

L02.1 Define *personality* and discuss its general role in influencing organizational behaviour.

Personality: characteristics that help to influence the way an individual interacts, feels, thinks and behaves

Dimensions and traits that are determined by genetic predisposition and one's long-term learning history

L02.2 Describe the *dispositional, situational, and interactionist* approach to organizational behaviour and *trait activation theory*.

The Dispositional Approach:

You DO based on WHO YOU ARE

You possess certain traits that influence your attitude and behaviour

The situational Approach:

You DO based on WHERE YOU ARE, and WHATS DONE TO YOU

Characteristics based on external situations and intervention such as Rewards and Punishments

The Interactionist Approach:

Individuals' attitudes and behaviour are a function of **both** internal dispositions **and** the external situation

Situations:

In **weak** situations, roles are loosely defined, there are few rules and weak reinforcement and punishment contingencies

- Personality has the strongest effect in weak situations

In **strong** situations, the roles, rules, and contingencies are more defined

- Personality has less of an impact in strong situations

Trait Activation Theory

Traits lead to certain behaviours **only** when the situation makes the need for the trait **salient**

- You won't display a particular trait until the *situation* requires it

L02.3 Discuss the *Five-Factor Model* of personality.

The "BIG 5":

Extraversion	Emotional Stability	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Openness to Experience
Sociable, Talkative vs. Withdrawn, Shy	Stable, Confident vs. Depressed, Anxious	Tolerant, Cooperative vs. Cold, Rude	Dependable, Responsible vs. Careless, Impulsive	Curious, Original vs. Dull, Unimaginative

Extraversion: Important for jobs that require sociability/ ambition/assertiveness

Emotional Stability: Persons high on emotional stability will have more effective interactions with co-workers and customers, as they tend to be more calm and secure

Agreeability: Contributes to performance in jobs that require interactions/ helping/ nurturing others/ teamwork

Conscientiousness: Important for job performance on most jobs given the tendency towards hard work and achievement

Openness to Experience: Important for jobs that involve learning and creativity

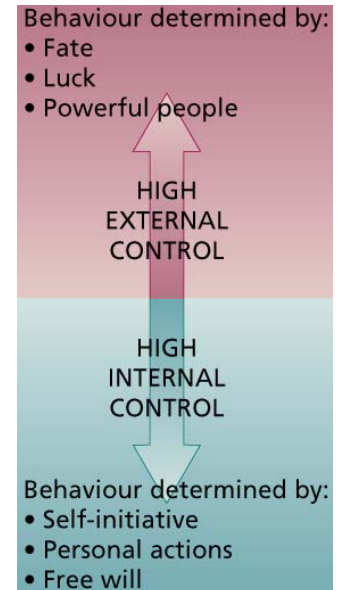
L02.4 Describe and discuss the consequences of *locus of control*, *self-monitoring*, and *self-esteem*.

Locus of Control: A set of beliefs about whether one's behaviour is controlled mainly by **internal** or **external** factors

Internals:

- are more satisfied with their jobs
- are more committed to their organization
- earn more money
- achieve higher organizational positions

- perceive less stress
- cope with stress better
- experience less burnout
- engage in more careful career planning
- are less likely to be absent from work
- are more satisfied with their lives



Self-Monitoring: The extent to which people observe and regulate how they appear and behave in social settings and relationships

High self-monitors:

- take great care to observe and control the images that they project
- show concern for socially appropriate emotions and behaviours
- tune into social and interpersonal cues
- gravitate to jobs that require role-playing and the use of their self-presentation skills
- are more involved in their jobs, perform better, and are more likely to emerge as leaders

Self-Esteem: The degree to which a person has a positive self-evaluation

People with **low** self-esteem:

- tend to be more susceptible to external and social influences
 - This is known as **behavioural plasticity theory**
- tend to react badly to negative feedback
 - it lowers their subsequent performance
- do not react well to ambiguous and stressful situations

People with **high** self-esteem:

- tend to make more fulfilling career decisions
- exhibit higher job satisfaction and job performance
- are generally more resilient to the strains of everyday work life

Organizations can bolster self-esteem by providing opportunities for:

- Participation
- Autonomy
- Interesting work

L02.5 Define learning and describe what is learned in organizations.

Learning Occurs when practice and experience leads to a permanent change in behaviour potential

Employees Learn:

- . Practical: specific job skills, technical competence
- . Intrapersonal: critical thinking
- . Interpersonal: interactive skills , communicating
- . Cultural Awareness: social norms of organizations, company goals

Two theories on how to Learn:

- . Operant Learning Theory (LO 2.6)
- . Social Cognitive Theory (LO 2.9)

L02.6 Explain operant learning theory and differentiate between positive and negative reinforcements.

Operant learned behaviour is controlled by the consequences that follow it, it's the connection between behaviour and consequence

Reinforcement is the process by which stimuli strengthens behaviour

A reinforce is a stimulus that follows some behaviour and increases or maintains the probability of that behaviour.

- Positive reinforcers work by their application to a situation
- Negative reinforcers work by their removal from a situation.

Two important sources of reinforcement:

- . Performance feedback → Providing quantitative or qualitative feedback for past performance for the purpose of changing performance in a specific way
- . Social recognition → Involves informal acknowledgement, attention, praise, approval, or genuine appreciation for work well done from one individual or group to another

L02.7 Explain when to use immediate versus delayed reinforcement and when to use continuous versus partial reinforcement.

Reinforcement can be:

- . Continuous versus partial
- . Immediate versus delayed

- For fast acquisition of some response, *continuous* and *immediate* reinforcement should be used
- Behaviour tends to be persistent when it is learned under conditions of *partial* and *delayed* reinforcement.



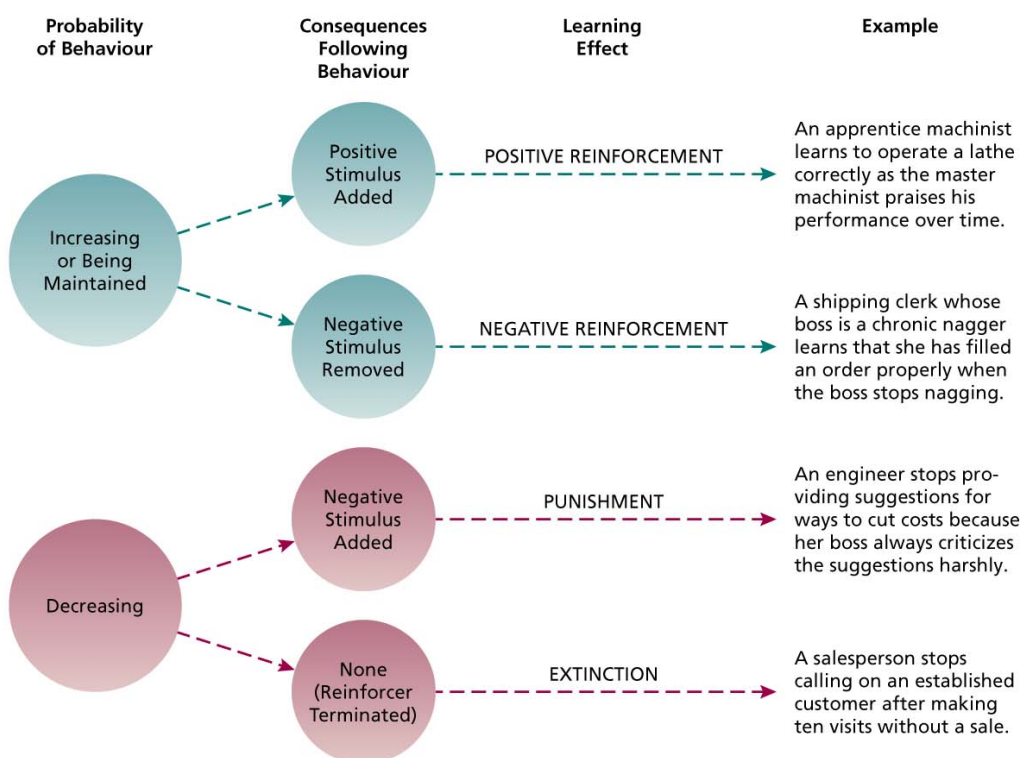
L02.8 Distinguish between extinction and punishment and explain how to use punishment effectively.

