relevant to a meaningful purpose, it becomes easier to concentrate and get excited about the task
 - In contrast, working on tasks that are not meaningful brings a sense of emptiness and detachment
- **Self-determination** – a sense of choice in the initiation and continuation of work tasks
 - Employees with high levels of self-determination can choose what tasks to work on, how to structure those tasks, and how long to pursue those tasks
- **Competence** – the capability to complete work tasks successfully
 - Employees with a strong sense of competence believe they can execute the particular behaviours needed to achieve success at work, competence brings pride and mastery that is intrinsically motivating
- **Impact** – the sense that a person’s actions “make a difference” – that progress is being made toward fulfilling some importance purpose
 - “Make a difference” – phrases such as “moving forward”, “being on track” and “getting there” convey a sense of impact
 - “Learned helplessness” – the sense that it doesn’t matter what a person does, nothing will make a difference “stuck in a rut”, “at a standstill”, “going nowhere”

Determinants of Self-Efficiency

Self-efficiency – The belief that a person has the capabilities needed to perform the behaviours required on some task

- **Past accomplishments** – the degree to which they have succeeded or failed a similar sorts of tasks in the past
- **Vicarious experiences** by taking into account their observations and discussions with other who have performed such tasks

- **Verbal persuasion** as friends and leaders, and co-workers can persuade employees that they can 'get the job done'
- **Emotional cues** – feelings of fear or anxiety can create doubt about task accomplishment, whereas pride and enthusiasm can boost confidence levels

Compensation Plan Elements

Individual-Focused

- **Piece-rate** – A specified rate is paid for each unit produced, each unit sold, or each service provided
- **Merit pay** – An increase in base salary is made in accordance with performance evaluation ratings
- **Lump-sum bonus** – A bonus is received for meeting individual goals but no change is made to base salary. The potential bonus represents “at risk” pay that must be re-earned each year. Base salary may be lower in cases in which potential bonuses may be large.
- **Recognition awards** – Tangible awards (gift cards, merchandise, trips, special events, time off, plaques) or intangible rewards (praise) are given on an impromptu basis to recognize achievement

Unit-Focused

- **Gain sharing** – An approach in which employees actively participate with managers to develop strategies for increasing performance, usually by reducing costs. Any financial gains that result from the performance improvements are shared with employees in the form of gain-sharing payout. No change is made in base salary. The potential payout represents “at risk” pay that must be re-earned each year

Organization-Focused

- **Profit sharing** – A bonus is received when the publicly reported earnings of a company exceed some minimum level, with the magnitude of the bonus contingent on the magnitude of the profits. No change is made to base salary. The potential bonus represents “at risk” pay that must be re-earned each year. Base salary may be lower in cases which potential bonuses may be large.

Chapter 7 – Trust, Justice and Ethics

What is trust rooted in?

Although different views of trust exist, all are rooted in a fundamental belief that a trustee (manager, the organization) is trustworthy and will act in a way that benefits the trustor (an employee, a customer).

Types of Trust

Disposition-based trust – trust that is rooted in one’s own personality, as opposed to a careful assessment of the trustee’s trustworthiness

- Has less to do with the authority and more to do with the trustor

- Some trustors are high in **trust propensity** – a general expectation that **the words, promises, and statements of individuals and groups can be relied upon**
 - The importance of trust propensity is most obvious in interactions with strangers, in which any acceptance of vulnerability would amount to “blind trust”
 - People with high trust propensity might also be fooled into trusting someone that is not worthy of trust
 - People with low trust propensity might be fooled into not trusting someone who is actually deserving of it

Cognition-based trust – trust that is rooted in a rational assessment of the authority’s trustworthiness

- Guides us in cases when we don’t yet have data about a particular authority
- Eventually we gain enough knowledge to gauge the authority’s trustworthiness, defined as the characteristics or attributes of a trustee that inspire trust

Three dimensions of trustworthiness (assessing someone’s ‘track record’)

- a. **Ability** – the skills, competencies, and areas of expertise that enable an authority to be successful in some specific area
- b. **Benevolence** – the belief that an authority wants to do good for a trustor, apart from any selfish or profit-centered motives
- c. **Integrity** – the perception that an authority adheres to a set of values and principles that the trustor finds acceptable

Affect-based trust – trust that depends on feelings toward the authority that go beyond any rational assessment of trustworthiness

- More emotional than rational

Types of Justice

Distributive justice – the perceived justice of decision-making outcomes

- Employees gauge distributive justice by asking whether decision outcomes, such as pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, and work assignments are allocated using proper norms
- Equity vs. equality vs. need

Procedural justice – the perceived fairness of decision-making processes

- Voice – Do employees get to provide input into procedures?
- Correctability – Do procedures build in mechanisms for appeals?
- Consistency – Are procedures consistent across people and time?
- Bias suppression – Are procedures neutral and unbiased?
- Representativeness – Do procedures consider the needs of all groups?
- Accuracy – Are procedures based on accurate information?

