

2

PERSONALITY AND LEARNING

CHAPTER REVIEW COM222

PERSONALITY

Set of relatively stable set of psychological characteristics that influences the way an individual interacts with her environment and how she thinks, feels and behaves.

- Genetic predisposition
- Long-term learning history
- Susceptible to change
- Variety of personality characteristics

DISPOSITIONAL APPROACH +	SITUATIONAL APPROACH =	INTERACTIONIST APPROACH
Individual dispositions and personality. Stable traits that influence their behaviours.	Characteristics of the organizational setting influence people's feelings, attitudes and behaviour.	OB is a function of both approaches

FFM, FIVE-FACTOR MODEL OF PERSONALITY E.S.A.C.O.

EXTRAVERSION	EMOTIONAL STABILITY	AGREEABLENESS	CONSCIENTIOUSNESS	OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE
Outgoing vs. shy	Stable, confident vs. anxious, depressed	Tolerant, cooperative vs. cold, rude	Responsible vs. careless	Curious, original vs. unimaginative

- Research evidence

Extraversion: related to absenteeism. Intensity of a job seeker's job search.

Emotional stability: related to job satisfaction (neuroticism)

Conscientiousness: related to attendance and retention. Good antidote to absenteeism and disciplinary problems. Strongest predictor of motivation

- Specifications on the FFM

LOCUS OF CONTROL	SELF-MONITORING	SELF-ESTEEM
High external = fate, luck, powerful people High internal = self-initiative, personal actions, free will	Low = not so concerned with scoping out and fitting in with those around them High = take great care to observe and control the images they project. More involved in job, less committed, more stress	Degree at which you have a positive self-evaluation.

LEARNING

- «What» aspect of learning
 - Practical:** job-specific skills, knowledge and technical competence
 - Intrapersonal:** problem solving, critical thinking, learning about alternative work processes and risk taking.
 - Interpersonal:** communicating, teamwork and conflict resolution.
 - Cultural awareness:** learning social norms of organizations and understanding company goals, business operations, company expectations.
- Learning process

Operant learning theory (B.F. Skinner): Learns to operate in an environment to achieve certain consequences.

To increase the probability of behaviour

Positive reinforcement: application or addition of a stimulus to the situation.

Negative reinforcement: removal or prevented stimulus to the situation to increase the probability of a behaviour.

Organizational errors involving reinforcement

Confusing rewards: based on seniority instead of attendance, innovation and productivity.

Neglecting diversity in preferences: offer a challenging task. Do not allow overtime to seniors, they don't need extra hours to earn more, in contrast they will appreciate a time off.

Neglecting sources: while concentrating on formal reinforcement (pays, benefits...), we neglect those administered by co-workers or intrinsic to the jobs being performed.

- **Performance feedback:** provide quantitative/qualitative data on past performances for the purpose of changing/maintaining performances

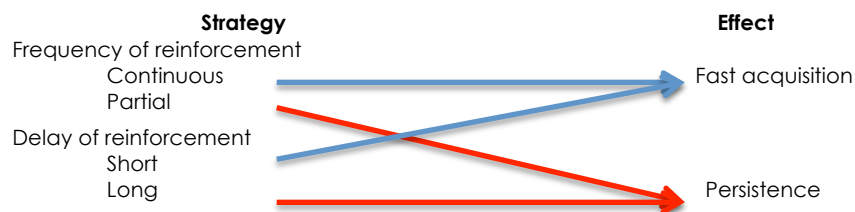
Most effective when a) Conveyed in a positive manner

b) Delivered immediately

c) Represented visually

- **Social recognition:** informal acknowledgement, attention, approval for work well done.

Reinforcement strategies



To reduce the probability of behaviours

Extinction: gradual dissipation of behaviour following the termination of reinforcement.

Punishment: Application of aversive stimulus following some behaviour designed to decrease their probability.

Using punishment effectively

Make sure the punishment is truly aversive: ex. Overtime=extra pay.

Punish immediately: behaviours gain strength to repetitions.

Do not reward unwanted behaviours before/after punishment

Do not punish desirable behaviour: cutting budget if not used, you're punishing prudence.

SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

Cognitive processes in regulating people's behaviour
Learning by thinking of the consequences (modelling)

Albert Bandura

Observational learning: Learning by observing other people (attractive, credible, competent,

Self-efficacy: beliefs people have about their ability to successfully perform a specific task.

Self-regulation: the use of learning principles to regulate one's own behaviour.

Discrepancy production: fixing yourself even higher and challenging goal when you attain a goal.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING PRACTICES

Organizational behaviour modifications: systematic use of learning principles

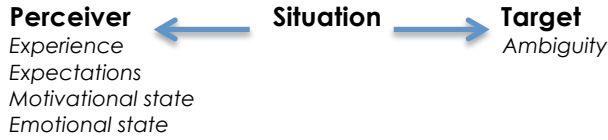
Employee program recognition: formal organizational programs that publicly recognize and reward employees.

Training program: activities to facilitate knowledge and skill acquisition to improve performance/change performances.

Career development: helps prepare for future roles/responsibilities. Process to a series of stages.

3

PERCEPTION, ATTRIBUTION AND DIVERSITY



SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY

People form perceptions of themselves based on their characteristics and memberships in social categories.

Personal identity: unique personal characteristics, interest, abilities and traits.

Social identity: various social groups, gender, nationality, religion, occupation.

We perceive people in terms of the attributes and characteristics that we associate with their social category.

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS MODEL

MODEL	EXEMPLE
1. Unfamiliar target encountered	New co-worker
2. Openness to target cues	Observation: search for information
3. Familiar cues encountered	Co-worker comes from Stanford, good grades
4. Target categorized	Co-worker is a good man, great potential
Cue selectivity	Poor performance ignored or distorted
5. Categorization strengthened	He is still a good man with great potential

Bruner's model: important characteristics of the perceptual process

1. Perception is **selective**: we do not use all the available cues. Those used are given special emphasis.
2. Perceptual **constancy**: tendency to perceive the target in the same way over time.
3. Perceptual **consistency**: tendency to select, ignore and distort cues in such manner that they fit together, form an homogeneous picture.

Basic biases in person perception

- **Primacy**: tendency to rely on early cues or first impressions.
- **Recency**: tendency to rely to recent cues or last impressions.
- **Central traits**: personal characteristics that are of particular interest.
- **Implicit personalities theories**: personal theories people have about which personality characteristics go together.
- **Projection**: tendency to attribute your own thoughts and feelings to others.
- **Stereotyping**: tendency to generalize about people in certain social category and ignore variations among them.

