

Organizational Behavior Final Exam Review

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Chapter 1: What is Organizational Behavior?

Organizational Behavior Defined

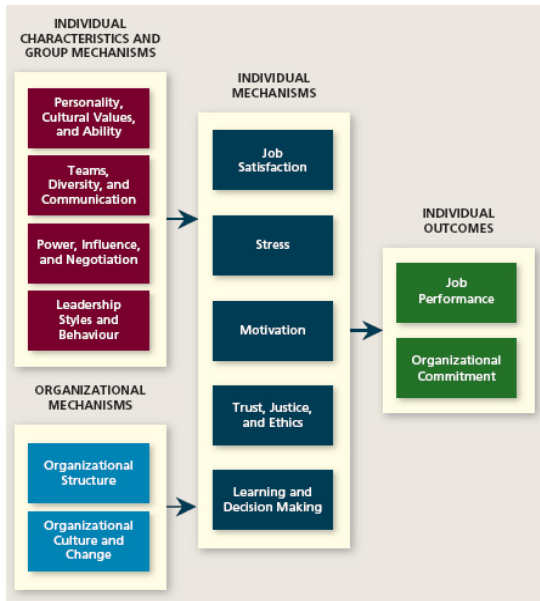
Organizational Behavior	A field of study devoted to understanding, explaining, and ultimately improving the attitudes and behaviors of individuals and groups in organizations.
Human Resources Management	Field of study that focuses on the applications of OB theories and principles in organizations
Strategic Management	Field of study devoted to exploring the product choices and industry characteristics that affect an organisation's profitability.

The Role of Management Theory

Classical Viewpoint	An early prescription on management that advocated high specialization of labor, intensive coordination, and centralized decision making.
Scientific Management	Using scientific methods to design optimal and efficient work processes and tasks. Frederick Taylor, "father" of scientific management. Scientific Method: theory → hypothesis → data → verification
Bureaucracy	An organizational form that emphasizes the control and coordination of its members through a strict chain of command, formal rules and procedures, high specialization, and centralized decision making. Max Weber
Human Relations Movement	Field of study that recognizes that the psychological attributes of individual workers and the social forces within work groups have important effects on work behaviors

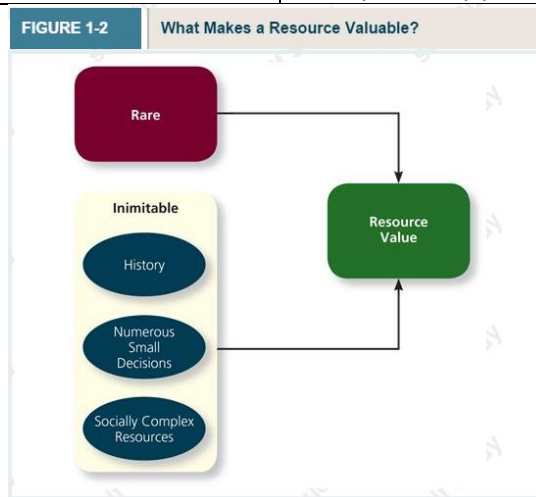
Today, contemporary management theory recognizes the dependencies between the classical approach and the human relations approach.

An Integrative Model of OB



Building a Conceptual Argument

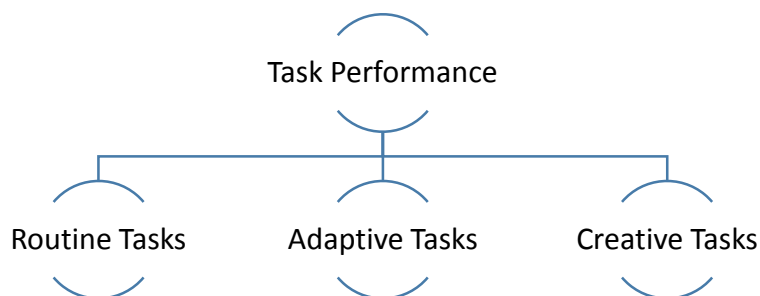
Resource-based View	A model that argues that rare and inimitable resources help firms maintain competitive advantage. A resource is more valuable when its rare , and inimitable
Rule of one-eight	The belief that at best, one-eight, or 12%, of organizations will actually do what is required to build profits by putting people first.



Chapter 2: Job Performance

Job Performance

Job Performance	Employee behavior that contribute either positively or negatively to the accomplishment of organizational goals
Task Performance	Employee behaviors that are directly involved in the transformation of organizational resources into the goods or services that the organization provides. Task performance can be broken down into 3 categories
Routine Task Performance	Well-known or habitual responses by employees to predictable task demands
Adaptive Task Performance	Thoughtful responses by an employee to unique or unusual demands
Creative Task Performance	Ideals or physical outcomes that are both novel and useful



Many organizations identify task performance behaviors by conducting a job analysis

Job Analysis	A process by which an organization determines requirements of specific jobs
National Occupational Classification (NOC)	When organizations find it impractical to use job analysis to identify the set of behaviors needed to define task performance, they turn to this online government database.

1. Citizenship Behaviors

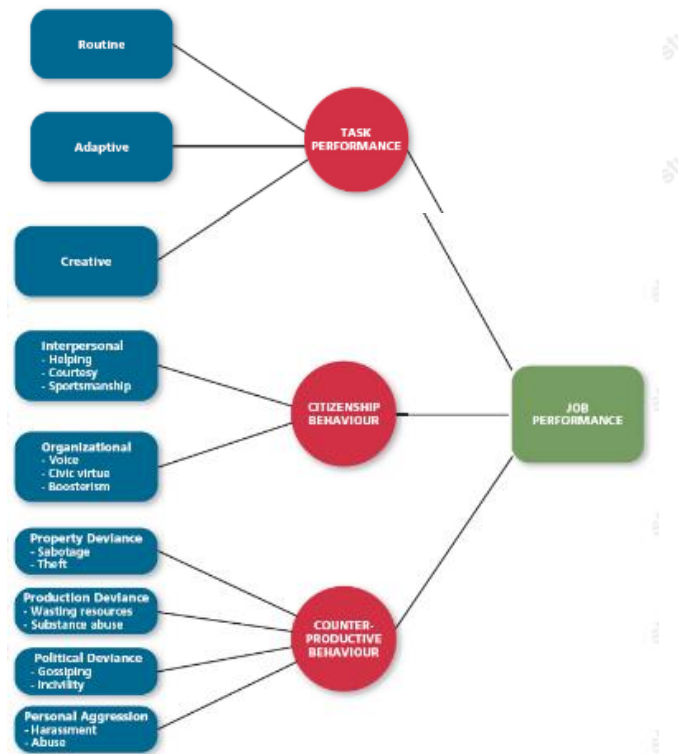
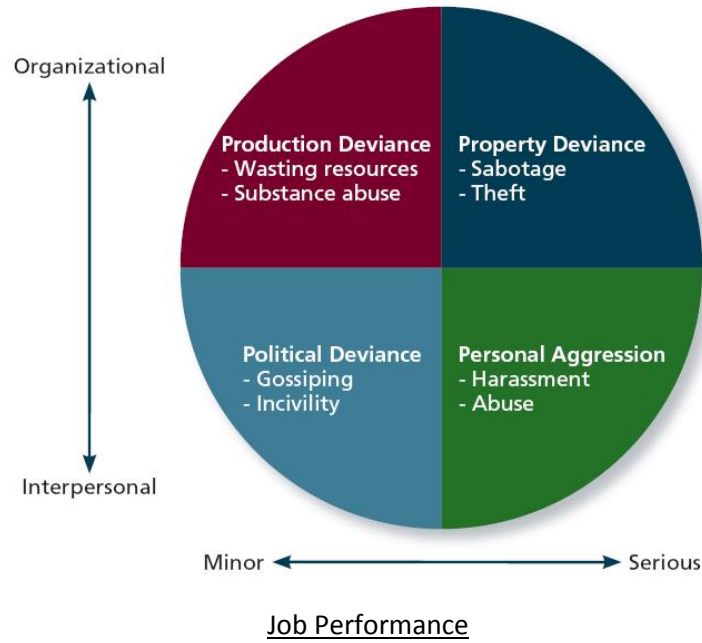
Citizenship Behavior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Voluntary employee behaviors that contribute to organizational goals by improving the context in which work takes place. Going the extra mile
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engaging in workplace behaviors that are not in the job description Behavior that may or may not be rewarded, but contribute to the organization by improving the overall quality of the setting in which work takes place. 2 categories
Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Going beyond normal job expectations to assist, support, and develop co-workers and colleagues. 3 behaviors associated with this. Helping Courtesy: sharing important information with co-workers Sportsmanship: maintaining a positive attitude with a co-worker during bad times
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Going beyond normal job expectations to improve operations of the organization, as well as defending the organization and being loyal to it. 3 behaviors associated with this 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 Behavior

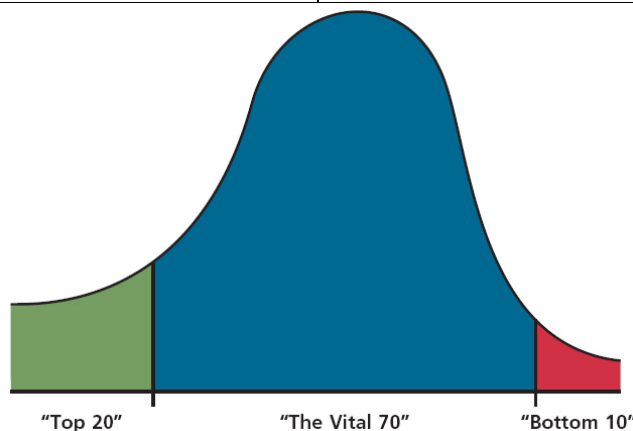
Counterproductive Behaviour	Employee behaviors that intentionally hinder organizational goal accomplishment. 4 types
Property Deviance	Behaviours that harm the organizations assets and possessions. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sabotage Theft
Production Deviance	Intentionally reducing organizational efficiency of work output <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wasting resources Substance abuse
Political Deviance	Behaviors that intentionally disadvantage other individuals <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gossip Incivility

<p>Personal Aggression</p>	<p>Hostile verbal and physical actions directed towards other employees</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Harassment • Abuse
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Performance Management

Performance Management	The general ways in which job performance information is used to manage employee performance
Management by Objectives (MBO)	A management philosophy that bases employee evaluation on whether specific performance goals have been met.
Behaviourally Anchored Rating Skills (BARS)	Use of examples of critical incidents to evaluate an employee's job performance. This directly addresses job performance behaviors. E.g.: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 = Open minded learns fast • ⋮ • 1 = Unwilling to learn
360 – Degree Feedback	This approach involves collecting performance information not only from the supervisor, but from anyone else who might have knowledge about the employee's performance behaviour.
Forced Rankings:	A performance management system in which managers rank subordinates relative to one another. An example of a forced ranking system is the vitality curve.
Social Networking Systems	Platforms like Podio, which track how often employees post, update their teams, and have discussions.

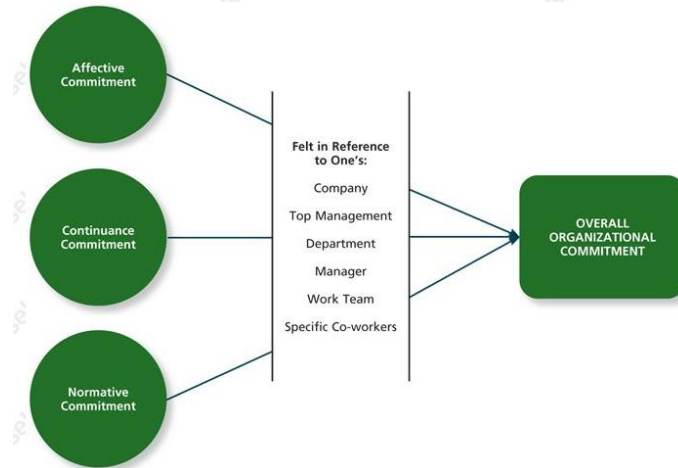


Chapter 3: Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment	An employee's desire to remain a member of an organization. 3 types of organizational commitment
Withdrawal Behavior	Employee actions that are intended to avoid work situation



Affective Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An employee’s desire to remain a member of an organization due to a feeling or emotional attachment. • Staying because you want to • “I love my job!”
Continuance Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 • “Working here is the only way I can afford this house”
Normative Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An employee’s desire to remain a member of an organization due to a feeling of obligation • Staying because you ought to • “They’ve invested so much time in me”
Focus of Commitment	The people, places, things that inspire a desire to remain a member of the organization

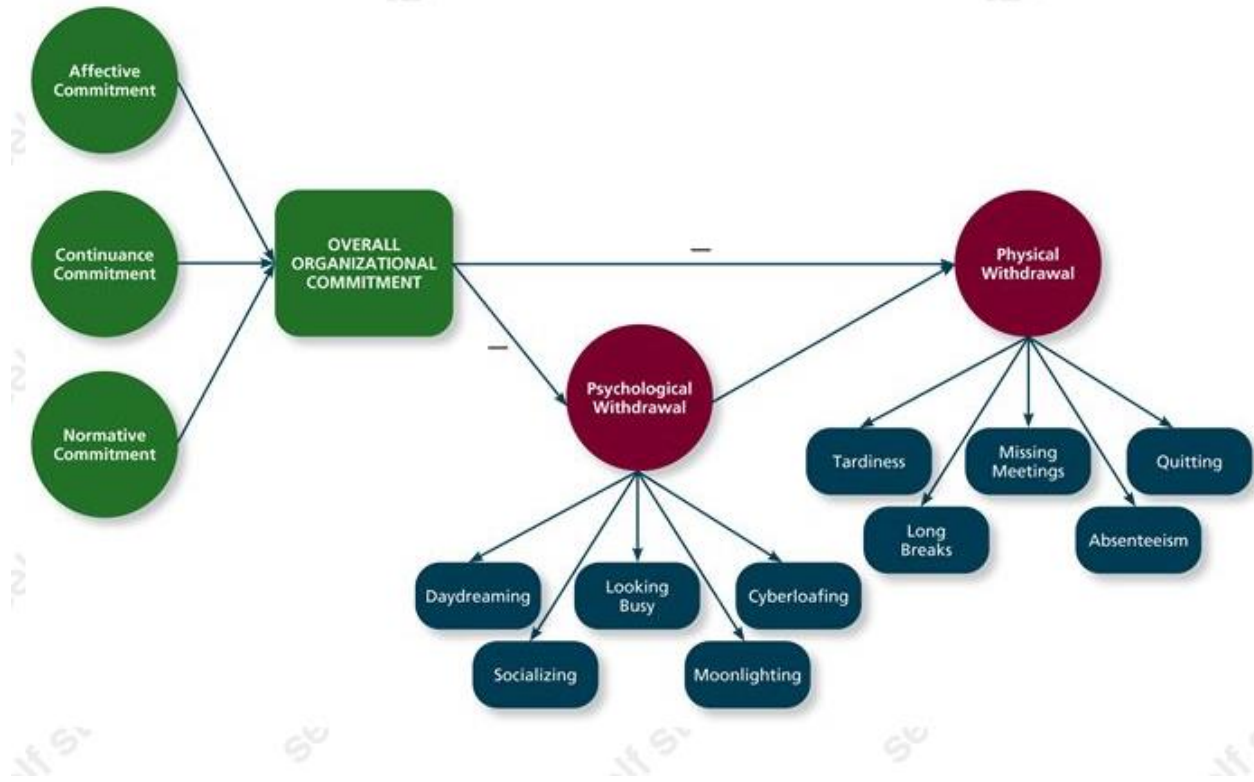


Erosion Model	A model that suggests that employees that have fewer bonds with co-workers are more likely to quit
Social-Influence Model	A model that suggests that employees with direct linkages to co-workers who leave the organization are more likely to leave themselves.

Embeddedness	An employee's connection to the organization. Does the employee fit into the organization and community?
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Withdrawal Behavior

Withdrawal Behavior	The opposite of organizational commitment.
Responses to negative work events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exit: a response to a negative work event in which one becomes often absent from work or voluntarily leaves the organization • Voice: a response in which an employee offers suggestions for change • Loyalty: a passive response to negative work event in which one publicly supports the situation but privately hopes for improvement • Neglect: A passive yet destructive response, in which one's interest and effort in work decline
Psychological Withdrawal	<p>Mentally escaping the work environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Daydreaming • Socializing • Looking busy • Moonlighting: using work time to work on other non-work related activities • Cyber-loafing: wasting time on the internet
Physical Withdrawal	<p>Physically escaping the work environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tardiness • Long breaks • Missing meetings • Absenteeism: employee doesn't show up to work for a full day • Quitting
Independent Forms Model	A model that predicts that various withdrawal behaviours are uncorrelated, so engaging in one has little bearing on engaging in others
Compensatory Forms Model	A model indicating that the various withdrawal behaviours are negatively correlated, so engaging in one type makes it less likely to engage in another
Progression Model	A model indicating that various withdrawal behaviors are correlated, so engaging in one type makes one more likely to engage in other



Trends that Affect Commitment

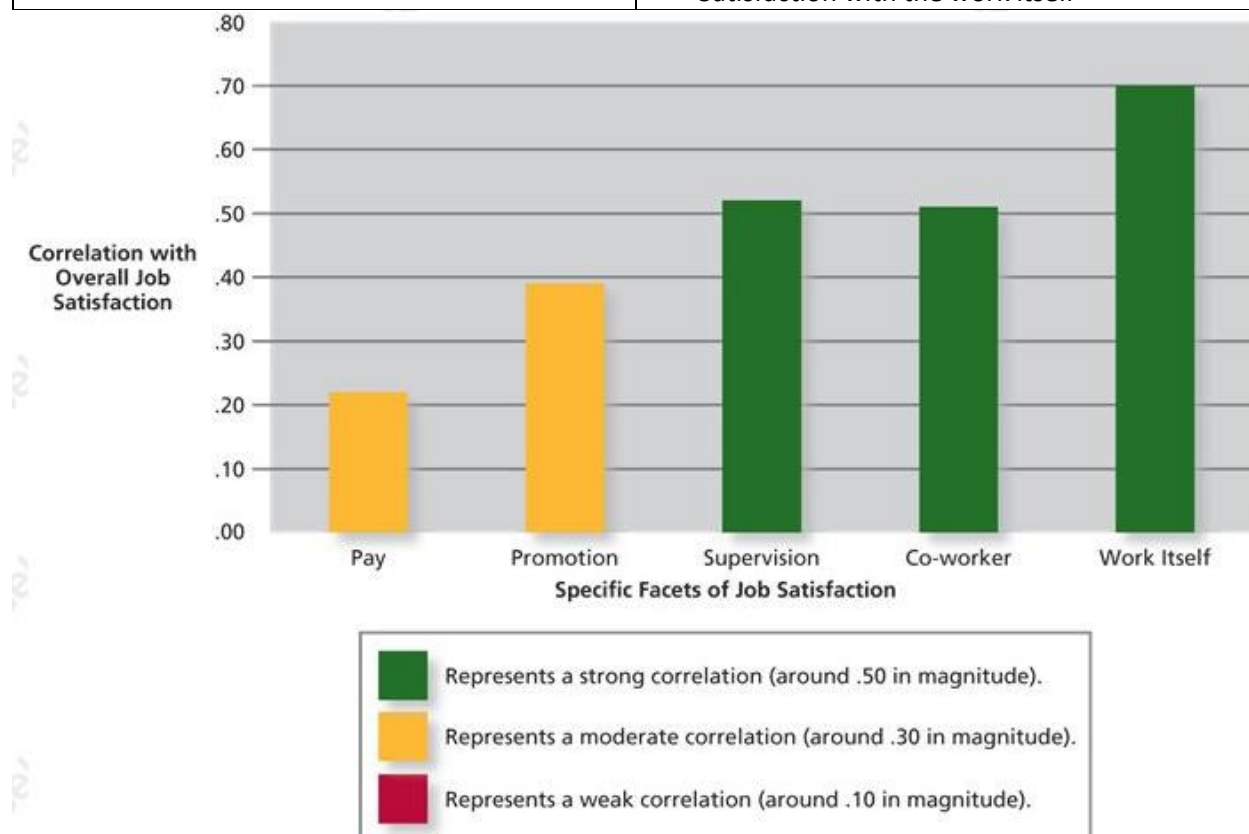
Diversity in the Workforce	As employee's become more and more diverse, there is less affective commitment in the workforce
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The Changing Employee-Employer Relationship

Psychological Contracts	Employees' beliefs about what they owe the company and vice versa
Transactional Contracts	Focus on monetary obligations. Attendance → pay
Relational Contracts	Open-ended/subjective obligations. Loyalty → job security
Perceived Organizational Support	The degree to which employees believe that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being.

