

Ch8: Trust, Justice, and Ethics

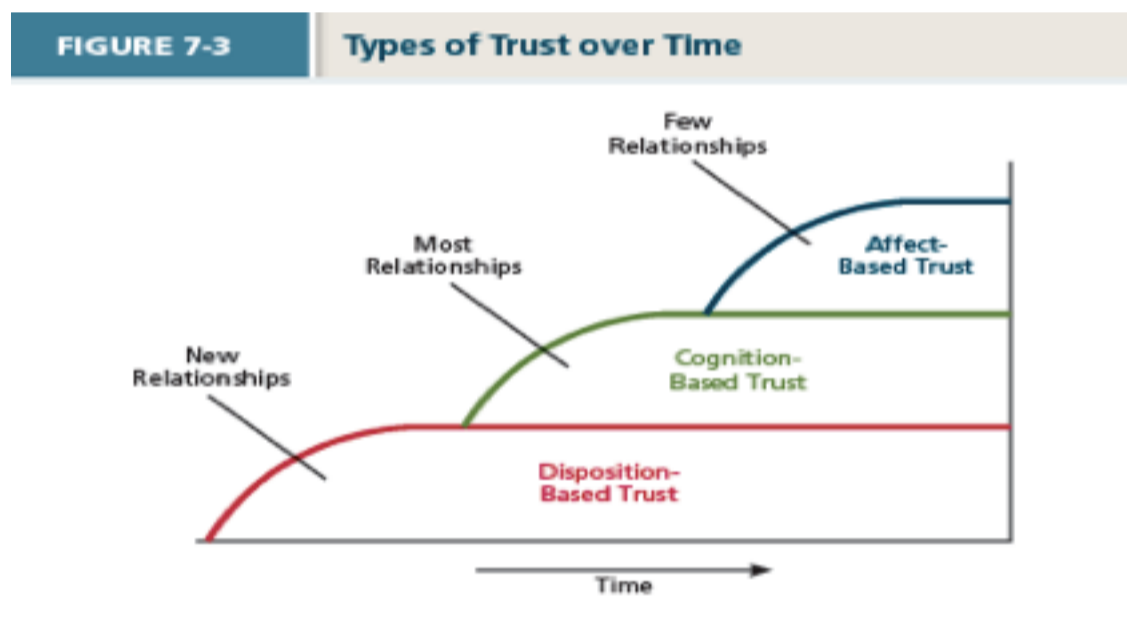
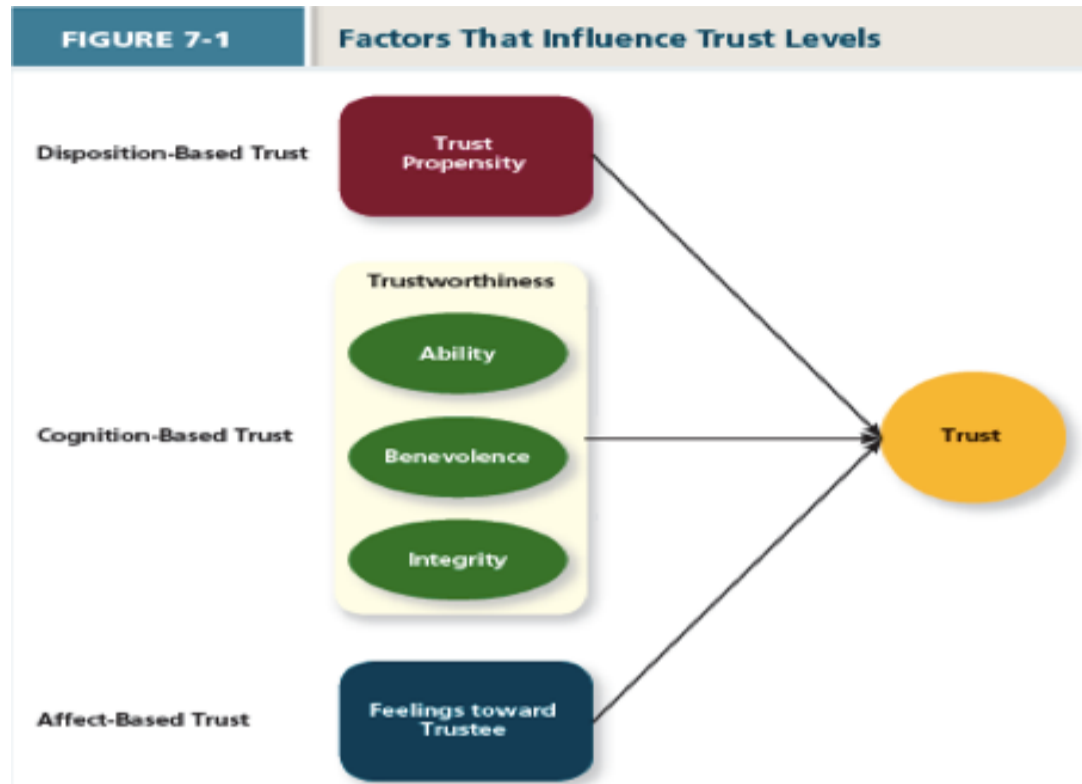
Trust

Trust is the willingness to be vulnerable to an authority because of positive expectations about the authority's actions and intentions

- **Justice** is the perceived fairness of an authority's decision making
- **Ethics** reflects the degree to which the behaviours of an authority are in accordance with generally accepted moral norms

In what 3 sources can trust be rooted? / Why do we trust?

- **Disposition-based trust:** trust rooted in one's own personality, as opposed to a careful assessment of the trustee's trustworthiness
 - More to do with the "trustor" than with a particular authority
 - **Trust propensity**- a general expectation that the words, promises, and statements of individuals can be relied upon
- **Cognition-based trust:** trust rooted in a rational assessment of the authority's trustworthiness
 - Guides us in cases in which we don't yet have data about a particular authority
 - **Trustworthiness**- characteristics or attributes of a person that inspire trust, including perceptions of ability, benevolence, and integrity
 - **Ability** → the skills, competence, and areas of expertise that enable an authority to be successful in some specific area
 - **Benevolence** → the belief that an authority wants to do good for a trustor, apart from any selfish or profit-centred motives
 - When authorities are perceived as benevolent, it means that they care for employees, are concerned about their well-being, and feel a sense of loyalty to them
 - **Integrity** → the perception that an authority adheres to a set of values and principles that the trustor finds acceptable
 - They have sound character, have good intentions, and are morally acceptable
- **Affect-based trust:** trust dependent on feelings toward the authority that go beyond any rational assessment of trustworthiness
 - We trust them because we like them



Justice

Justice → being treated *fairly* increases trust in the other party

- Justice provides behavioural evidence to assess trustworthiness (ability, integrity, benevolence)

4 Justice Considerations: (Interactional):

1. Distributive Justice reflects the perceived fairness of decision-making outcomes

- How fair are the outcomes of the decision?
 - Equity - how fairly are different people treated
 - Equity is typically judged to be the fairest choice in which the goal is to maximize the productivity of individual employees
 - Equality - treating everyone in the same way (like different people in a team)
 - Need- sometimes people need to be treated differently because of their special needs

- Outcomes = pay, rewards, promotions, appraisals, ect.

2. Procedural Justice is the perceived fairness of decision-making processes

- How fair is the process that was used to make the decision?
 - Voice (input in process)
 - Giving employees a chance to express their opinions and views during the course of decision making
 - Correctability (built in mechanisms to appeal)
 - Consistency (consistent across people)
 - Bias Suppression (neutrality and unbiased)
 - Representativeness (considers the needs of all groups)
 - Accuracy (based on accurate information)

Distributive vs. Procedural Justice

- When outcomes are *favourable*:
 - Procedures matter less
- When outcomes are unfavourable:
 - Procedures matter more

- People easily feel that their outcomes are unfavourable
 - Focus on Procedural Justice!

3. Interpersonal Justice is the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment received by employees from authorities

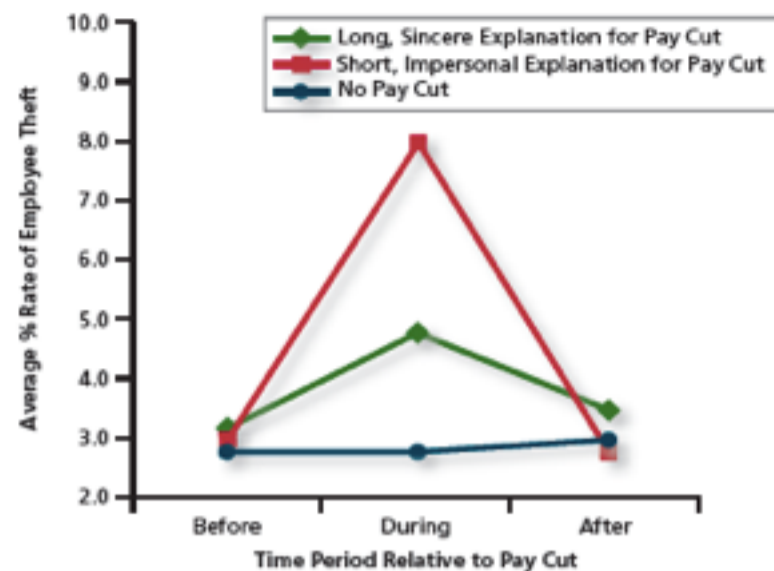
- How fair is the interpersonal treatment?
 - Interpersonal justice is fostered when authorities adhere to two particular rules
 - Respect: people want to be treated with *dignity* and *sincerity*
 - Proprietary: people do not want to be on the receiving end of *offensive or improper remarks*
 - Abusive Supervision- the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact, by a supervisor

4. Informal Justice is the perceived fairness of the communications provided to employees from authorities

- How fairly is the information communicated?
 - Justification- explanation of decision making procedures and outcomes
 - Truthfulness- honest and candid communications

FIGURE 7-5

The Effects of Justice on Theft During a Pay Cut



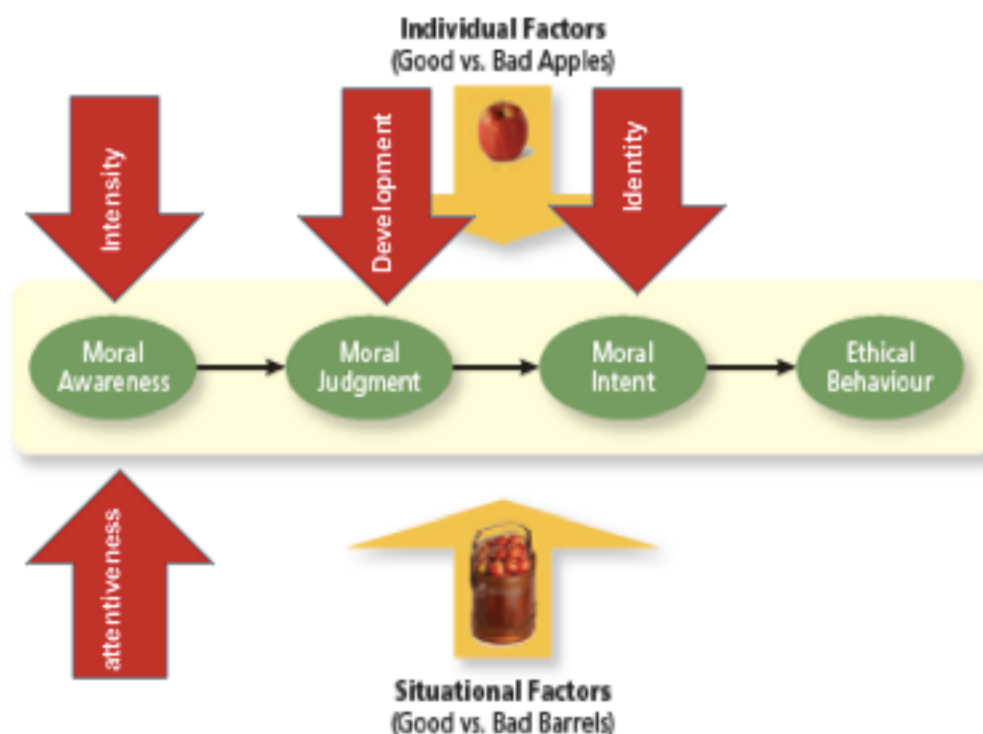
Ethics

Are the behaviours of an authority figure in accordance with generally accepted moral norms?