ATTRIBUTIONS: CAUSES AND MOTIVES

Types of attributions

Dispositional	Situational
Suggest that personality or intellectual characteristics unique to the person is responsible for his behaviour.	Suggest that external situation or environment in which the target exists his responsible for his behaviour.

Cues

Consistency	How consistently a person engages in behaviour over time. High consistency = Dispositional attribution
Consensus	How a person's behaviour compares with that to others. Low consensus = Dispositional attribution
Distinctiveness	Extent to which a person engages in some behaviour across situations. Many situations = Low distinctiveness = Dispositional attribution

Biases

Fundamental attribution error	Overemphasize dispositional explanations at the expense of situational ones.
Actor-Observer effect	Propensity for actors/observers to view the causes of the actor's behaviour differently.
Self-serving bias	Tendency to take credit for successful outcomes and deny the responsibility for failures.

DIVERSITY

- Build senior management commitment and accountability.
- Conduct a thorough needs assessment.
- Develop a well-defined strategy tied to business results.
- Emphasize team building and group process training.
- Establish metrics and evaluate the effectiveness of diversity initiatives.

TRUST

POS Perceived organizational support

Employee's general belief that their organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being. They feel a greater sense of purpose and meaning and a strong sense of belonging to the organization. Improve employees ability to focus

Dimensions of trust

- Credibility
- Respect
- Fairness
- Pride
- Camaraderie

PERSON PERCEPTION IN HUMAN RESOURCES

Recruitment

Contrast effect: previously interviewed job applicants affect an interviewer's perception of a current applicant, leading to an exaggeration of differences between applicants.

Signalling theory: job applicants interpret their recruitment experiences as cues or signals about what it is like to work in an organisation.

Performance appraisal – rater errors

Leniency: tendency to perceive job performance of rates as especially good.

Harshness: tendency to perceive job performance of rates as especially ineffective.

Central tendency: tendency to assign most rates to middle-range job performance categories.

Halo effect: the rating on one trait that tends to colour ratings on other traits or characteristics.

4

VALUES, ATTITUDES AND WORK BEHAVIOUR

GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN VALUES

Generation	% of workforce	Assets in workplace	Leadership style pref.
Traditionalists (1922-1945)	8%	Hard working, stable, loyal, detail-oriented, focused, emotional maturity, respectful of authority	Fair, consistent, clear, direct, respectful
Baby boomers (1946-1964)	44%	Team perspective, delicate, experienced, knowledgeable, service-oriented	Treat as equals, warm and caring, mission-defined, democratic approach
Gen. X (1965-1980)	34%	Independent, adaptable, creative, techno-literate, willing to challenge status quo, pragmatic, cynical	Direct, competent, genuine, informal, flexible, results-oriented, supportive of learning opportunities
Gen. Y (1981-2000)	14%, rapid growth	Optimistic, able to multitask, tenacious, techno. savvy, driven to learn and grow, team-oriented, socially responsible, social	Motivational, collaborative, positive, educational, organized, achievement-oriented, able to coach

Generally, generations have the same need, they express it in a different way (ex. Respect p.113)

Gen X and Y more detailed...

- comfortable with technology
- value the advice of peers more than authority figures
- More inclined to value status and rapid career growth

VALUES ACROSS CULTURES

Work-related values' dimensions	Power distance	Uncertainty avoidance	Masculinity/ Femininity	Individualism/ Collectivism	Long-term/ Short-term
Definition	Extent to which society members accept an unequal distribution of power Small PD = inequalities are minimized High PD = inequality is accepted as natural	Extent to which people are uncomfortable with uncertain and ambiguous situations Weak UA = less concerned with rules, conformity, risk taking is valued Strong UA = stress rules and regulations, conformity, security	Masculine: dominance of men, economic performance, differentiate gender roles Feminine: fluid gender roles, sexual equity is stressed, quality of life	Individualistic: independence, individual initiative, privacy Collectivism: interdependence, loyalty	Long-term: persistence, perseverance, close attention to status differences Short-term: personal steadiness and stability, social niceties
Related countries	Small PD = Denmark, Austria, New-Zel., Israel High PD = Mexico, Venezuela	Weak UA = Singapore, Sweden, Denmark Strong UA = Japan, Greece, Portugal	Masculine: Japan, Austria, Mexico Feminine: Scandinavian countries	Individualistic: U.S, Australia, Canada, G-B. Collectivism: Venezuela, Columbia, Pakistan	Long-term: Asian countries Short-term: U.S, Canada, Nigeria, G-B.

ATTITUDES (beliefs rational approach, values is emotionally oriented)

- Fairly stable evaluative tendency to respond consistently to some specific object, situation, and person.
- Attitudes are function of what we think and what we feel. BELIEF + VALUE = ATTITUDE --- BEHAVIOUR
- Attitudes are not always consistent with behaviours

JOB SATISFACTION

Determiners D.F.D.M.	Consequences
<p>1. Discrepancy Theory stating that job satisfaction stems from the discrepancy between the job outcomes wanted and the outcomes perceived to be obtained (fairness)</p> <p>2. Fairness Procedural fairness</p> <hr/> <p>When people receive the outcomes they think they deserve, it involves the distribution of work rewards and resources (likely to lead to dissatisfaction)</p> <p>Interactional fairness</p> <hr/> <p>When people feel they have received respectful and informative communication about outcomes. Interpersonal treatment.</p> <p>Both offset the negative effects of distribution unfairness.</p> <p>3. Disposition Some people are predisposed by virtue of their personalities to be more or less satisfied despite changes in discrepancy or fairness.</p> <p>4. Mood and emotion Emotions Intense, short-lived, caused by a particular event Moods Less intense, longer-lived, more diffuse feelings.</p> <p>*Emotional contagion: tendency for mood and emotion to spread between people. *Emotional regulation: requirement for people to conform a certain display rules, in spite of their true mood.</p> <p>5. Other key contributors Challenging work Compensation Career opportunities People</p>	<p>1. Absence from work The correlation may stems in part from the tendency for job satisfaction to facilitate mental health and satisfaction with life in general. Content people attend work with enthusiasm.</p> <p>2. Turnover Moderate strong connection, with less satisfied workers being more likely to quit.</p> <p>3. Performance Challenging jobs are most likely to stimulate high performance. Performance can also lead to job satisfaction (reverse process).</p> <p>4. OCB Organizational citizenship behaviour Voluntary, informal behaviour that contributes to organizational effectiveness. It contributes to organizational productivity and efficiency and to reduced turnover.</p> <p>How</p> <hr/> <p>Voluntary Spontaneous Contributes to organizational effectiveness Unlikely to be explicitly picked up and rewarded</p> <p>What</p> <hr/> <p>Helping behaviour Conscientiousness to the details work Good sport when inevitable frustrations Courtesy and cooperation</p> <p>5. Customer satisfaction and profit Job satisfaction is indeed translated into customer or client satisfaction and organizational profitability.</p>