Interpersonal justice – the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment received by employees by authorities

- Interpersonal justice is fostered when authorities adhere to two particular rules

- **The respect rule** pertains to whether authorities treat employees in a dignified and sincere manner
- **The propriety rule** reflects whether authorities refrain from making improper or offensive remarks

Informational justice – the perceived fairness of the communications provided to employees from authorities

- Interpersonal justice is fostered when authorities adhere to two particular rules
- **The justification rule** mandates that authorities explain decision-making procedures and outcomes in a comprehensive and reasonable manner
- **The truthfulness rule** requires that those communications be honest and candid

Ethics

Four Component Model – a model that argues that ethical behaviours result from the multistage sequence of moral awareness, moral judgment, moral intent, and ethical behaviour

- **Moral awareness** – recognition by an authority that a moral issue exists in a situation
 - Moral intensity – the degree to which an issue has ethical urgency
 - Moral attentiveness – the degree to which people chronically perceive and consider issues of morality during their experiences
- **Moral judgment** – when an authority can accurately identify the “right” course of action
 - Cognitive moral development – As people age and mature, they move through several states or moral development, each more mature and sophisticated than the prior one
 - Moral principles – prescriptive guides for making moral judgments
- **Moral intent** – an authority’s degree of commitment to the moral course of action
 - Moral identity – the degree to which a person views himself or herself as a moral person
- **All lead to ethical behaviour**

Chapter 8 – Learning and Decision Making

Contingencies of reinforcement – Four specific consequences used by organizations to modify employee behaviours

- **Positive reinforcement** – A positive outcome follows a desired behaviour
- **Negative reinforcement** – An unwanted outcome is removed following a desired behaviour
 - Increases desired behaviours
- **Punishment** – An unwanted outcome that follows an unwanted behaviour
- **Extinction** – The removal of a positive outcome following an unwanted behaviour

- Decreases unwanted behaviour

Operant Conditioning Components

Antecedent – Condition that precedes the behaviour

Behaviour – Action performed by the employee

Consequence – Result that occurs after behaviour

Schedules of reinforcement – the timing of when contingencies are applied or removed

1. **Continuous reinforcement** – a specific consequence follows each and every occurrence of a certain behaviour
2. **Fixed-interval schedule** – reinforcement occurs at fixed time periods
 - Ex. Paycheck
3. **Variable-interval schedule** – reinforcement occurs at random periods of time
 - Ex. Supervisor walking around at different times
4. **Fixed ratio** – reinforcement occurs following a fixed number of desired behaviours
 - Ex. When people are paid per unit on what they produce
5. **Variable-ratio schedule** – behaviours are reinforced after a varying number of them have been exhibited
 - Ex. Working on commission, a lottery slot machine

Social learning theory – Theory that argues that people in organizations learn by observing others

Behavioural modeling – When employees observe the actions of others, learn from what they observe, and then repeat the observed behaviour

- Both methods of learning by observation

Types of Knowledge

Explicit knowledge – Knowledge that is easily communicated and available to everyone

- Easily transferred, readily available to most, can be learned through books, general information

Tactic knowledge – Knowledge that employees can only learn through experience

- Very difficult to articulate to others, highly personal in nature, based on experience, typically job specific

Decision Making Problems

Limited Information

- **Bounded rationality** – The notion that people do not have the ability or resources to process all available information and alternatives when making a decision

- **Satisficing** – When a decision maker selects the first acceptable alternative considered

Faulty Perceptions

- **Selective perception** – The tendency for people to see their environment only as it affects them and as it is consistent with their expectation
- **Projection bias** – The faulty perception by decision makers that others think, feel, and act as they do
- **Social identity theory** – A theory that people identify themselves according to the various groups to which they belong and judge others according to the groups they associate with
- **Stereotype** – Assumptions made about others based on their social group membership
- **Heuristics** – Simple and efficient rules of thumb that allow one to make decisions more easily
- **Availability bias** – The tendency for people to base their judgments on information that is easier to recall

Faulty Attributions

- **Fundamental attribution error** – The tendency for people to judge others' behaviours as being due to internal factors such as ability, motivation, or attitudes
 - **Consensus** – Used by decision makers to attribute cause; whether other individuals behave the same way under similar circumstances
 - **Distinctiveness** – Used by decision makers to attribute cause; whether the person being judged acts in a similar fashion under different circumstances
 - **Consistency** – Used by decision makers to attribute cause; whether this individual has behaved this way before under similar circumstances
- **Self-serving bias** – When one attributes one's own failures to external factors and success to internal factors