- Explained by 2 threads:
 - prescriptive (actions according to codes and principles)
 - descriptive (research on how people tend to act)
- **Whistleblowing:** employees exposing illegal or immoral actions by employer

FIGURE 7-6

The Four-Component Model of Ethical Decision Making



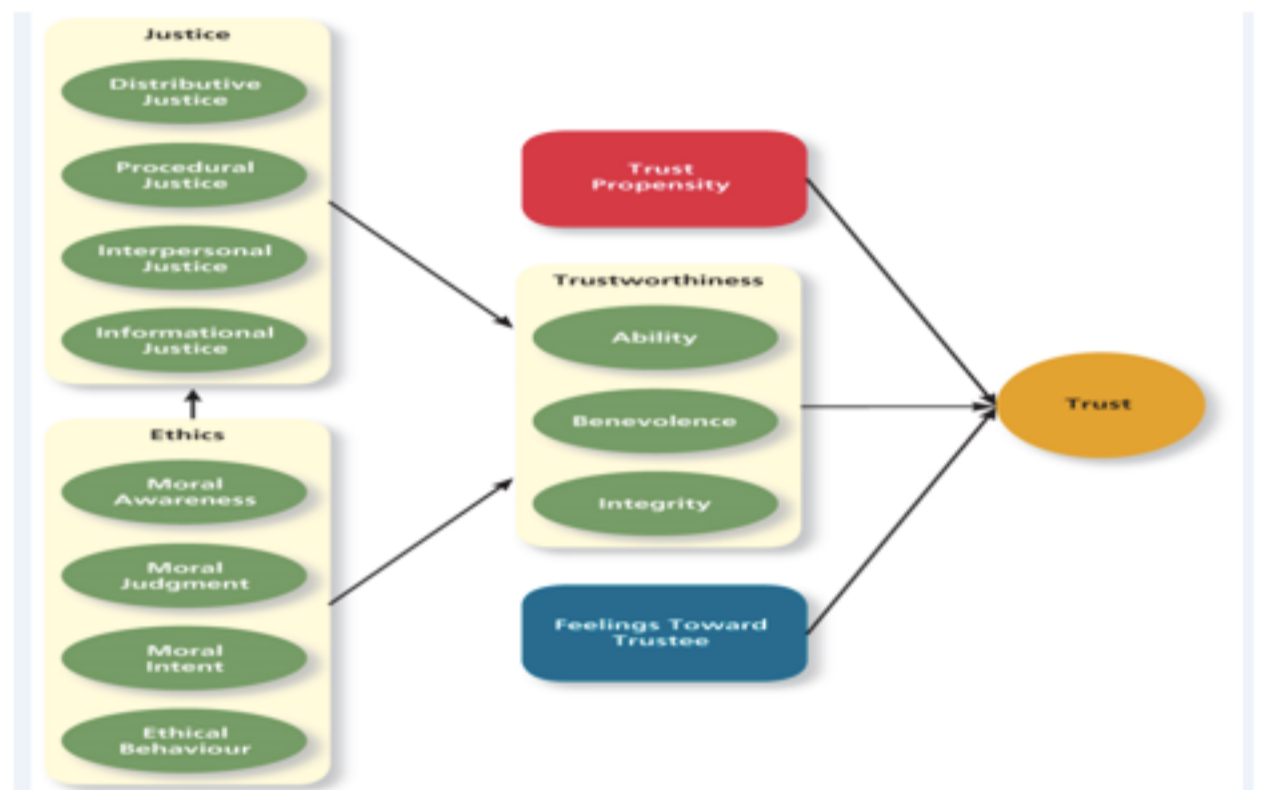
Four Component Model

→ a model that argues that ethical behaviours result from the multistage sequence of moral awareness, moral judgement, moral intent, and ethical behaviour

- **Moral Awareness:** recognition to which an issue has ethical urgency

- **Moral Intensity:** the degree to which an issue has ethical urgency
 - **Moral Attentiveness:** the degree to which people chronically perceive and consider issues of morality during their experiences
 - **Moral Judgement:** the process people use to determine whether a particular course of action is ethical or unethical
- **Cognitive Moral Development:** people's movement through several states of moral development, each more mature and sophisticated than the prior one

Why are some authorities more trusted than others?



Ch9: Learning and Decision Making

9.1 - What is learning, and how does it affect decision making?

Learning: a relatively permanent change in an employee's knowledge or skill that results from experience.

- The more knowledge and skills employees possess, the more likely they are to make accurate and sound decisions

Decision Making: the process of generating and choosing from a set of alternatives to solve a problem

Why do some employees learn to make decisions better than others?

Expertise: the knowledge and skills that distinguish experts from novices

- Research shows that the differences between novices and experts are almost always a function of learning, contrary to the more popular view that intelligence or other innate differences make the difference.

9.2 - What types of knowledge can employees gain as they learn and build expertise?

2 Types of Knowledge

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

> Ex. Sitting down at a desk to learn. Also knowledge that is easy to teach.

Tacit Knowledge: knowledge that employees can only learn through experience

> Not easily communicated. Argued that up to 90% of knowledge contained in organization occurs in tacit form. Also has been described as the "know-how", "know-what", and "know-who". Or intuition, skills, insight, beliefs, mental models, and practical intelligence.

9.3 - What are the methods by which employees learn in organizations?

Methods of Learning

Reinforcement

- Methods used to induce desirable and reduce undesirable behaviours
 - People will exhibit specific behaviours if they're rewarded for doing so

Operant Conditioning Components (Skinner, B.F.) (We learn by observing the link between our behaviour and the consequences)

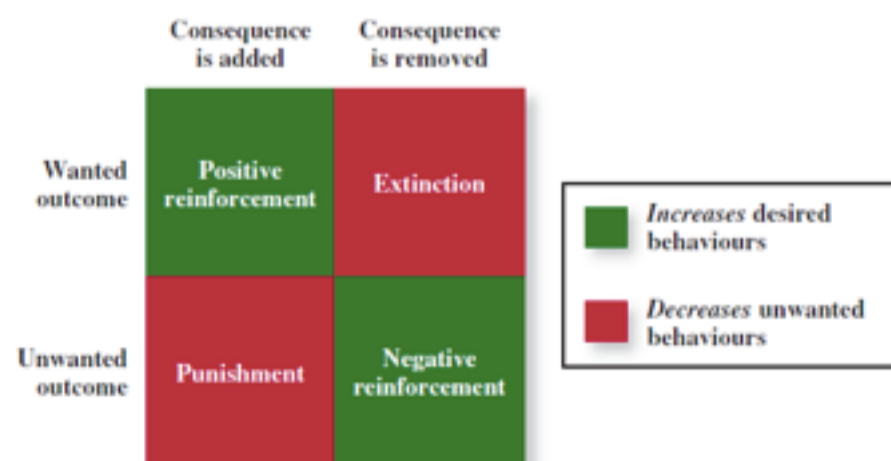


- ▶ Consequences either...
 - ▶ ...**increase** probability of repeating behaviour OR
 - ▶ ...**decrease** probability of repeating behaviour.

- Antecedents in organizations are typically goals, rules, instructions, or other types of information that help show employees what is expected of them

There are 4 specific consequences typically used by organizations to modify employee behaviour, known as the **contingencies of reinforcement**.

Methods of Learning: Contingencies of Reinforcement



INCREASING PROBABILITY OF DESIRED BEHAVIOUR (Two Types):

- **Positive Reinforcement:** a reinforcement contingency in which a positive outcomes follows a desired behaviour
 - Ex. pay, promotion, praise from a manager or co-worker, public recognition
- **Negative Reinforcement:** a reinforcement contingency in which an unwanted outcome is removed following a desired behaviour (Not as effective as positive reinforcement)

DECREASING PROBABILITY OF UNDESIRE BEHAVIOUR (Positive and Negative)

Punishment: an unwanted outcome that follows an unwanted behaviour

> Ex. suspending, firing, or assigning a job tasks that are seen as demeaning

Extinction: the removal of a positive outcome following an unwanted behaviour

> Can be purposeful or accidental.

Schedules of Reinforcement: the timing of when contingencies are applied or removed

- Continuous
 - Reward given at every desired behaviour, difficult to maintain
 - Ex. Praise
- Fixed Interval
 - Fixed time periods, average potential level of performance
 - Ex. Paycheque
- Variable Interval
 - Reward given at variable time periods, moderately high potential level of performance
 - Ex. Supervisor walk-by
- Fixed Ratio
 - Reward given following fixed number of desired behaviours, high level of performance
 - Ex. Piece-Rate Pay
- Variable Ratio
 - Reward given following variable number of desired behaviours, very high potential level of performance
 - Ex. Commission Pay

- Variables schedules lead to higher levels of performance than fixed schedules

Observation

Social Learning Theory: theory that argues that people in organizations learn by observing others

- Many would argue that social learning is the primary way employees gain knowledge in organizations

Behavioural Modelling: employee's observing the actions of others, learning from what they observe, and then repeating the observed behaviour

➤ Attentional Processes

- Learner focuses attention on the critical behaviours exhibited by the model
- Retention Processes
 - Learner must remember the behaviours of the model once the model is no longer present
- Production Processes
 - Learner must have the appropriate skill set and be able to reproduce the behaviour
- Reinforcement
 - The learner must view the model receiving reinforcement for the behaviour and then receive it him/herself

Goal Orientation

People learn somewhat differently according to their predispositions or attitudes toward learning and performance.

Learning Orientation: a predisposition or attitude according to which building competence is deemed more important by an employee than demonstrating competence

- Improves self-confidence, feedback-seeking behaviour, learning strategy development, and learning performance

Performance-Prove Orientation: a predisposition or attitude by which employees focus on demonstrating their competence so that others think favourably of them

Performance-Avoid Orientation: a predisposition or attitude by which employees focus on demonstrating their competence so that others will not think poorly of them

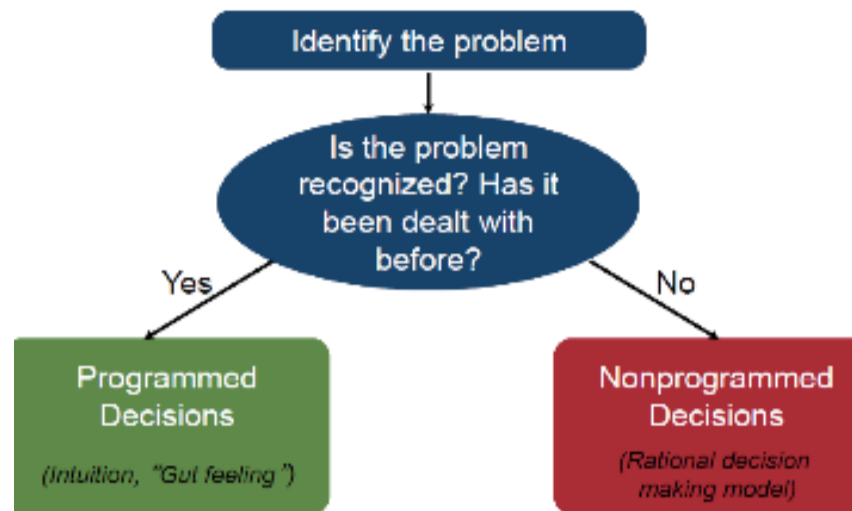
9.4- What two methods can employees use to make decisions?