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Contributors	Consequences
<p>Strength of the linkage between an individual and its organization</p> <p>Want to - Affective commitment: based on a person's identification and involvement with an organization.</p> <p>Have to - Continuance commitment: based on the costs that would be incurred in leaving an organization.</p> <p>Should do - Normative commitment: based on ideology or feeling of obligation to an organization.</p> <p>* Employers shouldn't start with challenging jobs (instead of unchallenging ones), it can have a negative impact on affective commitment * Role clarity and having one's expectations met after being hired also contribute</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Continuance commitment is negatively related to performance (burn-out) ▪ Changes in employee commitment: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Δ in the nature of employees commitment to work 2. Δ in the focus of employee's commitment 3. Multiplicity of employer-employee relationships within an organization

5

WORK MOTIVATION

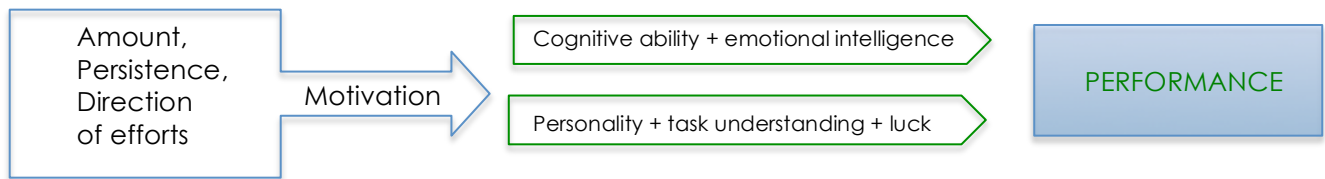
BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

Effort	Persistence	Direction	Goals
Strength of a person work-related behaviour, amount of effort the person exhibit	Persistence at applying this effort.	Direction of the person's work-related behaviour. Motivation means working smart as well as working hard.	Motivated behaviour has some goal or objective toward which it is directed. Act to enhance organizational objectives.
Intrinsic		Extrinsic	
Stems from direct relationship between the worker and the task and is usually self-applied.		Stems from the work environment external to the task. Usually applied by someone else than the one performing the task.	
Achievement, accomplishment, challenge, competence derived from performing, <u>autonomy, mastery, purpose</u>		Pay, fringe benefits, policies, form of supervision	
Autonomous motivation		Controlled motivation	

PERFORMANCE

General cognitive ability	Emotional intelligence
Mental ability/intelligence. Refer to a person's basic information processing capacities and cognitive resources	Ability to understand and manage his or her own and others' feelings and emotions. Understand and reason about emotions, regulate their own emotions.
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Verbal 2. Numerical 3. Spatial 4. Reasoning abilities 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Perceiving emotions accurately 2. Using emotions to facilitate thinking 3. Understand emotional language and signals conveyed by them 4. Manage emotions to attain goal

* Education is related three types of performances; higher core task performance, greater creativity, more citizenship behaviours. Educated people engage in less counterproductive behaviours.



NEEDS THEORY

Maslow, Alderfer
Higher order needs

	MASLOW'S HIERARCHY	ALDERFER'S THEORY	
Higher order needs	Self-actualization Self-esteem Belongingness	Growth Relatedness	Intrinsic motivation
Basic needs	Safety Physiological	Existence	Extrinsic motivation

Definitions

Existence needs: Those are to be satisfied with some material substance or condition. Close to Maslow's physiological needs and safety needs.

Relatedness needs: Those are to be satisfied by open communication and the exchange of thoughts and feelings with other organizational members. Close to belongingness need.

Growth needs: These are fulfilled by strong personal involvement in the work setting.

McClelland

<p style="text-align: center;">Need for achievement</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strong desire to perform challenging tasks well.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Need for affiliation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strong desire to establish and maintain friendly, compatible interpersonal relationships.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Need for power</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strong desire to have influence over others.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Preference for situations in which personal responsibility can be taken for outcomes ▪ Tendency to set moderately difficult goals that provide for calculated risks ▪ Desire for performance feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ability to learn social networking ▪ Tendency to communicate frequently 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Seek out social settings ▪ Attention-getting manner

Expectancy theory (important) --- translate across culture

Definitions

Outcomes: Consequences that may follow certain work behaviours.

Instrumentality: probability that particular first-level outcome will be followed by a particular second-level outcomes.

Valence: expected value of outcomes.

Expectancy: probability that the worker can actually achieve a particular first-level outcome.

Force: end product of the other components of the theory.

Managerial implications

Boost expectancies: ensure that their employees expect to be able to achieve first-level outcomes.

Clarify reward contingencies: employees should be convinced that 1st level outcomes are instrumental in obtaining positive 2nd level outcomes and avoiding negative outcomes.

Appreciate diverse needs: Design individualized «motivational packages» to meet their needs.

Equity theory

Motivation stems from a comparison of the inputs one invests in a job and the outcomes one receives in comparison with the inputs and outcomes of another person/group.