Escalation of Commitment – A common decision-making error, in which the decision maker continues to follow a failing course of action

Decision-Making Biases

- **Anchoring** – The tendency to rely too heavily, or “anchor” on one trait or piece of information when making decisions even when the anchor might be unreliable or irrelevant
- **Framing** – The tendency to make different decisions on the basis of how the question or situation is phrased
- **Representativeness** – The tendency to assess the likelihood of an event by comparing it to a similar event and assuming it will be similar
- **Contrast** – The tendency to judge things erroneously on the basis of a reference that is near to them
- **Recency** – The tendency to weight recent events more than earlier events

Chapter 9 – Personality, Cultural Values, and Ability

Personal Attributes Covered

1. **Personality** – The structures and propensities inside a person that explain his or her characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behaviour; personality reflects what people are like and creates their social reputation
2. **Cultural values** – Shared beliefs about desirable end states or modes of conduct in a given culture that influence the expression of traits
3. **Ability** – Relatively stable capabilities of people for performing a particular range of related activities

What personality factor is the strongest predictor of job performance?

Conscientiousness

The Big Five Taxonomy – The five major dimensions of personality: conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and extraversion

- **Conscientiousness** – Dimension of personality – reflecting traits like being dependable, organized, reliable, ambitious, hardworking and persevering
 - Conscientious employees prioritize accomplishment striving (a strong desire to accomplish task-related goals as a means of expressing one's personality)
- **Agreeableness** – Dimension of personality – reflecting traits like being kind, cooperative, sympathetic, helpful, courteous, and warm
 - Agreeable people prioritize communion striving (a strong desire to obtain acceptance in personal relationships as a means of expressing one's personality)
- **Neuroticism** – Dimension of personality – reflecting traits like being nervous, moody, emotional, insecure, jealous, and unstable
 - Neuroticism is synonymous with negative affectivity (a dispositional tendency to experience unpleasant moods such as hostility, nervousness and annoyance)
- **Openness to experience** – Dimension of personality – reflecting traits like being curious, imaginative, creative, complex, refined and sophisticated
- **Extraversion** – Dimension of personality – reflecting traits like being talkative, sociable, passionate, assertive, bold, and dominant
 - Extraverted people prioritize status striving (a strong desire to obtain power and influence within a social structure as a mean's of expressing one's personality)

Types of Abilities

1. Cognitive ability – Capabilities related to the use of knowledge to make decisions and solve problems

- **Verbal ability** – Various capabilities associated with understanding and expressing oral and written communication

- Quantitative ability – Capabilities associated with doing simple mathematical operations and selecting and applying formulas to solve mathematical problems
- Reasoning ability – A diverse set of abilities associated with sensing and solving problems using insight, rules, and logic
- Spatial ability – Capabilities associated with visual and mental representation and manipulation of objects in space
- Perceptual ability – The capability to perceive, understand, and recall patterns of information
- General mental ability → general cognitive ability – The general level of cognitive ability that plays an important role in determining the more narrow cognitive abilities

2. Emotional ability

Emotional intelligence – A set of abilities related to the understanding and use of emotions that affect social functioning

- **Self-awareness** – The ability to recognize and understand the emotions in oneself
- **Other awareness** – The ability to recognize and understand the emotions that other people are feeling
- **Emotion regulation** – The ability to recover quickly from emotional experiences
- **Use of emotions** – The degree to which people can harness emotions and employ them to improve their chances of being successful in whatever they are seeking to do

3. Physical ability

- Strength – The degree to which the body is capable of exerting force
- Stamina – The ability of a person’s lungs and circulatory system to work efficiently while he or she is engaging in prolonged physical activity
- Flexibility – The ability to bend, stretch, twist, or reach
- Coordination – The quality of physical movement in terms of synchronization of movements and balance
- Psychomotor ability – Capabilities associated with manipulating and controlling objects
- Sensory ability – Capabilities associated with vision and hearing

Situational strength – The degree to which situations have clear behavioural expectations, incentives, or instructions that makes differences between individuals less important

- “Strong situations” have clear behavioural expectations, incentives or instructions, whereas “weak situations” lack those cues
- Trait activation – Suggests that some situations provide cues that trigger the expression of a given trait