Methods of Decision Making

Programmed Decisions: decisions that are somewhat automatic because the decision maker's knowledge allows him/her to recognize the situation and the course of action to be taken

Intuition: an emotional judgement based on quick, unconscious gut feelings

Crisis Situation: a change-sudden or evolving- that results in an urgent problem that must be addressed immediately



Nonprogrammed Decision: one made by employees when a problem is new, complex, or not recognized

Rational Decision-Making Model: a step-by-step approach to making decisions that is designed to maximize outcomes by examining all available alternatives



9.5- What decision-making problems can prevent employees from translating their learning into accurate decisions?

Decision-Making Problems

Common Reasons for Making Bad Decisions:

➤ Limited Information

- **Bounded Rationality:** the notion that people do not have the ability or resources to process all available information and alternatives when making a decision
- **Satisficing:** what a decision maker is doing who chooses the first acceptable alternative considered

➤ Faulty Perceptions

- Perception is the process of selecting, organizing, storing, and retrieving information about the environment
- **Selective Perception:** the tendency for people to see their environment only as it affects them and as it is consistent with their expectations
- **Projection Bias:** the faulty perception by decision makers that others think, feel, and act as they do
- **Social Identity Theory:** a theory that people identify themselves according to the various groups to which they belong and judge others according to the groups they associate with
- **Stereotype:** assumptions made about others based on their social group membership
- **Heuristics:** simple and efficient rules of thumb that allow one to make decisions more easily
- **Availability Bias:** the tendency for people to base their judgements on information that is easier to recall

Decision-Making Biases:

- Availability
- Anchoring
 - The tendency to rely too heavily, or “anchor”, on one trait or piece of information when making decisions even when the anchor might be unreliable or irrelevant
- Framing
 - The tendency to make different decisions on the basis of how a question or situation is phrased (ie. discount vs. charge)
- Representatives
 - Assess the likelihood of an event by comparing it to a similar event and assuming it will be similar (ex. Gambler’s fallacy)
- Contrast
 - Tendency to judge things incorrectly based on a reference that is near to them (ex. hot water test)
- Recency
 - Tendency to weight recent events more than earlier events
- Ratio Effect
 - Tendency to judge the same probability of an unlikely event as lower when the probability is presented in the form of a ratio than of larger numbers

➤ Faulty Attributions

- People have the tendency to judge others’ behaviour due to internal factors:
 - Low Motivation
 - Poor Organizational Skills
 - Other Negative Internal Attributions

- **Fundamental Attribution Error:** the tendency for people to judge others' behaviours as being due to internal factors such as ability, motivation, or attitudes
- **Self-Serving Bias:** when ones attributes one's own failures to external factors and success to internal factors

Consensus: used by decision makers to attribute cause; whether other individuals behave the same way under similar circumstances

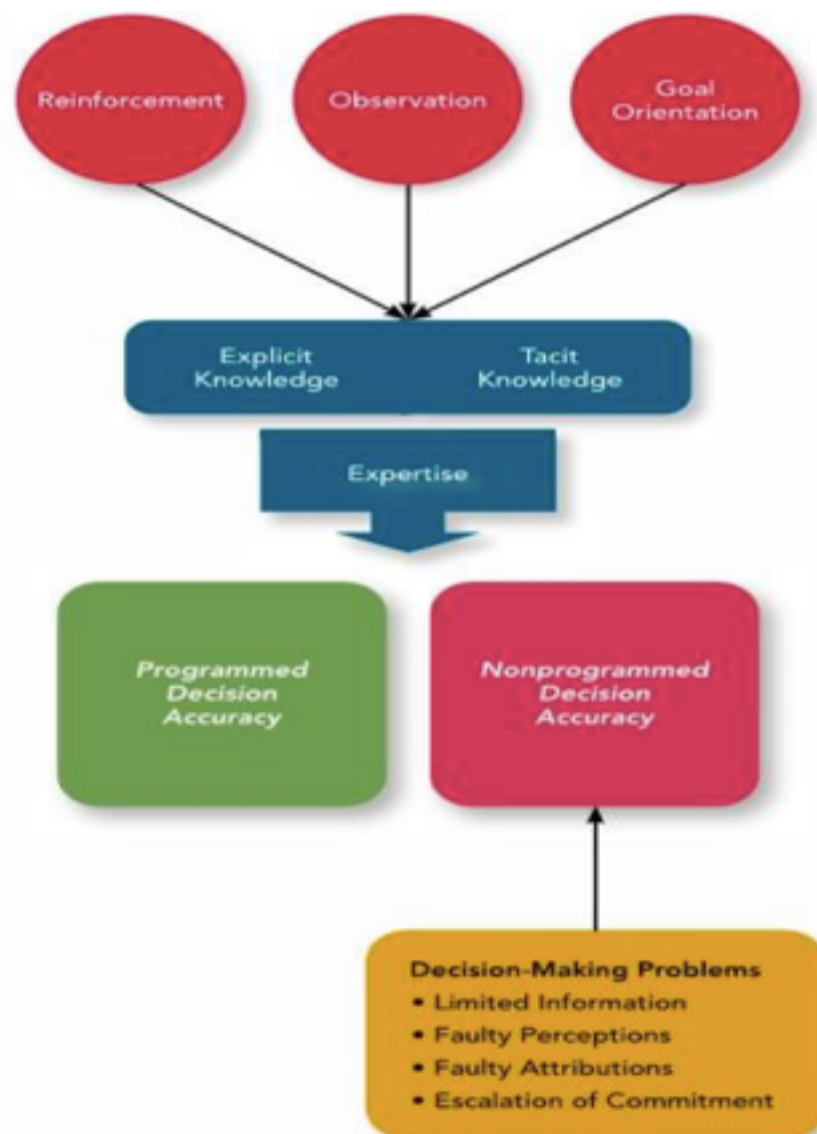
Distinctiveness: used by decision makers to attribute cause; whether the person being judged acts in a similar fashion under different circumstances

Consistency: used by decision makers to attribute cause; whether this individual has behaved this way before under similar circumstances

➤ Escalation of Commitment

- **Escalation of Commitment:** a common decision-making error, in which the decision maker continues to follow a failing course of action
- The decision to continue to follow a failing course of action

Summary



Idk if this is on the exam, it wasn't covered on the slides but it was in the textbook

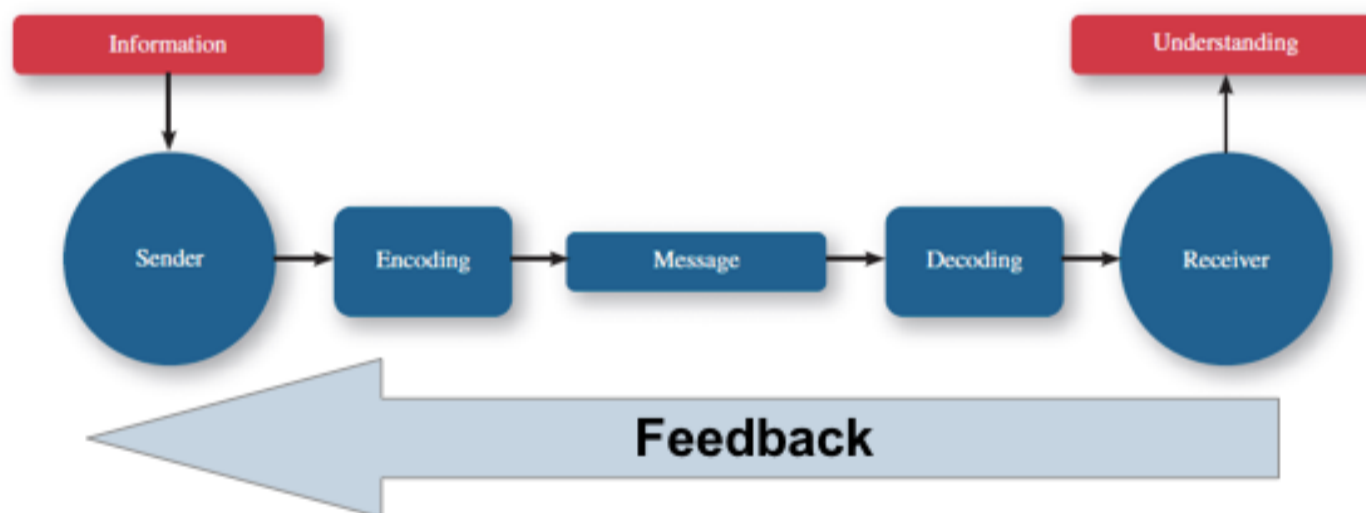
- **Training:** a systematic effort by organizations to facilitate the learning of job-related knowledge and behaviour
- **Knowledge Transfer:** the exchange of knowledge between employees
- **Behaviour Modelling Training:** when employees observe the actions of others, learn from what they observe, and then repeat the observed behaviour
- **Communities of Practice:** groups of employees who learn from one another through collaboration over an extended period of time
- **Transfer of Training:** occurs when employees retain and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and behaviours required for their job after training ends
- **Climate for Transfer:** an organizational environment that supports the use of new skills

Ch10: Communication

Communication is the process by which information and meaning is transferred from a sender to a receiver.

How does the communication process work?

The Communication Process



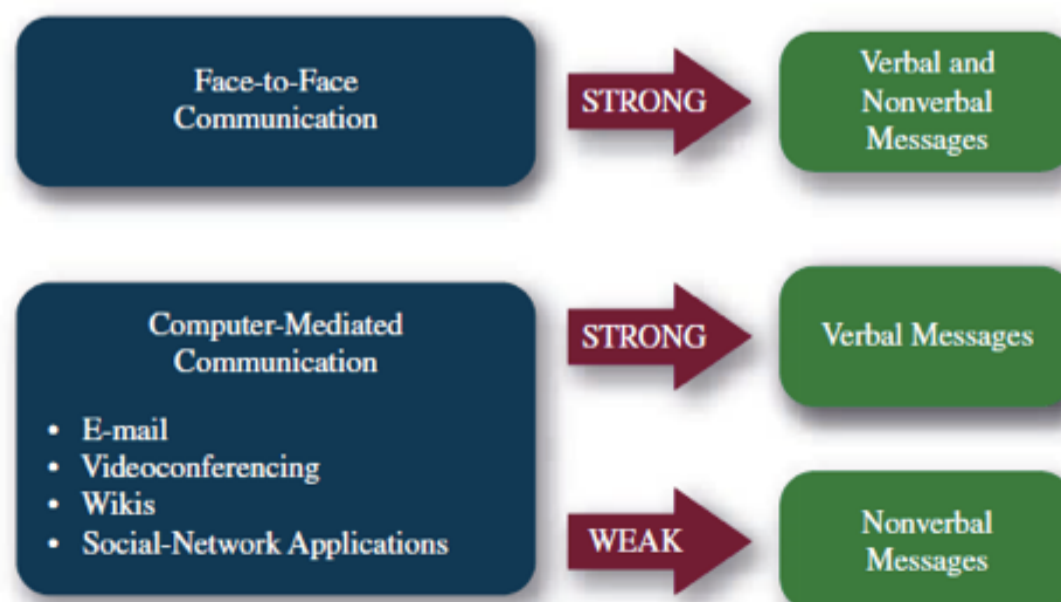
- The sender is the source- someone who wants to share the information
- To accomplish the goal, the sender must translate (encode) an idea into a verbal, written, or nonverbal message
- The encoded message is transmitted to a receiver, who needs to interpret or decode the message to form an understanding of the information it contains

Face-to-Face Communication

Face-to-face communication refers to the exchange of information and meaning when one or more individuals are physically present, and where communication occurs without the aid of any mediating technology

- Face-to-face exchanges are natural, immediate, and embody a type of comprehensive interdependence in the sense that we “act and react” in real time to the content and tone of the messages being exchanged.
- **Verbal communication** is a form where messages are sent and received using written and spoken language
- **Nonverbal communication** is the form of exchange that doesn't involve spoken or written words
 - Ex. body language (hand gestures), tone, volume of their voice, eye contact, smell
 - Information exchange not involving spoken words makes up 70-90% of a messages meaning conveyed by only body language
 - Receivers tend to see nonverbal messages as more credible, believable, and trustworthy sources of information
- **Computer-Mediated Communication** is the exchange of information and meaning using an electronic, digital medium
 - Computer-mediated technology has enhanced the flow of communication within workplaces, and increasingly this form of communication is being used to connect and coordinate intra-organizational activities.