Goal setting theory

Kinds of motivational goals

- Goal specificity
- Goal challenge
- Goal commitment

Goal feedback

- Enhancing goal commitment
- Participation
- Rewards
- Supportiveness

Goal orientation

- Performance-prove goal
- Performance-avoid goal orientation



MOTIVATION IN PRACTICE

MOTIVATIONAL TECHNIQUES :

Description	Types		Potential problem	Team work
Money	Production jobs	Wage incentive plan Piece-rate	Lowered quality Differential opportunity Reduced cooperation Non-compatible job design Restriction of productivity	Profit sharing Employee stock ownership plans (ESOPs) Gainsharing (Scanlon plan)
	White-collar	Merit pay plans	Low discrimination Small increases Pay secrecy	Skill-based pay

Description	Traditional views	Job scope <i>Breadth nbr of activities performed</i> <i>Depth degree of control over task</i>		Job characteristics		
Job design	Until 60s: non-managerial jobs = job simplification <u>Industrial revolution:</u> Uneducated, untrained employees = specialization F.W.Taylor: Division of labour Regulation of work activities Rest pauses	<i>high</i> Quality control Equipment monitoring	Manager Professor	Core job characteristics Skill variety Task identity Task significance Autonomy Feedback from job	Critical physiological states Experienced meaningfulness of the work Experienced responsibility for outcomes Knowledge of actual results of the work	Outcomes High internal work motivation High growth satisfaction High general job satisfaction High work effectiveness
	Type of schemes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combining tasks Establishing internal/external client relationship Reducing supervision Forming work team Making feedback more direct 	Potential problems <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Poor diagnosis Lack of desire/skill Demand for rewards Union resistance Supervisory resistance 	Developments <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Work design characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Task charac. Knowledge charac. Social charac. Work context charac. 			

Description	Description	Manager-employee interactions	Research evidence
Management by objective	Elaborate, systematic, ongoing management program designed to facilitate goal establishment and accomplishment and employee development.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> The manager meets with individual workers to develop and agree on employee objectives There are periodic meetings to monitor employee progress in achieving objectives Appraisal meetings held to evaluate the extent to which the agreed upon objectives have been achieved MBO cycle is repeated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MBO is an elaborate, difficult, time-consuming process. Its implementation must have the full commitment of top management. Might lead to overemphasize on measurable objectives at the expense of qualitative ones.

Description		Flex-time	Compressed workweek	Job/Work sharing	Telecommuting
Alternative work schedule	Definition	<p>Report for work on each working day and work given nbr. of our</p> <p>The arrive/leave time is flexible</p>	<p>Compresses hours worked each week into fewer days. (4-40)</p>	<p>When two part-time employees divide the work of a full-time job.</p> <p>Work sharing involves reducing the number of hours employees work to avoid layoffs when there is a reduction in normal business.</p>	<p>Work at home but stay in touch with their offices.</p> <p>Distant staffing: cics. Can hire best person for the job, wherever they live</p> <p>Distributed work program: you can work either at the business office, satellite office or at home.</p>
	+ and -	<p>Tailored to own transportation/childcare situations.</p> <p>Degree of prestige and trust</p> <p>Good strategy for office environment, manager reports minimal abuse. Employee positive</p> <p>Should reduce absenteeism</p> <p>No possible for each work field (operating room!)</p>	<p>Might reduce absenteeism</p> <p>Reduce commuting costs and time by 20%</p> <p>More leisure time for the family</p> <p>Can pose problem for single-parent</p> <p>Possibility of reduced customer service</p> <p>Negative of fatigue over the first weeks of implementation and longer days overall.</p>	<p>It cut costs, save jobs, avoid layoffs, allow firms to retain highly skilled workers.</p> <p>Must make a concerted effort to communicate well which each other.</p> <p>May result in coordination problems</p> <p>Problem with performance appraisal can occurs.</p>	<p>Lower costs so reduction in turnover</p> <p>Can improve worl-life balance and increase productivity</p> <p>Lower stress, perception of autonomy.</p> <p>Negative effects on relationships.</p> <p>Distraction at home, isolation or overwork.</p> <p>Concerns about trust, control over productivity.</p>

7 GROUPS AND TEAMWORK

GROUPS DEFINITIONS

GROUP			
2+ interacting interdependently to achieve a common goal			
Formal		Informal	
The one that organization establish to facilitate the achievement of a goal.		Emerge naturally in response to the common interest	
Common group Manager and their employees	Task force Temporary groups to achieve particular goal	Committee Permanent group to handle recurrent tasks outside the usual work group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It can either help or hurt, depending on their norm. Organization tends not to like them.

GROUP DEVELOPMENT

WITHOUT DEADLINE	HIGH	Try to orient them. Ambiguous situations. Forming	Conflicts emerge. Confrontation and criticism. Sorting out roles. Storming	Norming You resolve issues. Compromises are necessary, norms are agreed	Performing Established social structure. Energy toward task accomplishment. Creativity and mutual assistance.	After lifespan, it disperses. Adjourning
	LOW					
WITH DEADLINE PUNCTUATED EQUILIBRIUM (GERSICK)	HIGH	Phase 1		Midpoint	Phase 2	
	LOW	1 st meeting Little progress, assumptions and precedents. 1 st meeting is critical.		Midpoint crystalizes group activity, change must occurs	Final meeting. There is a burst of activities.	

GROUP STRUCTURE

SIZE	DIVERSITY	NORMS	ROLES	STATUS
Vs. satisfaction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Larger group might lead to conflict. Time available for verbal participation decreases. Members identify less easily with success. 	Group diversity has strong impact on interactions patterns. More diverse groups take longer time to forming, storming and norming.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collective expect. regarding the behaviour of each other They develop themselves to regulate behaviours that are considered marginal. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Position in a group that have a set of expected behaviours Assigned role are formally prescribed Emergent role develop naturally to meet a need. 	Formal Management attempts to publicly identify those people who have igher status than other.
Vs. performance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Additive task Predict performance by adding performances of individual Disjunctive task Potential performance depends on the best member performance. Larger group = +chance of having best performers. Conjunctive task Performance is limited to the poorest performer. (Assembly line) Process losses Actual performance = potential performance – process losses 		Typical norms <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Dress norms Performance norms Rewards allocation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Equity Reward according to inputs such as effort, performance and seniority Equality Reward everyone equally Reciprocity Reward people the way they reward you Social responsibility Reward those that truly need it 	Role ambiguity Lack of clarity of job goals Organizational factors Role sender Focal person	Informal Not well advertised, not systematic, but can still operate effectively
			Role conflict <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Intrasender Single role sender gives incompatible role expectations Intersender 2+ role sender give incompatible role expectations Interrole Several roles held by someone leads to incompatible expect. Person-role Role demands incompatible with personality 	Consequences of barriers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most people like to communicate with people with the same status High status = more influence Reducing status barriers Goal is to foster a culture of teamwork and coop.

GROUP COHESIVENESS

FACTORS INFLUENCING	Threat and competition External threat to the survival of the group increases cohesiveness.	Success Successful group are more attractive. Cohesiveness can decrease after failure.	Member diversity Can have harder time becoming cohesive.	Size Bigger group should have more difficulty staying cohesive.	Toughness of initiation Groups that are tough to get into are more attractive
CONSEQUENCES OF COHESIVENESS	More participation Because you want to remain in the group, you are least likely to quit.		More conformity Because they are attractive and coordinated, they got rules, rewards, and punishments.		More success Group cohesiveness is related to performance. High degrees of communication coupled with conformity ensure high degree of agreement.