Chapter 4: Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	A pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences; represents how a person feels and thinks about his/her job
Values	Things that people consciously or unconsciously want to seek or attain
Value-percept theory	<p>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. 5 components</p> <p>Dissatisfaction = $(V_{\text{want}} - V_{\text{have}}) \times (V_{\text{Importance}})$</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pay satisfaction • Promotion satisfaction • Supervision satisfaction • Co-worker satisfaction • Satisfaction with the work itself



Job Characteristics Theory

Job Characteristics Theory (V.I.S.A.F)	A theory that argues that 5 core characteristics, variety, identity, significance, autonomy and feedback, combine to result in high levels of satisfaction with the work itself. These 5 core characteristics belong to 3 different “psychological states”: meaningfulness of work, responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of results.
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
Responsibility for Outcomes	A psychological state indicating the degree to which employees feel they are key drivers of the quality of work output
Knowledge of Results	A psychological state indicating the extent to which employees are aware of how well or how poorly they are doing
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
Autonomy	The degree to which a job allows for individual freedom and discretion regarding how the work is to be done
Feedback	The degree to which the job itself provides information about how well the job holder is doing
Job Characteristics Theory Moderators	Moderators that influence the strength of the relationships between VISAF variables
Knowledge and Skill	Degree to which employees have the aptitude and competence needed to succeed on their job
Growth Need Strength	Degree to which employees desire to develop themselves further
Job Enrichment	When job duties and responsibilities are expanded to provide increased levels of core job characteristics

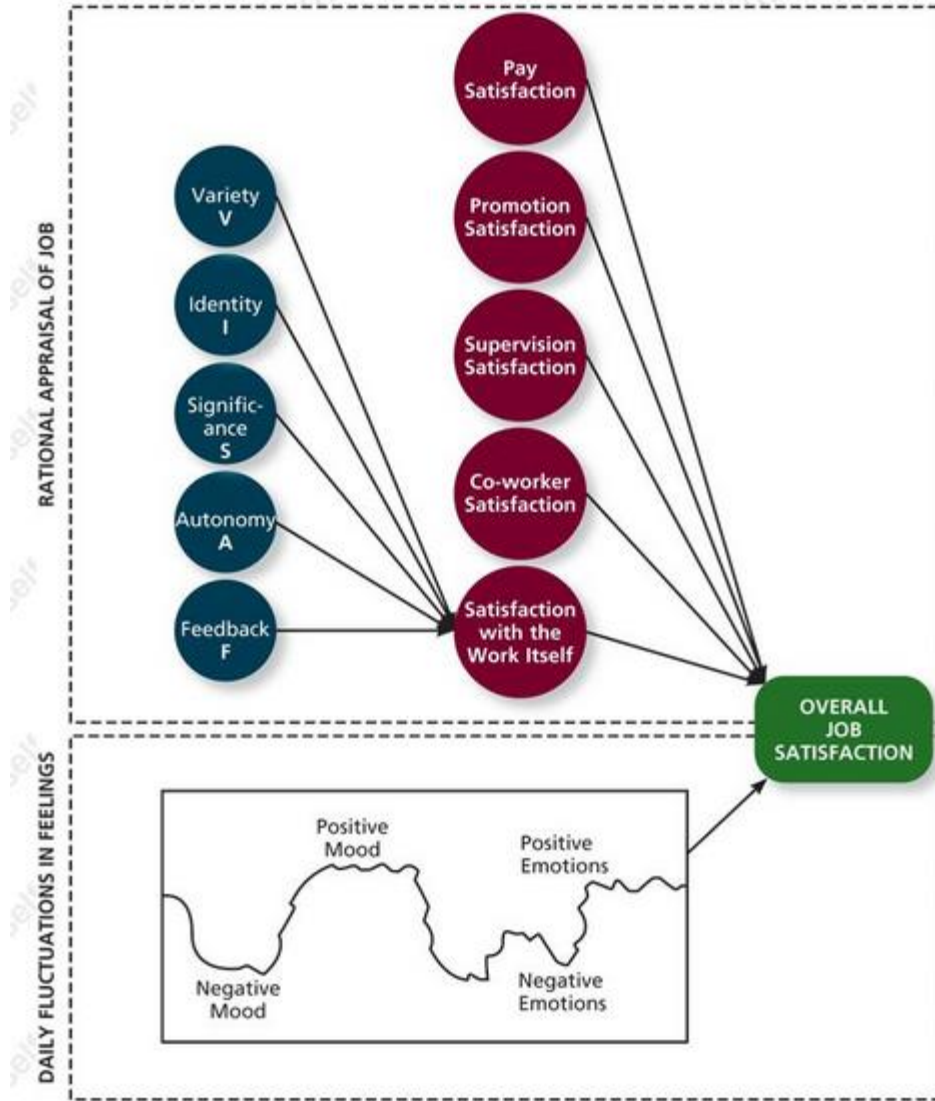


Figure 1 Job Characteristic Theory

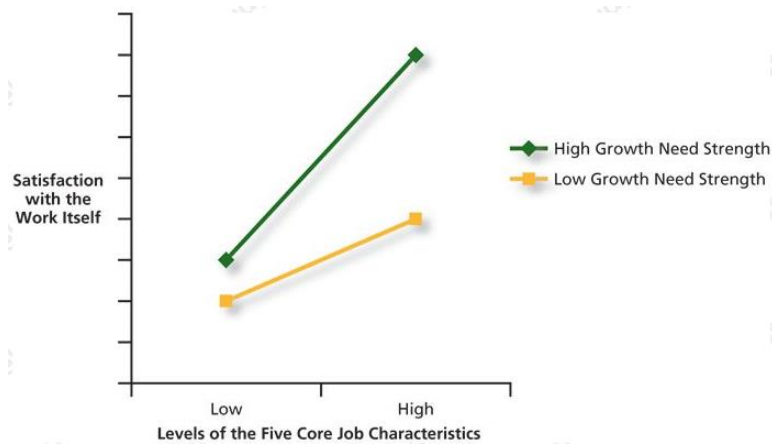
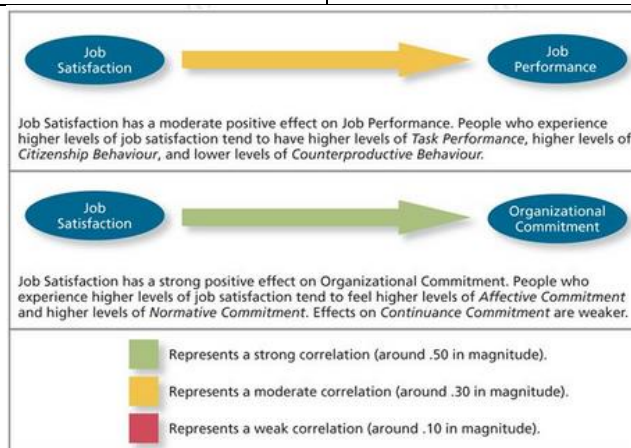


Figure 2 Growth Need Strength as a Moderator of Job Characteristic Effects

Mood and Emotions

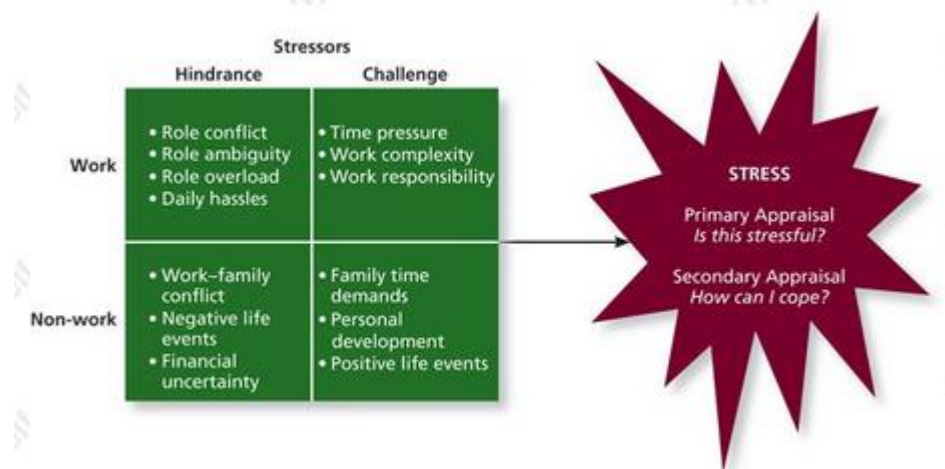
Moods	States of feelings that are mild in intensity, last for an extended period of time, and are not directed at anything
Emotions	Intense feelings, often lasting for a short duration, that are clearly directed at someone or some circumstance
Affective Events Theory	A theory that describes how workplace events can generate emotional reactions that impact work behaviors
Positive Emotions	Feelings of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Joy • Pride • Relief • Hope • Love • Compassion
Negative Emotions	Feelings of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear • Guilt • Shame • Sadness • Envy • Disgust
Emotional Labor	The management of their emotions that employees must do to complete their job duties successfully
Emotional Contagion	The idea that emotions can be transferred from one person to another
Job Satisfaction Index (JDI)	A facet measure of job satisfaction that assesses an individual's satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, co-workers, and the work itself.



Chapter 5: Stress

Stress		The psychological response to demands when there is something at stake for the individual, and when coping with these demands would tax or exceed the individual's capacity or resources
Stressors		Demands that cause the stress response. 2 types
Strains		Negative consequences of the stress response
Transactional Theory of Stress		A theory that explains how stressful demands are perceived and appraised, as well as how people respond to the perceptions of appraisals
Primary Appraisal (assessment/evaluation)		Evaluation of whether a demand is stressful and, if it is, the implications of the stressor in terms of the personal goals and well-being.
Benign (nonthreatening) Job Demands		Job demands that are not appraised as being stressful
Hindrance Stressors		Stressors that tend to be appraised as thwarting progress towards growth and achievement. These stressors can stem from work, or other places.
Role Conflict	Work Hindrance Stressors	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 on an employee preventing him or her from working effectively
Daily Hassles		Minor day-to-day demands that interfere with work accomplishment
Time Pressure	Work Challenge Stressors	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
Work-Family Conflict	Non-Work Hindrance Stressors	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 a 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
Family Time Demands	Non-Work Challenge Stressors	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	Non-Work Challenge Stressors	Events such as marriage or the birth of a child that tend to be appraised as a challenge
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Coping with Stress

Secondary Appraisal	When people determine how to cope with the various stressors they face
Coping	Behaviors and thoughts used to manage stressful demands and the emotions associated with the stressful demands
Behavioral Coping	Physical activities used to deal with a stressful situation
Cognitive Coping	Thoughts used to deal with a stressful situation
Problem-Focused Coping	Behaviours and cognitions of an individual intended to manage the stressful situation itself
Emotion-focused coping	Behaviours and cognitions of an individual intended to help manage emotional reactions to the stressful demands.

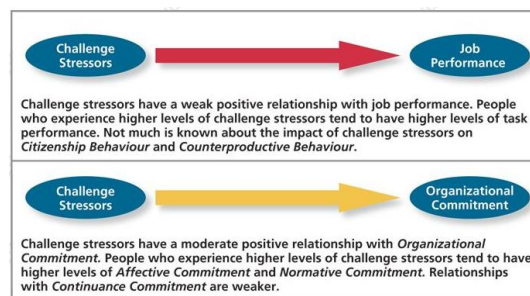
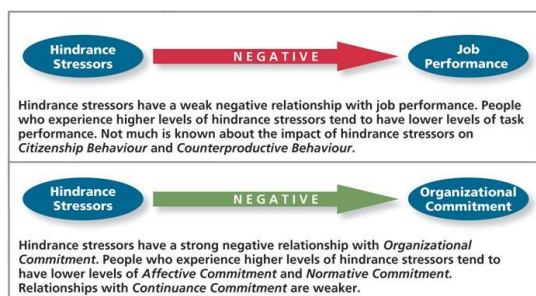
TABLE 5-3 Examples of Coping Strategies		
	PROBLEM- FOCUSED	EMOTION-FOCUSED
Behavioural methods	Working harder Seeking assistance Acquiring additional resources	Engaging in alternative activities Seeking support Venting anger
Cognitive methods	Strategizing Self-motivation Changing priorities	Avoiding, distancing, and ignoring Looking for the positive in the negative Reappraising

Strains

Physiological Strains	Reactions from stressors that harm the human body <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Illness • High blood pressure • Coronary artery disease • Headaches
Psychological Strains	Negative psychological reactions from stressors such as depression, anxiety, and anger <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Burnout: the emotional, mental, and psychical exhaustion from coping with stressful demands on a continuing basis • Inability to think clearly • Reduced confidence
Behavioural Strains	Patterns of negative behaviors that are associated with strains <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alcohol and drug use • Teeth grinding • Compulsive behaviors • Overeating

Accounting for Individuals in the Stress Process

Type A Behavior Pattern	People who tend to experience more stressors, to appraise more demands as stressful, and to be prone to experience more strains
Social Support	The help people receive from others when they are confronted with stressful demands
Instrumental Support	The help people receive from others that can be used to address a stressful demand directly
Emotional Support	The empathy and understanding people receive from others that can be used to alleviate emotional distress from stressful demands
Type B Behavior Pattern	Generally patient, relaxed, easygoing, and at times lacking an overriding sense of urgency



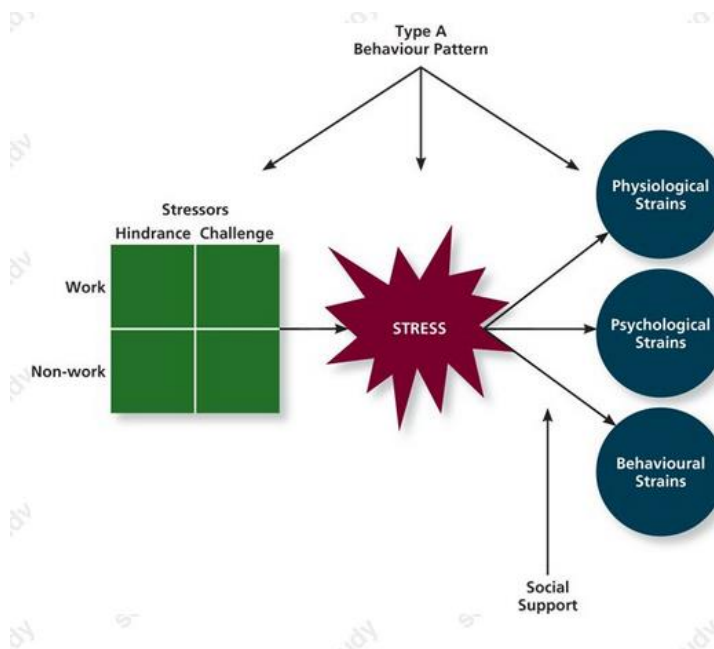


FIGURE 5-3

Why Are Some Employees More "Stressed" Than Others?

Stress Management, Reducing Stressors, Providing Resources, and Reducing Strains

Stress Audit	An assessment of the sources of stress in the workplace
Job Sharing	An approach to reducing individual job stressors by having two people share the responsibilities of a single job
Training Interventions	Practices that increase employees' competencies and skills
Supportive Practices	Ways in which organizations help employees manage and balance their demands
Relaxation Techniques	Calming activities to reduce stress
Cognitive-Behavioural Techniques	Various practices that help workers cope with life's stressors in a rational manner
Health and Wellness Programs	Employee assistance programs that help workers with personal problems such as alcoholism and other addictions

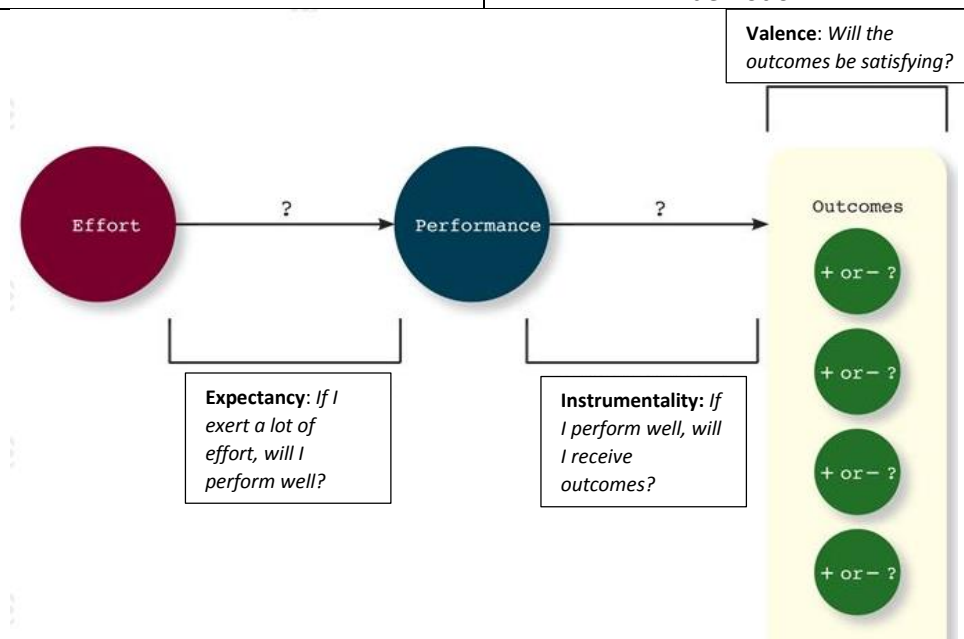
Chapter 6: Motivation

Motivation	A set of energetic forces that determine the direction (strategy), intensity , and persistence of an employee's work effort.
Engagement	A widely used term in contemporary workplaces that has different meanings depending on the context; most often refers to motivation, but it can also refer to affective commitment

Why are some employees more motivated than others? **4 theories**

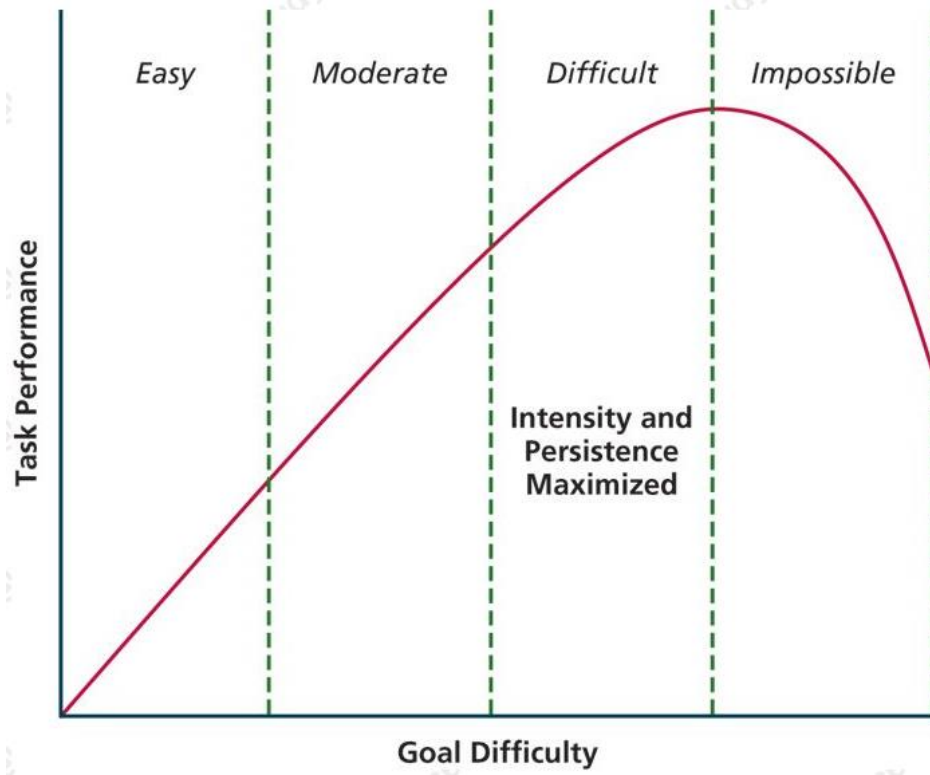
Expectancy Theory	<p>A theory that describes the cognitive process employees go through to make choices among different voluntary responses</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What makes an employee decide to work instead of browse YouTube? • What makes an employee decide to help a co-worker and be a "good citizen"? • Expectancy theory argues that employee behaviour is directed towards pleasure and away from pain, or towards certain outcomes and away from others. • Depends on 3 specific beliefs that are based on past learning and experiences: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expectancy - Instrumentality - Valence
Expectancy (E → P) Effort → Performance	<p>The belief that exerting a high level of effort will result in successful performance on some task.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subjective probability • "If I am not very good at writing essays, I will be less motivated to do it because I don't believe my effort (no matter how hard I try) will result in a success"
Self-Efficacy	<p>Factor that shape expectancy for a particular task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The belief that a person has the capabilities needed to perform the behaviours required on some task • Self-confidence, self-esteem • People who feel more "efficacious" (self-confident) for a particular task will tend to perceive higher levels of expectancy, and therefore may exert more effort into the task