Hofstede's Dimensions of Cultural Values

Individualism-Collectivism	
Individualistic	Collectivistic
The culture is a loosely knit social framework in which people take care of themselves and their immediate family.	The culture is a tight-knit social framework in which people take care of the members of a broader in-group and act loyally to it.
Canada, the Netherlands, France	Indonesia, China, West Africa
Power Distance	
Low	High
The culture prefers that power be distributed uniformly where possible, in a more egalitarian fashion.	The culture accepts the fact that power is usually distributed unequally within organizations.
Canada, Germany, the Netherlands	Russia, China, Indonesia
Uncertainty Avoidance	
Low	High
The culture tolerates uncertain and ambiguous situations and values unusual ideas and behaviours.	The culture feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and relies on formal rules to create stability.
Canada, Indonesia, the Netherlands	Japan, Russia, France
Masculinity-Femininity	
Masculine	Feminine
The culture values stereotypically male traits such as assertiveness and the acquisition of money and things.	The culture values stereotypically female traits such as caring for others and caring about quality of life.
Canada, Japan, Germany	The Netherlands, Russia, France
Short-term vs. Long-term Oriented	
Short-term Oriented	Long-term Oriented
The culture stresses values that are more past-and-present oriented, such as respect for tradition and fulfilling obligations.	The culture stresses values that are more future-oriented, such as persistence, prudence, and thrift.
Canada, Russia, West Africa	China, Japan, the Netherlands

Chapter 10 – Teams, Diversity, and Communication

Types of Teams

Team – Two or more people who work interdependently over some time period to accomplish common goals related to some task-oriented purpose

- **Work team** – A relatively permanent team in which members work together to produce goods and/or services
- **Management team** – A relatively permanent team that participates in managerial-level tasks that affect the entire organization

- **Parallel team** – A team composed of members from various jobs within the organization that meets to provide recommendations about important issues
- **Project team** – A team formed to take on one-time tasks, most of which tend to be complex and require input from members from different functional areas
- **Action team** – A team of limited duration that performs complex tasks in contexts that tend to be highly visible and challenging

Process Loss/Gain

Process gain – When team outcomes are greater than expected based on the capabilities of the individual members

Process loss – Loss considered to have occurred when team outcomes are less than expected in view of the capabilities of the individual group members

What is an additive group task?

Additive groups tasks are contributions resulting from the abilities of every member in a team “add up” to determine team performance.

Two Models of Team Development

Some teams develop in a predictable sequence ...

1. Forming – members orient themselves by trying to understand their boundaries in the team
2. Storming – Members remain committed to ideas they bring with them to the team
3. Norming – Members realize that they need to work together to accomplish team goals, and consequently, they begin to cooperate with others
4. Performing – Members are comfortable working within their roles, and the team makes progress toward goals
5. Adjourning – Occur because the lifespan of teams is limited, members experience anxiety and other emotions as they disengage and ultimately separate from the team

... whereas many teams develop in a less linear fashion

1. Forming and pattern creation
2. Inertia
3. (somewhere near the midway point in the project) Punctuated equilibrium
4. Process revision (team realizes they need to change their task paradigm fundamentally in order to finish on time)
5. Inertia (new framework dominates their behaviour until task completion)

Types of Interdependence

Task interdependence – The degree to which team members interact with and rely on other team members for information, materials, and resources needed to accomplish work for the team

- **Pooled interdependence** – requires lowest degree of coordination, groups members complete their work assignments independently and then work is simply “piled up” to represent the group’s output
- **Sequential interdependence** – Different tasks are done in a prescribed order, and the group is structured such that members specialize in these tasks, interaction only occurs between members who perform tasks that are next to each other in the sequence
- **Reciprocal interdependence** – Members are specialized to perform specific tasks, however, instead of a strict sequence of activities, members interact with a subset of other members to complete the team’s work
- **Comprehensive interdependence** – Requires the highest level of coordination, each member has a great deal of discretion in terms of what they do and with whom they interact in the course of the collaboration involved in accomplishing the team’s work

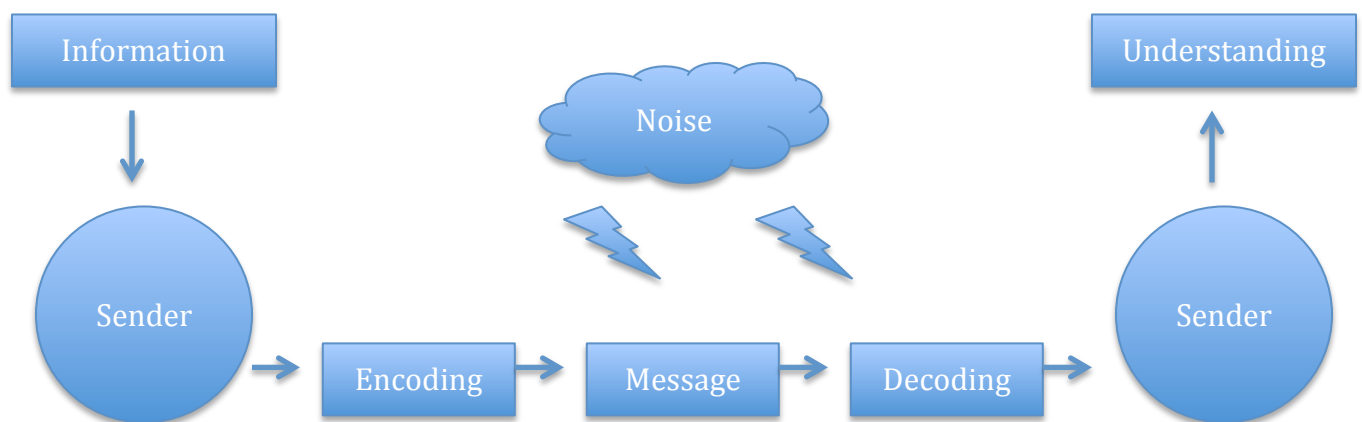
Goal interdependence – The degree to which team members have a shared goal and align their individual goals with that vision