SOCIAL LOAFING

Tendency that people have to withhold physical or intellectual effort when they are performing a group task. They would work harder if they were alone.

Free rider effect: people lower their effort to get a free ride

Sucker effect: people lower their efforts because of the feeling that other are free-riding.

How to counteract social loafing:

1. Make individual performance more visible
2. Make sure the work is interesting
3. Increase feelings of indispensability
4. Increase performance feedback
5. Reward group performance

EFFECTIVE TEAMS

TEAM					
SELF-MANAGED TEAMS			CROSS-FUNCTIONAL TEAMS		VIRTUAL TEAMS
Opportunity to do challenging work under reduced supervision. The group regulates much of their own member's behaviour.			Bring people with different functional specialties together to better invent, design or deliver a product or service.		Use technology to communicate and collaborate
TASKS	COMPOSITION	SUPPORTING	GOALS	EFFECTIVENESS	Advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Complex and challenging ▪ Requiring high interdependence among members ▪ Perform it to beginning to end 	<p>Stability Require understanding and trust because the task requires considerable interactions.</p> <p>Size As small as is feasible</p> <p>Expertise Members should have a high level of expertise, as a whole the knowledge must be high</p> <p>Diversity Members should be enough similar to work well but diverse to bring variety of perspectives and skills</p>	<p>Training</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Technical ▪ Social skills ▪ Language ▪ Business skills <p>Rewards Try to reward the entire team accomplishment</p> <p>Management As a manager, encourage groups to observe, evaluate and reinforce their own behaviour.</p>	<p>Combination of innovation, speed, quality that comes from early coordination among the various specialties.</p>	<p>Composition Don't overlook anyone.</p> <p>Superordinate goal Attractive outcome that can only be achieved via collaboration</p> <p>Physical proximity Located to each other to facilitate informal communication</p> <p>Autonomy Need authority to commit their function and autonomy from the firm.</p> <p>Rules Rules to avoid anarchy</p> <p>Leadership Team leaders need strong people skills in addition to task expertise.</p>	<p>Advantages</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Around-the-clock work (ex. You start in London, then New-York, San Francisco, Tokyo, you've work all day long) ▪ Reduced travel time and cost ▪ Larger talent pool <p>Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Trust (hard to develop between virtual members) ▪ Miscommunication (you don't have non-verbal cues to help you understand the message) ▪ Isolation ▪ High-cost ▪ Management issues



SOCIAL INFLUENCE, SOCIALIZATION AND CULTURE

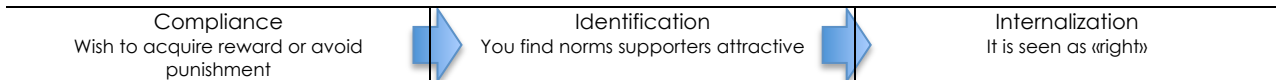
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SOCIAL INFLUENCE

Information dependence: rely on information that others can provide, which makes them able to influence us. We want to compare ourselves to receive adequacy about our behaviour

Effect dependence: 1. Group as a vested interest in how the member thinks
2. Member seek approval of the group

Motives for conformity:



ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION

Socialization	Proximal outcomes	Distal outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Job previews ▪ Orientation program ▪ Socialization tactics ▪ Mentoring 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Learning ▪ Task mastery ▪ Social integration ▪ Role conflict ▪ Role ambiguity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Job satisfaction ▪ Job commitment ▪ Organizational identification ▪ Organizational citizenship behaviour ▪ Job performance ▪ Stress ▪ Turnover
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Stages</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Anticipatory 2. Encounter <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Formal Orientation program Informal Getting to know and understand the style and personality of each other 3. Role management 	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Person-job fit</u> Match between employee knowledge and job requirements</p> <p style="text-align: center;">+</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Person-organization fit</u> Match between employee values and the firm's ones.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">=</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Organizational identification</u> Extend to which an individual defines himself in terms of the organization</p>

Methods of socialization

A. Realistic job previews

- a. Unrealistic expectations: stereotypes and overzealous recruiters are responsible
- b. Psychological contract: belief held by employee regarding reciprocal obligation and promises between them and the organization

B. Orientation programs

Introduce new employee to its job co-worker, there is an immediate effect on learning

C. Socialization tactics

1. Collective vs. individual Either in group or alone
2. Formal vs. informal it distinguishes newcomers from experienced ones with formal learning experiences.
3. Sequential vs. random clear sequence of steps or random tactic that lead to ambiguous or changing sequence.
4. Fixed vs. variable time table for the newcomer or in variable tactic, no time frame
5. Serial vs. disjunctive Newcomers are socialized by experienced workers. Disjunctive, no one to show them the ropes
6. Investiture vs. divestiture Divestiture means debasement, series of experiences designed to humble them and strip away some of their initial self-confidence.

D. Mentoring

- a. Career functions
 - Sponsorship
 - Exposure and visibility
 - Coaching and feedback
 - Development assignment
- b. Psychosocial functions
 - Role modelling
 - Provide acceptance and confirmation
 - Counselling

***in the exam**

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

CULTURE				
- Fairly stable over time because it involved basic values, beliefs - It represents the way of life - Involves internal (innovation, risk taking...) and external (putting the customer first) matter. - Strong impact on both organizational performance and member satisfaction				
STRONG CULTURE				
Beliefs, values and assumptions that make up the culture are both intense and pervasive across the organization.				
Key points	Assets	Liabilities	Contributors	Diagnosing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No need to be big ▪ Do not necessarily results in blind conformity ▪ Associated with greater success and effectiveness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Coordination It facilitates communication among each department. ▪ Conflict resolution Sharing core values can be powerful to resolve conflicts ▪ Financial success Growing consensus contribute to financial success when culture supports the mission, strategy and goals. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Resistance to change Mission, strategy and goals can change in response to external pressures. It can damage firm's ability to innovate. ▪ Culture clash When merger and acquisition happens, it can mix badly ▪ Pathology Culture can be pathological; they may be based on values, ex. Secrecy, paranoia... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Founder's role It sometimes reflects the founder beliefs. Senior management strongly shape firm's core values. ▪ Socialization <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Selecting employees 2. Debasement 3. Training in the trenches 4. Reward and promotion 5. Exposure to core culture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Symbols ▪ Rituals ▪ Stories

BEHAVIOUR OF LEADERS

Types	Definition	Consequences
Consideration	Extent to which a leader is approachable and shows personal concerns and respect employees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employees are under pressure due to deadline, unclear tasks and external threat; initiating structure increase performance and satisfaction When task itself is intrinsically satisfying, the need for high consideration and high structure decreases When goals and methods of performing are clear and certain <u>Consideration</u> = high employee satisfaction <u>Structure</u> = low satisfaction When employee lack of knowledge or job itself has vague goal <u>Consideration</u> = not important <u>Structure</u> = very important
Initiating structure	Degree to which a leader concentrate on group goal attainment.	