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Efficacy levels are based on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Past accomplishments with similar tasks – Others' experiences – Verbal persuasion – Emotional cues (fear, anxiety, pride, enthusiasm)
Instrumentality (P → O) Performance → Outcome	The belief that successful performance will result in some outcome or outcomes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subjective probability • "If I perform well, will I receive outcomes?" • Studies suggest that generally, employees don't perceive high levels of instrumentality in their workplace. • 35% of employees view performance as the key driver of pay • 60% of employees view seniority as the key driver of pay
Valence (V)	The anticipated value of the outcome(s) associated with successful performance. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive value – I would prefer having outcome X to not having it <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Salary increase – Bonus • Negative value – I would prefer not having an outcome rather than X <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Termination – demotion

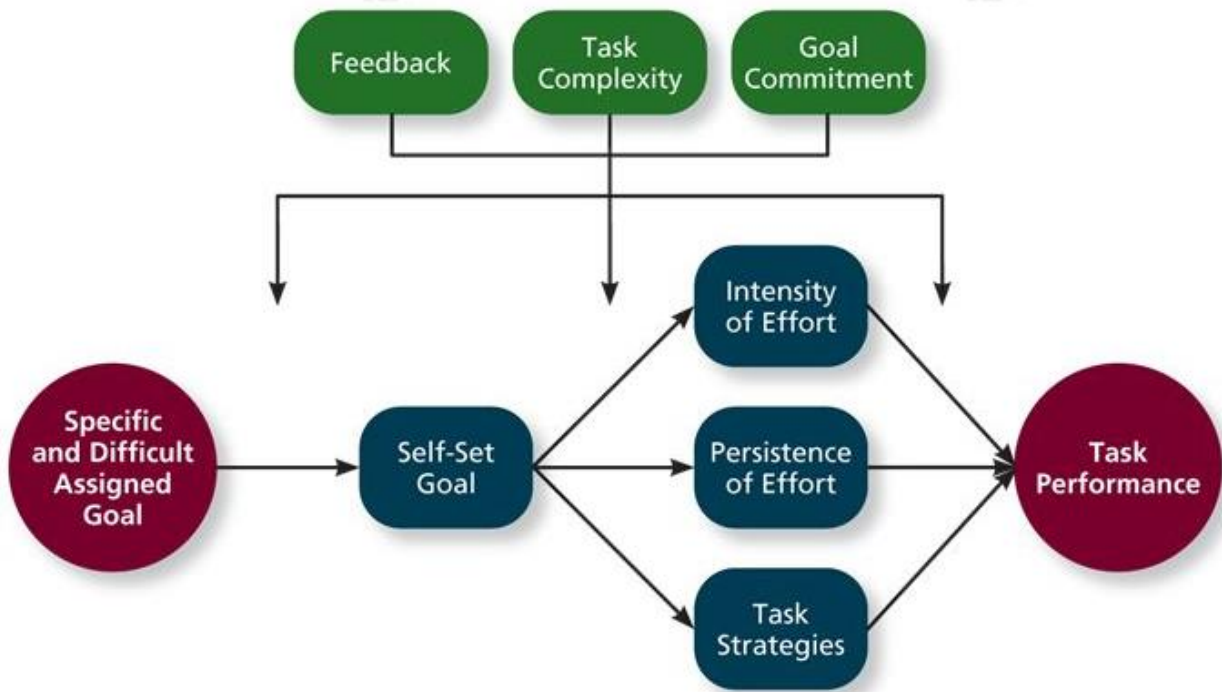


Extrinsic Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire to put forth work effort due to some contingency that depends on task performance • Extrinsic outcomes include: pay bonus, promotions, etc.
Intrinsic Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire to put forth work effort due to the sense that task performance serves as its own reward • Intrinsic outcomes include: enjoyment, accomplishment, skill development, etc.
Meaning of Money	<p>The idea that money can have symbolic value (e.g., achievement, respect, freedom) in addition to economic value</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees with higher salaries are more likely to view money in achievement-related terms • Differences in education do not appear to impact the meaning of money.
Expectancy Theory: Motivational Force	<p>The total “motivational force” (MF) to perform a given task, according to expectancy theory, can be described using the following formula:</p> $MF = (E \rightarrow P) * \sum[(P \rightarrow O) * V]$ $MF =$ $expectancy * \sum(instrumentality * valence)$
Goal Setting Theory	<p>A theory that views goals as the primary drivers of the intensity and persistence of effort</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theory argues that assigning specific and difficult goals will result in higher levels of performance, than simply assigning no goals, or easy goals.
Specific and Difficult Goals	<p>Goals that stretch an employee to perform at his or her maximum level while staying within the boundaries of his or her ability</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • See goal difficulty x task performance chart to determine optimal level of intensity and persistence • These assigned goals must be internalized as a self-set goal in order to be effective
Self-set Goals	<p>The internalized goals that people use to monitor their own progress</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drives motivation and behavior • Assigned goals can motivate employees to work harder and smarter

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internalized goals mobilize energy and effort levels • As these self-set goals become more difficult: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Intensity increases – Persistence increases – Task Strategies (direction) further develop
Moderators	<p>Determinant on whether assigned goals with have a stronger/weaker effect on task performance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affect the strength of the relationship between variables • 3 moderators: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Feedback – Task Complexity – Goal Commitment
Feedback	<p>#1 moderator of Goal Setting Theory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refers to progress updates on work goals
Task Complexity	<p>#2 moderator of Goal Setting Theory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Degree to which the information and actions needed to complete a task are complicated
Goal Commitment	<p>#3 moderator of Goal Setting Theory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Degree to which a person is determined to reach a goal
<p>S.M.A.R.T. Goals</p> <p>Specific Measureable Achievable Result-Based Time-Sensitive</p>	<p>Employers often revisit goal setting principles in effort to boost goal commitment and task performance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 25%-25% of employees at Microsoft were working under goals that were either not specific enough or not measureable enough to offer feedback <p>Managers are not trained to identify 5 “S.M.A.R.T. goals” for each employee, with rewards directly linked to goal achievement:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific • Measureable • Achievable • Result-Based • Time-Sensitive

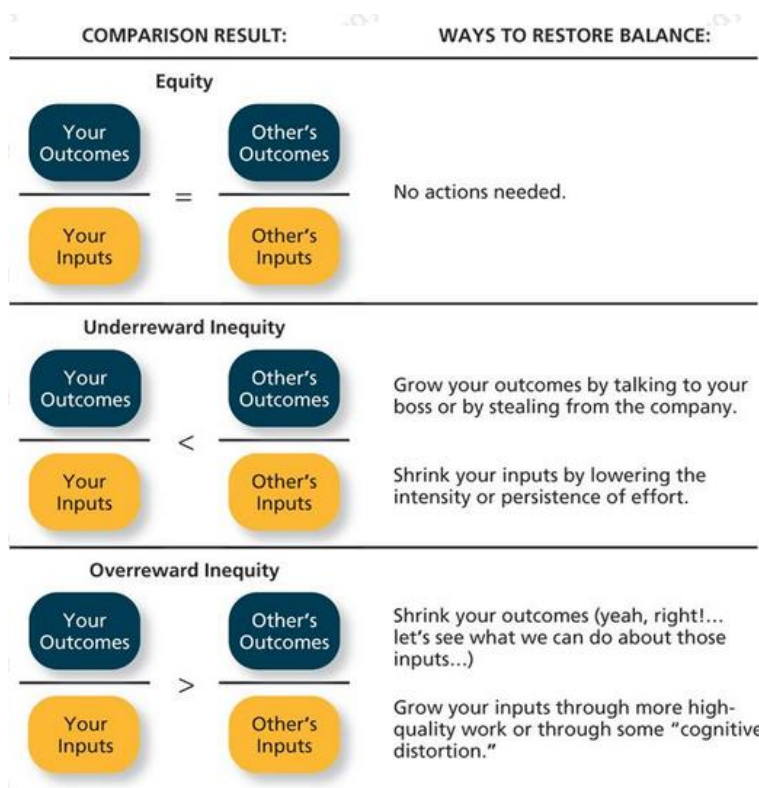


Specific and Difficult Goals



Goal Setting Theory

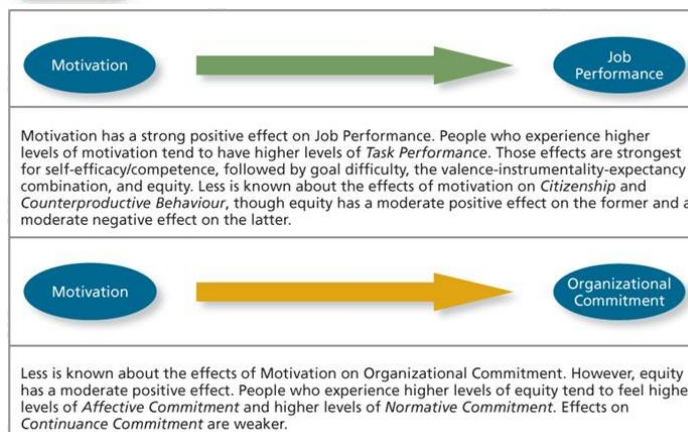
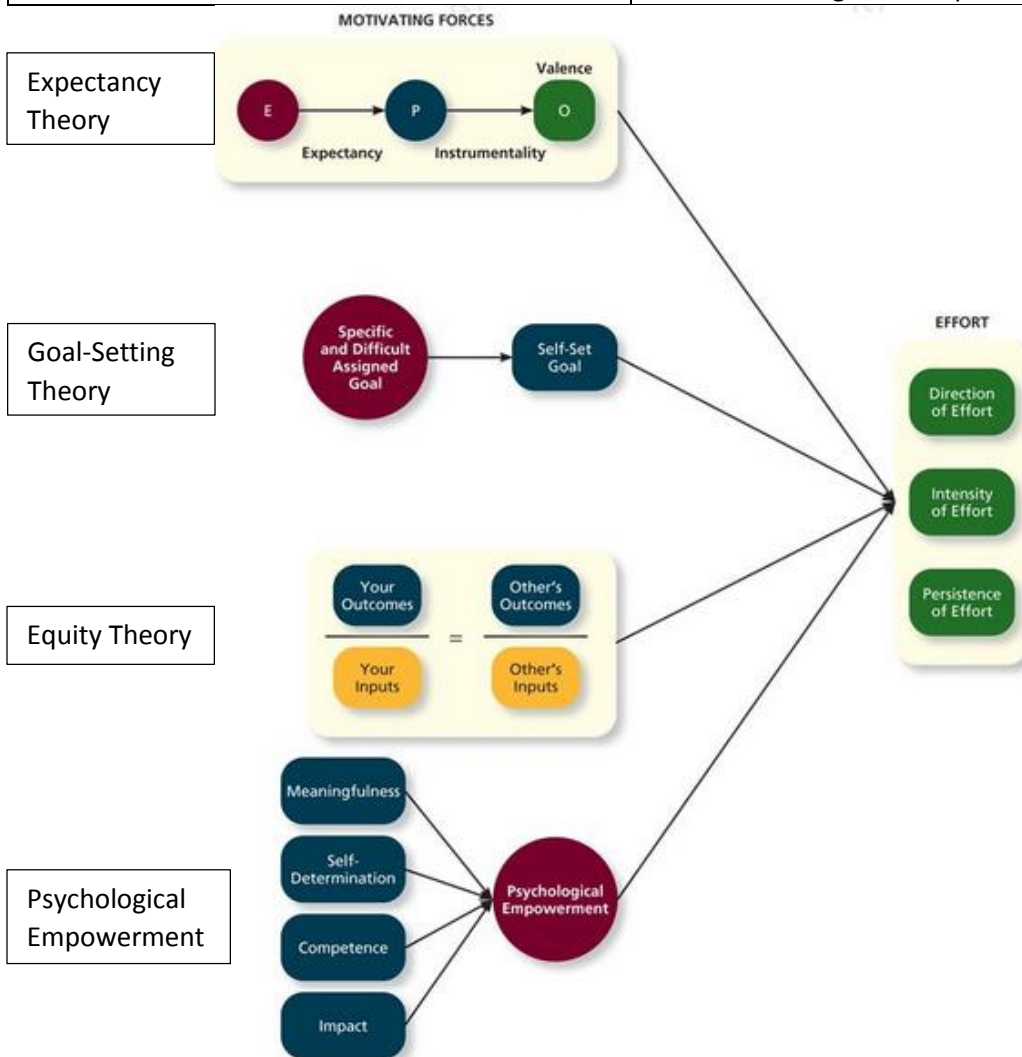
Equity Theory	<p>A theory that suggests that employees create a mental ledger of the outcomes they receive for their job inputs, relative to some comparison other.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suggests that motivation does not only depend on one's own beliefs and circumstances, but also on what happens to other people • Effects persistence, and intensity.
Comparison Other	<p>Another person who provides a frame of reference for judging equity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This "cognitive calculus" results in 3 possibilities
Equity Distress	<p>An internal tension that results from being over-rewarded or under-rewarded relative to some comparison other</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tension can only be alleviated by restoring balance to ratios
Equity	<p>The ratio of outcomes to inputs is balanced between you and your comparison other.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feel a sense of equity • Maintain levels of intensity and persistence
Under-Reward Inequity	<p>The ratio of outcomes to inputs is less than your comparison others' ratio.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causing equity distress that takes form of negative emotions such as anger or envy • Grow outcomes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Taking to boss or by stealing from the company • Shrink inputs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Lowering the intensity or persistence of effort
Over-Reward Inequity	<p>The Ratio of outcomes to inputs is greater than your comparison other's ratio.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causing equity distress that takes form of negative emotions such as guilt or anxiety. • Shrink outcomes • Grow inputs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through more high-quality work or through some "cognitive distortion"
Cognitive Distortion (restoring balance mentally)	<p>A re-evaluation of the inputs an employee brings to a job, often occurring in response to equity distress (usually over-rewarded inequity)</p>
Internal Comparisons (restoring balance)	<p>Comparing oneself to someone in your same company</p>
External Comparisons (restoring balance)	<p>Comparing oneself to someone in a different company</p>



Equity Theory

Psychological Empowerment	<p>An energy rooted in the belief that tasks are contributing in some larger purpose</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Form of intrinsic motivation, in that merely performing the work task serves as its own reward. • Much in common with "satisfaction with the work itself" from Chapter 4: Motivation • 4 concepts can make work tasks intrinsically motivating <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Meaningfulness – Self-Determination – Competence – Impact
Meaningfulness	<p>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</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Captures the value of a work goal or purpose, relative to a person's own ideals and passions.
Self-Determination	<p>A sense of choice in the initiation and continuation of work tasks.</p>

Competence	Captures a person’s belief in his or her capability to perform work tasks successfully. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identical to self-efficacy
Impact	The sense that a person’s actions “make a difference” – that progress is being made towards fulfilling some important purpose



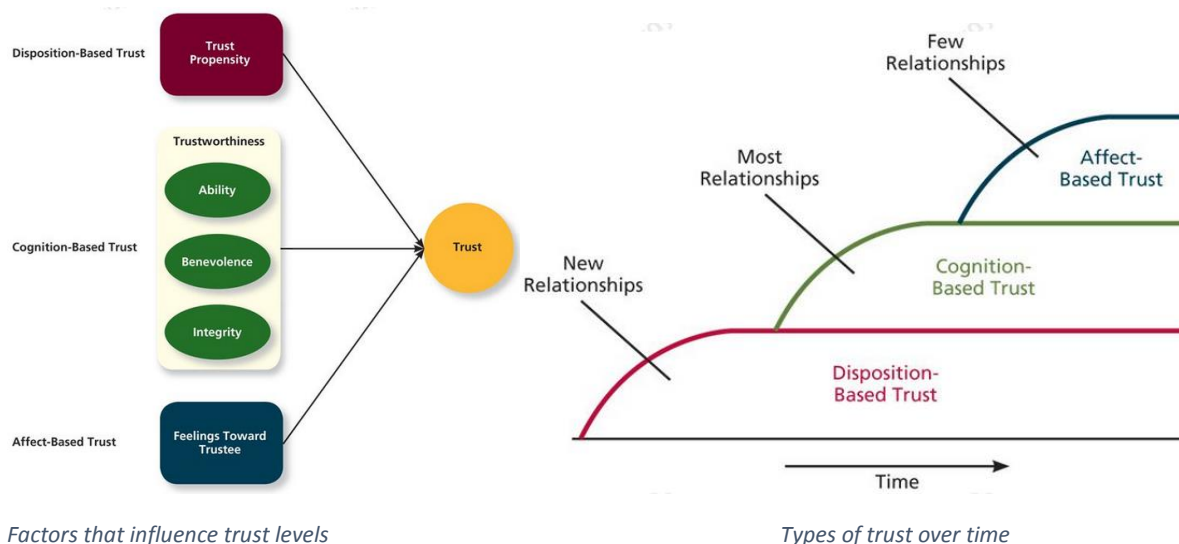
Compensation Plan Element	Description
Individual-Focused	
Piece-Rate (roofer)	A specified rate is paid for each unit produces, each unit sold, or each service provided
Merit Pay (teachers)	An increase to base salary is made in accordance with performance evaluation ratings <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offer little in the way of difficult and specific goals
Lump-Sum Bonuses	A bonus is received for meeting individual goals, not no change is made to base salary. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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. • Provide a forum for assigning difficult and specific goals • Credited with improvements in employee productivity
Recognition Awards	Tangible awards (gift cards, merchandise, trips, special events, time off, plaques) or intangible awards (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 (e.g., labor, materials). <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any financial gains that result from the performance improvements are shared with employees in the form of gain-sharing payout. • No change is made to the base salary. • The potential payout represents “at risk” pay that must be re-earned each year. • Provide a forum for assigning difficult and specific goals • Credited with improvements in employee productivity
Organization-Focused	
Profit Sharing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Base salary may be lower in cases in which potential bonuses may be large • Offer little in the way of difficult and specific goals
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Chapter 7: Trust, Justice, and Ethics

Trust	The willingness to be vulnerable to an authority based on positive expectations about the authority's actions and intentions
Justice	The perceived fairness of the authority's decision making
Ethics	The degree to which the behaviours of an authority are in accordance with generally accepted moral norms

Disposition-Based Trust	Trust that is rooted in one's own personality, as opposed to a careful assessment of the trustee's trustworthiness. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals who are inherently "trusting" • "Blind trust" • High in trust propensity
Trust Propensity	A general expectation that the words, promises, and statements of individuals can be relied upon. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A high degree of trust propensity suggests one trusts easily
Cognition-Based Trust	Trust that is rooted in a rational assessment of the authority's trustworthiness
Trustworthiness	Characteristics or attributes of a person that inspire trust, including competence, character, and benevolence. 3 dimensions
Ability	The skills, competencies, and areas of expertise that enable an author to be successful in some specific area
Benevolence	The belief that an authority wants to do good for a trustor, apart from any selfish or profit-centered motives
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