Outcome interdependence – The degree to which team members share equally in the feedback and rewards that result from the team achieving its goals

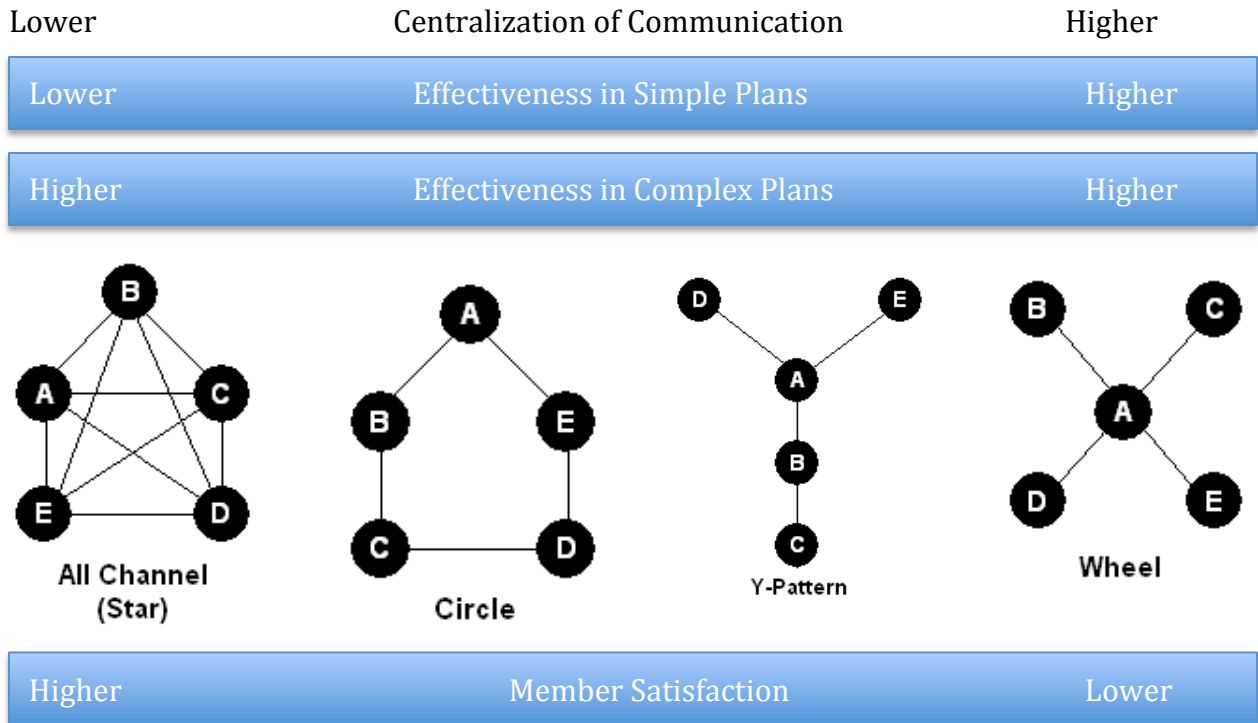
Social Loafing

- Members of a team do not always work together at the same time as a unit
- Uncertainty regarding “who contributes what” results in team members feeling less accountable for team outcomes
- Those feelings of reduced accountability in turn cause members to exert less effort when working on team tasks than they would if they worked alone on those same tasks
- Can significantly hinder a team’s effectiveness

The Communication Process



Models of Communication Networks



Chapter 11 – Power, Influence, and Negotiation

Organizational Power

- **Legitimate power** – A form of organizational power based on authority or position
- **Reward power** – A form of organizational power based on the control of resources or benefits
- **Coercive power** – A form of organizational power based on the ability to hand out punishment

Personal power

- **Expert power** – A form of organizational power based on expertise or knowledge
- **Referent power** – A form of organizational power based on the attractiveness and charisma of the leader

Contingency Factors of Power

There are certain situations in organizations that are likely to increase or decrease the degree to which people can use their power to influence others.