Types	Definition	Consequences
Leader reward behaviour	Provide employee with compliments, tangible benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employee should perform high level and have job satisfaction if reward are contingent on performance Contingent leader reward behaviour was found to be positively related to employees perceptions (trust), attitude (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and behaviour (effort, performance and OCB)
Leader punishment behaviour	Involves use of reprimands and withholding of raises and promotions	

SITUATIONAL THEORIES

*not in the exam (Fiedler's)

Fiedler's	Contingency theory	Association between leadership orientation and group effectiveness is contingent on the extent to which the situation is favourable. *Ref. to Least-preferred co-worker	<p>High LPC – relationship Maintain interpersonal relationships</p> <p>Low LPC – task oriented Accomplish the task</p>	<p>When LPC orientation should contribute to group effectiveness</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Leader-member relation Task structure Position power
	Cognitive resource theory	Condition in which a leader's cognitive resources (intelligence, expertise, experience) contribute to effective leadership		

House's Path-goal theory	Effective leader forms a connection between employee goals and organizational goals.	<p>Leader behaviour →</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Directive behaviour Leaders schedule work, maintain performance standards Supportive behaviour Friendly, approachable and concerned with interpersonal relationships Participative behaviour Consult with employees and consider their opinions Achievement behaviour Encourage employees to exert high effort and strive a high level of goal accomplishment 	<p><u>Situational factors</u></p> <p>Employee characteristics + Environmental factors</p> <p>= <u>Employee outcomes</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Job satisfaction Acceptance of leader effort

PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP

Minimum: obtaining employee's decisions	Means involving employees in making work-related decisions	Maximum: let employees make their own decision
<p>Advantage</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Motivation Participation increase motivation of employees Quality Two heads are better than one. Engineering, employees got more knowledge than their boss Acceptance Especially likely when fairness is involved 	<p>Problem</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Time and energy Involves specific behaviours (meetings, etc.) Loss of power Leaders may feel it reduces their power Lack of receptivity or knowledge Poor labour climate = employees will feel that have to carry the (management's work). 	

Vroom and Jago's theory	A autocratic C consultative G group	AI You solve the problem, make the decision yourself All You obtain information from employee, you then decide the solution by yourself.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More participation usually results in more job satisfaction. More employees seem to prefer a participation work environment.
	I individual II group involved	CI You share the problem with relevant employees, get their ideas, then make the decision. May or may not reflect employees influence. CII You share the problem with employees as a group get their ideas, then make the decision. May or may not reflect employees influence. GII Share the problem with the group, and you act as a chairperson.	

LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE THEORY

Focus on leader traits and behaviours. Over time and through the course of interactions, different types of relationships develop between leaders and employees.

HIGH LMX	LOW LMX
Leaders provide employees with challenging tasks and opportunities, greater latitude and discretion, task-related resources and recognition.	Low trust, respect, obligation and mutual support. Leaders provide less attention and latitude to employees. Employees only do what their job-descriptions and formal role requirements demand.

OTHERS LEADERSHIP THEORY

Transactional transformational		Ethical and authentic		Culture and global		Gender and Leadership
Transactional	Transformational	Ethical	Authentic	Implicit leadership theory	Global leadership	
Based on an exchange between leader and follower	Leaders have an impact/effect on followers by giving them vision and commitment to a project	Demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct (honesty, openness) through personal actions and interpersonal relationships.	Positive form of leadership that involves being true to one-self	Individual holds attribute and skills that contribute to outstanding leadership	Having leadership capabilities to function effectively in different cultures.	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Intellectual stimulation Individualized consideration Inspirational motivation Charisma 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communicate a clear and consistent positive ethics message Create and embrace opportunities for everyone Ensure consequences for ethical/unethical conduct 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-awareness Understanding of one's strength and weaknesses Relational transparency Presenting an authentic yourself Internalized moral perspective Being consistent with your internal values and standard Balanced processing Objective analysis of information before making decisions 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Cultural values Global dimensions <p>Charismatic/valu e-based Team-oriented Participative Humane-oriented Autonomous Self-protective</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Leadership profiles 	Facilitators Justice sense Ahead plan Motivate and encourage Team builder	Barriers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Vestiges of prejudice Resistance to women leaderships Issues of leadership style Demand of family life Underinvestment in social capital 	
					Impediments being asocial Being irritable Imposing views	
					Endorsement Take risks Conscious of status individualistic	

10 DECISION MAKING

Well-structured	Ill-structured
Existing state is clear + desired state is clear + problems are simple, solutions arouse little controversy = standardized way of solving a problem.	Existing and desired states are unclear and the method of getting to the desired state is unknown. Generally unique, have not been encountered before. Conflict and controversy arouse.

RATIONAL DECISION-MAKING MODEL

Perfect rationality	Bounded rationality
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gather information without cost 2. Is perfectly logical 3. Has criterion for decision making 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Limited to their capacity to acquire/process information 2. Time and political constraints