Face-To-Face versus Computer-Mediated Communication?



The Communication Process: Potential Issues

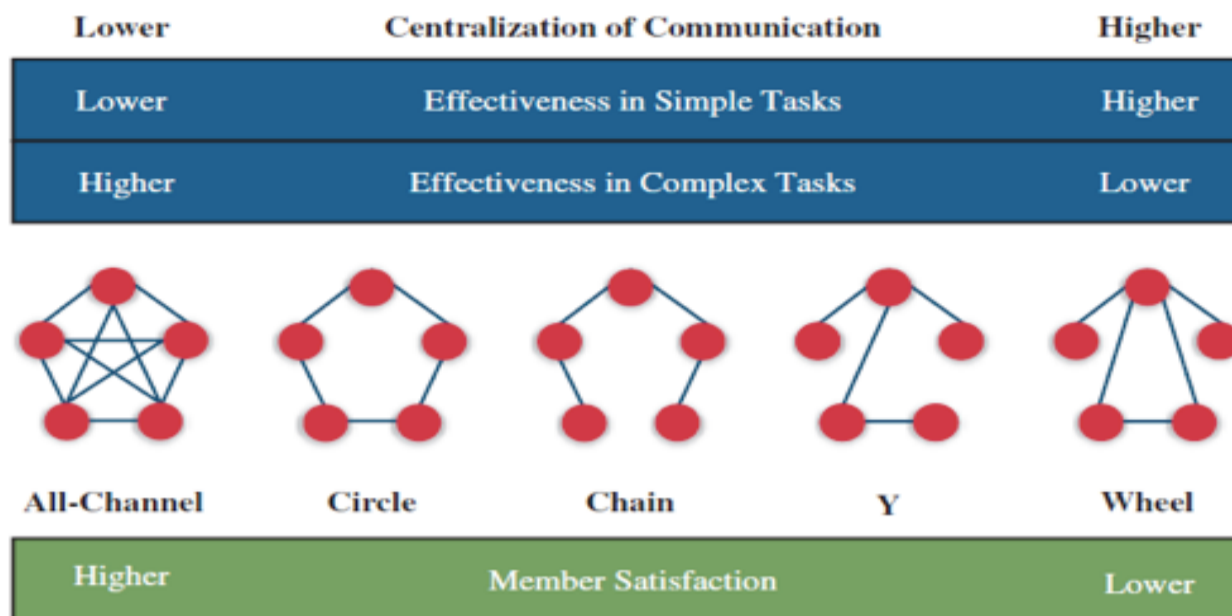
- **Communicator competence** is the ability of communicators to encode and interpret messages
 - Process nonverbal information and extract the intended meaning
- **Noise** is disturbing or distracting stimuli that block or interfere with the transmission of a message
 - Face-to-face communication is particularly sensitive to the presence or absence of noise
- **Information Richness** is the amount and depth of the information transmitted in a message
 - Messages transmitted face-to-face have the highest level of richness
 - The greater the complexity of the work, the more likely the benefits of the information richness will outweigh its costs
- **Gender Differences** are the different ways men and women tend to process and interpret information and communicate with others...
 - Men tend to use a style of communication that helps them achieve and maintain status, power, and independence
 - Women tend to send messages and use a style that builds and strengthens their relationships
- **Privacy** is a state in which individuals can express themselves freely without being observed, recorded, or disturbed by other unauthorized individuals or groups
 - More and more of our daily communication activities are channelled through e-mail, text messages, or social networking application, which begs the question: “How much of this is private? Are there conditions or limits on privacy?”

Communication Networks

- Formal Communication
 - *Vertical* channels → information flowing along lines of authority and reporting relationships (e.g. employee reporting to the production supervisor, who then reports to the plant manager)
 - *Horizontal* channels → information flowing between people who work at the same level within the organization but in different functional areas (e.g. marketing, production)
 - **Downward communication** is communication that flows from the top to the bottom of the vertical channel
 - Managers often use a top-down approach to relay directives, decisions, plans, goals, and instructions to their subordinates in the hierarchy
 - Downward communication via written policies, procedures, and rules are often used to increase the level of consistency within the organization

- **Upward communication** is communication that flows from the bottom to the top of the vertical channel
 - Managers at higher levels are informed about relevant activities and outcomes at lower level jobs, unsolved work problems, suggestions for improvements, and how subordinates feel about their jobs
 - Sometimes employees are not comfortable with talking to their superiors
 - Upward communication can be politically motivated and used as an influence tactic
- **Horizontal communication** is communication that flows among members of work groups, teams, or functional units who reside at the same level in the organization
 - Communication is used to coordinate effort, solve problems, share information, resolve conflicts, and build rapport
 - Success is dependent on how well members are able to work together as a team
- Formal Networks
 - **All-channel network structure** - a communication network in which any member can send and receive messages from any other
 - Ex. Student teams
 - **Circle network structure** - where members send and receive messages from individuals who are immediately adjacent to them
 - Information flows in a serial manner, from one member to another
 - A concern is that embellished or distorted information can potentially be passed along
 - Circle network does not permit or verify the content of the messages received with non-adjacent members
 - **Chain network structure** - a network in which information is passed from member to member, from one end of the chain to the other
 - Typical in hierarchical organizational structures, and utilizes downward communication
 - A possible weakness (or strength) is that the receiver is completely dependent on the adjacent person for information
 - Very much dependent on the nature of the task being performed by the team or work unit
 - **Y network structure** - one member controls the flow of information between one set of members and another
 - Blend of the wheel and chain structures
 - Teams or work units that use centralized networks often consist of a formal leader who makes final decisions on the basis of recommendations from members who have special expertise
 - **Wheel network structure** - communication network in which all communication between members is controlled by a single member

Formal Network Structures



- **Informal Communication Networks** are spontaneous and emergent patterns of communication that result from the choices individuals make on their own
 - **Grapevine** - the primary informal communication network within an organization
 - People circulating information about their work to other people
 - Information is passed verbally through “word of mouth” technology
 - **Rumours and Gossip**
 - **Rumours** → messages that travel along the grapevine that lack evidence as to their truth or validity
 - **Gossip** → rumours about other people

Not on Slides but in Textbook

10.6 - *How does communication affect job performance and organizational commitment?*

- **Supervisor Feedback:** a form of downward communication in which the supervisor provides information to a subordinate about his or her job performance

10.7- *What can people do to facilitate effective communication during the job interview?*

- **Job Interview:** a conversation initiated by one or more person to gather information and evaluate the qualifications of the applicant for a job
- **Reliability:** the extent to which the selection procedure (e.g. job interview) is free from random error
- **Predictive Validity:** the extent to which the selection procedure (e.g. job interview) predicts future job performance

Ch11: Team Characteristics and Processes

Team: two or more people who work independently over some time period to accomplish common goals related to some task-oriented purpose

- Interactions among member revolve around a deeper dependence on one another than the interactions within groups
- Interactions within teams occur with a specific task-related purpose in mind

11.1- What are the 5 general team types and their defining competencies?

Types of Teams

➤ **Work**

- Produce goods or provide services

➤ **Management**

- Integrate activities of subunits across business functions

➤ **Parallel**

- Provide recommendations and resolve issues

➤ **Project**

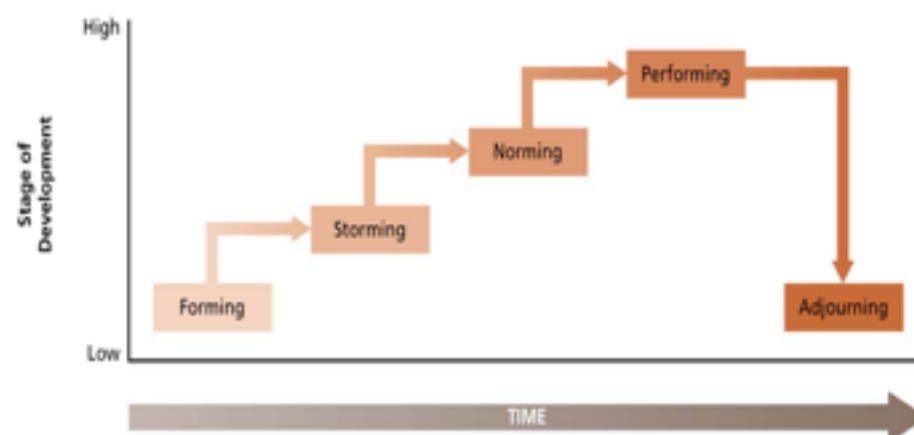
- Produce a one-time output (product, service, plan, design)

➤ **Action**

- Perform complex tasks that vary in duration and take place in highly visible or challenging circumstances

- **Virtual Teams:** teams in which the members are geographically dispersed, and interdependent activity occurs through e-mail, web conferencing, and instant messaging

Stages of Team Development



Forming

- Members orient themselves by trying to understand their boundaries in the team
- Try to get a feel of what is expected of the, what types of behaviors are out of bounds, and who's in charge

Storming

- Members remain committed to ideas they bring to the team
- This initial unwillingness to accommodate others' ideas triggers conflict that negatively affects some interpersonal relationships and harms the team's progress

Norming

- Members realize that they need to work together to accomplish team goals
- Consequently, they begin to cooperate with one another
- Feelings of solidarity develop as members work toward team goals

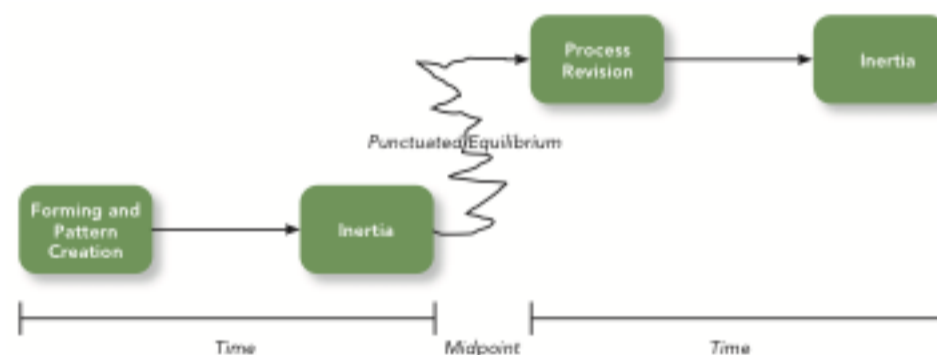
Performing

- Members are comfortable working within their roles, and the team makes progress toward goals

Adjourning

- Members experience anxiety and other emotions as they disengage and ultimately separate from the team

Stages of Team Development Punctuated Equilibrium



Punctuated Equilibrium: a sequence of team development during which not much gets done until the halfway point of a project, after which teams make necessary changes to complete the project on time