Bad behaviours can be detrimental to the operation of an organization, and need to be reduced/eliminated.

2 Strategies:

. Extinction → The gradual dissipation of behaviour following the termination of reinforcement, If the behaviour is not reinforced, it will gradually dissipate or be extinguished

. Punishment → The *application* of an aversive stimulus *following* unwanted behaviour to *decrease* the probability of that behaviour



“Punishment” is *not* the same as “negative reinforcement”

- Negative reinforcement involves *removing* a stimulus to *increase* a behaviour
- Punishment involves *applying* a stimulus to *reduce* a behaviour

Problem with punishment:

- . It only indicates what is not appropriate
- . It may prove strong emotional reaction
- . Only temporarily suppresses the unwanted behavior,

L02.9 Explain social cognitive theory and discuss observational learning, self-efficacy beliefs, and self-regulation.

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT): People can regulate their own behaviour by:

- **thinking** about the consequences of their actions
- setting **performance goals**
- **monitoring** performance
- rewarding **themselves** for goal accomplishment

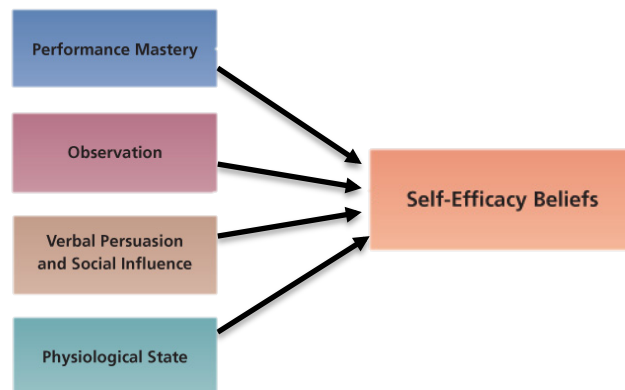
3 Component of SCT:

1. Observational learning:

- The process of observing and imitating the behaviour of others

2. Self-efficacy beliefs:

- Beliefs people have about their ability to successfully perform a specific task
- It is a cognitive belief that can be changed and modified in response to different sources of information



3. Self-regulation:

The use of learning principles to regulate one's own behaviour

- It involves
 1. observing one's own behaviour
 2. comparing it to a standard
 3. rewarding oneself when behaviour meets the standard

Discrepancy reduction and *discrepancy production* lie at the heart of the self-regulatory process

Discrepancy reduction → A discrepancy between one's goals and performance motivates behaviour change

Discrepancy production → When individuals attain their goals they are likely to set higher and more challenging goals

L03.1 Define *perception* and discuss some of the general factors that influence perception.

Perception: the process of interpreting the message through our senses to provide meaning to the environment

3 Components of Perception:

1. A Perceiver:

- . *Past experiences* lead to expectation that effects perception
- . *Needs* unconsciously influence perception as it causes us to perceive what we wish to perceive
- . *Emotions* can influence our perception

Perceptual Defence: the tendency for the perceiver's perceptual system to defend the perceiver against unpleasant emotions. (we hear only what we want to hear)

2. A target :

- . Ambiguous targets are susceptible to interpretation and the addition of meaning. (perceivers have the need to resolve ambiguities) → we assume shit about people that we don't know about them, cause humans suck.

3. Situational context:

- . Social Identity Theory: Our sense of self is composed of a personal identity and a social identity.
- . Personal Identity is based on our unique personal characteristics
- . Social Identity is based on our perception that belong to various social groups
- . We categorise ourselves and others to make sense of our social environment → Prototypes
- . Members are put in these groups having the most typical attributes of that category

L03.2 Describe *Bruner's model* of the perceptual process.

- The perceiver, when encountering an unfamiliar target, is very open to the informational cues in the target and the situation
- The perceiver will actively seek out cues to resolve ambiguity
- As the perceiver encounters some familiar cues, a basic categorization of the target is made
- As the categorization becomes stronger, the perceiver will ignore or even distort cues that violate initial perceptions

Model	Example
Unfamiliar target encountered	New co-worker
↓	↓
Openness to target cues	Observation; search for information
↓	↓
Familiar cues encountered	Co-worker is Stanford graduate with good grades
↓	↓
Target categorized	Co-worker is "good man" with "great potential"
↓	↓
Cue selectivity	Co-worker's poor performance ignored or distorted
↓	↓
Categorization strengthened	Co-worker is still "good man" with "great potential"

3 Characteristics of the perceptual Process:

1. Perceptual selectivity:

. Perceivers do not use all of the available cues, and those they do use are given special emphasis

2. Perceptual Constancy :

. The tendency for the target to be perceived in the same way over time and across situations (like a shitty first date experience → you will always see her as a crazy bish)

3. Perceptual Consistency:

. The tendency to select, ignore, and distort cues so that they fit together to form a homogenous picture of the target

L03.3 Describe the main biases in person perception.

The impressions we form of others are susceptible to a number of perceptual biases:

– Primacy and recency effects:

Primary Effect → Reliance on early cues and first impression can have a lasting impact (illustrates operation of constancy)

Recency Effect → The tendency for a perceiver to give disproportionate weight to *recent* cues or *last* impressions

– Reliance on central traits:

. Central traits are personal characteristics of a target person that are of particular interest to a perceiver → they have very powerful influence on our perception

. EG → Physical appearance (pretty girls = more free drinks/more job opportunities)

– Implicit personality theories:

. This is our personal theories about which personality characteristics go together

. EG → Average intelligence = more friendly than smarter people

. EG → Hardworking people = more honest individuals.

. This shit can cause mad misunderstanding of peoples characters

– Projection:

. A “quick and dirty” assessment tool → the tendency for perceivers to attribute their own thoughts and feelings to others

. Can serve as a form of “perceptual defence” (LO 3.1)

– Stereotyping:

. The tendency to generalize about people in a social category and ignore variations among them

. We distinguish some category of people → we assume individuals in this category have certain traits → we perceive everyone in this category posses these traits

. EG → All Arabs are terrorists

. EG → All Asians are good at calculus

. EG → All Black people can ball

L04.1 Define *values* and discuss the implications of cross-cultural variation in values for organizational behaviour.

- . Values: what we consider good or bad → they are motivational: how we believe we should/should not act
- . Different generations have different values that might underlie differential workplace asset and preferences for leadership type
- . A lack of understanding of cross-cultural differences can cause foreign assignments to terminate early and business negotiations to fail

Hofstede and Bond's Research → this dude researched over 115,000 IBM employees in 40 different countries

- He discovered four basic dimensions along which work-related values differed across cultures:

- Power distance:

- . Extent to which an unequal distribution of power is accepted by society members
- . Large → more hierarchy
- . Small → more equality

- Uncertainty avoidance:

- . Extent to which people are uncomfortable with uncertain and ambiguous situations
- . Strong → value hard work // rules // conformity // security
- . Weak → don't value hard work as central virtue // value risk taking

- Masculinity/femininity:

- . Masculine Cultures → clear gender roles // dominance of men // stress economic performance
- . Feminine Cultures → fluid gender roles // sexual equality // stress quality of life

- Individualism/collectivism:

- . Individualistic societies → stress independence // individual initiative // privacy
- . Collective cultures → stress interdependence // loyalty to family or clan

- Long-term/Short-term Orientation

Long Term Orientation → Direct: right to the point, no wasted time

Short Term Orientation → Social: priority is good relationship, and then work

- . Exporting OB Theories → Organizational behaviour theories, research, and practices from North America might not translate well to other societies
- . Importing OB Theories → Not all OB theories and practices are designed in North America or even in the West

Appreciating / Developing Global Cultures → basically you gotta translate management practices to deal with the values of different culture's so you can all work well together without beef → you do this by training and developing employees to have an appreciation of difference in culture.