***Framing:** refers to aspect of the presentation of information about problems that are assumed by decision-makers.

***Cognitive biases:** tendencies to acquire and process information in a particular way that is prone to error.

Problem identification	Information search	Alternative development, evaluation and choice	Risky business	Solution implementation	Solution evaluation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Perceptual defence ▪ Problem defined in terms of functional specialty ▪ Problem defined in terms of solution ▪ Problem diagnosed in terms of symptoms 	<p>Too little information</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ We tend to remember recent, vivid events. ▪ Tendency to be overconfident about your decision <p>Too much information</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Information overload ▪ Errors, omissions, delays, cut corners. ▪ Association of power and being informed 	<p>Maximization</p> <p>Choice of the decision alternative with the greatest expected value.</p> <p>Anchoring effect</p> <p>Inadequate adjustment of subsequent estimates from an initial estimate that serves as an anchor.</p> <p>+ Avoid incorporating known existing data</p> <p>+ Large sample warrant more confident than small ones.</p> <p>+ Overestimation of odds of complex chains of events</p>	<p>Choice between losses = make risky decisions</p> <p>Choice between gains = conservation decisions</p> <p>Reference point</p>	<p>Sequential processes lead to confusion, conflict, delay unless cross-functional teams are used during decision-making process.</p>	<p>Justification</p> <p>Substantial dissonance can be aroused.</p> <p>Sunk costs</p> <p>Permanent losses of resources incurred as the result of decisions</p> <p>Escalation of commitment</p> <p>Devoting more and more resources to actions implied by decisions.</p> <p>Hindsight</p> <p>Tendency to review the decision-making process to find what was done right and wrong.</p>

HOW EMOTION AND MOOD AFFECT DECISION-MAKING

- **People don't like to be wrong**, they become emotionally attached to the failing course of action.
- **Emotionless decision-making** would be poor decision making.
- People in **positive mood** tend to remember positive information. The opposite does apply.
- People in **positive mood** tend to evaluate objects, people and events more positively. The opposite does apply.
- People in a **good mood** tend to overestimate the likelihood that good events will occur and underestimate the occurrence of bad events. The opposite does apply.
- People in a **good mood** adopt simplified, shortcut decision-making strategies, more likely violating the rational model.
- **Positive mood** promotes more creative, intuitive decision-making.

SUMMARY TABLE OF RATIONAL DECISION MAKING p. 340

GROUP DECISION MAKING

ADVANTAGES	DISAVANTAGES
<p>Decision quality</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Groups more vigilant ▪ Groups generate more ideas ▪ Groups can evaluate better <p>Acceptance and commitment</p> <p>People wish to be involve in the decision that will affect them</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ People will better understand a decision in which they participated ▪ People will be more committed to a decision in which they invested time/energy <p>Diffusion of responsibility</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Diffusion of responsibility in case of failure 	<p>Time</p> <p>Avoid the use of group when time is constraint</p> <p>Conflict</p> <p>Decision quality may take a back seat to political wrangling and infighting</p> <p>Domination</p> <p>A dominant person, particularly misinformed, group decision is very likely to be ineffective</p> <p>Groupthink</p> <p>Illusion of invulnerability (ignore danger signals) Rationalization (logical but improbable excuses) Illusion of morality (perceived morally correct) Stereotypes (of those outside the group) Self-censorship (avoid voicing contrary opinions) Mind guards (protecting the groups)</p>
<p>Groups should perform better when</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Members differ in skills - When division of labour occurs - Memory for facts is an issue 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Groups will taker riskier decisions than individuals because there is security numbers. ▪ Depending on your first opinion (either conservative or risky), you're fist impression will take a shift (more risky or conservative). ▪ Group discussion seems to polarize or exaggerate the initial position. ▪ Group discussion generates ideas and arguments that individual members have not considered before. ▪ Group members try to present themselves as basically similar to other members but (even better). 	

IMPROVE DECISION MAKING

1. State the problem in a non-defensive objective manner
2. Supply essential facts and clarify constraints
3. Draw out all groups members; prevent dominant of one person
4. Wait out pauses
5. Ask stimulating questions that move discussion forward.
6. Summarize and clarify at several points to mark progress.

BRAINSTORMING

*We focus on generating ideas rather than evaluation of ideas

Traditional	Electronic	Nominal group tech.	Delphi technique
<p>Increase the number of creative solution alternatives to problems by focusing on idea generation rather than evaluation</p>	<p>The use of computer-mediated technology to improve traditional brainstorming practices.</p>	<p>Structured group decision-making technique in which ideas are generated without group interaction and then systematically evaluated by the group</p>	<p>Method of pooling a large number of expert judgements by using a series of increasingly refined questionnaires.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ People generates more idea working independently ▪ In groups there might be inhibition ▪ Brainstorming shapes organizational culture and helps retain good talent. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Electronic groups perform better, tend to produce more ideas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Concerned with both generation and evaluation of ideas. ▪ Ideas are generated nominally (without interaction) ▪ Evaluation permits interaction and discussion ▪ A disadvantage would be the time and resources required 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Waves of questionnaires ▪ Provide information to decision-makers ▪ Lengthy time frame involved in the questionnaire phases ▪ Avoid the problem of conformity and domination that can occur in interacting groups

11

POWER, POLITICS AND ETHICS

WHAT IS POWER

POWER				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capacity to influence others who are in a state of dependence. It's not always perceived or exercised. The target of power is dependent on the powerholder does not imply that a poor relationship exists between the two. Power can flow in any direction in an organization 				
<u>Legitimate</u>	<u>Reward</u>	<u>Coercive</u>	<u>Referent</u>	<u>Expert</u>
<p>Derive's from a person's position or job in the organization.</p> <p>When legitimate power works, it often does so because people have been socialized to accept its influence.</p>	<p>Means that powerholder can exert influence by providing positive outcomes and preventing negative outcomes.</p>	<p>Available when the powerholder can exert influence using punishment and threat.</p>	<p>Exists when the powerholder is well liked by others.</p> <p>People we like readily influence us; we are prone to consider their points of view, ignore their failures.</p> <p>It stems from identification = deeper base of power.</p>	<p>When she has special information or expertise that the organization values.</p> <p>We tend to be influenced by experts or by those who perform well.</p> <p>Expertise is most consistently associated with employee effectiveness.</p>

HOW TO OBTAIN POWER

RIGHT THINGS	RIGHT PEOPLE
<p><u>Extraordinary activities</u> Establishing good relationships with the key people outside one's organization can lead to increased power within the organization.</p>	<p><u>Outsiders</u> Establishing good relationships with key people outside one's organization can lead to increased power within the organization.</p>
<p><u>Visible activities</u> Extraordinary activities will fail to generate power if no one knows about them</p>	<p><u>Subordinates</u> Cultivating relationships with subordinates and cultivating interests can enhance power.</p>
<p><u>Relevant activities</u> You will fail if no one cares. If nobody sees your work.</p>	<p><u>Peers</u> Cultivating good relationships with peers is mainly a means of ensuring that nothing gets in the way of one's future acquisition of power.</p>
	<p><u>Superiors</u> Liaisons with key superiors probably represent the best way of obtaining power through cultivating others. (mentors)</p>

EMPOWERMENT

Definition: giving people the authority, opportunity and motivation to take initiative and solve organizational problems.