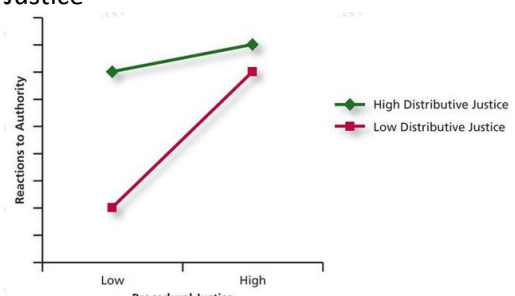


Factors that influence trust levels

Types of trust over time

Justice

Employees can judge the fairness of an authority’s decision making along 4 dimensions	
Distributive Justice	The perceived fairness of decision-making outcomes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Are decision making outcomes such as pay, rewards, promotions, etc. allocated using proper norms?”
Procedural Justice	The perceived fairness of the decision-making process <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fostered when authorities adhere to rules of fair process such as voice, correctability, consistency, bias suppression, representativeness, accuracy
Interpersonal Justice	The perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment received by employees from authorities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fostered when authorities adhere to two particular rules <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Respect rule – pertains to whether authorities treat employees in a dignified and sincere manner – 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 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fostered when authorities adhere to two particular rules <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Justification rule – mandates that authorities explain decision-making procedures and outcomes in a

	<p>comprehensive and reasonable manner</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Truthfulness rule – requires that those communications be honest and candid
<p>Combined Effects of Distributive and Procedural Justice</p>  <p>The graph plots 'Reactions to Authority' on the y-axis against 'Procedural Justice' (Low to High) on the x-axis. Two lines are shown: a green line for 'High Distributive Justice' and a red line for 'Low Distributive Justice'. The green line starts at a high point for low procedural justice and rises slightly for high procedural justice. The red line starts at a low point for low procedural justice and rises sharply for high procedural justice.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When outcomes are good, people don't spend as much time worrying about how fair the process was (green line) • When outcomes are bad, procedural justice becomes enormously important

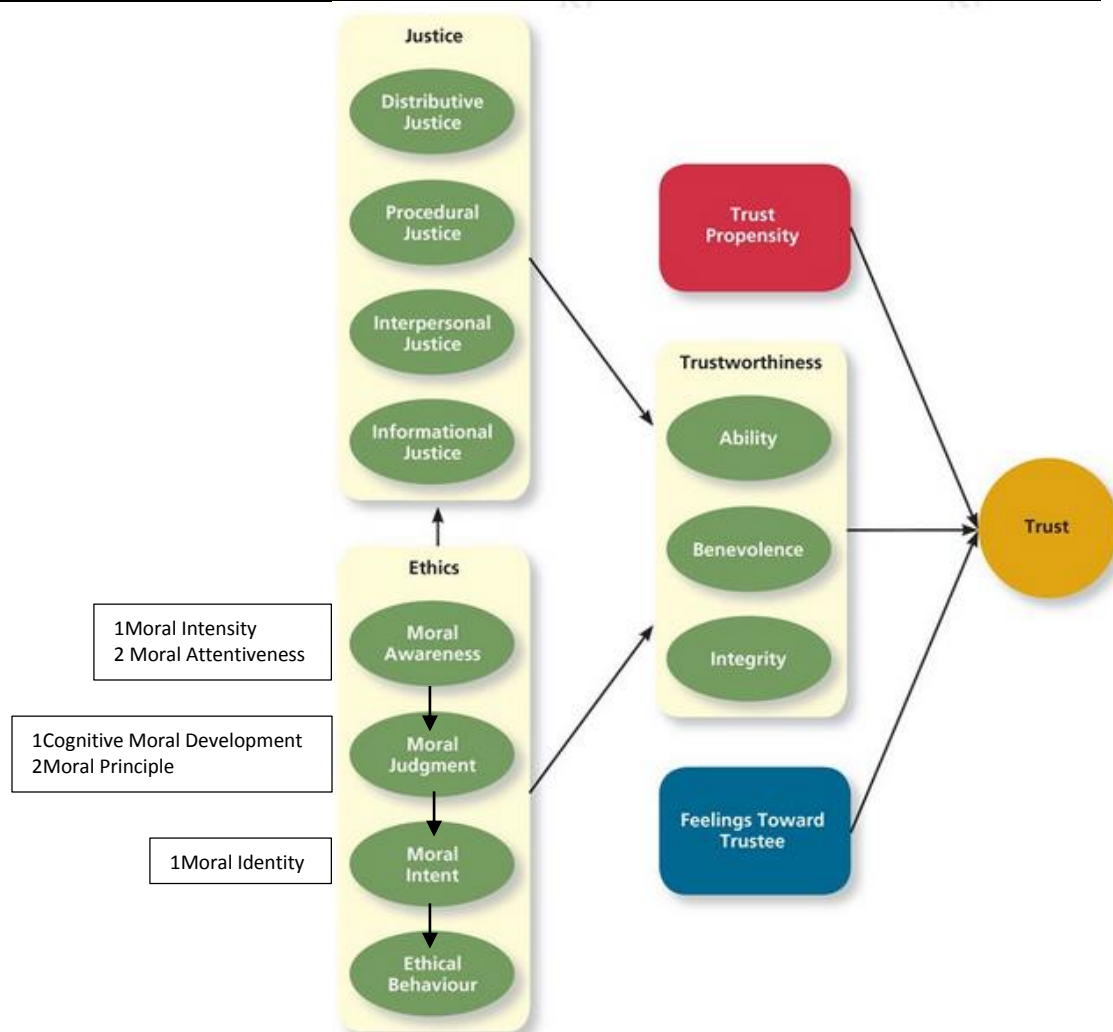
Ethics

Prescriptive Model of Ethics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How people ought to act using various codes and principles • Dominant lens in discussions of legal ethics, medical ethics, and economics
Descriptive Model of Ethics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scholars relying on scientific studies to observe how people tend to act based on certain individual and situational characteristics • Dominant lens in psychology
Whistle-Blowing	Employees' exposing illegal or immoral actions by their employer

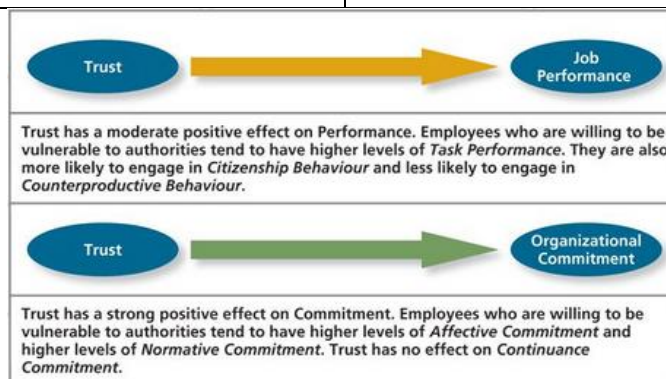
Why do some authorities behave unethically while others engage in especially ethical behaviors?

Four-Component Model	A model that argues that ethical behaviors result from the multistage sequence of moral awareness, moral judgement, moral intent, and ethical behavior.
Moral Awareness	<p>Recognition by an authority that a moral issue exists in a situation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moral Intensity: Captures the degree to which an issue has ethical urgency • Moral Attentiveness: The degree to which people chronically (regularly) perceive and consider issues of morality during their experiences

<p>Moral Judgement</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflects the process people use to determine whether a particular course of action is ethical or unethical • When an authority can accurately identify the “right” course of action • Cognitive Moral Development (Kohlberg): A theory that argues that as people age and mature, they move through several states of moral development, each more mature and sophisticated than the last. • Moral Principles: Prescriptive guides for making moral judgements (187)
<p>Moral Intent</p>	<p>An authority’s degree of commitment to the moral course of action</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sometimes situational factors encourage people to go against their moral convictions • Moral Identity: The degree to which a person views himself or herself a moral person



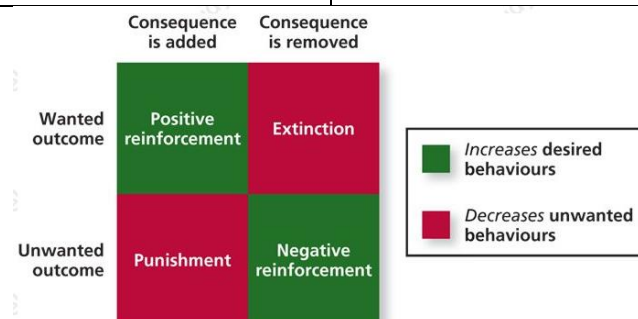
Economic Exchange	Work relationships that resemble a contractual agreement by which employees fulfil job duties in exchange for financial compensation
Social Exchange	Work relationships that are characterized by mutual investment, with employees willing to engage in “extra mile” sorts of behaviors because they trust that their efforts will eventually be rewarded



Chapter 8: Learning and Decision Making

Learning	A relatively permanent change in an employee's knowledge or skill that results from experience
Decision Making	The process of generating and choosing from a set of alternatives to solve a problem
Why do some employees learn to make decisions better than others?	
Expertise	The knowledge and skills that distinguish experts from novices
Types of Knowledge	
Explicit Knowledge	Knowledge that is easily communicated and available to everyone
Tacit Knowledge	Knowledge that employees can only learn through experience <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Argued that 90% of knowledge contained in an organization is in tacit form
Methods of Learning (Reinforcement & Observation)	
Reinforcement	B.F. Skinner pioneered the notion that we learn by observing the link between our voluntary behavior and the consequences that follow it. Known as “Operant Conditioning”
Operant Conditioning	<p style="text-align: center;">Antecedent Behaviour Consequence</p> <pre> graph LR A["Condition that precedes behaviour Manager sets specific and difficult goal"] --> B["Action performed by employee Employee meets assigned goal"] B --> C["Result that occurs after behaviour Employee receives a bonus"] </pre>
Contingencies of Reinforcement	4 specific consequences used by organizations to modify employee behavior

Positive Reinforcement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used to increase desired behaviors Occurs when a positive outcomes follows a desired behavior E.g. A reward, increased pay, promotion, after meeting goals Most common
Negative Reinforcement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used to increase desired behavior Occurs when an unwanted outcome is removed following a desired behavior E.g. Performing a task for the specific reason of not getting yelled at
Punishment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decreases unwanted behaviors Occurs when an unwanted outcome follows an unwanted behavior E.g. Suspending an employee for showing up to work late
Extinction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decreases unwanted behaviors Occurs when there is a removal of consequence following an unwanted behavior E.g. An employee gets attention from co-workers when he/she acts childish at work, a way to remove the attention would be purposeful act of extinction. No attention = no childishness



Contingencies of Reinforcement

Schedules of Reinforcement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The timing of when contingencies are applied or removed. Equally important as reinforcement
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REINFORCEMENT SCHEDULE	REWARD GIVEN FOLLOWING:	POTENTIAL LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE	EXAMPLE
Continuous	Every desired behaviour	High, but difficult to maintain	Praise
Fixed interval	Fixed time periods	Average	Paycheque
Variable interval	Variable time periods	Moderately high	Supervisor walk-by
Fixed ratio	Fixed number of desired behaviours	High	Piece-rate pay
Variable ratio	Variable number of desired behaviours	Very high	Commission pay

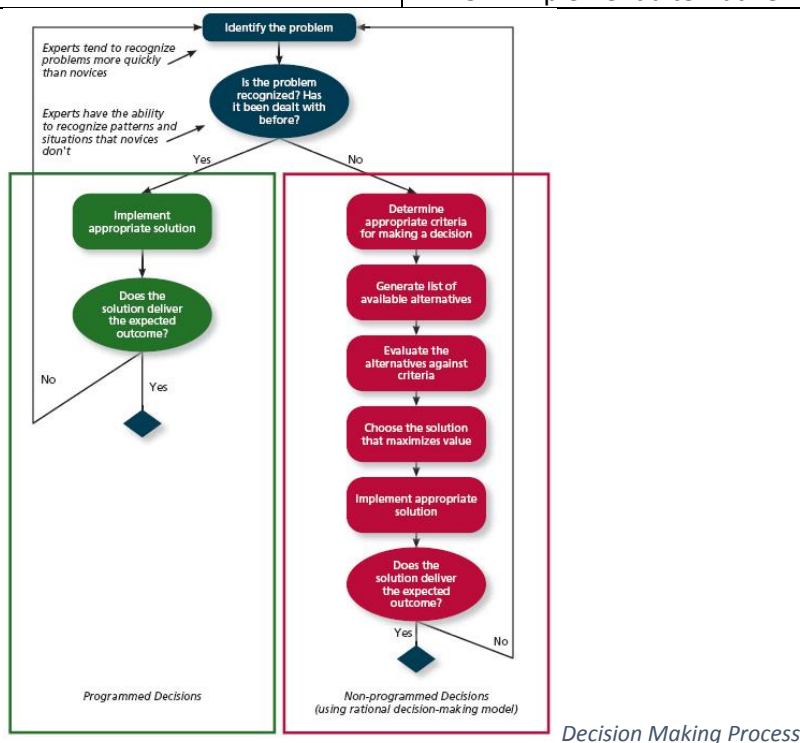
Observation

Social Learning Theory	In addition to learning through reinforcement, social learning theory argues that people in organizations have the ability to learn through the observations of others
Behavioural Modelling	When employees observe the actions of others, learn from what they observe, and then repeat the observed behavior
<p>The Modelling Process</p> <pre> graph LR A[Attentional Processes Learner focuses attention on the critical behaviours exhibited by the model] --> B[Retention Processes Learner must remember the behaviours of the model once the model is no longer present] B --> C[Production Processes Learner must have the appropriate skill set and be able to reproduce the behaviour] C --> D[Reinforcement The learner must view the model receiving reinforcement for the behaviour and then receive it themselves] </pre>	
Goal Orientation	People learn differently according to their predispositions or attitudes towards learning and performance. These differences are reflected in different “goal orientations” that capture the kinds of activities and goals that they prioritize.
Learning Orientation	A predisposition or attitude according to which building competence is deemed more important by an employee that demonstrating competence
Performance-Prove Orientation	A predisposition or attitude by which employees focus on demonstrating their competence so others think favorably of them
Performance-Avoid Orientation	A predisposition or attitude by which employees focus on demonstrating their competence so that others will not think poorly of them

Methods of Decision Making

Programmed Decisions	Decisions that are somewhat automatic because the decision maker’s knowledge allows him or her to recognize the situation and the course of action to be taken
Intuition	An emotional judgement based on quick unconscious gut feelings
Crisis Situation	A change – sudden or evolving – that results in an urgent problem that must be addressed immediately
Non-Programmed Decision	Decisions made by employees when a problem is new, complex, or not recognized

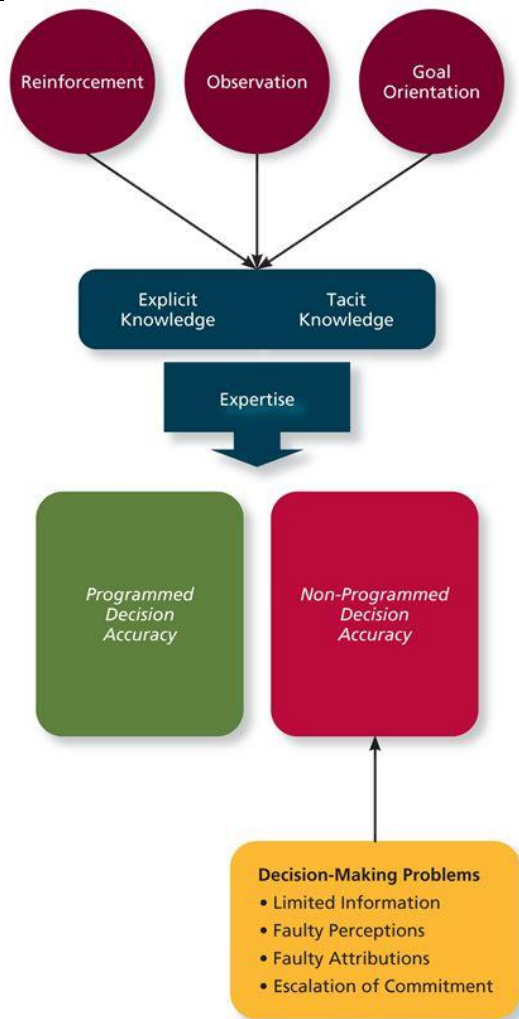
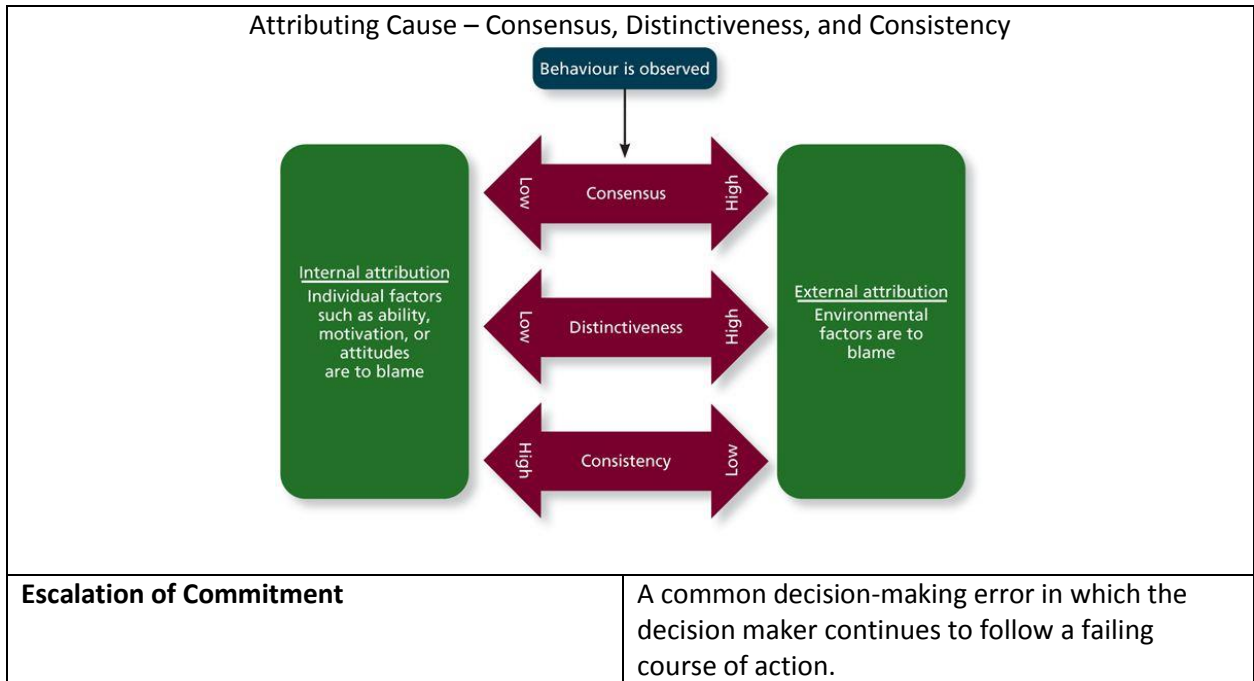
<p>Rational Decision-Making Model</p>	<p>A step by step approach to making decisions that is designed to maximize outcomes by examining all available alternatives</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify the criteria that are important in making the decision, taking into account all parties 2. Generate a list of all available alternatives that might be potential solutions 3. Evaluation of alternatives against criteria in step 1. 4. Select alternative that will result in best outcome 5. Implement alternative
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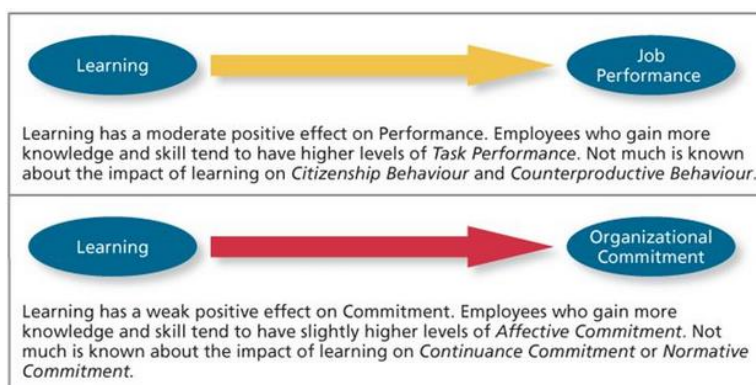
Decision-Making Problems