L04.2 Define *attitudes* and explain how people develop and change attitudes.

- . An *attitude* is a fairly stable, evaluative tendency to respond consistently to some specific object, situation, person, or category of people
- . Attitudes involve *evaluations* directed toward *specific* targets
- . Attitudes often influence our behaviour toward some object, situation, person, or group
- . Attitudes are a function of what we think and what we feel
- . Belief + Value → Attitude → Behaviour

- . Two examples of attitudes that have an impact on Organizational Behaviour are:
 1. Job Satisfaction
 2. Organizational Commitment

L04.3 Explain the concept of *job satisfaction* and discuss some of its key contributors, including discrepancy, fairness, disposition, mood, and emotion.

Two aspects of satisfaction:

- Facet Satisfaction: → Tendency for an employee to be more or less satisfied with various aspects of the job
- Overall Satisfaction: → It is an average or total of the attitudes individuals hold toward various facets of the job

A popular measure of job satisfaction is the *Job Descriptive Index (JDI)* → It is designed around five facets of satisfaction:

1. People
2. Pay
3. Supervision
4. Promotion
5. The work itself

Job satisfaction is a function of:

- Discrepancy between the job outcomes a person wants and the outcomes received:
 - . What we expect to get, compared to what we actually get
 - . EG → You'll have high pay satisfaction if there is a small gap between the amount you are paid and the amount you think you merit.
- Fairness and equity:
 - . 3 basic kinds of fairness:
 - Distributive fairness:
 - . How we determine what constitutes a fair outcome
 - . Equity Theory: comparison of your inputs and their resulting outcomes, to the inputs and resulting outcomes of another person/group.
 - . Inequity is a dissatisfying state, especially when we are on the “short end of the stick”
 - Procedural fairness:
 - . Fairness perceived when the *process* used to determine work outcomes is seen as reasonable
 - . It is concerned with *how* outcomes are decided and allocated

- Interactional fairness:

. Fairness perceived when people feel that they have received *respectful and informative communication* about an outcome

. Treated fairly → not being discriminated against (EG: Prof only replies to girls emails)

- Dispositional factors:

. Some personality characteristics originating in genetics or early learning contribute to adult job satisfaction

. EG → People who are extraverted and conscientious tend to be more satisfied with their jobs

. EG → Those high in neuroticism are less satisfied

- Mood and emotion:

. Affect → a broad label for feelings that includes emotions and moods

. Emotion → intense/ short lived

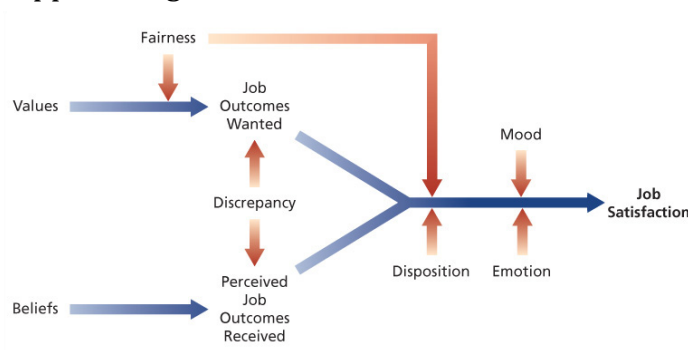
. Mood → not intense/ last longer

. Affective Events Theory: Jobs consist of series of events that have potential to provoke emotions and influence moods.

. Emotional Contagion: Tendency of moods and emotions to spread between people or through groups → we look at other people for social cues (laughter at the theatre)

. Emotional Regulation: Social rules established of which emotions are expected to be displayed → like lawyers have to be formal // customer service must be nice and happy

. Emotional Labor: In some jobs, employees must exaggerate positive emotions while in others they must suppress negative emotions



L04.4 Explain the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism, turnover, performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, and customer satisfaction.

5 Consequences of Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction:

Absence from work:

. If they aren't happy with the job, they are more likely to call in sick

. Attendance control policies can force you to use unused sick days for pleasure

. Having a chill manager will make it easier to skip work, because you have more opportunity to be a reckless c*nt.

Turnover:

- . Less satisfied workers are more likely to quit → find a more satisfying job environment
- . Shocks (deal breakers) can stimulate turnover, despite satisfaction with current job
- . Employee embedded in the community → willing to endure shitty job than leaving it
- . Weak job markets might force employee to stay even though they aren't happy and shit
- . Honeymoon Hangover Effect → your job satisfaction starts to plummet when you realize it's the same shit, but different toilet.

Performance:

- . Employees perform better when satisfied → satisfaction is mainly based on the type of work → the more complex/challenging it is, the more engage the employee is
- . Good performance is followed by reward → higher job performance

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCBkingsize):

- . OCB is voluntary, informal behaviour that contributes to organizational effectiveness
- . It's the attitude in the workplace → the more people that display positive vibes → the better the companies workforce performs → (MajorKeyAlert) → negative vibes kill.

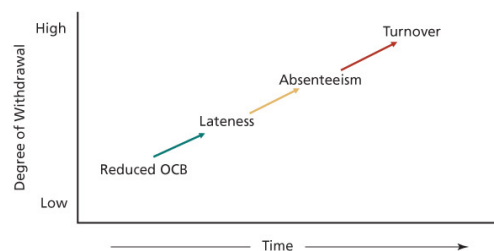
Customer satisfaction and profit:

- . More satisfied workers = more satisfied customers/clients
- . Reduced absenteeism and turnover contribute to the seamless delivery of service
- . OCBs stimulate good teamwork
- . A good mood among employees can be contagious for customers

Progression of Withdrawal (stages):

Job Dissatisfaction → Progression of Withdrawal →

Employees withdraw attention and work effort to compensate the dissatisfaction → Withdrawal starts with reduction in OCB → Then showing up late → Then Absenteeism increases → Followed by more turnover → Extremely expensive to save companies ass → Absolutely Fucked M8.



L04.5 Differentiate affective, continuance, and normative commitment and explain how organizations can foster organizational commitment.

. OC: An attitude that reflects the strength of the linkage between an employee and an organization

There are three very different types of organizational commitment:

– Affective commitment:

- . Commitment based on a person's identification and involvement with an organization
- . High Affective Commitment → they stay because they *want to* → *work is interesting/ satisfying/ enriching*

– Continuance commitment:

- . Commitment based on the costs that would be incurred in leaving an organization
- . High Continuance Commitment → they stay because they *have to* → *too costly to leave*

– Normative commitment:

- . Commitment based on ideology or a feeling of obligation to an organization
- . High normative commitment → they stay because they think that they *should* do so
- . They strongly identify themselves with the organization product/service
- . They received benefits that built a sense of obligation to the organization

Consequences of Organizational Commitment:

- . Affective commitment is positively related to performance
- . Continuance commitment is *negatively* related to performance
- . An especially bad combination for both the employee and the organization is high continuance commitment coupled with low affective commitment

DOWNSIDE:

- . Very high levels of commitment can cause conflicts between family life and work life
- . High levels of commitment have often been implicated in unethical and illegal behaviour
- . High levels of commitment to a particular *form* or *style* of organization can cause a lack of innovation and lead to resistance when a change in culture is necessary

Impact of changes in the workplace:

- Changes in the *nature* of employees' commitment to the organization:

- . Maintaining high levels of affective commitment will be especially challenging
- . Changes that are made in the organization's best interest but that are detrimental to employees' well being are most likely to damage affective commitment

- Changes in the *focus* of employees' commitment:

- . Employees have multiple commitments to others within and outside the organization
- . The focus of employees' commitment may change as a consequence of workplace changes
- . Changes that threaten employees' future in the organization might result in a shift in commitment to entities outside the organization