- It fosters job satisfaction and high performance.
- Empowerment puts power where it is needed to make the organization effective.
- Excessive power can lead to abuse and ineffective performance.

INFLUENCE TACTICS

It converts power into actual influence.

- Assertiveness – ordering, nagging, setting deadlines
- Ingratiation – using flattery and acting friendly
- Rationality – using logic, reason, planning
- Exchange – doing favours
- Upward appeal – making formal and informal appeals to superiors
- Coalition formation – seeking united support from other members

MCCLELLAND POWER SEEKER THEORY

Institutional manager

1. Have high n Pow
2. Use their power to achieve organizational goals
3. Adopt a participative or coaching leadership style
4. Relatively unconcerned about how much others like them

Personal power managers

Use their power for personal gain

Affiliative managers

More concerned with being liked than with exercising power

CONTROLLING STRATEGIC CONTINGENCIES

Scarcity	Uncertainty	Centrality	Substitutability
Differences in subunit power are likely to be magnified when resources become scarce. Subunits tend to acquire power when they are able to secure scarce resources that are important to the organization as a whole.	Stands to reason that the subunits that are most capable of coping with uncertainty will tend to acquire power. Those functions can provide the organization with greater control over what it finds problematic and can create more certainty will acquire more power.	Subunits whose activities are most central to the workflow of the organization should acquire more power than those whose activities are more peripheral. Centrality also exists when unit has an especially crucial impact on the quantity or quality of the organization services.	If the subunit's staff is non-substitutable, however, it can acquire substantial power.

ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS

Pursuit of self-interest within an organization, whether or not this self-interest corresponds to organizational goals.

- Political activity is self-conscious and intentional.
- It is possible for political activity to have beneficial outcomes for the organization, even though these outcomes are achieved by questionable tactics.

Means	Ends	Organizational sanction	Not sanctioned by organization
Organizational sanction	Non-political Job behaviour	Organizational sanction	Organizational dysfunction Political behaviour
Not sanctioned by organization	Political behaviour potentially functional to the organization	Organizational dysfunction Political behaviour	Organizational dysfunction political behaviour

Common way to cover non-sanctioned means and ends with a cloak of rationality

- Managers report that most political manoeuvring occurs at middle and upper management levels rather than a lower levels
- Some units are more prone than others. Clear goals and routine tasks provoke less political activity than vague goals and complex tasks.
- Some issues are more likely than others to stimulate political activity.
- Scarce resources, uncertainty and important issues provoke political behaviour.

A - POLITICAL SKILLS

The ability to understand others at work and to use that knowledge to influence others to act ways that enhance one's personal or organizational objectives.

- Social astuteness – carefully observes people needs and motives, possess emotional intelligence and are active self-monitor.

- **Interpersonal influence** – convincing and persuasive interpersonal style but employ its flexibility to meet the needs of the situation.
- **Apparent sincerity** – exhibits high integrity to avoid being seen manipulative.
- **Networking ability** – establishing good relations with key organizational members.
 - Maintaining contacts
 - Socializing
 - Engaging in professional activities
 - Participating in community activities
 - Increasing internal visibility

B - MACHIAVELLIANISM

Set of cynical beliefs about human nature, morality, and the permissibility of using various tactics to achieve one's ends.

- Act very much in their own self-interest
- Cool and calculating
- High self-esteem and self-confidence
- Form alliances with powerful people

C – REACTIVE POLITICS

More reactive in that it concerns the defence or protection of self-esteem.

1. Stalling – moving slowly
2. Overconforming – sticking to the strict letter of your job description
3. Buck passing – having someone else take action to avoid doing it yourself
4. Buffing – carefully documenting information showing that an appropriate course of action was followed
5. Scapegoating – blaming others when things go wrong.

ETHICS

Themes	Causes of unethical behaviour	Harassment
Themes for typical ethical behaviour Honest communication Fair treatment Special consideration Fair competition Responsibility to organization Respect for law	Gain Role conflict Competition Personality Organizational culture	

12

CONFLICTS AND STRESS

CONFLICT

CONFLICT

Interpersonal conflict is a process that occurs when one person or group frustrates the goal attainment of another.

CAUSES	Group identification Even without interaction, people tend to develop a more positive view of their own in-group and less with out-group	Ambiguity Ambiguous performance criteria are a frequent cause of conflict between managers and employees.	Scarcity Limited budget, secretarial support or lab spaces contribute to conflict. It's a way of turning latent or disguised conflict into overt conflict.	Interdependence When individuals or units are dependant on each other to accomplish their own goals. It necessitates interaction between the parties so that they can coordinate interest. It implies each party has power over the other	Δ in power, culture, status Power: Dependence is not mutual but one-way. Culture: When more than 1 culture, clash of beliefs can occurs Status: Little impetus for conflict when people of lower status are dependent on those of higher status (we expect it)	
	TYPES	Relationship conflict Concerns interpersonal tension among individuals that have to do with their relationship per se, not the task at hand.		Task conflict Concerns disagreements about the nature of the task, the work to be done.		Process conflict Involves disagreements about how work should be organized and accomplished.
DYNAMICS	Winning (over a good solution)	Information concealed/ distorted	Sides become more cohesive	Contact with opposite side is discouraged	Other group is negatively stereotyped, and vice-versa	More aggressive people emerge as leader.



MANAGING CONFLICT

AVOIDING	ACCOMMODATING	COMPETING	COMPROMISE	COLLABORATING
Low assertiveness of one's own interests and low cooperation with the other party. Hiding the head in the sand.	Cooperation with the other party wishes while not asserting one's own interests.	Maximize assertiveness for your own position and minimize cooperative responses.	Combines intermediate levels of assertiveness and cooperation. Place a premium on determining rules of exchange between the two parties.	Both assertiveness and cooperation are maximised in the hope that an integrative agreement occurs that fully satisfies the interests of both part.

OR
NEGOTIATING

DISTRIBUTIVE NEGOTIATION TACTICS	INTEGRATIVE NEGOTIATION TACTICS	THIRD PARTY INVOLVEMENT
Threat and promises	Copious information exchange	
Firmness vs. concessions	Framing differences as opportunities	
persuasion	Cutting costs	
	Increasing resources	
	Introducing superordinate goals	

STRESS ALSO COVERED IN THE EXAM