➤ Goal Interdependence

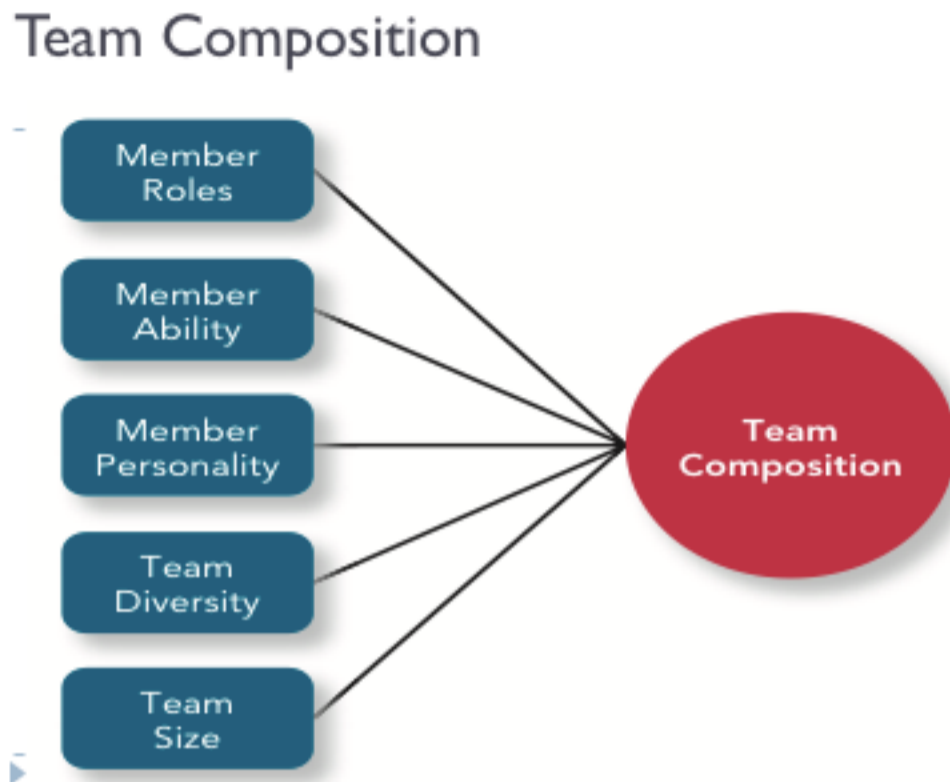
- The degree to which team members have a shared goal and align their individual goals with that vision

➤ Outcome Interdependence

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

11.3- What factors are involved in team composition?

Team Composition: the mix of the various characteristics that describe the individuals who work in the team



➤ Norms

- Shared expectations regarding behaviour within the group
- Codes of conduct for the group
- Established in order to provide regularity and predictability

Member Roles

Role: a pattern of behaviour a person is generally expected to display in a given context

Member Roles

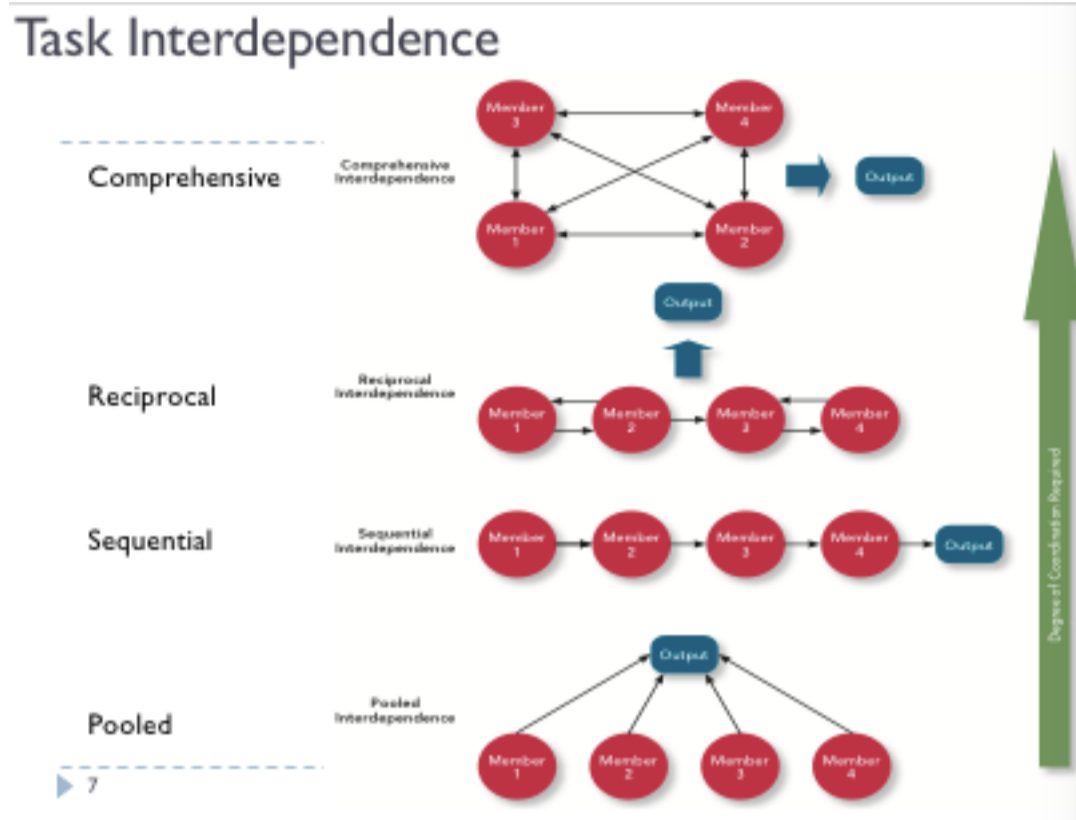
- Team Task Roles
- Team Building Roles
- Individualistic Roles

TEAM TASK ROLES	DESCRIPTION
Initiator-contributor	Proposes new ideas
Coordinator	Tries to coordinate activities among team members
Orienter	Determines the direction of the team's discussion
Devil's advocate	Offers challenges to the team's status quo
Energizer	Motivates the team to strive to do better
Procedural-technician	Performs routine tasks needed to keep progress moving
TEAM BUILDING ROLES	DESCRIPTION
Encourager	Praises the contributions of other team members
Harmonizer	Mediates differences between group members
Compromiser	Attempts to find the halfway point to end conflict
Gatekeeper/expediter	Encourages participation from teammates
Standard setter	Expresses goals for the team to achieve
Follower	Accepts the ideas of teammates
INDIVIDUALISTIC ROLES	DESCRIPTION
Aggressor	Deflates teammates, expresses disapproval with hostility
Blocker	Acts stubbornly resistant and disagrees beyond reason
Recognition seeker	Brags and calls attention to him- or herself
Self-confessor	Discloses personal opinions inappropriately
Slacker	Acts cynically, nonchalantly, or goof's off
Dominator	Manipulates team members for personal control

- **Team Task Roles:** behaviours that directly facilitate the accomplishment of team tasks
- **Team Building Roles:** behaviours that influence the quality of the team's social climate
- **Individualistic Roles:** behaviours that benefit the individual at the expense of the team
 - Individualistic role behaviours foster negative feelings among team members, which serve to hinder a team's ability to function and perform effectively

Member Ability and Tasks

- Disjunctive Task
 - One member with great ability = team success
- Conjunctive Task
 - One member with poor ability = team failure
- Additive Task
 - More members with great ability = team success



Member Personality

- Conscientiousness
 - More conscientious members = better team performance
 - Even one member with particularly low conscientiousness = lower team performance
- Agreeableness
 - More agreeable members = smoother interpersonal dynamics
 - More agreeable members = possibly lower team performance due to lack of constructive criticism
- Extraversion
 - Some extraverted members = better team performance
 - Too many extraverts = lower team performance due to power struggles/ unproductive conflict

11.4 - What are the types of team diversity and how do they influence team functioning?

Team Diversity

Team Diversity: the degree to which team members are different from one another

- Can enhance team performance when innovation is required, and when members can and want to understand and integrate ideas

Why Diversity has Positive Effects:

Value in Diversity Problem-Solving Approach: a theory that supports team diversity because it provides a larger pool of knowledge and perspectives

Why Diversity has Negative Effects:

Similarity-Attraction Approach: a theory explaining that team diversity can be counterproductive because people tend to avoid interacting with others who are unlike them

- **Surface Level Diversity:** diversity of observable attributes such as race, gender, ethnicity, and age
 - Negative effects on team performance *weaken* over time
- **Deep Level Diversity:** diversity of attributes that are inferred through observation or experience, such as one's values or personality
 - Negative effects on team performance *strengthen* over time

Team Size and Tasks

Research concluded that team members tend to be most satisfied with their team when the number of members is between 4 and 5.

Team Processes

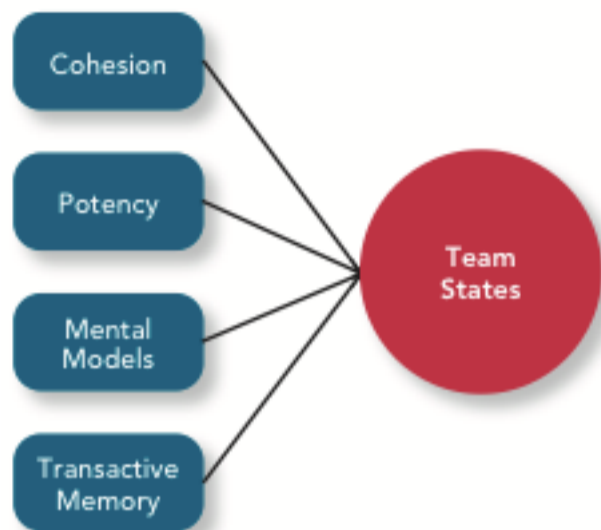
Team Process: the different types of activities and interactions that occur within a team as the team works towards its goals

- **Process Gain:** achievement of team outcomes greater than those one would expect on the basis of the capabilities of the individual members
 - This capability, which is synonymous with "synergy", is most critical in situations in which the complexity of the work is high or tasks require members to combine their knowledge, skills, and efforts to solve problems
- **Process Loss:** achievement of team outcomes less than those one would expect on the basis of the capabilities of the individual members
 - *Coordination loss* consumes time and energy that might be otherwise devoted to task activity
 - Coordination losses are often driven by *production blocking*, which occurs when members have to wait on one another before they can do their part of the team task

Team States

Team States: specific types of feelings and thoughts that coalesce in the minds of team members as consequence of their experience working together

Why are some teams more than the sum of their parts?

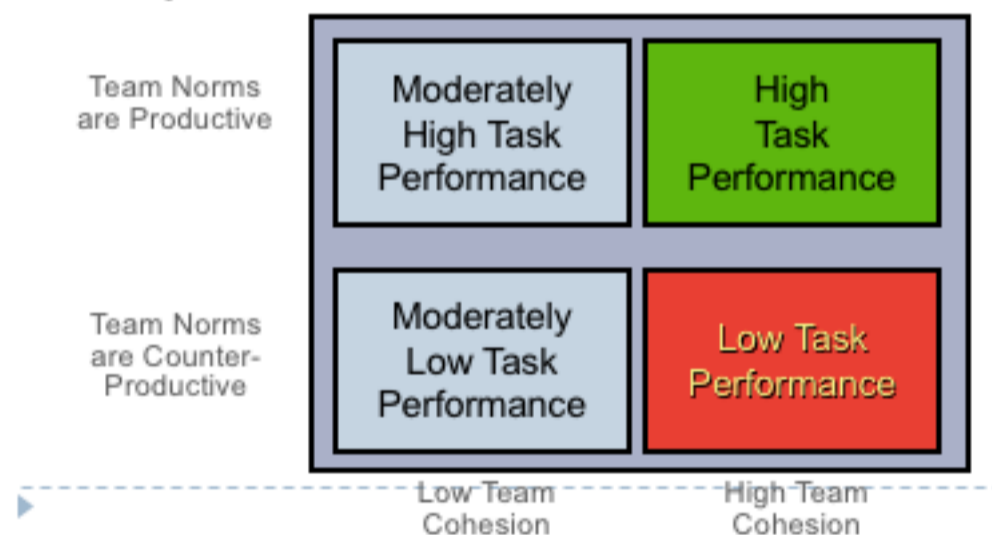


- **Cohesion:** a team state that occurs when members of the team develop strong emotional bonds to other members of the team and to the team itself

Team Cohesion

Exists when members of teams develop strong emotional bonds to other members of their team and to the team

...it depends on what the team's norms are!