- Changes in the *multiplicity* of employer-employee relationships within organizations:

- . Organizations need to be flexible enough to shrink and expand their workforce
- . This requires different relationships with employee groups
- . Core employees who perform the key tasks required for organizational success should have high affective commitment
- . High affective commitment is less important for employee groups that do not perform core tasks

L05.1 Define *motivation*, discuss its basic properties, and distinguish it from *performance*

Motivation: is the extent to which persistent effort is directed towards a goal

Basic Characteristics:

Effort → amount of energy/dedication and strength exhibited on the work

Persistence → the endurance individual exhibits in applying the effort

Direction → the extent to which workers channel their persistent effort in a direction that benefits the organization

Goals → what you set out to achieve

L05.2 Compare and contrast *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation and describe *self-determination theory*, *autonomous motivation*, and *controlled motivation*

Extrinsic motivation: Motivation that stems from the work environment external to the task and is usually applied by others (EG → pay/benefits)

Intrinsic motivation: Motivation that stems from the direct relationship between the worker and the task and is usually self-applied (EG → Feeling of achievement)

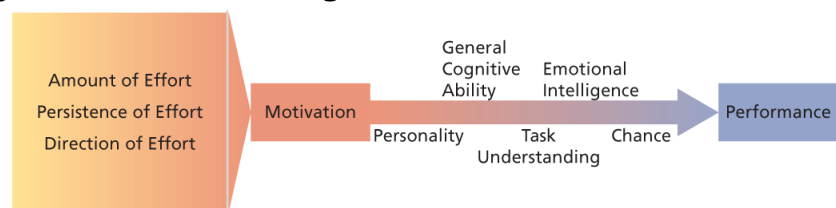
Self-determination theory: A theory of motivation that considers whether peoples motivation is autonomous or controlled

Autonomous motivation: People are self-motivated by intrinsic factors

Controlled motivation: Occurs when people are motivated to obtain a desired consequence or extrinsic reward

L05.3 Explain and discuss the different factors that predict *performance* and define *general cognitive ability* and *emotional intelligence*

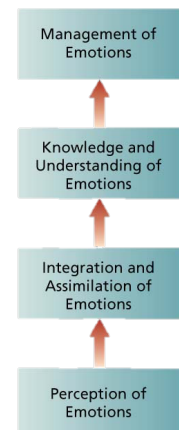
Performance refers to the extent to which an individual contributes to achieving the objectives of the organization



General cognitive Ability: overall how capable are you of efficiently processing and interpreting information (how smart are you)

Emotional Intelligence (EI): The ability to understand and manage one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions

1. Perceiving Emotions Accurately in Oneself and Others
2. Using Emotions to Facilitate Thinking
3. Understanding Emotions, Emotional Language, and the Signals Conveyed by Emotions
4. Managing Emotions to Attain Specific Goals



L05.4 Explain and discuss McClelland's needs theory of motivation

Needs: reflect relatively stable personality characteristics

Three specific needs drive behavioural outcomes:

- Achievement: A strong desire to perform challenging tasks well
 - tendency to **set moderately difficult goals**
 - **personal responsibility** can be taken for outcomes
- Affiliation: A strong desire to establish and maintain friendly, compatible *interpersonal relationships*
 - **tendency to communicate** frequently with others
 - prefer to **avoid conflict and competition**
- Power: A strong desire to **influence others**, making a significant impact or impression
 - seek out social settings in which they can be influential

Managerial Implications of Need Theories: Effective management requires two key attributes to be motivational for employees:

- Appreciation of Diversity: Offer incentives or goals that correspond to a diversity of employee needs
- Appreciation of intrinsic motivation: Be aware of the motivational potential of intrinsic motivators and the existence of higher-order needs

L05.5 Explain and discuss expectancy theory

Components of Victor Vroom's hypothetical expectancy theory:

. Outcomes: Consequences that follow certain work behaviors

First-level outcomes are of particular interest to the organization (e.g., high vs. average productivity)

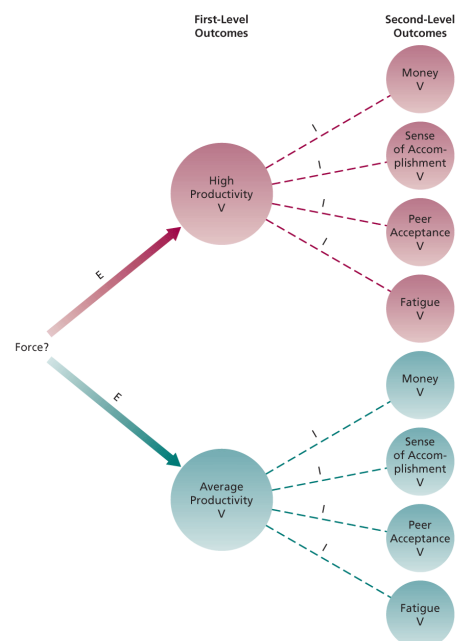
Second-level outcomes are consequences that follow the attainment of a particular first-level outcome

. Instrumentality: The expected probability that a second level outcome follows a first level outcome

. Valence: extent to which a given outcome is attractive or unattractive to the individual
The valence of a particular first-level outcome

=

$$\sum \text{instrumentalities} \times \text{second-level valences}$$



. Expectancy: The **expected probability** that the worker can actually achieve a particular first-level outcome, for example:

. Force: It represents the relative degree of effort that will be directed toward various first-level outcomes → $Force = first\text{-level valence} \times expectancy$

Managerial Implications of Expectancy Theory

. Boost expectancies: Ensure that employees expect to be able to achieve first-level outcomes that are of interest to the organization

. Clarify reward contingencies: Employees must be convinced that first-level outcomes are clearly *instrumental* in obtaining positive second-level outcomes and avoiding negative outcomes

. Appreciate diverse needs: Managers should analyze the diverse preferences of employees and attempt to design individualized “motivational packages” to meet their needs

L05.6 Explain and discuss equity theory

Equity Theory: explains job satisfaction through a *comparison process* of inputs and outcomes

- 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 or group

L05.7 Explain and discuss goal setting theory

A process theory that states that goals are motivational when they are **specific**, **challenging**, and when organizational members are **committed** to them and **feedback** about progress toward goal attainment is provided.

Four mechanisms explain why goals are motivational:

- They *direct* attention toward goal-relevant activities.
- They lead to greater *effort*.
- They increase and prolong *persistence*.
- They lead to the discovery and use of task-relevant *strategies* for goal attainment.

L05.8 Discuss the cross-cultural limitations of theories of motivation

. Equity theory will be constrained by what is considered “fair” in a particular culture in terms of how to allocate rewards

. Because of its flexibility, expectancy theory is very effective when applied cross-culturally. Setting specific and challenging goals should be motivational when applied cross-culturally.

. For goal setting to be effective, the goal setting process must be adjusted to the culture (e.g., individual goals in individualistic cultures, group goals in collective cultures).