<p>Limited Information: Bounded Rationality</p>	<p>The notion that people do not have the ability or resources to process all available information and alternatives when making a decision</p>												
<p>TABLE 8-3 Rational Decision Making Versus Bounded Rationality</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th data-bbox="548 1619 808 1661">TO BE RATIONAL DECISION MAKERS, WE SHOULD:</th> <th data-bbox="808 1619 1084 1661">BOUNDED RATIONALITY SAYS WE ARE LIKELY TO:</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td data-bbox="548 1661 808 1717">Identify the problem by thoroughly examining the situation and considering all interested parties</td> <td data-bbox="808 1661 1084 1717">Boil the problem down to something that is easily understood</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="548 1717 808 1774">Develop an exhaustive list of alternatives to consider as solutions</td> <td data-bbox="808 1717 1084 1774">Come up with a few solutions that tend to be straightforward, familiar, and similar to what is currently being done</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="548 1774 808 1810">Evaluate all the alternatives simultaneously</td> <td data-bbox="808 1774 1084 1810">Evaluate each alternative as soon as we think of it</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="548 1810 808 1845">Use accurate information to evaluate alternatives</td> <td data-bbox="808 1810 1084 1845">Use distorted and inaccurate information during the evaluation process</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="548 1845 808 1881">Pick the alternative that maximizes value</td> <td data-bbox="808 1845 1084 1881">Pick the first acceptable alternative (satisfice)</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		TO BE RATIONAL DECISION MAKERS, WE SHOULD:	BOUNDED RATIONALITY SAYS WE ARE LIKELY TO:	Identify the problem by thoroughly examining the situation and considering all interested parties	Boil the problem down to something that is easily understood	Develop an exhaustive list of alternatives to consider as solutions	Come up with a few solutions that tend to be straightforward, familiar, and similar to what is currently being done	Evaluate all the alternatives simultaneously	Evaluate each alternative as soon as we think of it	Use accurate information to evaluate alternatives	Use distorted and inaccurate information during the evaluation process	Pick the alternative that maximizes value	Pick the first acceptable alternative (satisfice)
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Satisficing	<p>What a decision maker is doing who chooses the first acceptable alternative considered</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When a decision maker selects the first alternative considered
Faulty Perceptions: Selective Perceptions	<p>The tendency for people to see their environment only as it affects them and as it is consistent with their expectations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “You only see what you want to see”
Projection Bias	The Faulty perception by decision makes 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	<p>The tendency for people to base their judgements on information that is easier to recall</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anchoring: “anchor” onto one trait or piece of information when making decisions • Framing: make different decisions on the basis of how the question or situation is phrased • Representativeness: assessing the likelihood of an event by comparing it to a similar event and assuming it will be similar • Contrast: judging things erroneously on the bases of a reference that is near them • Recency: weigh recent events more than earlier events
Faulty Attributions: Fundamental attribution error	The tendency for people to judge others’ behavior as being due to internal factors such as ability, motivation, or attitudes.
Self-Serving Bias	Occurs when one attributes one’s own failures to external factors and success to internal factors
Consensus	Used by decision makes to attribute cause; whether other individuals behave the same way under similar circumstances
Distinctiveness	Used by decision makes to attribute cause; whether the person being judged acts in a similar fashion under different circumstances
Consistency	Used by decision makes to attribute cause; whether this individual has behaved this way before under similar circumstances



Why Do Some Employees Learn to Make Decisions Better Than Others?



What steps can an organization take to foster learning?

Training	A systematic effort by organizations to facilitate the learning of job-related knowledge and behavior
Knowledge Transfer	The exchange of knowledge between employees
Behavior Modelling Training	When employees observe the actions of others, learn from what they observe, and then repeat the observed behaviour
Communities of Practice	Groups of employees who learn from one another through collaboration over an extended period of time
Transfer of Training	Occurs when employees retain and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and behaviors required for their job after training ends
Climate for transfer	An organizational environment that supports the use of new skills

Chapter 9: Personality, Cultural Values, and Ability

Personality	The structures and propensities inside a persona that explain his or her characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behaviour; personality reflects what people are like, and creates their social reputation
Traits	Recurring trends in people's responses to their environment
Cultural Values	Shared beliefs about desirable and states or modes of conduct in a given culture that influence the expression of traits
Ability	Relatively stable capabilities of people for performing a particular range of related tasks

What are the “Big Five” Factors of Personality?

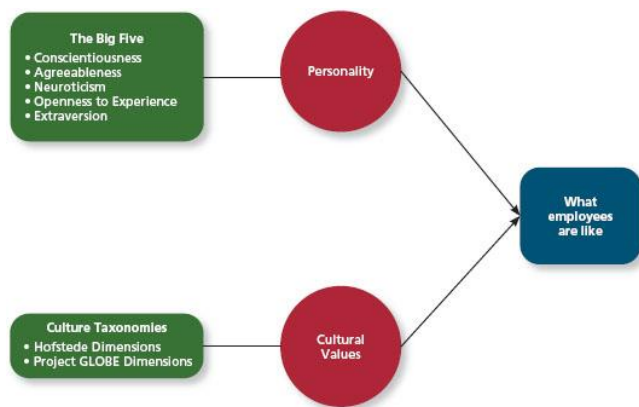
Big Five	The 5 major dimensions of personality: Conscientiousness Agreeableness Neuroticism Openness to Experience Extraversion
Conscientiousness	Being dependable, well organized, reliable, etc. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accomplishment striving
Agreeableness	Being kind, cooperative, helpful, warm, etc. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communion striving – desire to obtain acceptance in personal relationships as a means of expressing one’s personality
Neuroticism	Being nervous, moody, emotional, jealous, etc. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High in negative affectivity – dispositional tendency to experience unpleasant moods such as hostility, nervousness, annoyance • Strongly related to external locus of control
Openness to Experience	Being curious, imaginative, creative, refined, etc.
Extraversion	Being talkative, sociable, passionate, etc. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status striving – desire to obtain power and social influence • High in positive affectivity – dispositional tendency to experience pleasant, engaging moods such as enthusiasm and excitement.

C	A	N	O	E
Conscientiousness	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Openness	Extraversion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dependable • Organized • Reliable • Ambitious • Hardworking • Persevering <p>NOT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Careless • Sloppy • Inefficient • Negligent • Lazy • Irresponsible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kind • Cooperative • Sympathetic • Helpful • Courteous • Warm <p>NOT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Critical • Antagonistic • Callous • Selfish • Rude • Cold 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nervous • Moody • Emotional • Insecure • Jealous • Unstable <p>NOT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calm • Steady • Relaxed • At ease • Secure • Contented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Curious • Imaginative • Creative • Complex • Refined • Sophisticated <p>NOT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uninquisitive • Conventional • Conforming • Simple • Unartistic • Traditional 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talkative • Sociable • Passionate • Assertive • Bold • Dominant <p>NOT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quiet • Shy • Inhibited • Bashful • Reserved • Submissive

TABLE 9-1 External and Internal Locus of Control	
PEOPLE WITH AN EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL TEND TO BELIEVE:	PEOPLE WITH AN INTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL TEND TO BELIEVE:
Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.	People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.	Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.	In the case of the well-prepared student, there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.	The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
There's not much use in trying too hard to please people; if they like you, they like you.	People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.

Cultural Values

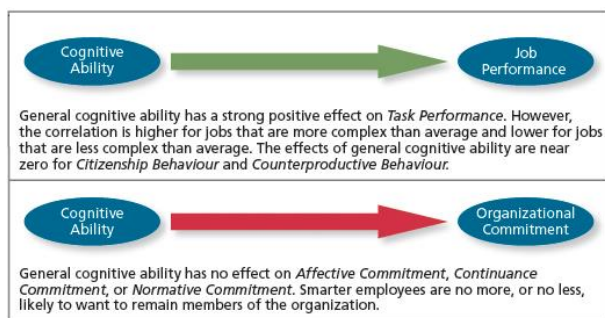
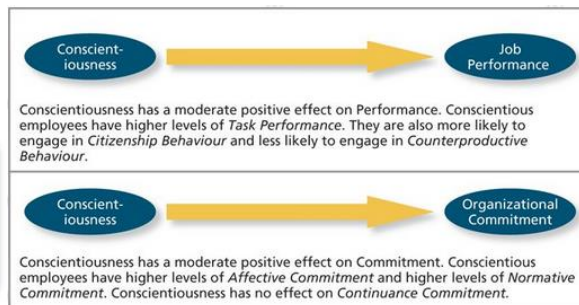
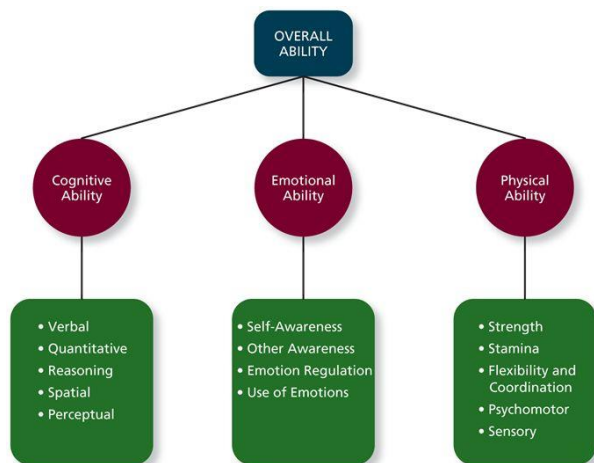
Culture	The shared values, beliefs, motives, identities, and interpretations that result from common experiences of members of a society and are transmitted across generations
Hofstede’s Dimensions of Cultural Values	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Individualism-collectivism 2. Power distance 3. Uncertainty avoidance 4. Masculinity-femininity 5. Short-term vs. long-term orientation
Project GLOBE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness • Purpose is examine the impact of culture on the effectiveness of various leader attributes, behaviors, and practices • Identified 9 dimensions, some of which are replications of Hofstede’s work
Ethnocentrism	One who views his/her cultural values as “right” values and values of other cultures as “wrong”



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 social framework in which people take care of the members of a broader in-group and act loyally to it.
<i>Canada, the Netherlands, France</i>	<i>Indonesia, China, West Africa</i>
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.
<i>Canada, Germany, the Netherlands</i>	<i>Russia, China, Indonesia</i>
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.
<i>Canada, Indonesia, the Netherlands</i>	<i>Japan, Russia, France</i>
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.
<i>Canada, Japan, Germany</i>	<i>The Netherlands, Russia, France</i>
SHORT-TERM VS. LONG-TERM ORIENTATION	
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.
<i>Canada, Russia, West Africa</i>	<i>China, Japan, the Netherlands</i>

What are the various types of cognitive, emotional, and physical abilities?

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 basic 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	Capacity to perceive, understand, and recall patterns of information
General Cognitive Ability	The general level of cognitive ability that plays an important role in determining the more narrow cognitive ability
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
Physical Ability	
Strength	Degree to which the body is capable of exerting force
Stamina	Ability of a person's lungs and circulatory system to work efficiently while he/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



Chapter 10: Teams, Diversity, and Communication

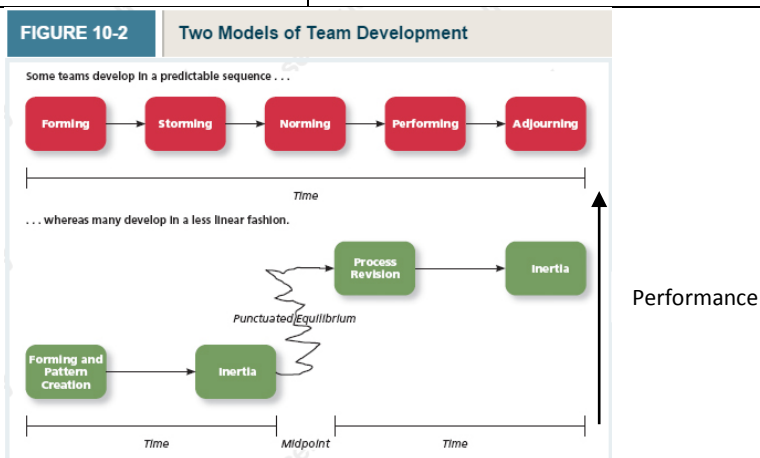
Team	Two or more people who work interdependently over some time period to accomplish common goals related to some task-oriented purpose
Group	A collection of two or more people
Team Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Team’s purpose • Length of team’s existence • Amount of time involvement the team requires of its individual members • 5 types of teams
Work Team	Relatively permanent team in which members work together to produce goods and/or provide services <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintenance team
Management Team	Relatively permanent team that participates in managerial-level tasks that affect the entire organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Top management team
Parallel Team	A team composed of members from various jobs within the organization that meets to provide recommendations about important issues <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advisory council

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 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Product design team
Action Team	A team of limited duration that performs complex tasks in contexts that tend to be highly visible and challenging <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surgical team, sports team

TYPE OF TEAM	PURPOSE AND ACTIVITIES	LIFE SPAN	MEMBER INVOLVEMENT	EXAMPLES
Work team	Produce goods or provide services.	Long	High	Self-managed work team Production team Maintenance team Sales team
Management team	Integrate activities of subunits across business functions.	Long	Moderate	Top management team
Parallel team	Provide recommendations and resolve issues.	Varies	Low	Quality circle Advisory council Committee
Project team	Produce a one-time output (product, service, plan, design, etc.).	Varies	Varies	Product design team Research group Planning team
Action team	Perform complex tasks that vary in duration and take place in highly visible or challenging circumstances.	Varies	Varies	Surgical team Musical group Expedition team Sports team

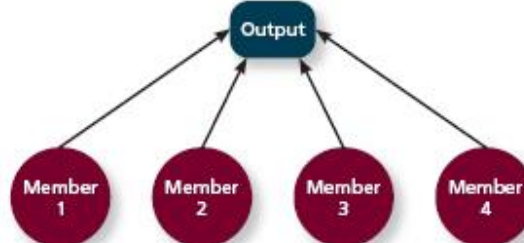

Virtual Team (not a type of team, just a variation in the teams functioning)	A team in which members are geographically dispersed, and interdependent activity occurs through e-mail, conferencing, and instant messaging
5 common stages of team development (sequence does not apply to all types of teams)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Forming – members orient themselves by trying to understand their boundaries in the team Storming – members remain committed to ideas they bring with them to the team. The initial unwillingness to accommodate others' ideas trigger conflict that negatively affects some interpersonal relationships and harms the team's progress Norming – members realize that they need to work together to accomplish team goals, and consequently, they begin to cooperate with one another Performing – members are comfortable working within their roles and the team makes progress towards the goal

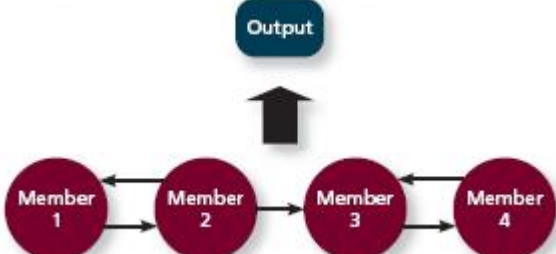
	<p>5. Adjourning – members experience anxiety and other emotions as they disengage and ultimately separate from the team</p>
<p>Punctuated Equilibrium</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Forming and Pattern Creation – at the initial team meeting, members make assumptions and establish a pattern of behavior that lasts for the first half of its life 2. Inertia – pattern continues to dominate the team’s behavior as it settles into a sort of inertia (<i>a tendency to do nothing or to remain unchanged</i>) 3. Punctuated Equilibrium – at the midway point of the project, members realize that they have to change their task paradigm (model) fundamentally to complete it on time. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Teams that take this opportunity to plan a new approach usually do well. – Teams that don’t do poor and may “go down with the ship 4. Process Revision – New framework dominates team member behavior until completion 5. Inertia – same as above



Team Interdependence

<p>Team Interdependence</p>	<p>The way in which the members of a team are linked to one another in terms of: (3)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Task interdependence 2. Goal interdependence 3. Outcome interdependence
<p>Task Interdependence</p>	<p>The degree to which team members interact with and reply on other team members for the</p>

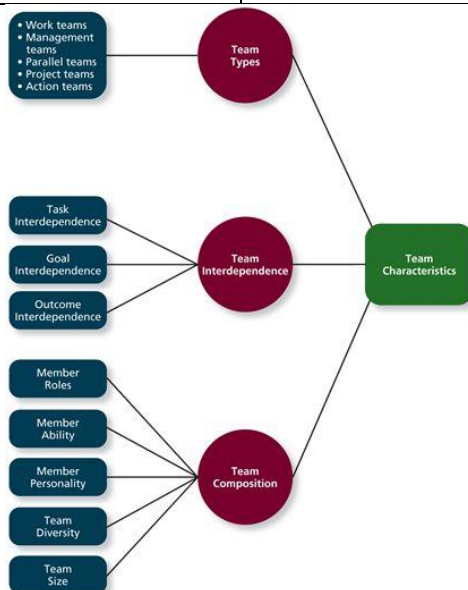
	<p>information, material, and resources needed to accomplish work for the team. 4 types of task interdependence:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Pooled interdependence 2. Sequential interdependence 3. Reciprocal interdependence 4. Comprehensive interdependence
<p>Pooled Interdependence (Interdependence level: $\frac{1}{4}$)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group members complete their work independently and then simply combine it to represent the group output • Lowest degree of interaction and coordination (interdependence)  <pre> graph BT M1((Member 1)) --> O[Output] M2((Member 2)) --> O M3((Member 3)) --> O M4((Member 4)) --> O </pre>
<p>Sequential Interdependence (Interdependence level: $\frac{2}{4}$)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different tasks are done in a prescribed order and the group is structured such that the members specialize in these tasks. Although members in groups with sequential interdependence interact to carry out their work, the interaction only occurs between members who perform tasks that are next to each other on the team • E.g. a classic assembly line  <pre> graph LR M1((Member 1)) --> M2((Member 2)) M2 --> M3((Member 3)) M3 --> M4((Member 4)) M4 --> O[Output] </pre>
<p>Reciprocal Interdependence (Interdependence level: $\frac{3}{4}$)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Members are specialized to perform specific tasks, similar to sequential interdependence. However, instead of a strict sequence of activities, members interact with a subset of other members to complete the team's work. • A team of people involved in a business that designs custom homes for wealthy clients. After the sales person meets the client, he goes to the architect, who creates initial plans and elevations. Architect then submits plans back to sales person, who presents them to the client. After receiving feedback, the sales person would send it to the architect, who would further send it to an engineer, etc. etc.

	
<p>Comprehensive Interdependence (Interdependence level: $\frac{4}{4}$)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Each member has a great deal of discretion in terms of what they do and with whom they interact with during collaboration. They all essentially work together • Highest degree of interaction and coordination (interdependence)
<p>Trade-offs Associated with Types of Task Interdependence</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As level of task interdependence increases, members spend more time communicating and coordinating to accomplish tasks. This may result in a decrease in productivity, which is the ratio of work completed per the amount of time worked. • On the other hand, as task interdependence increases, the ability of the team to adopt to new situations does too. • The more members interact and communicate with each other, the more likely it is that the team will be able to devise solutions to novel problems it may face
<p>Goal Interdependence</p>	<p>The degree to which team members have a shared goal and align their individual goals with that vision.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A high degree of goal interdependence exists when the team members have a shared vision of the team's goal and align their individual goals with that vision as a result
<p>Outcome Interdependence</p>	<p>The degree to which team members share equally in the feedback and rewards that result from the team achieving its goals</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A high degree of outcome independence exists when the team members share in the rewards that the team earns, with reward examples including pay, bonuses, formal feedback, recognition, etc.