Groupthink: behaviours that support conformity and team harmony at the expense of other team principles

- > Common Symptoms: illusion of invulnerability, unquestioned belief in group's morality, challenges to group's assumptions rationalized away, negatively stereotyping those who object to the group

- **Potency:** a team state reflecting the degree of confidence among team members that the team can be effective across situations and tasks
- **Mental Models:** the degree to which team members have a shared understanding of important aspects of the team and its task
- **Transactive Memory:** the degree to which team members; specialized knowledge is integrated into an effective system of memory for the team
 - Team effectiveness requires that members understand when their own specialized knowledge is relevant for the team and how their knowledge should be combined with other members to accomplish team goals

Not on Slides but in Textbook

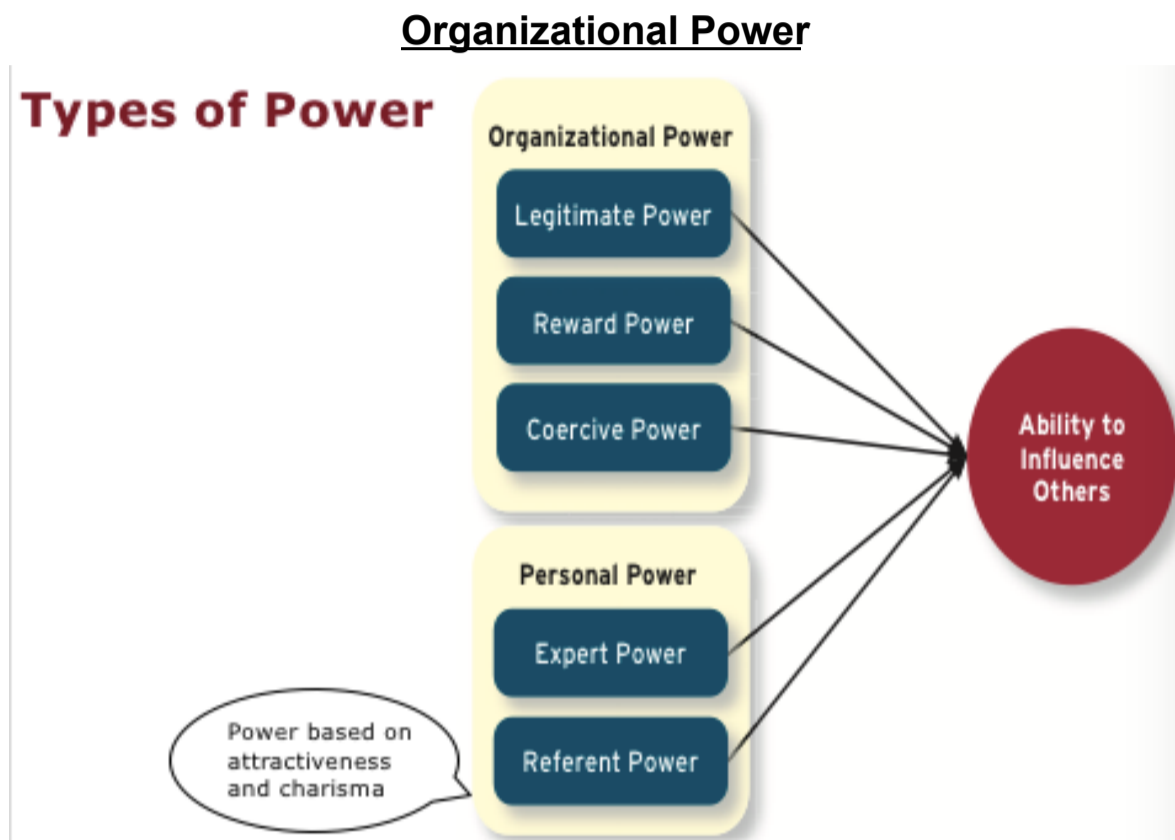
- **Transportable Teamwork Competencies:** team training that involves helping people develop general teamwork competencies that they can transport from one team context to another
 - Conflict resolution, collaborative problem solving, communications, goal setting and performance management, planning and task coordination
- **Cross-Training:** training team members in the duties and responsibilities of their teammates
- **Team Process Training:** the use of team experiences that facilitates the team's ability to function and perform more effectively as an intact unit
- **Team Building:** fun activities that facilitate team problem solving, trust, relationship building, and the clarification of role responsibilities

Ch12: Power, Influence, and Negotiation

12.1

Power: the ability to influence the behaviour of others and resist unwanted influence in return

12.2



- **Legitimate Power:** a form of organizational power based on authority or position
 - Sometimes referred to as *formal authority*
- **Reward Power:** a form of organizational power based on the account of resources or benefits
 - When someone has control over raises, performance evaluations, awards, more desirable job assignments, and the resources an employee might require to perform a job effectively.
- **Coercive Power:** a form of organizational power based on the ability to hand out punishment
 - Operates primarily on the principle of fear

Personal Power

- **Expert Power:** a form of organizational power based on expertise or knowledge
 - When people have a track record of high performance, ability to solve problems, or specific knowledge that's necessary to accomplish tasks- they're more likely to influence others who need that expertise
- **Referent Power:** a form or organizational power based on the attractiveness and charisma of the leader
 - The desire is generally derived from affection, admiration, or loyalty toward a specific individual
 - Ex. Political leaders, celebrities, sports figures

Contingency Factors

Leaders are better able to use their power to influence others when they have:

- Low substitutability -Existence of substitutes for rewards or resources the leader controls
- High discretion -Leader not restrained by organizational rules
- High centrality -Importance of the leader's role and interdependence with others
- High visibility -Other's know about the leader and resources he/she controls

- **Substitutability:** the degree to which people have alternatives in accessing the resources that a leader controls
- **Discretion:** degree to which managers have the right to make decisions on their own
- **Centrality:** how important a person's job is and how many people depend on that person to accomplish their tasks
- **Visibility:** how aware others are of a leader and the resources that leader can provide

Influence

- Having power increase our *ability* to influence behaviour

Influence: the use of behaviours to cause behavioural or attitudinal changes in others

- Influence can be seen as directional
 - Most frequently occurs downward (managers influencing employees), but can also be lateral (peers influencing peers), or upward (employees influencing managers)

12.3

Influence Tactics

Influence tactics



Most Effective

- **Rational Persuasion:** the use of logical arguments and hard facts to show someone that a request is worthwhile
 - Includes facts and data
 - Most commonly applied influence tactic and most effective when it helps show that the proposal is important and feasible
- **Inspirational Appeal:** an influence tactic designed to appeal to one's values and ideals, thereby creating an emotional or attitudinal reaction
 - Leaders must have insight on what's important to the target
- **Consultation:** an influence tactic whereby the target is allowed to participate in deciding how to carry out or implement a request
 - Consultation is most effective in organizations and cultures that value democratic decision making
- **Collaboration (as influence method):** an influence tactic whereby the leader makes it easier for the target to complete a request by offering to work with and help the target

Moderately Effective

- **Integration:** the use of favours, compliments, or friendly behaviour to make the target feel better about the influencer
- **Personal Appeal:** refers to helping another person because you like them and they asked for your help
- **Apprising:** requestor explains why performing the request will benefit the target personally

Least Effective

- **Pressure:** an influence tactic in which the requestor attempts to use coercive power through threats and demands
- **Coalitions:** an influence tactic in which the influencer enlists other people to help influence the target
 - Coalitions take advantage of peer pressure
 - Ex. Unions that threaten to strike if their demands are not met

Responses to Influence Attempts

Internalization: a response to influence tactics in which the target agrees with and becomes committed to the target

Compliance: a response to influence tactics in which the target is willing to do what the leader asks but does it with a degree of ambivalence

Resistance (to influence tactics): a response to influence tactics in which the target refuses to perform a request and puts forth an effort to avoid having to do it

Responses to Influence Attempts



Resistance to (Managers') Influence Attempts

Dysfunctional Resistance	Constructive Resistance
Purpose: prevent the manager's instruction or request from being carried out.	Purpose: engage in dialogue with the manager to find a better course of action.
Examples: saying "no", ignoring the request, stating that the request was not understood	Examples: suggesting that a different solution may be more effective, explaining legitimate concerns with the request

More likely to be well-received by the manager, especially if he/she **already trusts** you.

12.4

Power and Influence in Action

- **Organizational Politics:** individual actions directed toward the goal of furthering their own self-interests
- **Political Skill:** the ability to understand others and the use of that knowledge to influence them to further personal or organizational objectives
 - *Networking ability*- an adeptness at identifying and developing diverse contacts
 - *Social astuteness*- tendency to observe others and accurately interpret their behaviour
 - *Interpersonal influence*- having an unassuming and convincing personal style that's flexible enough to adapt to different situations
 - *Apparent sincerity*- appearing to others to have high levels of honesty and genuineness



Political Skill

Component	Definition
Social astuteness	Able to carefully observe others, to understand social interactions, to be aware of one's own behaviour, and to interpret that of others.
Interpersonal influence	Is humble (not arrogant) yet convincing; able to make people feel comfortable (unguarded).
Networking ability	Develops and uses various networks of people who can help one achieve personal goals; master of quid pro quo.
<u>Apparent sincerity</u> (essential!!)	Skilled at being perceived as sincere, honest, and open.

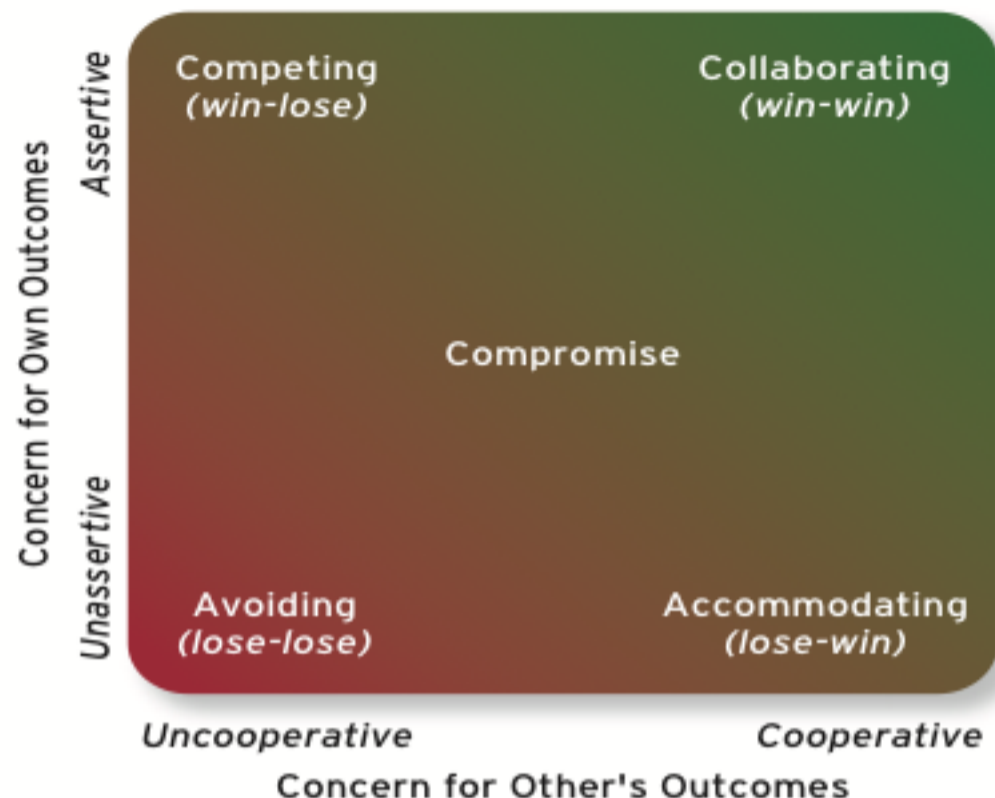
14

Conflict Resolution

The 5 different styles you can use when handling conflict (each one appropriate in different circumstances) can be viewed as combinations of two separate factors:

- > How *assertive* they are in pursuing their goals?
- > How *cooperative* they are with regard to the concerns of others?