L06.1 Money as a motivator

- Pay may well be the most important and effective motivator of performance

L06.2 Job design as a motivator

- The goal of job design is to identify the characteristics that make some tasks more motivating than others and to capture these characteristics in the design of jobs

Job scope : refers to the breadth and depth of a job:

- **Breadth** refers to the number of different activities performed on the job
- **Depth** refers to the degree of discretion or control the worker has over how these tasks are performed

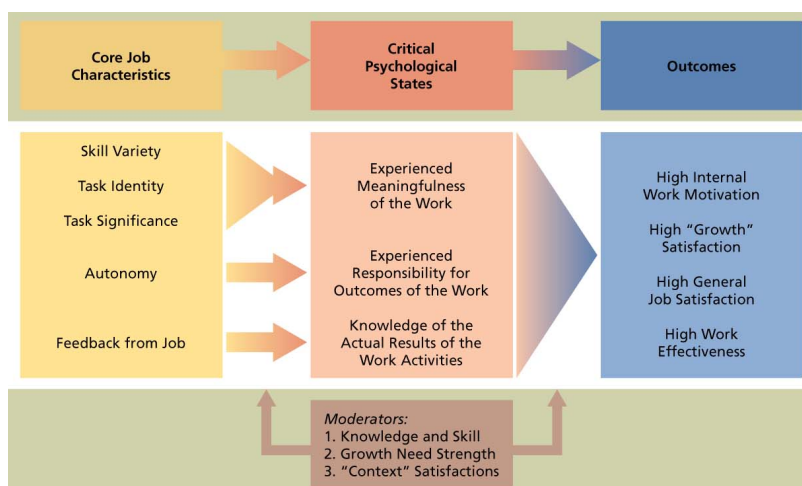
Scientific Management:

- Jobs designed according to the principles of scientific management are not intrinsically motivating
- The motivational strategies consisted of close supervision and piece-rate pay
- Simplification helped workers achieve a reasonable standard of living

Increasing Job Scope:

- **Stretch Assignments** = Provide employees challenging opportunities to broaden their skills by working on a variety of tasks with new responsibilities
- **Job Rotation** = Provides a variety of challenging assignments, develops new skills and expertise, and prepares employees for future roles

L06.3 Describe the details of the *Job Characteristics Model*



2. Autonomy

The freedom to schedule one's own work activities and decide work procedures

3. Task Significance

The impact that a job has on other people

4. Task Identity

The extent to which a job involves doing a complete piece of work, from beginning to end

Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) = A questionnaire to measure the core job characteristics

Critical Psychological States : Jobs that are higher on the core job characteristics are more intrinsically motivating because of their effect on three psychological states:

- . Experienced **meaningfulness** of the work
- . Experienced **responsibility** for outcomes of the work
- . **Knowledge** of the actual results of the work activities

Moderators

1. Job-relevant knowledge and skill of the worker
2. Growth need strength → the extent to which people desire to achieve higher-order need satisfaction by performing their jobs
3. Workers who are dissatisfied with the context factors that surround their job (e.g., pay) will be less responsive to challenging work than those who are reasonably satisfied with context factors

L06.4 Discuss the motivational properties of job enrichment

Job Involvement: A cognitive state of psychological identification with one's job and the importance of work to one's total self-image

Job Enrichment Procedure:

- . Combining tasks
- . Establishing external client relationships
- . Establishing internal client relationships
- . Reducing supervision or reliance on others
- . Forming work teams
- . Making feedback more direct

Problems with Job Enrichment

- . Poor diagnosis
- . Lack of desire or skill
- . Demand for rewards
- . Union resistance
- . Supervisory resistance

L06.5 Understand the connection between goal setting and Management by Objectives

- . Objectives for the organization as a whole are developed by top management and diffused down through the organization
- . Organizational objectives are translated into specific behavioural objectives for individual members

MBO manager-employee interactions:

- . The manager meets with individual workers to develop and agree on employee objectives which can include job performance and personal development objectives*
- . There are periodic meetings to monitor employee progress in achieving objectives*
- . An appraisal meeting is held to evaluate the extent to which the agreed upon objectives have been achieved*
- . The MBO cycle is repeated*

Research Evidence for MBO

- . Lack of commitment from top management*
- . Overemphasis on measurable objectives at the expense of more qualitative objectives*
- . Excessive short-term orientation*
- . Performance review that becomes an exercise in punishing employees for failure to meet objectives*

L06.6 Explain how alternative work schedules respect employee diversity

Alternative working schedules can facilitate recruitment and reduce absenteeism and turnover. The most common alternative working schedules:

- **Flex-time**: An alternative work schedule in which arrival and quitting times are flexible
- **Compressed workweek** : Alternative work schedule in which employees work fewer than the normal five days a week but still put in a normal number of hours per week (40hrs in 4 days)
- **Job and work sharing**: In *Job Sharing*, two part-time employees divide the work of a full-time job. In *Work Sharing*, the number of hours employees work is reduced to avoid layoffs when there is a reduction in normal business activity
- **Telecommuting**: Employees are able to work at home but stay in touch with their offices through the use of communications technology

L07.1 Discuss group development

Interdependence means that group members rely to some degree on each other to accomplish goals

Formal Work Groups = Groups established by organizations to facilitate the achievement of organizational goals

. **Task forces** and project teams are *temporary* groups that meet to achieve particular goals or to solve particular problems

. **Committees** are usually *permanent* groups that handle recurrent assignments outside the usual work group structures

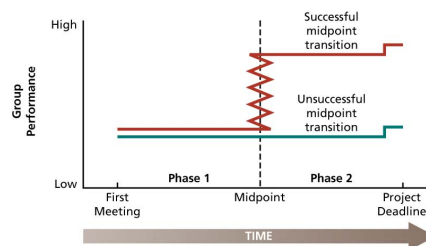
Informal Groups: Groups that emerge naturally in response to the common interests of organizational members

Stages of Group Development:

1. **Forming** : Group members try to orient themselves by “testing the waters”
2. **Storming**: Confrontation and criticism may develop as members determine whether they will go along with the way the group is developing
3. **Norming**: Members resolve the issues that provoked the storming, and they develop social consensus
4. **Performing**: The group devotes its energies toward task accomplishment
5. **Adjourning**: Rites and rituals that affirm the group’s previous successful development are common (such as ceremonies and parties)

Punctuated Equilibrium Model

1. **Phase 1**: Begins with the first meeting and continues until the midpoint in the group’s existence
2. **Midpoint Transition**: Groups get together and consider improvement/change to their approach
3. **Phase 3**: It concludes with a final meeting that reveals a burst of activity and a concern for how outsiders will evaluate the product



L07.2 Explain how group size and member diversity influence what occurs in groups

. Members of larger groups consistently report less satisfaction with group membership than those in smaller groups

. The chance to work on and develop friendships decrease as size increases

Three types of group tasks (I.D. Steiner, 1972):

Additive tasks: Members each contribute individually, and those individual contributions are then added together for the greater output of the group.

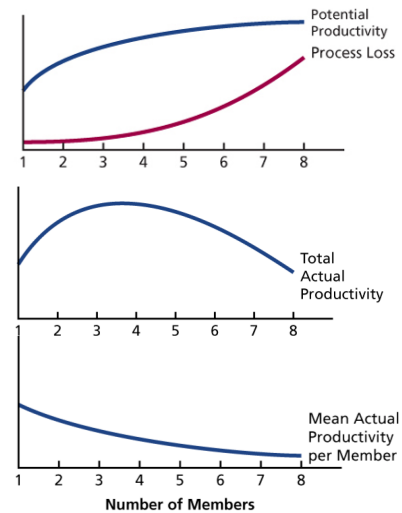
. Group performance is dependent on the *sum* of the performance of individual group members. Performance increases with size.

Disjunctive tasks: Tasks in which group members determine a single solution for the entire group.
 . Group performance is dependent on the performance of the *best* group member. Performance increases with size.