- **Sustainability** – The degree to which people have alternatives in accessing the resources that a leader controls
- **Discretion** – The degree to which managers have the right to make decisions on their own

- Centrality – How important a person’s job is and how many people depend on that person to accomplish their tasks
- Visibility – How aware others are of a leader and the resources that leader can provide

Influence Tactics

Influence – The use of behaviours to cause behavioural or attitudinal changes in others

- Rational persuasion – The use of logical arguments and hard facts to show someone that a request is worthwhile
- Consultation – An influence tactic whereby the target is allowed to participate in deciding how to carry out or implement a request
- Inspirational appeal – An influence tactic designed to appeal to one’s values and ideals, thereby creating an emotional or attitudinal reaction
- Collaboration – An influence tactic whereby the leader makes it easier for the target to complete a request by offering to work with and help the target
 - Above 4 tactics are the most effective
- Ingratiation – The use of favours, compliments, or friendly behaviour to make the target feel better about the influencer
- Personal appeals – An influence tactic in which the requestor asks for something based on personal friendship or loyalty
- Exchange tactic – An influence tactic in which the requestor offers a reward in return for performing a request
- Apprising – An influence tactic in which the requestor clearly explains why performing the request will benefit the target personally
 - Above 4 tactics are moderately effective
- Pressure – An influence tactic in which the requestor attempts to use the coercive power through threats and demands
- Coalition – An influence tactic in which the influencer enlists other people to help influence the target
 - Above 2 tactics are the least effective

Responses to Influence Tactics

- Internalization – A response to influence tactics where the target agrees with and becomes committed to the request
- Compliance – When targets of influence are willing to do what the leader asks but do it with a degree of ambivalence
- Resistance – When a target refuses to perform a request and puts forth an effort to avoid having to do it

Conflict Resolution Model



Competing – One party attempts to get his or her own goals met without concern for the other party's results

Avoiding – One party wants to remain neutral, stay away from conflict, or postpone the conflict to gather information or let things cool down

Accommodating – One party gives in to the other and acts in a completely unselfish way

Collaboration – Both parties work together to maximize outcomes

Compromise – Conflict is resolved through give-and-take concessions

Types of Negotiation Bargaining Strategies

- **Distributive bargaining** – A negotiation strategy in which one person gains and the other person loses
- **Integrative bargaining** – A negotiation strategy that achieves an outcome that is satisfying for both parties

What is BATNA?

A negotiator's best alternative to a negotiated agreement

Chapter 12 – Leadership Styles and Behaviours

Day-to-day Leadership Behaviours

Initiating Structure

- **Initiation** – Originating, facilitating, and sometimes resisting new ideas and practices
- **Organization** – Defining and structuring of work, clarifying leader versus member roles, coordinating employee tasks

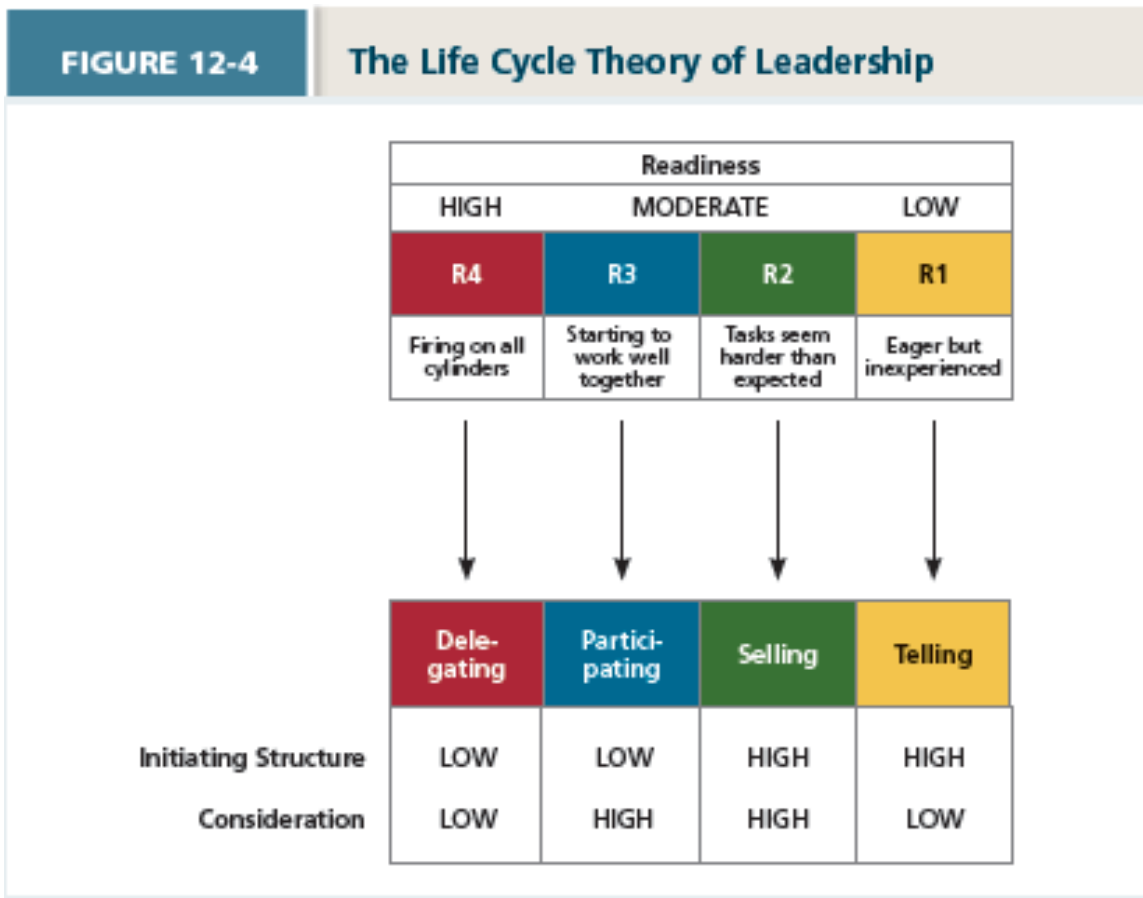
- Production – Setting goals and providing incentives for the effort and productivity of employees