Conflict Resolution



- **Competing:** a conflict resolution style by which one party attempts to get his or her own goals met without concern for the other party's results
- **Avoiding:** a conflict resolution style by which one party wants to remain neutral, stay away from conflict, or postpone the conflict to gather information or let things cool down
- **Accommodating:** a conflict resolution style by which one party gives in to other and acts in a completely unselfish way
- **Collaboration (as conflict resolution method):** a conflict resolution style whereby both parties work together to maximize outcomes
- **Compromise:** a conflict resolution style whereby both parties work together to maximize outcomes

12.6

Negotiations: a process in which two or more interdependent individuals discuss and attempt to reach agreement about their differences

- **Distributive Bargaining:** win-lose style with fixed pie, zero sum conditions
- **Integrative Bargaining:** win-win style utilizing mutual respect and problem solving

Negotiation Stages

- *Preparation*
 - Arguably the single most important stage of the negotiating process
 - During preparation, each party determines what are its goals and whether the party has anything to offer
 - Parties should determine their BATNA (*best alternative to a negotiated agreement*)
 - A **BATNA** describes each negotiator's bottom line
- *Exchanging Information*
 - Non Confrontational process
 - Each party puts their case and explains how they arrived to their conclusions
 - This stage contains active listening and lots of questions
- *Bargaining*
 - The goal is for each party to walk away feeling like they gained something in value
 - Both parties likely must make concessions and give up something to get something in return
- *Closing and Commitment*
 - Process of formalizing an agreement reached

Not in Slides but in Textbook

- Alternative dispute resolution
- Mediation
- Arbitration (a process by which a third party determines a binding settlement to a dispute between two parties)

Ch13: Leadership Styles and Behaviours

13.1

What does it mean to lead?

→ Influencing others so that they are more motivated to contribute to the realization of your goals

Leadership: the use of power and influence to direct the activities of followers toward goal achievement

not in slides but in textbook

- **Leader-member Exchange Theory:** a theory describing how leader-member relationships develop over time on a dyadic basis
 - **Role Taking:** a phase in a leader-follower relationship when a leader provides an employee with job expectations and the follower tries to meet those expectations
 - **Role Making:** the phase in a leader-follower relationship when a follower voices his/her own expectations for the relationship, resulting in a free-flowing exchange of opportunities and resources for activities and effort

13.2

Leader traits/characteristics

➤ What traits/characteristics distinguish leaders from non-leaders?

TABLE 12-2 Traits/Characteristics Related to Leader Emergence and Effectiveness

DESCRIPTION OF TRAIT/CHARACTERISTIC	LINKED TO EMERGENCE?	LINKED TO EFFECTIVENESS?
High conscientiousness	√	
Low agreeableness	√	
Low neuroticism		
High openness to experience	√	√
High extraversion	√	√
High general cognitive ability	√	√
High energy level	√	√
High stress tolerance	√	√
High self-confidence	√	√

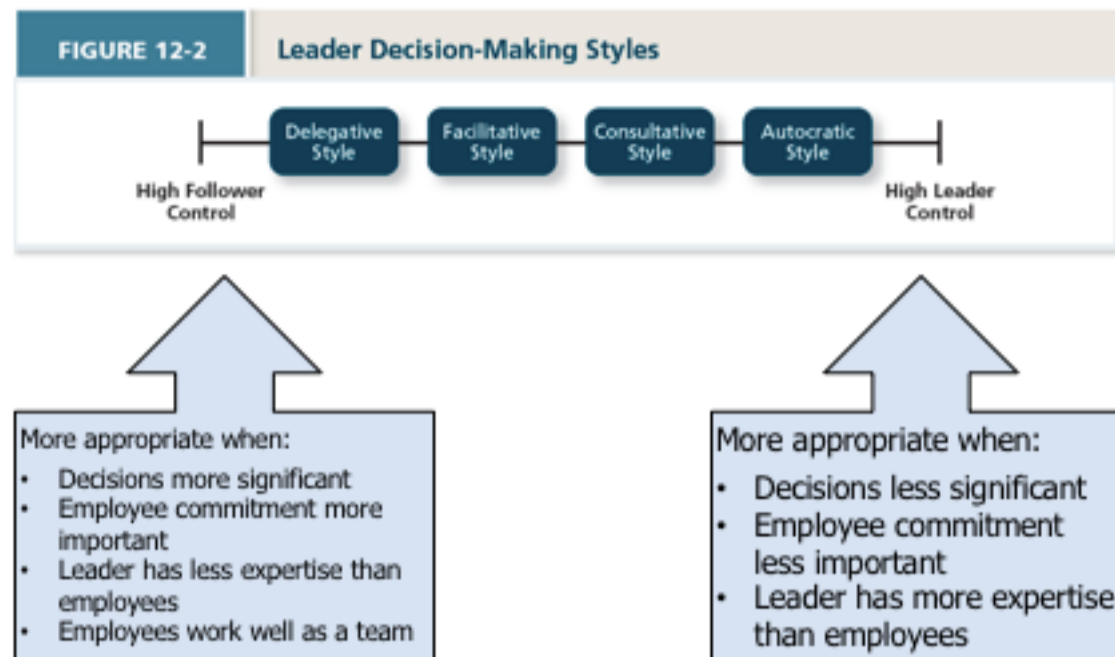
Relatively weak predictors of leadership

Leader Effectiveness: the degree to which the leader's actions result in the achievement of the unit's goals, the continued commitment of the unit's employees, and the development of the mutual trust, respect, and obligations in leader-member dyads

Leader Emergence: the process of becoming a leader in the first place

now everything from here is on slides

Leader Decision-Making Styles



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

not in slides

How can leaders effectively manage their choice of decision-making styles?

➤ **Time-driven Model of Leadership** offers one potential guide

- : a leadership model in which the focus shifts away from autocratic, consultative, facilitative, and delegative LEADERS to autocratic, consultative, facilitative, and delegative SITUATIONS, and in which several factors combine to make some decision-making styles more effective in a given situation and others less effective

- Decision significance
- Importance of commitment
- Leader expertise
- Likelihood of commitment
- Shared objectives
- Employee expertise
- Teamwork skills

13.4

Day-to-Day Leadership Behaviours

Two broad dimensions encompass day-to-day leadership behaviours:

- **Initiating Structure:** a pattern of behaviour in which the leader defines and structures the roles of employees in pursuit of goal attainment
 - Only if employees need it! Otherwise this becomes “micro-managing”
 - Directive
 - Task-oriented
- **Consideration:** a pattern of behaviour in which the leader creates job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for employee ideas, and considerations of employee feelings
 - When employees are stressed out, and/or they start to develop their expertise
 - Supportive
 - Relations-oriented

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The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership: a theory stating that the optimal combination of initiating structure and consideration depends on the readiness of the employees in the work unit

13.5

Transformational Leadership Behaviours

Transformational Leadership: a pattern of behaviour in which the leader inspires followers to commit to a shared vision that provides meaning to their work while also serving as a role model who helps followers develop their own potential and view problems from new perspectives

- **Laissez-Faire Leadership:** a type of leadership in which the leader avoids leadership duties all together
 - Important actions are delayed, responsibility ignored, and power and influence go unutilized
 - No good!
- **Transactional Leadership:** a pattern or behaviour in which the leader rewards or disciplines the follower on the basis of performance
 - **Passive Management-by-Exception:** a type of transactional leadership in which the leader waits around for mistakes and errors, then takes corrective action as necessary
 - **Active Management-by-Exception:** a type of transactional leadership in which the leader arranges to monitor mistakes and errors actively, and takes corrective action when required
 - **Contingent Reward:** a more active and effective type of transactional leadership, in which the leader attains follower agreement on what needs to be done using rewards in exchange for adequate performance

- Transformational Leadership Behaviours: (gives referent power)
 - **Idealized influence:** the power held by a leader who behaves in ways that earn the admiration, trust, and respect of followers, causing followers to want to identify with and emulate the leader
 - **Inspirational motivation:** a type of influence in which the leader behaves in ways that foster an enthusiasm for and commitment to a shared vision of the future
 - **Intellectual stimulation:** a type of influence in which the leader behaves in ways that challenge followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions and reframing old situations in new ways
 - **Individualized consideration:** a type of influence in which the leader behaves in ways that help followers achieve their potential through coaching, development, and mentoring

> Transformational leadership behaviours are relatively more effective when employees are highly insecure

> Transactional leadership behaviours are relatively more effective when employees need clear recognition

Followers

- Supporting someone's leadership by endorsing his/her goal and contributing to its realization

Possible Followership Styles:

- Passive
 - "Yes sir/ma'am!" (highly different)
 - Waits for leader to determine solutions, give directions
 - Does best to carry out directions given
- Proactive (should earn leader's trust first)
 - "What if...?", "Have you thought of...?"
 - Helps leader make best decisions by:
 - Proactively sharing relevant information
 - Challenging leader's ideas/assumptions

Ch14: Organizational Structure

Organizational Structure: formally dictates how jobs and tasks are divided and coordinated between individuals and groups within the company

- **Organizational Chart:** a drawing that represents every job in the organization and the formal reporting relationships between those jobs
 - Such charts vary depending on 5 structural elements or dimensions:
 - **Work Specialization:** the degree to which tasks in an organization are divided into separate jobs
 - **Chain of Command:** specifies who reports to the whom | signifies formal authority relationships
 - **Span of Control:** represents how many employees each manager in the organization has responsibility for
 - Narrow spans of control allow managers to be much more hands-on with employees, using directive leadership styles while developing close mentoring relationships. Especially more important if the manager has more skill or expertise than the subordinates
 - **Centralization (vs. Decentralization):** aspect of culture that dictates where decisions are formally made in organizations
 - If top managers within a company have the authority to make final decisions, we would say the organization has a highly “centralized” structure
 - If lower level employees are given authority to make decisions, an organization has a “decentralized” structure
 - Decentralization becomes necessary as a company grows larger
 - **Formalization:** the degree to which rules and procedures are used to standardize behaviours and decisions in an organization

The 5 dimensions of organizational structure create *at least* two types of firms:

- **Mechanistic Organization (Bureaucracy):** Efficient, rigid, predictable, and standardized organizations that thrive in stable environments
 - Associated with structure that relies on high levels of formalization, a rigid and hierarchical chain of command, high degrees of work specialization, centralization decision making, and narrow spans of control
- **Organic Organizations:** flexible, adaptive, outward-focused organizations that thrive in dynamic environments
 - Structure that relies on low levels of formalization, weak or multiple chains of command, low levels of work specialization, and wide spans of control

Organizational Structure (continued)

Mechanistic	Organic
High degree of specialization. Narrow view of tasks.	Low degree of specialization. Broader view of tasks.
Clear line of authority.	Employees think more broadly of where their responsibilities lie.
High level of hierarchical control.	Knowledge and expertise decentralized and individual decisions encouraged.
Vertical communication.	Lateral communication is encouraged.
Employee encouraged to develop firm-specific knowledge within their area of specialization.	Employee encouraged to develop knowledge and expertise's outside of their specialization.