Process losses: are performance difficulties that stem from the problems of motivating and coordinating larger groups

Actual performance =
 Potential performance – Process losses

Conjunctive tasks: Tasks in which *all* group members must contribute to complete the task.
 . Group performance is limited by the performance of the *poorest* group member. As size increase, probability for having the weakest link increases



. In general, any negative effects of “surface diversity” in age, gender, or race seem to wear off over time
 . “Deep diversity” in attitudes toward work or how to accomplish a goal can badly damage cohesiveness

L07.3 Review how *norms* affect social interaction

Group Norms:

. Social *norms* are collective expectations that members of social units have regarding the behaviour of each other
 . They are codes of conduct that specify the standards against which we evaluate the appropriateness of behaviour

. Groups have a range of rewards and punishments available to induce conformity to norms

L07.4 Discuss the causes and consequences of *group cohesiveness*

Group Cohesiveness: Refers to the degree to which a group is especially attractive to its members

Factors Influencing Group Cohesiveness:

- . ***Threat and competition:*** External threat to the survival of the group increases cohesiveness
- . ***Success:*** Groups are more cohesive when they accomplish important goals together
- . ***Member diversity:*** Groups that are diverse in terms of gender, age, and race can have a harder time becoming cohesive than more homogeneous groups
- . ***Group size:*** Larger groups have a more difficult time becoming and staying cohesive
- . ***Toughness of initiation:*** Groups that are tough to get into tend to be more attractive than those that are easy to join

Consequences of Group Cohesiveness

- . *More Participation in Group Activities*
- . *More Conformity*
- . *More Success*

L07.5 Explain the dynamics of *social loafing*

Social Loafing: The tendency to withhold physical or intellectual effort when performing a group task

Two different forms:

The free rider effect: People lower their effort to get a “free ride” at the expense of their fellow group members

The sucker effect: People lower their effort because of the feeling that *others* are free riding

Counteracting Social Loafing:

- . Make individual performance more visible
- . Make sure that the work is interesting
- . Increase feelings of indispensability
- . Increase performance feedback
- . Reward group performance

L011.1 Define decision making and differentiate well-structured and ill-structured problems

Well Structured Problems:

Problems for which:

- . the existing state is clear
- . the desired state is clear
- . how to get from one state to another is obvious

Ill-Structured Problems:

Problems for which:

the existing and desired states are unclear
the method of getting to the desired state is unknown

- . They can entail high risk and stimulate strong political considerations

L011.2 Compare and contrast perfectly rational decision making with decision making under bounded rationality

Perfect rationality: *A decision strategy that is completely informed, perfectly logical, and oriented to economic gain*

The prototype for perfect rationality is the Economic Person who is the perfect, cool, calculating decision maker

Bounded rationality: *Herbert Simon recognized that the rational characteristics of Economic Person do not exist in real decision makers*

This is a decision strategy that:

- . Relies on limited information
- . Reflects time constraints and political considerations that act as bounds to rationality

L011.3 Discuss the impact of framing and cognitive biases on the decision process

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

Problem Identification and Framing

Different decision frames can lead to very different decisions. Need to be conscious about how you frame problems.

Information Search

. Too Little: Sometimes, decision makers do not acquire enough information to make a good decision

. Too Much: Decision makers often attempt to use *all* the information at hand thinking that more is better

Alternative Development, Evaluation & Choice

. The choice or the decision alternative with the greatest expected value

. The ***anchoring effect*** illustrates that decision makers do not adjust their estimates enough from some initial estimate that serves as an anchor

Satisficing: An adequate level of acceptability for a solution to a problem is established

Risky Business

When people view a problem as a choice between *losses*, they tend to make risky decisions

When people frame the alternatives as a choice between *gains* they tend to make conservative decisions

Solution Implementation

Decision makers are often dependent on others to implement their decisions

Justification: People tend to be overconfident about the adequacy of their decisions

The justification of faulty decisions is best seen in the irrational treatment of *sunk costs*

L011.4 Explain the process of escalation of commitment to an apparently failing course of action

Escalation of commitment refers to the tendency to invest additional resources in an apparently failing course of action

Summary of reasons for escalation of commitment:

- Dissonance reduction
- Social norm for consistent behaviour
- Motivation to not appear wasteful
- The way the problem is framed
- Personality, moods, and emotions
-

Preventing Escalation of Commitment

- . Encourage continuous experimentation with reframing the problem. Shift the frame to saving rather than spending
- . Set specific goals for the project in advance that must be met if more resources are to be invested

Hindsight

- . *Hindsight* refers to the tendency to review the decision-making process that was used to find what was done right or wrong
- . Another form of faulty hindsight is the tendency to take personal responsibility for successful decision outcomes while denying responsibility for unsuccessful outcomes

L011.5 Consider how emotions and mood affect decision making

- Emotions can help decision making but strong emotions can be a hindrance
- Mood affects *what* and *how* people think when making decisions

- . People in a *positive mood* tend to remember positive information
- . People in a *positive mood* tend to evaluate objects, people, and events more positively
- . People in a *good mood* tend to overestimate the likelihood that good events will occur and underestimate the occurrence of bad events
- . People in a *good mood* adopt simplified, shortcut decision-making strategies, more likely violating the rational model
- . People in a *negative mood* are prone to approach decisions in a more deliberate, systematic, detailed way
- . *Positive mood* promotes more creative, intuitive decision making

L011.6 Summarize the pros and cons of using groups to make decisions, with attention to the groupthink phenomenon and risk assessment

Stage	Perfect Rationality	Bounded Rationality
Problem Identification	Easy, accurate perception of gaps that constitute problems	Perceptual defence; jump to solutions; attention to symptoms rather than problems; mood affects memory
Information Search	Free; fast; right amount obtained	Slow; costly; reliance on flawed memory; obtain too little or too much
Development of Alternative Solutions Evaluation of Alternative Solutions	Can conceive of all Ultimate value of each known; probability of each known; only criterion is economic gain	Not all known Potential ignorance of or miscalculation of values and probabilities; criteria include political factors; affected by mood
Solution Choice Solution Implementation	Maximizes Considered in evaluation of alternatives	Satisfices May be difficult owing to reliance on others
Solution Evaluation	Objective, according to previous steps	May involve justification, escalation to recover sunk costs, faulty hindsight

Groups should perform better than individuals when:

- . Group members differ in relevant skills and abilities
- . Some division of labour can occur
- . Memory for facts is an important issue
- . Individual judgments can be combined by weighting them to reflect the expertise of the various members

Disadvantages of group decision making

- . **Time:** larger group need more time to discuss
- . **Conflict:** larger groups = more conflicting opinions
- . **Domination :** When meetings are dominated by a single individual or a small coalition the advantages of group decision making will not be realized
- . **GroupThink:** The capacity for group pressure to damage the mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgment of decision-making groups

Groupthink symptoms:

- . **Illusion of invulnerability:** ignore obvious danger signals
- . **Rationalization:** improbable excuses are given to
- . **Illusion of Morality:** decision perceived as morally correct
- . **Stereotypes:** of those outside the group
- . **Pressure for Conformity:** pressure to conform
- . **Mindguards :** role of protecting group from conflicting decision information
- . **Illusion of Unanimity:** perceive that unanimous support exists for decision made
- . **Self-Censorship:** avoid voicing opinions contrary to the group

Strategies to Prevent Groupthink

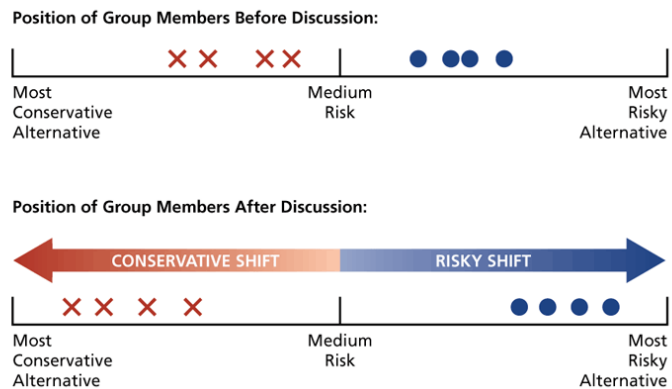
Leaders must avoid exerting undue pressure for a particular decision outcome and concentrate on good decision processes

Leaders should establish norms that encourage and even reward responsible dissent
Outside experts should be brought in from time to time to challenge the group's views

How groups handle risk:

A **risky shift** is the tendency for groups to make *riskier* decisions than the average risk initially advocated by their individual members

A **conservative shift** is the tendency for groups to make *less risky* decisions than the average risk initially advocated by their individual members



Two main factors explain the occurrence of risky and conservative shifts:

1. Group discussion generates ideas and arguments that individual members have not considered before
2. Group members try to present themselves as basically similar to other members but “even better”

L09.1 Define leadership and discuss the role of strategic and formal leadership in organizations.