Consideration

- Membership – Mixing with employees, stressing informal interactions, and exchanging personal services
- Integration – Encouraging a pleasant atmosphere, reducing conflict, promoting individual adjustment to the group
- Communication – Providing information to employees, seeking information from them, showing an awareness of matters that affect them
- Recognition – Expressing approval or disapproval of the behaviours of employees
- Representation – Acting on behalf of the group, defending the group, and advancing the interests of the group

Life cycle theory of leadership – A theory stating that the optimal combination of initiating structure and consideration depends on the readiness of the employees in the work unit

- **Readiness** – The degree to which employees have the ability and the willingness to accomplish their specific tasks



Telling – When the leader provides specific instructions and closely supervises performance

Selling – When the leader explains key issues and provides opportunities for clarification

Participating – Leader behaviour in which the leader shares ideas and tries to help the group conduct affairs

Delegating – Leader behaviour in which the leader turns responsibility for key behaviours over to employees

Decision Making Styles

- **Autocratic style** – A leadership style where the leader makes the decision alone without asking for opinions or suggestions of the employees in the work unit
- **Consultative style** – A leadership style in which the leader presents the problem to employees asking for their opinions and suggestions before ultimately making the decision him-or-herself
- **Facilitative style** – A leadership style in which the leader presents the problem to a group of employees and seeks consensus on a solution, making sure his or her own opinion receives no more weight than anyone else's
- **Delegative style** – A leadership style where the leader gives the employee the responsibility for making decisions within some set of specified boundary conditions

Laissez-Faire, Transactional and Transformational Leadership

- **Transformational leadership** – A pattern of behaviour in which the leader inspires followers to commit to a shared vision that provides meaning to their work while also serving as a role model who helps followers develop their own potential and view problems from new perspectives
 - **Idealized influence** – The power held by a leader who behaves in ways that earn the admiration, trust, and respect of followers, causing followers to want to identify with and emulate the leader
 - **Inspirational motivation** – A type of influence in which the leader behaves in ways that foster an enthusiasm for and commitment to a shared vision of the future
 - **Intellectual stimulation** – A type of influence in which the leader behaves in ways that challenge followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions and reframing old situations in new ways
 - **Individualized consideration** – A type of influence in which the leader behaves in ways that help followers achieve their potential through coaching, development, and mentoring
- **Transactional leadership** – A pattern of behaviour in which the leader rewards or disciplines the follower on the basis of performance
 - **Contingent reward** – A more active and effective type of transactional leadership, in which the leader attains follower agreement on what

- needs to be done using rewards in exchange for adequate performance
- Active management-by-exception – A type of transactional leadership in which the leader arranges to monitor mistakes and errors actively, and takes corrective action when required
- Passive management-by-exception – A type of transactional leadership in which the leader waits around for mistakes and errors, then takes corrective action as necessary
- **Laissez-fair leadership** – When the leader avoids leadership duties altogether

Charisma and Leadership

Charisma – A Greek word meaning “divinely inspired gift” – which reflects a sense among followers that the leader possesses extraordinary qualities

- Discussions of charisma serve as echoes of the “great person” view of leadership
- Research suggests that there is a genetic component to charisma specifically and to transformational leadership more broadly

“Great person” Theory

“Leaders are born not made”

- **Early research in this area frequently focused on physical features (gender, height, physical attractiveness, energy level)**, whereas subsequent research focused more squarely on personality and ability.