Team Composition

Team Composition	<p>The mix of the various characteristics that describe the individuals who work in the team. 5 characteristics:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Member Roles 2. Member Ability 3. Member Personality 4. Team Diversity 5. Team Size
Member Roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The behavior a person is generally expected to display in a given context • Team task roles: refer to behaviors that directly facilitate the accomplishment of team tasks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Orienter (leader) – Devil’s advocate – Energizer • Team building roles: refer to behaviors that influence the quality of the team’s social climate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Harmonizer – Encourager – Compromiser • Individualistic roles: reflect behaviors that benefit the individual at the expense of the team <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Aggressor – Recognition seeker – Dominator
Member Ability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disjunctive tasks: the member who possesses the highest level of ability relevant to the task will have the most influence on the effectiveness of the team. • Conjunctive tasks: members in the team possess the same relevant abilities. Team is only as strong as it’s “weakest link” • Additive tasks: contributions resulting from the abilities of every team member “add up” to determine team performance. E.g. individual amounts of money raised for charity.
Member Personality	<p>Team members possess a wide variety of personality traits which affect the roles that team members take on, as well as how teams function and perform as units. These personality traits are the “big five” personality traits:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conscientiousness

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreeableness • Neuroticism • Openness to Experience • Extraversion
Team Diversity	The degree to which team members are different from one another. 2 different theories about how diversity effects that are relevant to teams, and 2 types of diversity
Value in Diversity Problem-Solving Approach (theory #1)	A theory that supports team diversity because it provides a larger pool of knowledge and perspectives
Similarity-Attraction Approach (theory #2)	A theory that contests team diversity explaining that team diversity can be counterproductive because people tend to avoid others who are unlike them
Surface-Level Diversity	Diversity of observable attributes such as race, gender, ethnicity, and age
Deep-Level Diversity	Diversity of Attributes that are inferred through observation or experience, such as one's values or personality
Team Size	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having a greater number of members is beneficial for management and project teams (additional resources and expertise contributed by additional members) • Having a greater number of members is not beneficial for teams engaged in production tasks (results in unnecessary coordination and communication problems) • Studies conclude that undergraduate students prefer teams when the number of members is between 4 and 5



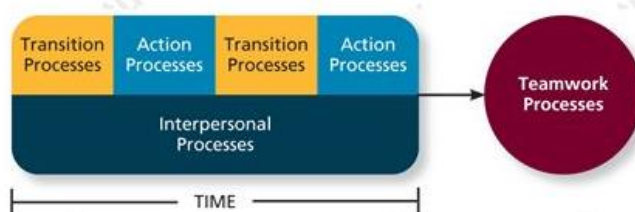
Team Processes and Communication

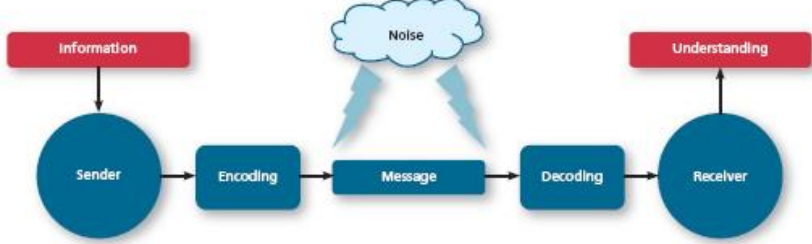
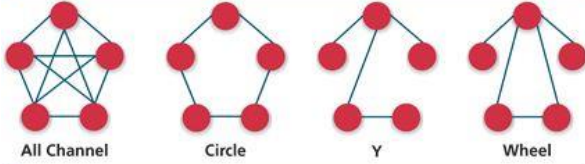
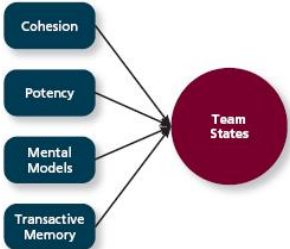
Team Process	The different types of activities and interactions that occur within a team as the team works towards its goal. 4 components
Process Gain	When team outcomes are greater than expected based on the capabilities of the individual members. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Synergy</i>
Process Loss	Loss considered to have occurred when the team outcomes are less than expected in view of the capabilities of the team individual members. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coordination loss • Motivational loss
Taskwork Processes (Team process component #1)	The activities of team members that relate directly to the accomplishment of team tasks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taskwork occurs any time team members interact with the tools or technologies that are used to complete their work. • Taskwork is similar to the concept of task performance, but in the context of teams (especially those that engage in knowledge work), 3 types of taskwork processes are important: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Creative Behavior – Decision Making – Boundary Spanning 
Creative Behavior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When teams engage in creative behavior, their activities are focused on generating novel and useful ideas and solutions • Brainstorming rules: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Express all ideas, no matter how strange 2. Go for quantity of ideas rather than quality 3. Don't criticize 4. Build on the ideas of others
Decision Making	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the context of teams, decision making involves multiple members gathering and considering information relevant to their area of specialization, and then making recommendations to a team leader who is

	<p>ultimately responsible for the final decision. 3 factors</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Decision informity: reflects whether members possess adequate information about their own task responsibilities 2. Staff validity: degree to which members make good recommendations to the leader 3. Hierarchical sensitivity: degree to which the leader effectively weighs the recommendations of the members
Boundary Spanning	<p>Involves 3 types of activities with individuals and groups other than those who are considered part of the team.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ambassador activities: refer to communications that are intended to protect the team, persuade others to support the team, or obtain important resources for the team. 2. Task coordinator activities: involve communications that are intended to coordinate task-related issues with people or groups in other functional areas. 3. Scout activities: refer to things team members do to obtain information about technology, competitors, or the broader marketplace.
Teamwork Processes (Team process component #2)	<p>The interpersonal activities that promote the accomplishment of team tasks, but do not involve task accomplishment itself</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The behaviors that create the setting or context in which taskwork can be carried out
Transition Processes	Teamwork processes such as mission analysis and planning, that focus on preparation for future work in the team
Action Processes	Teamwork processes, such as helping and coordination, that aid in the accomplishment of teamwork as the work is actually taking place

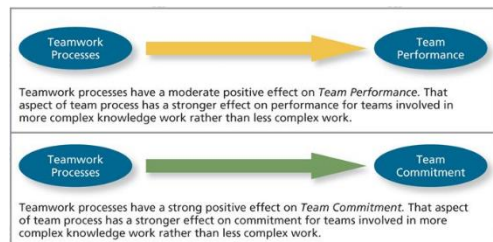
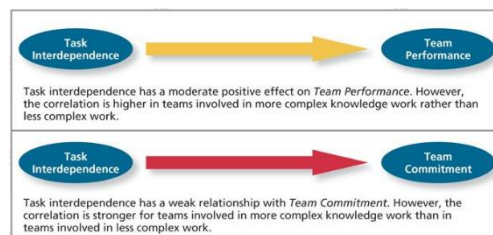
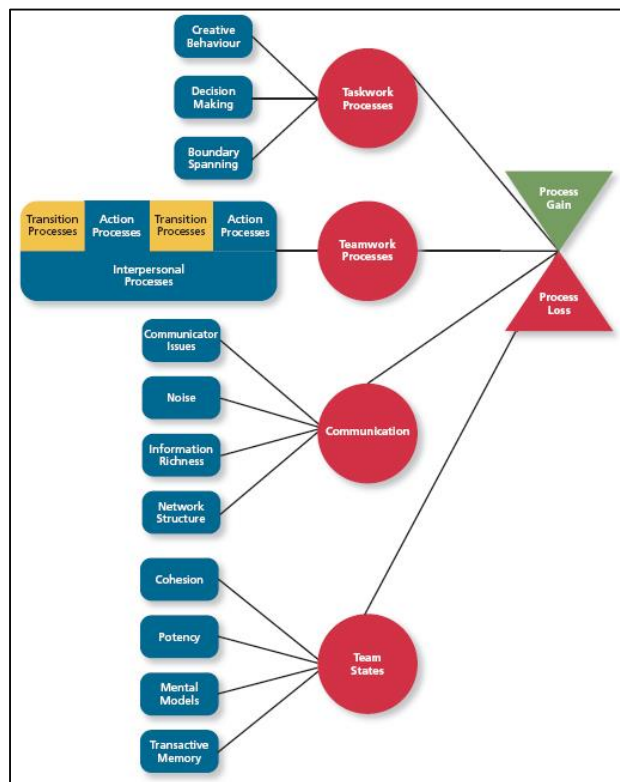
FIGURE 10-7

Teamwork Processes




<p>Interpersonal Processes</p>	<p>Teamwork processes such as motivating, conflict management, and confidence building, that focus on the management of relationships among team members</p>									
<p>Communication (Team process component #3)</p>	<p>The process by which information and meaning is transferred from a sender to receiver</p>									
<p>Interpersonal communication</p>	<p>Involves one-on-one information exchanges between two individuals</p>									
<p style="text-align: center;">The Communication Process</p>  <p style="text-align: center;">Information → Sender → Encoding → Message → Decoding → Receiver → Understanding</p>										
<p>Factors That Influence Effectiveness of The Communication Process</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication competence • Gender differences • Noise • Information richness • Network structure (more than 2 people) <table border="1" style="width: 100%; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td>Lower</td> <td>Centralization of Communication</td> <td>Higher</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Lower</td> <td>Effectiveness in Simple Tasks</td> <td>Higher</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Higher</td> <td>Effectiveness in Complex Tasks</td> <td>Lower</td> </tr> </table>  <p style="text-align: center;">Higher Member Satisfaction Lower</p>	Lower	Centralization of Communication	Higher	Lower	Effectiveness in Simple Tasks	Higher	Higher	Effectiveness in Complex Tasks	Lower
Lower	Centralization of Communication	Higher								
Lower	Effectiveness in Simple Tasks	Higher								
Higher	Effectiveness in Complex Tasks	Lower								
<p>Team States (Team process component #4)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific types of feelings and thoughts that coalesce in the minds of team members as a consequence of their experience working together. 4 types 									
<p>Cohesion</p>	<p>A team state that occurs when members of the team develop strong emotional bonds to other members of the team and to the team itself</p>									

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Groupthink: behaviors that support conformity and team harmony at the expense of other team priorities
Potency	A team state reflecting the degree of confidence among team members that the team can be effective across situations and tasks
Mental Models	Degree to which team members have a shared understanding of important aspects of the team and its task
Transactive Memory	The degree to which team members' specialized knowledge is integrated into an effective system of memory for the team



Chapter 11: Power, Influence, and Negotiation

<p>Power</p>	<p>The ability to influence the behaviors of others and resist unwanted influence in return. 5 types of power, 2 categories.</p> <p>Organizational Power</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legitimate Power • Reward Power • Coercive Power <p>Personal Power</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expert Power • Referent Power 
<p>Legitimate Power</p>	<p>A form of organizational power based on authority or position</p>
<p>Reward Power</p>	<p>A form of organizational power based on the control of resources or benefits</p>
<p>Coercive Power</p>	<p>A form of organizational power based on the ability to hand out punishment</p>
<p>Expert Power</p>	<p>A form of personal power based on expertise or knowledge</p>
<p>Referent Power</p>	<p>A form of personal power based on the attractiveness and charisma of the leader</p>

Guidelines for Using Power

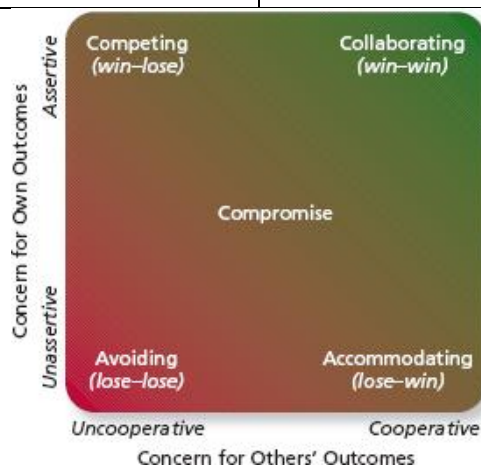
TYPE OF POWER	GUIDELINES FOR USE
<p>Legitimate</p>	<p>Make polite, clear requests. Explain the reason for the request. Don't exceed your scope or authority. Follow up to verify compliance. Insist on compliance if appropriate.</p>
<p>Reward</p>	<p>Offer the types of rewards people desire. Offer rewards that are fair and ethical. Don't promise more than you can deliver. Explain the criteria for giving rewards and keep it simple. Provide rewards as promised if requirements are met. Don't use rewards in a manipulative fashion.</p>
<p>Coercive</p>	<p>Explain rules and requirements and ensure people understand the serious consequences of violations. Respond to infractions promptly and without favoritism. Investigate to get facts before following through. Provide ample warnings. Use punishments that are legitimate, fair, and commensurate with the seriousness of non-compliance.</p>
<p>Expert</p>	<p>Explain the reasons for a request and why it's important. Provide evidence that a proposal will be successful. Don't make rash, careless, or inconsistent statements. Don't exaggerate or misrepresent the facts. Listen seriously to the person's concerns and suggestions. Act confidently and decisively in a crisis.</p>
<p>Referent</p>	<p>Show acceptance and positive regard. Act supportive and helpful. Use sincere forms of ingratiation. Defend and back up people when appropriate. Do unsolicited favours. Make self-sacrifices to show concern. Keep promises.</p>

Contingency Factors	Certain situations in organizations that are likely to increase or decrease the degree to which people can use their power to influence others. 4 types	
Substitutability	The degree to which people have alternatives in accessing the resource 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 task	
Visibility	How aware others are of a leader and the resources that leader can provide	
	CONTINGENCY	AN INDIVIDUAL'S ABILITY TO INFLUENCE OTHERS INCREASES WHEN:
	Substitutability	There are no substitutes for the rewards or resources the individual controls.
	Centrality	The individual's role is important and interdependent with others in the organization.
	Discretion	The individual has the freedom to make his or her own decisions without being restrained by organizational rules.
	Visibility	Others know about this individual and the resources he or she can provide.
Influence	The use of behaviors to cause behavioural or attitudinal changes in others. 10 tactics, 3 categories	
Rational Persuasion (most effective)	The use of logical arguments and hard facts to show someone that a request is worthwhile	
Inspirational Appeals (most effective)	An influence tactic designed to appeal to one's values and ideals, thereby creating an emotional or attitudinal reaction	
Consultation (most effective)	An influence tactic whereby the target is allowed to participate in deciding how to carry out or implement a request	
Collaboration (most effective)	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	
Ingratiation (moderately effective)	The use of favours, compliments, or friendly behavior to make the target feel better about the influencer	
Personal Appeals (moderately effective)	An influence tactic in which the requestor asks for something based on personal friendship or loyalty	
Exchange (moderately effective)	An influence tactic in which the requestor offers a reward in return for performing a request	
Apprising (moderately effective)	An influence tactic in which the requestor clearly explains why performing the request will benefit the target personally	

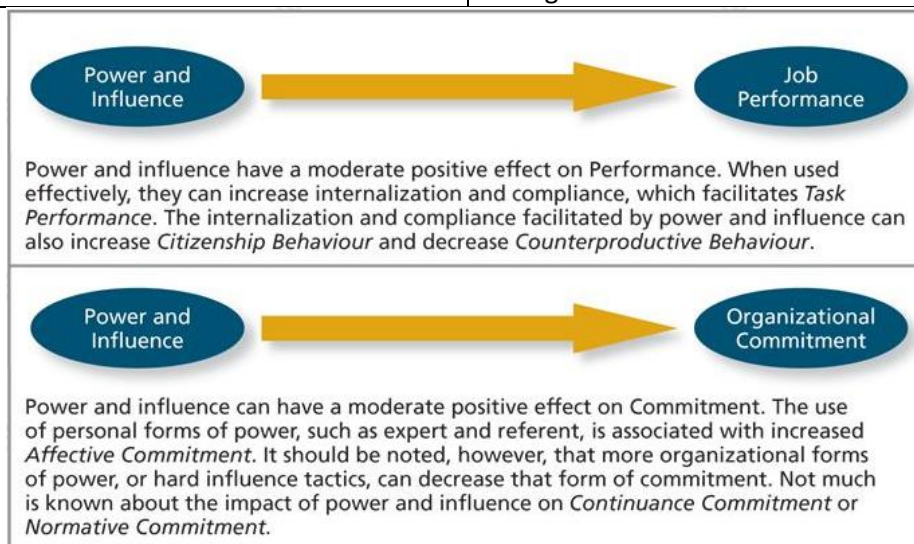
<p>Pressure (least effective)</p>	<p>An influence tactic in which the requestor attempts to use coercive power through threats and demands</p>
<p>Coalitions (least effective)</p>	<p>An influence tactic in which the influencer enlists other people to help influence the target</p>
<p>FIGURE 11-2 Influence Tactics and Their Effectiveness</p>	
<p>Responses to Influence Tactics</p>	<p>3 possible responses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internalization • Compliance • Resistance
<p>Internalization (most effective)</p>	<p>A response to influence tactics where the target agrees with and becomes committed to the request</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioral and attitudinal changes
<p>Compliance (moderately effective)</p>	<p>When targets of influence are willing to do what the leader asks but do it with a degree of ambivalence (uncertainty, doubt)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioral change only
<p>Resistance (least effective)</p>	<p>When a target refuses to perform a request and puts forth an effort to avoid having to do it</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No change in behavior or attitude
<p>Power and Influence in Action</p>	<p>2 major areas in which people have the ability to use power to influence others.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational Politics • Conflict Resolution
<p>Organizational Politics</p>	<p>Individual actions directed towards the goal of furthering a person’s self interest</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To be successful, leaders must have a certain degree of political skill • Political environments have been shown to cause lower job satisfaction, increased strain, lower job performance, and lower organizational commitment. • Organizations try their best to minimize perceptions of “self-serving” behaviors that are associated with organizational politics
Political Skill	<p>The ability to understand others and the use of that knowledge to further influence personal or organizational objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Networking ability • Social astuteness: the tendency to observe others and accurately interpret their behavior. • Interpersonal influence: involves having an unassuming and convincing personal style that’s flexible enough to adapt to different situations • Apparent sincerity: involves appearing to others to have high levels of honesty and genuineness. <p>Combined, these 4 skills provide an advantage when navigating the political environments in the organization.</p>
Factors That Foster Organizational Politics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Driven by both personal characteristics and organizational characteristics <div style="text-align: center;"> <pre> graph TD A["<i>Personal Characteristics</i> • Need for power • High self-monitors • Machiavellianism <i>Organizational Characteristics</i> • Limited or changing resources • Ambiguity in roles • High performance pressure • Unclear performance evaluations"] --> B["Organizational Politics"] B --> C["Negative Reactions on the Part of Other Employees"] </pre> <p>The diagram consists of three vertically aligned rounded rectangular boxes connected by downward-pointing arrows. The top box is blue and contains two sections: 'Personal Characteristics' with a bulleted list (Need for power, High self-monitors, Machiavellianism) and 'Organizational Characteristics' with a bulleted list (Limited or changing resources, Ambiguity in roles, High performance pressure, Unclear performance evaluations). The middle box is green and contains the text 'Organizational Politics'. The bottom box is red and contains the text 'Negative Reactions on the Part of Other Employees'.</p> </div>