. Leadership is about motivating people and gaining their commitment
. Effective leadership exerts influence in a way that achieves organizational goals by enhancing the productivity, innovation, satisfaction, and commitment of the workforce

- **Strategic Leadership:** Strategic leaders are open and honest in their interactions with the organization's stakeholders, and they focus on the future
- **Formal Leadership:** Individuals with titles such as manager, executive, supervisor, and department head occupy formal or assigned leadership roles, that are expected to influence others, and they are given specific authority to direct employees

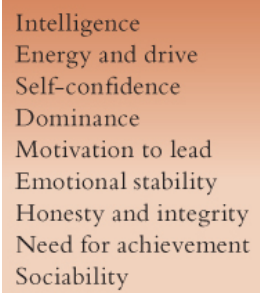
L09.2 Explain and critically evaluate the trait theory of leadership.

Trait Theory maintains that leadership results from the personal qualities or traits of the leader

. The relationship between traits and leadership effectiveness is stronger for affective and relational measures of effectiveness than for performance-related measures

Limits of Trait Theory:

It is difficult to determine whether traits make the leader or whether the opportunity for leadership produces the traits



Intelligence
Energy and drive
Self-confidence
Dominance
Motivation to lead
Emotional stability
Honesty and integrity
Need for achievement
Sociability

Leadership categorization theory:

. People are more likely to view somebody as a leader and to evaluate them as a more effective leader when they possess prototypical characteristics of leadership

. The most crucial problem is that it does not take into account the *situation* in which leadership occurs

L09.3 Compare and contrast the following leadership behaviours and their consequences: consideration, initiating structure

2 basic kinds of behaviour:

. **Consideration:** The extent to which a leader is approachable and shows personal concern and respect for employees

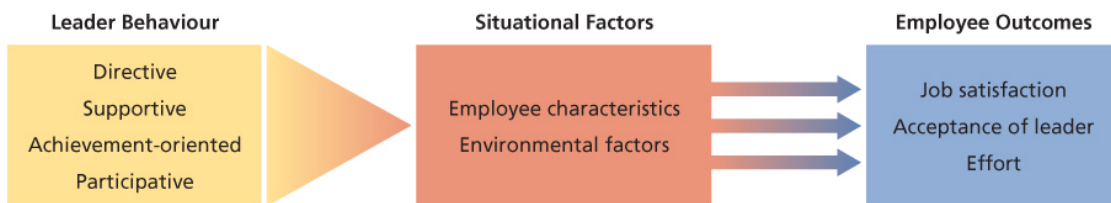
. Consideration is more strongly related to follower satisfaction, motivation, and leader effectiveness

. **Initiating structure:** The degree to which a leader concentrates on group goal attainment

. Initiating structure is slightly more strongly related to leader job performance and group performance

L09.4 Explain House's path goal theory

- Path-Goal Theory is concerned with leader behaviours



. **Directive behavior:** (initiating structure) schedule work, maintain performance standards, and let employees know what is expected of them

. **Supportive behavior:** (Consideration) friendly, approachable, and concerned with pleasant interpersonal relationships

. **Participative behavior:** consult with employees about work-related matters and consider their opinions

. **Achievement-oriented behavior:** encourage employees to exert high effort and strive for a high level of goal accomplishment

Situational Factors:

Employee characteristics: Different types of employees need or prefer different forms of leadership:

Environmental Factors : The effectiveness of leadership behaviour depends on the particular work environment: → E.G. When a job is frustrating or dissatisfying, supportive leadership is most effective

Leaders might have to tailor their behaviour to the needs, abilities, and personalities of individual employees

L09.5 Discuss participative leadership

Participative leadership means involving employees in making work-related decisions

- Participation can involve individual employees or the entire group of employees that reports to the leader

Advantages:

. **Motivation:** Participation can increase intrinsic motivation by enriching jobs

. **Quality:** Enhances quality as it empowers employees to take direct action and solve problems

. **Acceptance:** Participation can increase employees' acceptance of decisions

Disadvantages:

- . **Time and energy:** Participation requires specific behaviours on the part of the leader that use time and energy
- . **Loss of power:** Some leaders feel that a participative style will reduce their power and influence
- . **Lack of receptivity or knowledge:** Employees might not be receptive to participation when the leader is not trusted or when a poor labor climate exists

L09.5 Describe and evaluate transactional and transformational leadership and their consequences

Transactional Leadership: leadership that is based on a straightforward *exchange* relationship between a leader and followers

Transactional leadership behaviour involves:

- . **Contingent reward behaviour** (leader reward behaviour):
- . **Management by exception:** The leader monitors follower behaviour, anticipates problems, and takes corrective actions *before* the behaviour creates serious problems

Transformational Leadership: change the beliefs and attitudes of followers to correspond with a new vision and motivates them to achieve performance beyond expectations → E.G. Steve Jobs

Four dimensions of Transformational Leadership behaviour

- . **Intellectual stimulation:** Employees are stimulated to think about problems, issues, and strategies in new ways
- . **Individualized consideration:** Involves treating employees as distinct individuals, indicating concern for their needs and personal development, and serving as a mentor or coach when appropriate
- . **Inspirational motivation:** Involves the communication of visions that are appealing and inspiring to followers
- . **Charisma:** The ability to command strong loyalty and devotion from followers and thus have the potential for strong influence among them

Evidence:

- . Compared to other forms of leader behaviour, transformational leadership has been found to be the most consistent predictor of effective leadership
- . Overall, the best leaders are both transformational and transactional

L013.1 Define *interpersonal conflict* and review its causes in organizations

- *Interpersonal conflict* is a process that occurs when one person, group, or organizational subunit frustrates the goal attainment of another

Factors contributing to organizational conflict:

. **Group identification and intergroup bias:** People develop a more positive view of their own “in-group” and a less positive view of the “out-group”

. **Interdependence:** When individuals or subunits are mutually dependent on each other to accomplish their own goals → each party has some power over the other

. **Differences in power, status, and culture:**

Power → If dependence is one-way rather than mutual, the potential for conflict increases

Status → Status differences provide little impetus for conflict when people of lower status are dependent on those of higher status

Culture → When two or more very different cultures develop in an organization, the clash in beliefs and values can result in overt conflict

. **Ambiguity :** Ambiguous goals, jurisdictions, or performance criteria can lead to conflict

. **Scarce resources:** Limited budget money, secretarial support, or lab space can contribute to conflict → Scarcity can turn latent or disguised conflict into overt conflict

L013.2 Explain the *types of conflict* and the process by which conflict occurs

3 types of Conflict:

Relationship conflict: (personality clashes) Concerns interpersonal tensions among individuals that have to do with their relationship per se, not the task at hand

Task conflict: Concerns disagreements about the nature of work to be done

Process conflict: disagreements about responsibility, authority, resource allocation, and who does what

Conflict dynamics - Progression of a typical conflict

- . “Winning” the conflict becomes more important than a good solution
- . The parties conceal information from each other or distort it
- . Each side becomes more cohesive

L013.3 Discuss the various *modes of managing conflict*

Approaches to managing conflict are a function of:

- How **assertive** you are in trying to satisfy your own or your group's concerns
- How **cooperative** you are in trying to satisfy those of the other party or group

There are five styles for dealing with conflict

Avoiding: Characterized by low assertiveness of one's own interests and low cooperation with the other party

→ It can provide short-term stress reduction but it does not really change the situation

Accommodating: A conflict management style in which one cooperates with the other party without asserting one's own interests

→ If it is seen as a sign of weakness, it does not bode well for future interactions

Competing: A conflict management style that maximizes assertiveness for your own position and minimizes cooperative responses