Leader-member exchange theory – A theory describing how leader-member relationships develop over time on a dyadic basis

- Role taking – The phase in a leader-follower relationship when a leader provides an employee with job expectations and the follower tries to meet those expectations
- Role making – The phase in a leader-follower relationship when a follower voices his or her own expectations for the relationship, resulting in a free-flowing exchange of opportunities and resources for activities and effort
- Over time, the role taking and role making process result in two general types of leader-member dyads
 - **“High-quality exchange”** dyad, marked by frequent one-on-one exchanges of information between the leader and the member, mutual influence, support and attention (those dyads form the leader’s “ingroup”)
 - **“Low-quality exchange”** dyad, marked by a more limited exchange of information, influence, latitude, support and attention (those dyads form the leader’s “outgroup”)

Chapter 13 – Organizational Structure

Organizational structure – Formally dictates how jobs and tasks are divided and coordinated between individuals and groups within the company

Elements of Organizational Structure

- **Work specialization** – The degree to which tasks in an organization are divided into separate jobs
 - Ex. Henry Ford divided tasks among his manufacturing employees to such a degree that each employee might only perform one single task
- **Chain of command** – Answer to the question of who reports to whom, and signifies formal authority relationships
- **Span of control** – Represents how many employees each manager in the organization has responsibility for
 - Responsible for 2 employees = narrow span, 10 employees = wide span
- **Centralization** – Aspect of structure that dictates where decisions are formally made in organizations
 - If only top managers have the authority to make final decisions the company has a “centralized” structure
 - If decision-making authority is pushed down to lower-level employees, the organization has a “decentralized” structure
- **Formalization** – The degree to which rules and procedures are used to standardize behaviours and decisions in an organization
 - Word “formalization” has a negative connotation, but think about if McDonald’s made fries differently at every location

Types of Organizations (based on how elements combine)

Mechanistic organization – Efficient, rigid, predictable, and standardized organizations that thrive in stable environments

- Rely on high levels of formalization, a rigid and hierarchical chain of command, high degrees of work specialization, centralization of decision making, and narrow spans of control

Organic organization – Flexible, adaptive, outward-focused organizations that thrive in dynamic environment

- Rely on low levels of formalization, weak or multiple chains of command, low levels of work specialization, and wide spans of control

Common Organizational Forms

Simple Structures – An organizational form that features one person as the central decision-making figure

Bureaucratic structure – An organizational form that exhibits many of the facets of a mechanistic organization

- **Functional structure** – An organizational form in which employees are grouped by the functions they perform for the organization

- Multidivisional structure – An organizational form in which employees are grouped by product, geography, or client
- Product structure – An organizational form in which employees are grouped around different products that the company produces
- Geographic structure – An organizational form in which employees are grouped around the different locations where the company does business
- Client-based structure – An organizational form in which employees are organized around serving customers
- Matrix structure – A complex form of organizational structure that combines a functional and multidivisional grouping

Restructuring – The process of changing an organization’s structure

Chapter 14 – Organizational Structure and Change

Culture Components

Observable artifacts – Aspects of an organization’s culture that employees and outsiders can easily see or talk about

- Symbols – The images an organization uses, which generally convey messages
- Physical structure – The organization’s buildings and internal office designs
- Language – The jargon, slang, and slogans used within an organization
- Stories – Anecdotes, accounts, legends, and myths passed down from cohort to cohort within an organization
- Rituals – The daily or weekly planned routines that occur in an organization
- Ceremonies – Formal events, generally performed in front of an audience of organizational audiences

Espoused values – The beliefs, philosophies, and norms that a company implicitly states

Basic underlying assumptions – The ingrained beliefs and philosophies of employees

Maintaining an Organizational Culture

There are two processes that can conspire to help keep cultures strong.

1. Attraction-Selection-Attribution (ASA)

- ASA framework – A theory (attraction-selection-attribution) that states that employees will be drawn to organizations with cultures that match their personality, organizations will select employees that match, and employees will leave or be forced out when they are not a good fit

2. Socialization – The primary process by which employees learn the social knowledge that enables them to understand and adapt to the organization’s culture (happens in 3 stages)

- **Anticipatory stage** – A stage of socialization that begins as soon as a potential employee develops an image of what it would be like to work for a company

- **Encounter stage** – A stage of socialization beginning the day an employee starts work, during which the employee compares the information as an outsider to the information learned as an insider
 - Reality shock – A mismatch of information that occurs when an employee finds that aspects of working at a company are not what the employee expected it would be
- **Understanding and adaptation** – The final stage of socialization, during which newcomers come to learn the content areas of socialization and internalize the norms and expected behaviours of the organization

Person-organization fit – The degree to which a person's values and personality match the culture of the organization