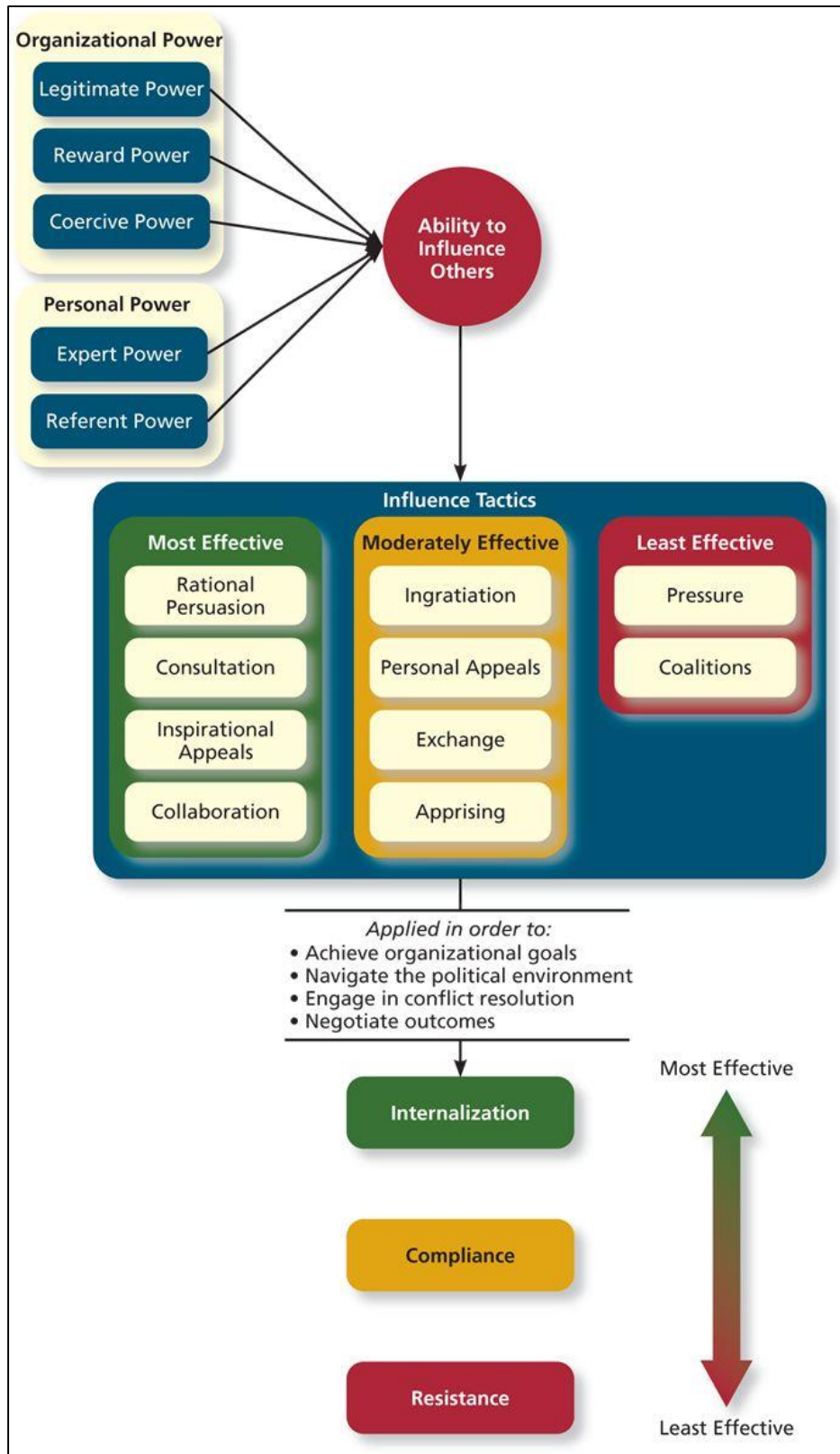
Conflict Resolution	<p>Individuals can use their influence in the context of conflict resolution</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 different approaches to handling conflict • Two factors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – How assertive individuals want to be in pursuing their own goals – How cooperative are they with regard to the concerns of others.
Competing	<p>A conflict resolution style by which one party attempts to get his or her own goals met without concern for the other party's results.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high assertiveness, low cooperation • win-lose
Avoiding	<p>A conflict resolutions style by which one party wants to remain neutral, stay away from conflict, or postpone the conflict to gather information or let things cook down</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low assertiveness, low cooperation • lose-lose
Collaboration	<p>A conflict resolution style whereby both parties work together to maximize outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • high assertiveness, high cooperation • win-win
Accommodating	<p>A conflict resolution style by which one party gives in to the other and acts in a completely unselfish way</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low assertiveness, high cooperation • lose-win
Compromise	<p>A conflict resolution style by which conflict is resolved through give-and-take concessions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • moderate assertiveness, moderate cooperation • win/lose – win/lose • Most common



Negotiations	A process in which two or more interdependent individuals discuss and attempt to reach agreement about their differences. 2 strategies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distributive bargaining • Integrative bargaining 4 stages
Distributive Bargaining	A negotiation strategy in which one person gains and the other person loses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • win-lose
Integrative Bargaining	A negotiation strategy that achieves an outcome that is satisfying for both parties
Negotiation process	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Preparation: each party determines goals for negotiation, as well as their best alternative to a negotiated agreement (BATNA) 2. Exchanging information: each party makes a case for its position and puts all favorable information on the table 3. Bargaining: goal here is for each party to walk away feeling like it has gained something of value 4. Closing and commitment: formalize an agreement



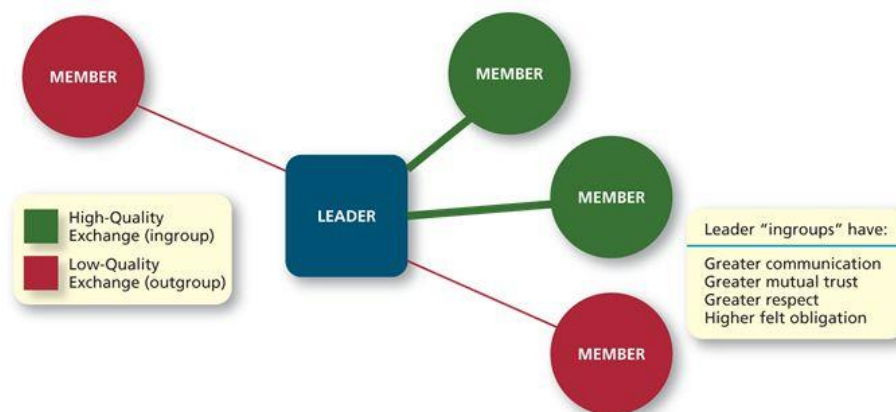
Why Are Some Leaders More Powerful Than Others?



Chapter 12: Leadership Styles and Behaviors

Leadership	The use of power and influence to direct the activities of followers toward goal achievement
Leader-Member Exchange Theory	A theory describing how leader-member relationships develop over time on dyadic basis
Role Taking	<p>The phase in a leader-follower relationship when a leader provides an employee with job expectations and the follower tries to meet expectations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New leader-member relationships are typically marked by a role taking phase, during which a manager describes role expectations to an employee and the employee attempts to fulfill those expectations with his/her job behaviors. • During this phase, the leader tries to get a feel for the talent and motivation levels of the employee.
Role Making	<p>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</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For some employees, the initial role taking phase may eventually be supplemented by role making during which the employee's own expectations for the dyad get mixed in with those of the leader. • This process is marked by a free-flowing exchange in which the leader offers more opportunities and resources and the employee contributes more activities and effort

Leader-Member Exchange Theory



Why are some leaders more effective than others?

Leader Effectiveness	The degree to which the leader's actions result in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the achievement of the unit's goals • the continued commitment of the unit's employees • the development of mutual trust, respect, and obligation in leader-member dyads 	
Leader Emergence	The process of becoming a leader in the first place <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studies conclude that there is no generalizable profile of effective leaders from a trait perspective. • Traits are more predictive of leader emergence, than they are of leader effectiveness. 	
Linked to Emergence?	Description of Trait/Characteristic	Linked to Effectiveness?
✓	High conscientiousness	
✓	Low agreeableness	
	Low neuroticism	
✓	High openness to experience	✓
✓	High extraversion	✓
✓	High general cognitive ability	✓
✓	High energy level	✓
✓	High stress tolerance	✓
✓	High self confidence	✓

Leader 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 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



<p>When Are The Styles Most Effective?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are many factors to consider when leaders chose a decision-making style • Allowing employees to participate in decision making increases their job satisfaction. Also helps these employees develop their own decision-making skills.
<p>Time-Driven Model of Leadership</p>	<p>A model that suggests 7 factors, including the importance of the decision, the expertise of the leader, and the competence of the follows, combine to make some decision-making styles more effective than others in a given situation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can leaders effectively manage their choice of decision-making styles? The time-driven model of leadership offers a potential guide. • The model suggests that the focus should shift away from autocratic, consultative, facilitative, and delegative leaders to autocratic, consultative, facilitative, and delegative situations. • More specifically, the model suggests that 7 factors combine to make some decision-making styles more effective in a given situation, and other styles less effective.
<p>7 Factors of the Time-Driven Model of Leadership</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision significance: is the decision significant to the success of the project or organization? • Importance of commitment: is it important that the employees “buy in” to the decision? • Leader expertise: does the leader have significant knowledge or expertise regarding the problem? • Likelihood of commitment: how likely is it that employees will trust the leader’s decision and commit to it? • Shared objectives: do employees share and support the same objectives, or do they have an agenda of their own?

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee expertise: do the employees have significant knowledge or expertise regarding the problem? • Teamwork skills: Do the employees have the ability to work together to solve the problem, or will they struggle with conflicts or inefficiencies? 																																																																																																							
The Time-Driven Model of Leadership																																																																																																								
	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Decision Significance</th> <th>Importance of Commitment</th> <th>Leader Expertise</th> <th>Likelihood of Commitment</th> <th>Shared Objectives</th> <th>Employee Expertise</th> <th>Teamwork Skills</th> <th></th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td rowspan="12" style="background-color: #006400; color: white; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">START HERE</td> <td rowspan="6" style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td rowspan="6" style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td rowspan="2" style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Autocratic</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Delegative</td> </tr> <tr> <td rowspan="2" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td rowspan="2" style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td rowspan="2" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Consultative</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Facilitative</td> </tr> <tr> <td rowspan="2" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td rowspan="2" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td rowspan="2" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Consultative</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Facilitative</td> </tr> <tr> <td rowspan="6" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td rowspan="6" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td rowspan="6" style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Autocratic</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Facilitative</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Consultative</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Autocratic</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">H</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Delegative</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">L</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="text-align: center;">-</td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Facilitative</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td style="background-color: #FFD700;">Autocratic</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Decision Significance	Importance of Commitment	Leader Expertise	Likelihood of Commitment	Shared Objectives	Employee Expertise	Teamwork Skills		START HERE	H	H	H	H	-	-	-	Autocratic	L	H	H	H	Delegative	L	H	L	H	H	L	-	Consultative	L	L	-	-	Facilitative	L	L	L	H	H	L	-	Consultative	L	H	H	L	Facilitative	L	L	L	H	-	-	-	-	Autocratic	L	H	H	H	H	Facilitative	L	L	-	H	L	-	Consultative	L	L	-	L	-	-	Autocratic	L	H	-	H	-	-	-	Delegative	L	L	-	L	-	-	-	Facilitative									Autocratic
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Day-To-Day Leadership Behaviors

<p>Initiating Structure (dimension #1 that captures most of the day-to-day leadership behaviors in which leaders engage)</p>	<p>A pattern of behavior where the leader defines and structures the roles of employees in pursuit of goal attainment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These types of leaders play an active role in directing group activities, prioritize planning, and scheduling. They might also emphasize the importance of meeting deadlines, describe explicit standards of performance, ask employees to follow formalized procedures, and criticize poor work when necessary • Behaviors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Initiation - Organization - Production
<p>Consideration</p>	<p>A pattern of behavior where the leader creates job relationships characterized by mutual trust,</p>

(dimension #1 that captures most of the day-to-day leadership behaviors in which leaders engage)	<p>respect for employee ideas, and consideration of employee feelings</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These types of leaders create a climate of good rapport and strong, two-way communication, and exhibit a deep concern for the welfare of employees. • Behaviors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Membership - Integration - Communication - Recognition - Representation
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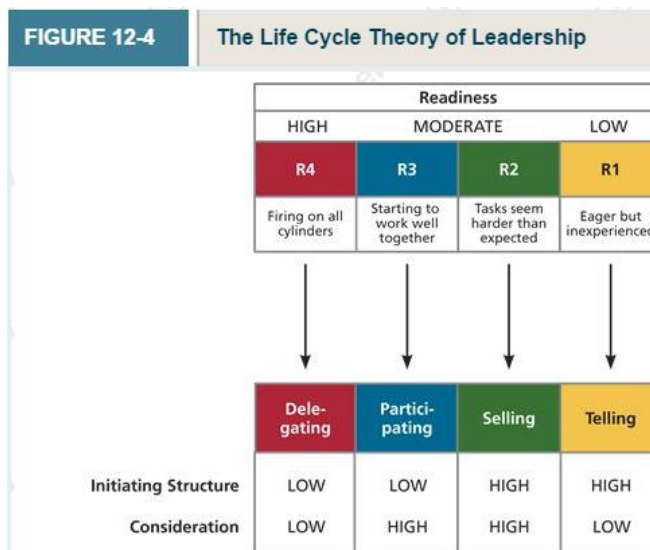
TABLE 12-3

Day-to-Day Behaviours Performed by Leaders

BEHAVIOUR	DESCRIPTION
Initiating Structure	
Initiation	Originating, facilitating, and sometimes resisting new ideas and practices
Organization	Defining and structuring 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 (<i>situational model of leadership</i>)	A theory stating that the optimal combination of initiating structure and consideration depends on the readiness of the employees in the work unit
Readiness	<p>The degree to which employees have the ability and the willingness to accomplish their specific tasks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theory suggests that readiness varies across employees and can be expressed in terms of four important snapshots: R1-R4.
R1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refers to a group of employees who are working together for the first time and are eager to begin, but lack the experience and confidence needed to perform their roles.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Optimal combination of leader behaviors is telling – high initiating structure and low consideration – in which case the leader provides specific instructions and closely supervises performance. • Most of the leader’s attention should be focused towards directing followers in this situation, because their goals and roles need to be clearly defined
Telling	When the leader provides specific instructions and closely supervises performance
R2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Members have begun working together and, as typically happens, are finding that their work is more difficult than they had anticipated. • As eagerness turns to dissatisfaction, the optimal combination of leader behaviors is selling – high initiating structure and high consideration – in which the leader supplements his/her directing with support and encouragement to protect the confidence levels of the employees.
Selling	When the leader explains key issues and provides opportunities for clarification
R3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees have learned to work together well, though they still need support and collaboration from the leader to help them adjust to their more self-managed state of affairs. • Here participating – low initiating structure and high consideration – becomes the optimal combination of leader behaviors.
Participating	Leader behavior in which the leader shares ideas and tries to help the group conduct its affairs
R4	<p>Optimal combination for R4 readiness is delegating – low initiating structure and low consideration – such that the leader turns responsibility over for key behaviors over to the employees.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All that is needed from the leader is some degree of observation and monitoring to make sure that the group’s efforts stay on track.
Delegating	Leader behavior in which the leader turns responsibility for key behaviors over to employees

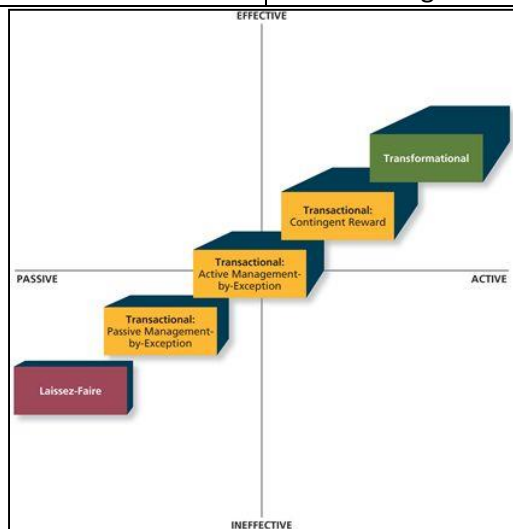


Transformational Leadership Behaviors – last component of leadership

Transformational Leadership	<p>A pattern of behavior 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</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What gets “transformed” is the way followers view their work, causing them to focus on the collective good more than just their own short-term self-interest and to perform beyond expectations as a result • Transformational leadership is viewed as a more motivational approach to leadership than other managerial approaches. • 5 distinct approaches to motivating employees
Laissez-Faire Leadership	When the leader avoids leadership duties all together
Transactional Leadership	<p>A pattern of behavior in which the leader rewards or disciplines the follower on the basis of performance.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Represents the “carrot and stick” approach to leadership, with management-by-exception providing the “sticks”, and contingent reward supplying the “carrots”. • Represents a dominant approach to motivating employees. <p>3 types:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passive management-by-exception

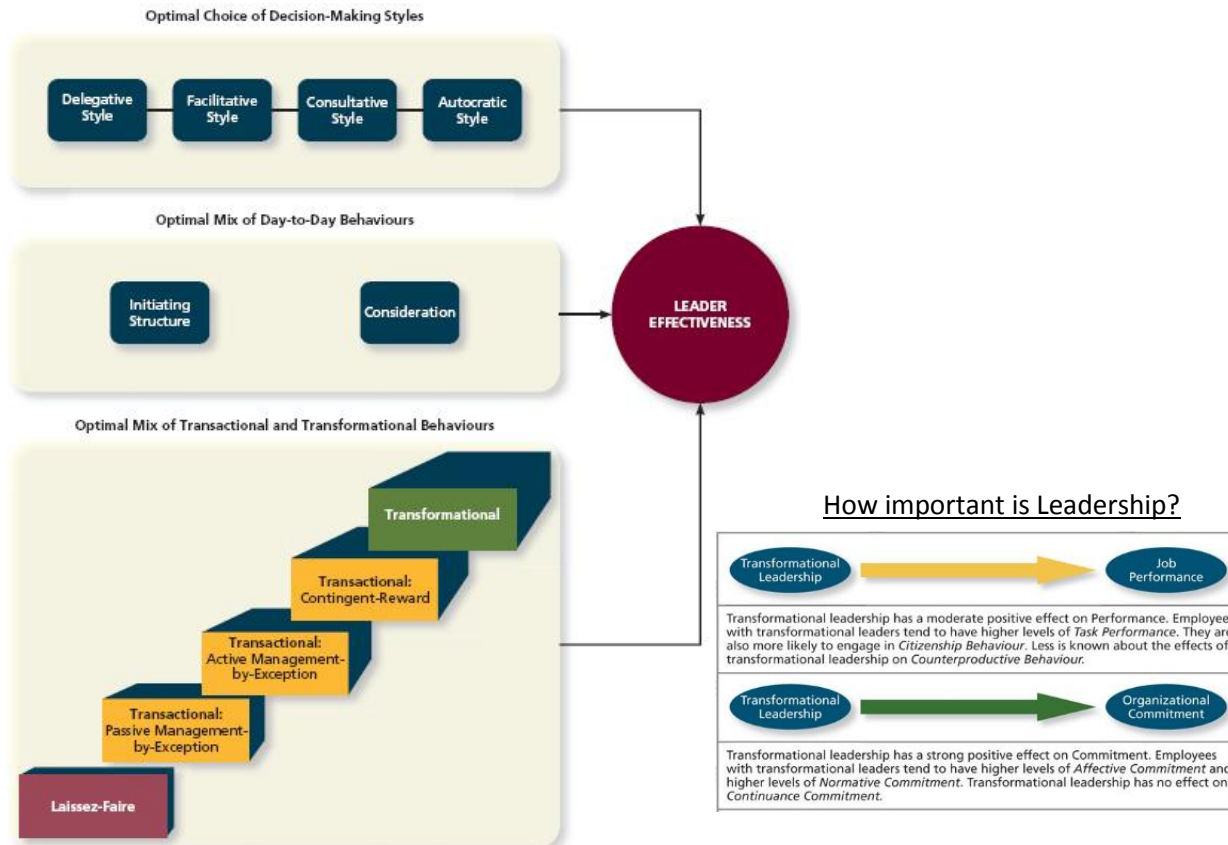
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active management-by-exception • Contingent reward
Passive Management-by-Reward	A type of transactional leadership in which the leader waits around for mistakes and errors, then takes corrective action as necessary
Active Management-by-Reward	A type of transactional leadership in which the leader arranges to monitor mistakes and errors actively, and takes corrective action when required
Contingent Reward	<p>A more active and effective type transactional leadership, in which the leader attains follower agreement on what needs to be done using rewards in exchange for adequate performance.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The statement: “<i>The leader makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved</i>” exemplifies contingent reward leadership
Transformational Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The most active and effective approach • Transformational leadership has the strongest and most beneficial effects of any of the leadership variables described. • Leadership approach most universally endorsed across cultures. • Full spectrum can be summarized using 4 dimensions often called “the Four I’s”: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Idealized Influence – Inspirational Motivation – Intellectual Stimulation – Individualized Consideration
Idealized Influence	<p>The power held by a leader who behaves in a way that earns the admiration, trust, and respect of followers, causing followers to want to identify with and emulate the leader</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Synonymous with <i>charisma</i>
Inspirational Motivation	<p>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</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transmitted through a sort of “meaning-making” process in which the negative features of the status quo are emphasized while highlighting the positive features of the potential future. • E.g. Adolf Hitler
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

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “The leader gets people to look at problems from many different angles”
Individualized Consideration	<p>A type of influence in which the leader behaves in ways that help followers achieve their potential through coaching, development, and mentoring</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “The leader spends time teaching and coaching”

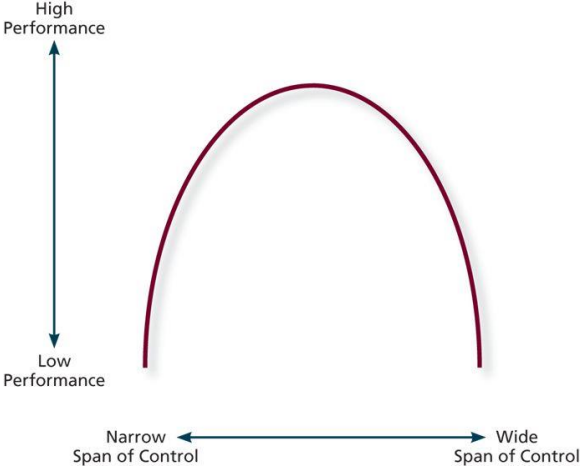


The colored cubes in the figure represent 5 distinct approaches to motivating employees, and the depth of the cubes represent how much a leader prioritizes each of the approaches.