Compromise: Combines intermediate levels of assertiveness and cooperation

→ It does not result in the most creative response to conflict

→ It is not useful for resolving conflicts that stem from power asymmetry

Collaborating: A conflict management style that maximizes both assertiveness and cooperation → It is an attempt to secure an integrative agreement that fully satisfies the interests of both parties (a win-win resolution)

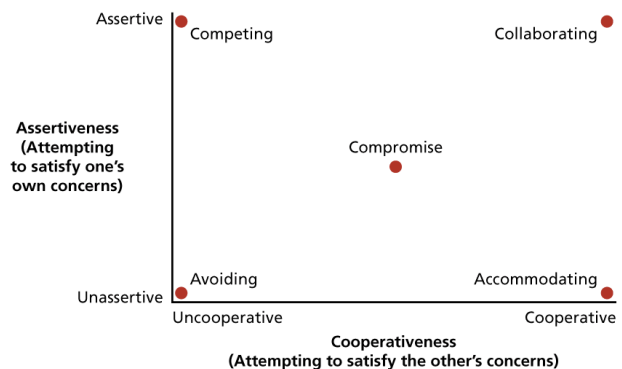
Third Party Involvement

. **Mediation:** Occurs when a neutral third party helps to facilitate a negotiated agreement

. **Arbitration:** Occurs when a third party is given the authority to dictate the terms of settlement of a conflict → Negotiation has broken down and the arbitrator has to make a final distributive allocation.

In **conventional arbitration**, the arbitrator can choose any outcome

In **final offer arbitration**, each party makes a final offer, and the arbitrator chooses one of them



L013.4 Discuss the merits of *stimulating conflict* – *Is all conflict bad?*

- *Conflict can be functional when it promotes necessary organizational change:*

CONFLICT → CHANGE → ADAPTATION → SURVIVAL

- *Conflict can promote change when:*
 - *It brings into consideration new ideas*
 - *Each party monitors the other's performance more carefully*
 - *It signals that a redistribution of power is necessary*
- *Conflict stimulation* is a strategy of intentionally *increasing* conflict to motivate change

L08.1 Define *organizational culture*

Culture provides uniqueness and social identity to organizations

Organizational culture consists of the shared beliefs, values, and assumptions that exist in an organization

- CULTURE → NORMS → BEHAVIOUR

Subcultures are smaller cultures that develop within a larger organizational culture that are based on differences in training, occupation, or departmental goals

L08.2 Discuss the assets and liabilities of *strong cultures*

. A **strong culture** is an organizational culture with intense and pervasive beliefs, values, and assumptions

. In **weak cultures**, beliefs, values, and assumptions are less strongly ingrained or less widely shared across the organization

Organizations with strong cultures have several potential advantages:

Coordination: Different parts of the organization can learn from each other and can coordinate their efforts

Conflict resolution: Sharing core values is a powerful mechanism that helps to resolve conflicts

Financial success: Strong cultures contribute to financial success and organizational effectiveness when the culture supports the mission, strategy, and goals of the organization

Liability of Strong cultures:

Resistance to change: can damage a firm's ability to innovate

Culture clash: Strong cultures can mix badly when a merger or acquisition pushes two of them together under the same corporate banner

Pathology: Cultures based on beliefs, values, and assumptions that support infighting, secrecy, and paranoia

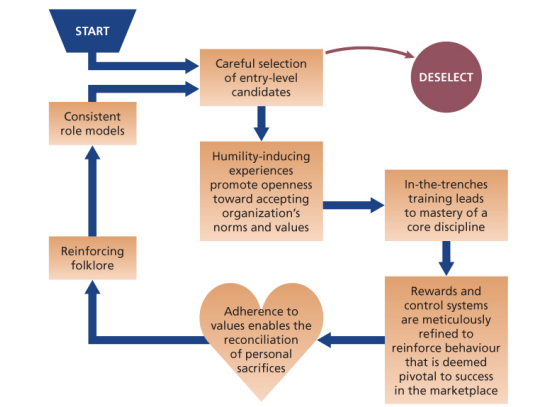
L08.3 Discuss the factors that contribute to an organization's culture

The founder's role: Many cultures, especially strong cultures, reflect the values of an organization's founder

Socialization: One of the primary means by which individuals learn a culture's beliefs, values, and assumptions

Socialization Steps:

- Step 1:** Selection of Employees
- Step 2:** Debasement and Hazing
- Step 3:** Training "in the Trenches"
- Step 4:** Reward and Promotion
- Step 5:** Exposure to Core Culture
- Step 6:** Organizational Folklore
- Step 7:** Role Models



It is the **consistency** among these steps and their mutually reinforcing properties that make for a strong culture

L08.4 Describe how to diagnose an organizational culture

One way to grasp a culture is to examine the symbols, rituals, and stories that characterize the organization's way of life.

- **Symbols:** are strong indicators of corporate culture → using symbols consciously to reinforce cultural values
- **Rituals:** Rites, rituals, and ceremonies can convey the essence of a culture and can include:
- **Stories:** Organizations often communicate their culture through the use of stories:
 - **Sparkling action:** a story to encourage people to change
 - **Communicating who you are:** a story to get people to know and trust you
 - **Communicating who the company is - branding:** a story that illustrates that the brand promise
 - **Leading people into the future:** stories that communicate institutional vision
 - **Sharing knowledge:** stories that share problem solving knowledge
 - **Transmitting values:** a story that illustrates what matters to the company
 - **Fostering collaboration:** a common narrative based on a group's concerns and goals
 - **Taming the grapevine:** a story that harnesses the energy of the grapevine to defuse a rumor

L012.1 Define ethics and review the ethical dilemmas that managers face

Ethics can be defined as systematic thinking about the moral consequences of decisions
Moral consequences can be framed in terms of the potential for harm to any stakeholders in the decision

- Top managers tend to see their organizations as being more ethical than do those lower in the hierarchy

The Nature of Ethical Dilemmas - Common themes of ethical issues:

- . Honest communication
- . Fair treatment
- . Special consideration
- . Fair competition
- . Responsibility to organization
- . Corporate social responsibility
- . Respect for law

Causes of Unethical Behaviour

Gain: The anticipation of positive reinforcement for following an unethical course of action, especially if no punishment is expected

Role conflict: Many ethical dilemmas are actually forms of role conflict that get resolved in an unethical way

Strong organizational identification: Strong identification with the organization can lead employees to engage in unethical activities to “help” the organization

Competition: Stiff competition for scarce resources can stimulate unethical behaviour

Personality: Cynical people and those with external locus of control are less tuned in to ethical matters → People with strong economic values are more likely to behave unethically

Organizational and industry culture: The conduct of peers and superiors can strongly influence ethical behaviour

****Whistle-blowing** occurs when a current or former organizational member discloses illegitimate practices to some person or organization that may be able to take action to correct these practices

L012.2 Define sexual harassment and discuss what organizations can do to prevent it and how they should respond to allegations

Sexual harassment is a form of unethical behaviour that stems, in part, from the abuse of power and the perpetuation of a gender power imbalance

Sexual harassment is also prevalent in hostile work environments and is most likely in male-dominated industries and organizations in which men attempt to maintain their dominance relative to women

- The *deaf ear syndrome* refers to the inaction or complacency of organizations in the face of charges of sexual harassment
- Organizational policies and procedures are often inadequate for managing harassment complaints
- Managers often react defensively, contributing to inertia

Responding to Sexual Harassment

- Examine characteristics of deaf ear organizations
- Foster management support and education
- Stay vigilant
- Take immediate action
- Create a state-of-the-art policy
- Establish clear reporting procedures

L012.3 Employing ethical guidelines

A few simple guidelines can help in the ethical screening of decisions

1. Identify the stakeholders that will be affected by any decision
2. Identify the costs and benefits of various decision alternatives to these stakeholders
3. Consider the relevant moral expectations that surround a particular decision
4. Be familiar with common ethical dilemmas that decision makers face in your organizational role or profession
5. Discuss ethical matters with decision stakeholders and others
6. Convert your ethical judgments into appropriate action