Summary – Why Are Some Leaders More Effective Leaders than Others?



Chapter 13: Organisational Structure

Organizational Structure	Formally dictates how jobs and tasks are divided and coordinated between individuals and groups within the company
Organizational Chart	A drawing that represents every job in the organization and the formal reporting relationships between those jobs
Elements of Organizational Structure	<p>5 key elements:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work specialization • Chain of command • Span of control • Centralization • Formalization <p>All work together to describe how work tasks, authority relationships, and decision-making responsibilities are organized within an organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many of the elements capture the struggle between efficiency and flexibility
Work Specialization	The degree to which tasks in an organization are divided into separate jobs
Chain of Command	Answer to the question of who reports to whom, and signifies formal authority relationships
Span of Control	<p>Represents how many employee each manager in the organization is responsible for.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is a relationship between span of control and organizational performance 
Centralization	Aspect of structure that dictates where decisions are formally made in organizations
Formalization	The degree to which rules and procedures are used to standardise behaviors and decisions in an organization

Mechanistic Organizations	Efficient, rigid, predictable, and standardized organizations that thrive in stable environment
Organic Organizations	Flexible, adaptive, outward-focused organizations that thrive in dynamic environments

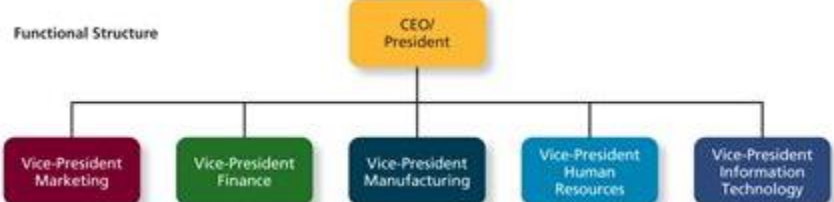
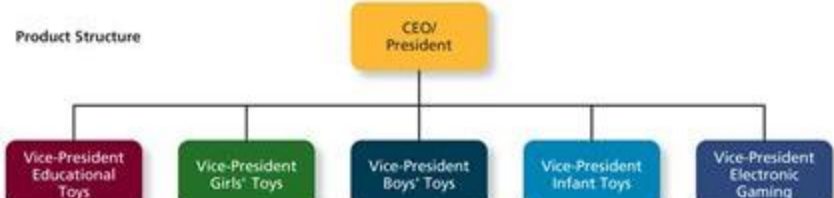
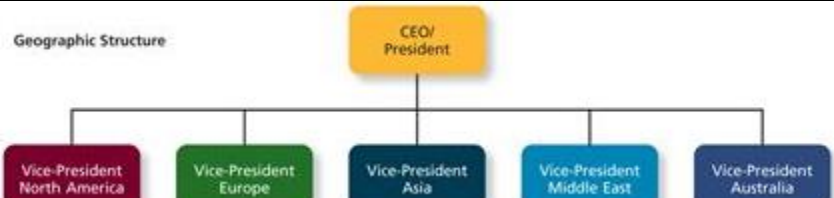

Mechanistic vs. Organic

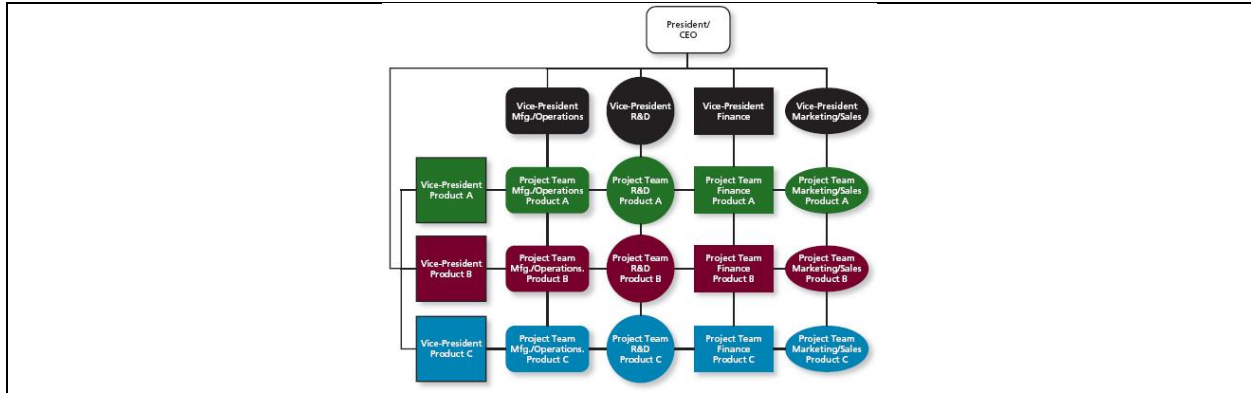
MECHANISTIC ORGANIZATIONS	ORGANIC ORGANIZATIONS
High degree of work specialization; employees are given a very narrow view of the tasks they are to perform.	Low degree of work specialization; employees are encouraged to take a broad view of the tasks they are to perform.
Very clear lines of authority; employees know exactly whom they report to.	Although there might be a specified chain of command, employees think more broadly in terms of where their responsibilities lie.
High levels of hierarchical control; employees are not encouraged to make decisions without their manager's consent.	Knowledge and expertise are decentralized; employees are encouraged to make their own decisions when appropriate.
Information is passed through vertical communication between an employee and his or her supervisor.	Lateral communication is encouraged, focusing on information and advice as opposed to orders.
Employees are encouraged to develop firm-specific knowledge and expertise within their area of specialization.	Employees are encouraged to develop knowledge and expertise outside of their specialization.

Organizational Design	The process of creating, selecting, or changing the structure of an organization
Business Environments	The outside environment, including customers, competitors, suppliers, and distributors, which all have an impact on organizational design
Company Strategy	An organization's objectives and goals and how it tries to capitalize on its assets to make money
Technology	The method by which an organization transforms inputs to outputs
Company Size	The number of employees in a company
Common Organizational Forms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simple Structure • Bureaucratic structure <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Functional – Multidivisional <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Product ▪ Geographic ▪ Client – Matrix
Simple Structure	An organizational form that features one person as the decision-making figure

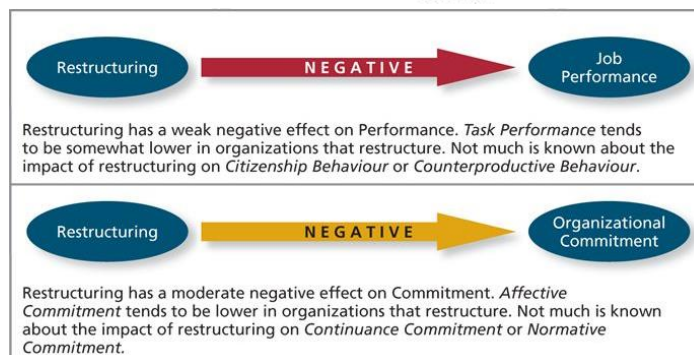
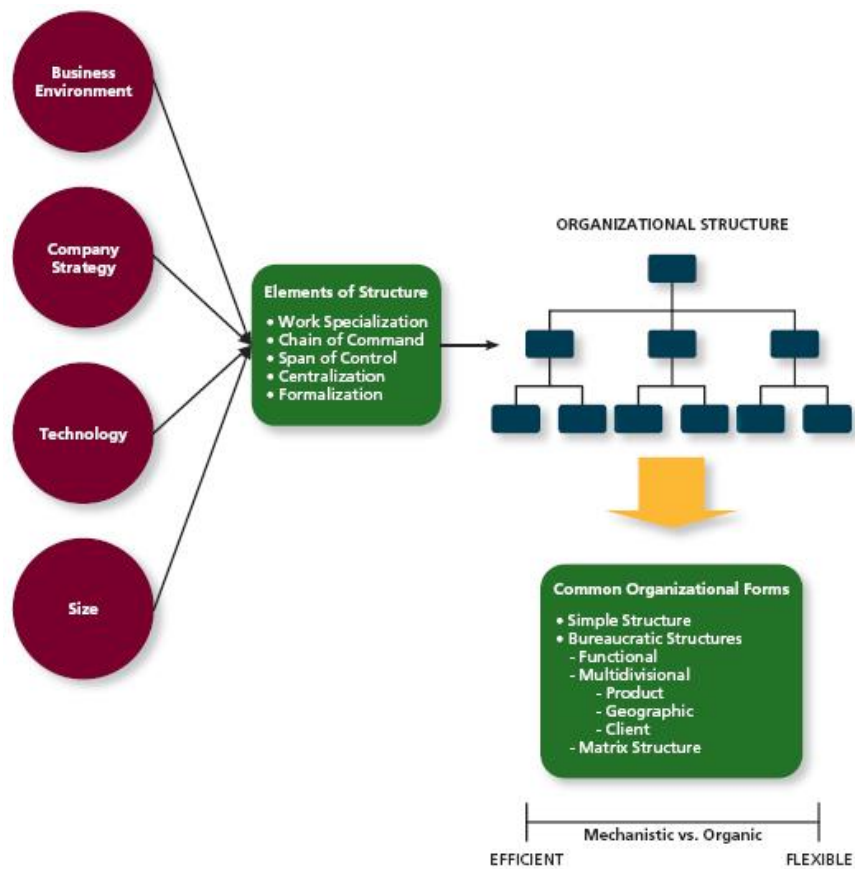
Simple Structure – Small Restaurant



Bureaucratic Structures	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
<p style="text-align: center;">Functional Structure</p>  <pre> graph TD CEO[CEO/President] --> VP_Marketing[Vice-President Marketing] CEO --> VP_Finance[Vice-President Finance] CEO --> VP_Manufacturing[Vice-President Manufacturing] CEO --> VP_HumanResources[Vice-President Human Resources] CEO --> VP_InformationTechnology[Vice-President Information Technology] </pre>	
Multidivisional Structure	An organization 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
<p style="text-align: center;">Product Structure</p>  <pre> graph TD CEO[CEO/President] --> VP_EducationalToys[Vice-President Educational Toys] CEO --> VP_GirlsToys[Vice-President Girls' Toys] CEO --> VP_BoysToys[Vice-President Boys' Toys] CEO --> VP_InfantToys[Vice-President Infant Toys] CEO --> VP_ElectronicGaming[Vice-President Electronic Gaming] </pre>	
Geographic Structure	An organizational form in which employees are grouped around the different locations where the company does business
<p style="text-align: center;">Geographic Structure</p>  <pre> graph TD CEO[CEO/President] --> VP_NorthAmerica[Vice-President North America] CEO --> VP_Europe[Vice-President Europe] CEO --> VP_Asia[Vice-President Asia] CEO --> VP_MiddleEast[Vice-President Middle East] CEO --> VP_Australia[Vice-President Australia] </pre>	
Client-Based Structure	An organizational form in which employees are organized around serving customers
<p style="text-align: center;">Client-Based Structure</p>  <pre> graph TD CEO[CEO/President] --> VP_GovernmentContracts[Vice-President Government Contracts] CEO --> VP_DirectConsumerSales[Vice-President Direct Consumer Sales] CEO --> VP_InternetSales[Vice-President Internet Sales] CEO --> VP_LargeCompanyContracts[Vice-President Large Company Contracts] </pre>	
Matrix Structure	A complex form of organizational structure that combines a functional and multidivisional grouping



Why Do Some Organizations Have Different Structures Than Others?

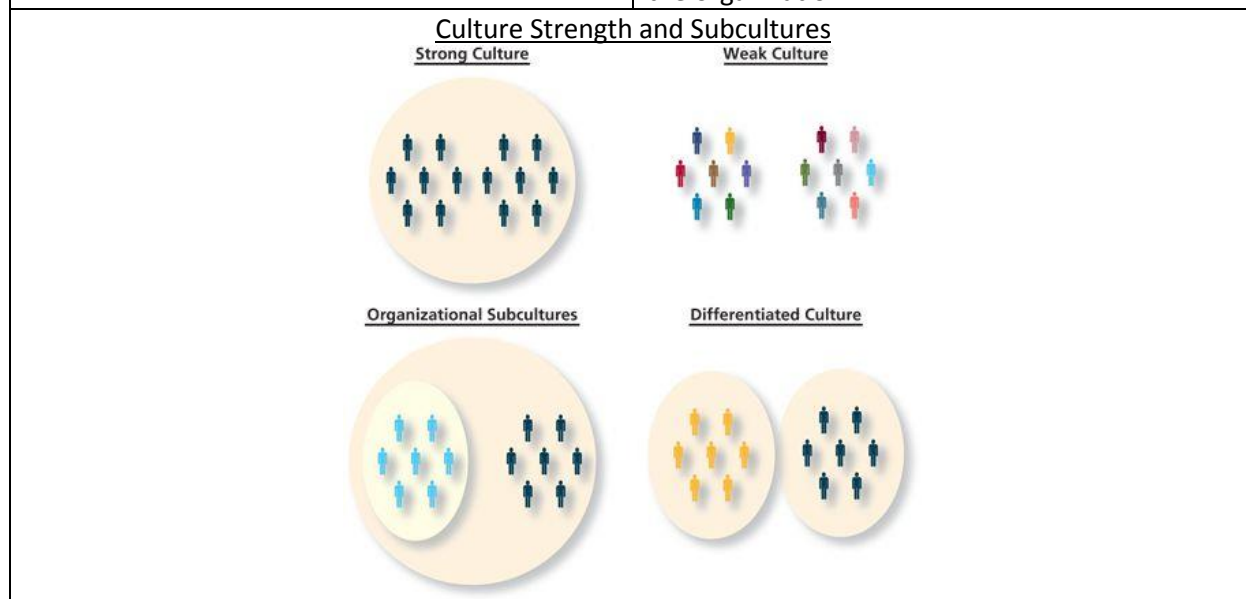


Chapter 14: Organizational Culture and Change

Organizational Culture	<p>The shared social knowledge within an organization regarding the rules, norms, and values that shape the attitudes and behaviours of its employees</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “The way things are done” • Employees learn about most important aspects of culture through other employees. This transfer of knowledge is made through explicit communication, and simple observation. • 3 components: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Observable facts (skin of onion) – Basic Underlying Assumption (middle of onion) – Espoused Values (flesh of onion)
Observable Artifacts	<p>Aspects of an organization’s culture that employees and outsiders can easily see or talk about. 6 types:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Symbols • Physical Structures • Language • Stories • Rituals • Ceremonies • Espoused Values
Symbols	The images an organization uses, which generally convey messages
Physical Structures	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
Ritual	The daily or weekly planned routines that occur in an organization
Ceremonies	Formal events, generally performed in front of an audience of organizational members
Espoused Values	The beliefs, philosophies, and normal that a company explicitly states
Basic Underlying Assumption	<p>The ingrained beliefs and philosophies of employees</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic underlying assumptions are taken-for-granted beliefs and philosophies that are so engrained that employees simply act on them

	<p>rather than question the validity of their behaviour in a given situation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These assumptions represent the deepest and least observable part of culture and may not be consciously apparent, even to organizational veterans.
General Cultural Types	
Fragmented Culture	An organizational culture type in which employees are distant and disconnected from one another
Mercenary Culture	An organizational culture type in which employees think alike but are not friendly to one another
Networked Cultures	An organizational type in which employees are friendly to one another, but everyone thinks differently and does his/her own thing
Communal Culture	An organizational culture type in which employees are friendly to one another and all think alike
Specific Culture Types	
Customer Service Culture	A specific culture type focused on service quality
<p><u>The Service Culture Process</u></p> <pre> graph LR A[Service-Oriented Leadership Behaviour] --> B[Service Culture] B --> C[Service-Oriented Employee Behaviours] C --> D[Customer Satisfaction] D --> E[Unit Sales] </pre>	
Safety Culture	A specific culture type focused on the safety of employees
Diversity Culture	A specific culture type focused on fostering or taking advantage of a diverse group of employees
Creativity Culture	A specific culture type focused on fostering a creative atmosphere
<p><u>A Typology of Organizational Culture</u></p>	

Culture Strength	The degree to which employees agree about how things should happen within the organization and behave accordingly
Subculture	A culture created within a small subset of the organization's employees
Counterculture	A subculture whose values do not match those of the organization



Pros and Cons of a Strong Culture

ADVANTAGES OF A STRONG CULTURE	DISADVANTAGES OF A STRONG CULTURE
Differentiates the organization from others	Makes merging with another organization more difficult
Allows employees to identify themselves with the organization	Attracts and retains similar kinds of employees, thereby limiting diversity of thought
Facilitates desired behaviours among employees	Can be "too much of a good thing" if it creates extreme behaviours among employees
Creates stability within the organization	Makes adapting to the environment more difficult

Maintaining an Organizational Culture	
ASA Framework (Attraction – Selection – Attrition)	A theory that states that employees will be drawn to organizations with cultures that match their personality, organizations will select employees that match, employees will leave or be forced out when they are not a good fit
Socialization	The primary process by which employees learn the social knowledge that enables them to understand and adapt to the organization's culture. 4 stages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anticipatory Stage • Encounter Stage

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reality Shock • Understanding and Adapting
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 to be
Understanding and Adapting	The final stage of socialization, during which newcomers come to learn the content areas of socialization and internalize the norms and expected behaviors of the organization.

Dimensions Addressed in Most Socialization Efforts

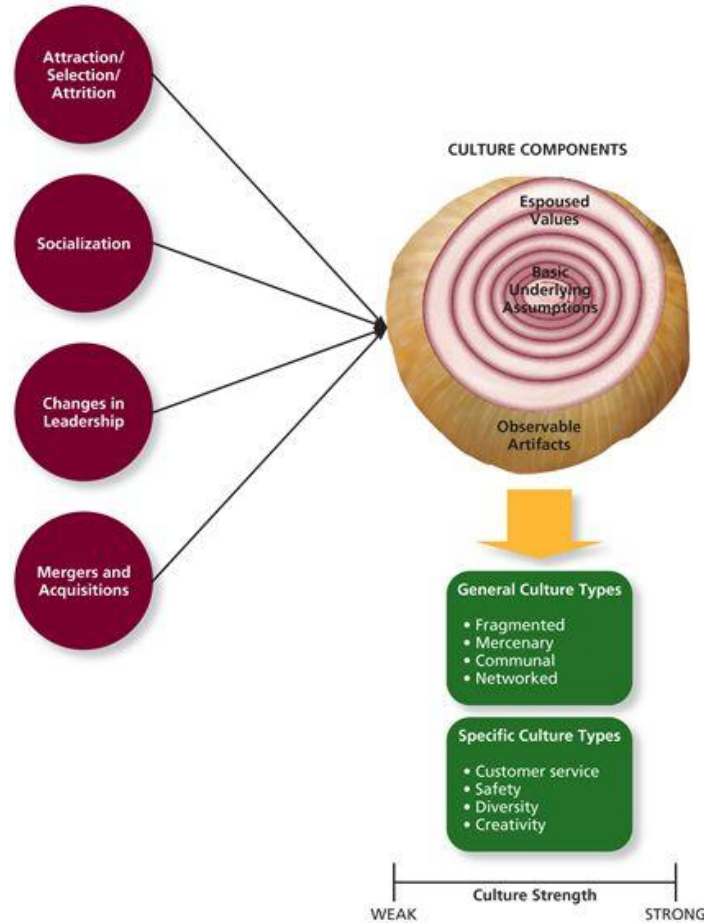


Changing an Organizational Culture

The Change Process	3 sequential steps: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unfreezing • Change initiative • Refreezing
Unfreezing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occurs when status quo is deemed unacceptable and a change is needed
Change initiative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Once a need for change has been recognized, the second step is to plan and implement the change initiative

<p>Refreezing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refreeze the newly developed attitudes and behaviors. Entrenching them as new norms, values, and shared understandings
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Why Do Some Organizations Have Different Cultures Than Others?



<p>Person-Organization Fit</p>	<p>The degree to which a person’s values and personality match the culture of the organization</p>
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