14.3

Organizational Design: the process of creating, selecting, or changing the structure of an organization

Depends on:

- **Business Environment:** the outside environment, including customers, competitors, suppliers, distributors, and other factors external to the firm, which all affect organizational design
 - *Stable* environments don't change frequently or quickly, so they allow organizations to focus on efficiency
 - *Dynamic* environments change on a frequent basis and require organizations to have structures that are more adaptive
- **Company Strategy:** an organization's objective and goals and how it tries to capitalize on its assets to make money
 - *Low cost producer* strategy rely on selling products at the lowest possible cost, and need to be as efficient as possible.
 - *Differentiation strategy* believes people will pay more for a product that is unique, and has a higher level of quality.
- **Technology:** the method by which an organization transforms inputs to outputs
- **Company Size:** the number of employees in a company

Common Organizational Forms

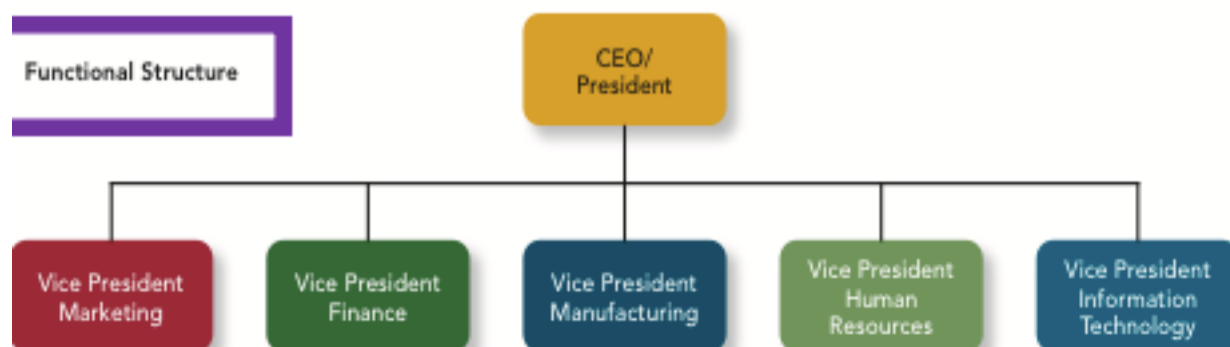
- **Simple Structures:** an organizational form that features one person as the central decision-making figure
 - Generally used by extremely small organizations in which the manager, president, and owner are all the same person
 - Is a flat organization

Simple Structures



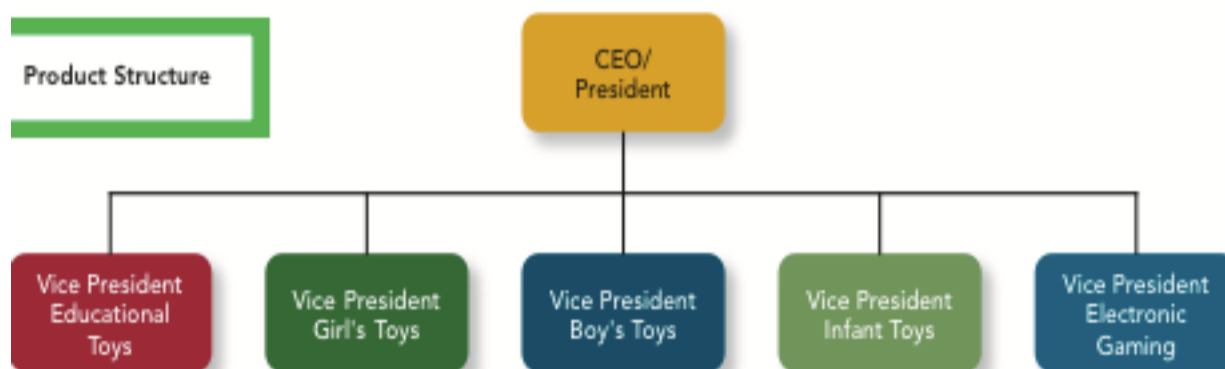
- **Bureaucratic Structures:** an organizational form that exhibits many of the facets of a mechanistic organization
 - Designed for efficiency and rely on high levels of work specialization, formalization, centralization of authority, rigid and well-defined chains of command and relatively narrow spans of control
 - **Functional Structure:** an organizational form in which employees are grouped by the functions they perform for the organization
 - The success of the functional structure is based on the efficiency advantages that come with having a high degree of work specialization that's centrally coordinated
 - Small companies naturally develop into functionally based structures as they grow larger

Multi-Divisional Structures

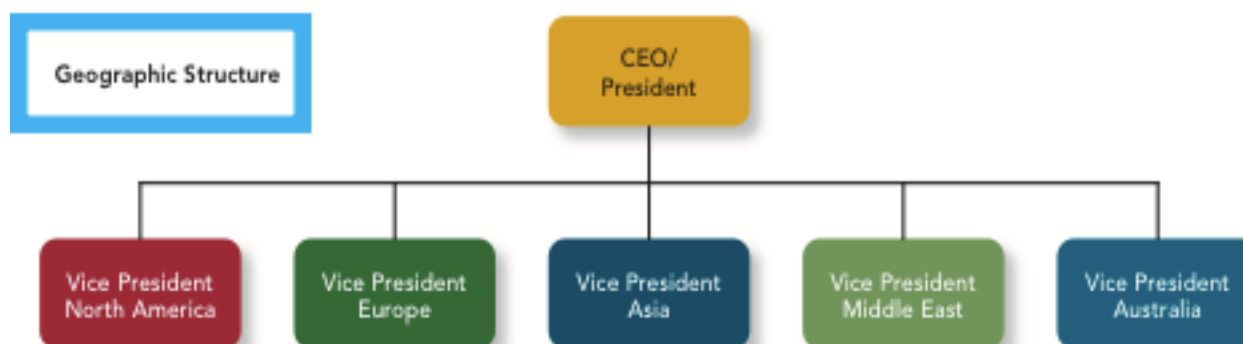


- **Multidivisional Structure:** a bureaucratic organizational form in which employees are grouped by product, geography, or client
 - Each division operates relatively autonomously from the others and has its own functional groups
 - Multidivisional structures generally develop from companies with functional structures whose interests and goals become too diverse for the structure to handle
- **Product Structure:** an organizational form in which employees are grouped around different products that the company produces
 - Sometimes the divisions don't communicate and they don't have the ability to learn from one another
 - Some companies want their divisions to compete

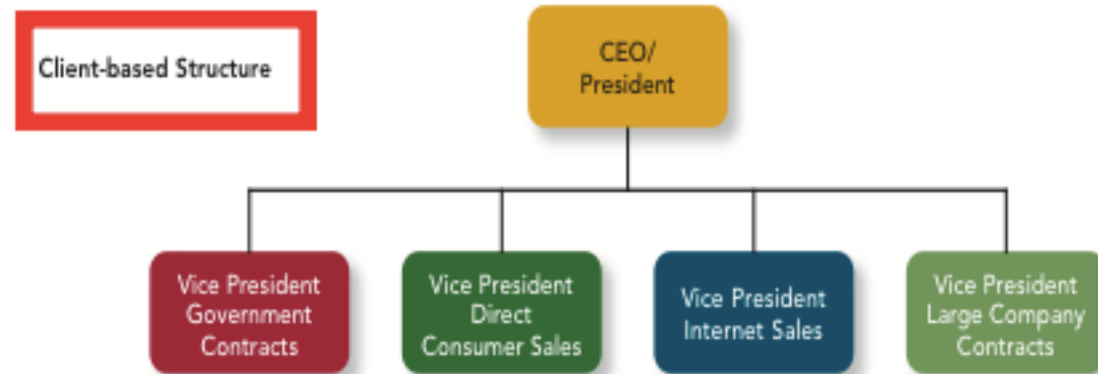
Multi-Divisional Structures



- **Geographic Structure:** an organizational form in which employees are grouped around the different locations where the company does business
 - Reasons for developing a geographic structure revolve around the different tastes of customers in different regions, size of the locations that need to be covered by different salespeople, or the facts that the manufacturing and distribution of a product are better served by a geographic location

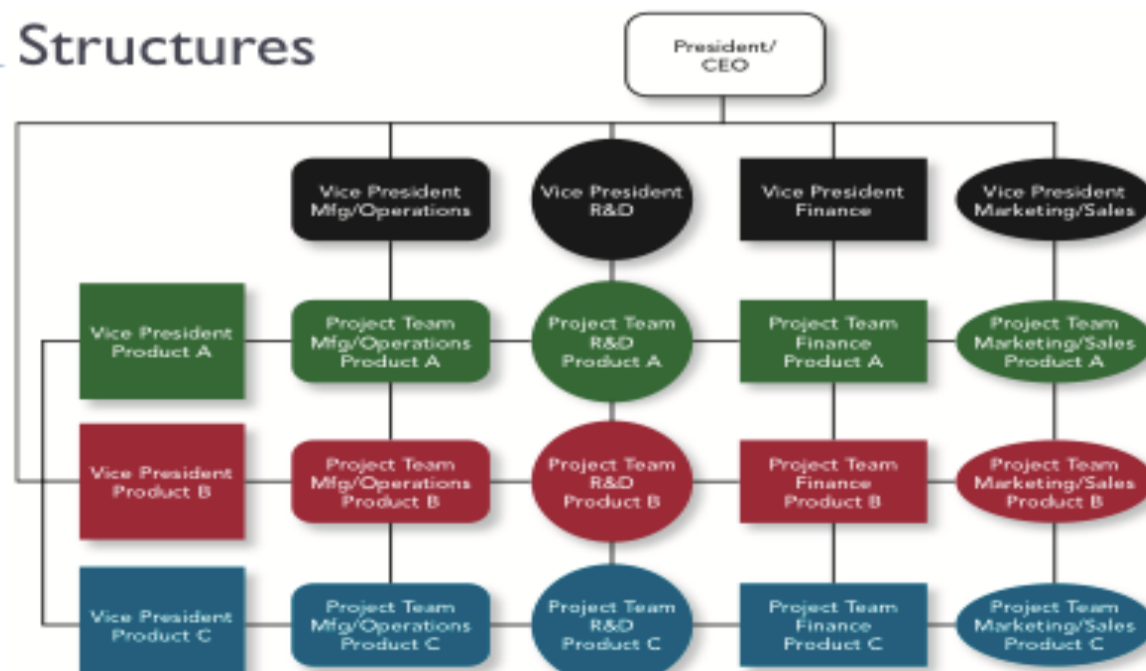


- **Client Structure:** an organizational form in which employees are organized around serving customers



- **Matrix Structures:** a complex form of organizational structure that combines a functional and multidivisional grouping
 - The matrix allows an organization to put together very flexible teams on the basis of experiences and skills
 - This enables it to adjust much more quickly to the environment than a traditional bureaucratic structure would
 - The matrix gives each employee two chains of command, two groups with which to interact, and two sources of information to consider.
 - This doubling of traditional structural elements can create high stress levels for employees if the demands of their functional grouping are at odds with the demands of their product- or client-based grouping
 - The situation can become particularly stressful if one of the two grouping has more power than the other

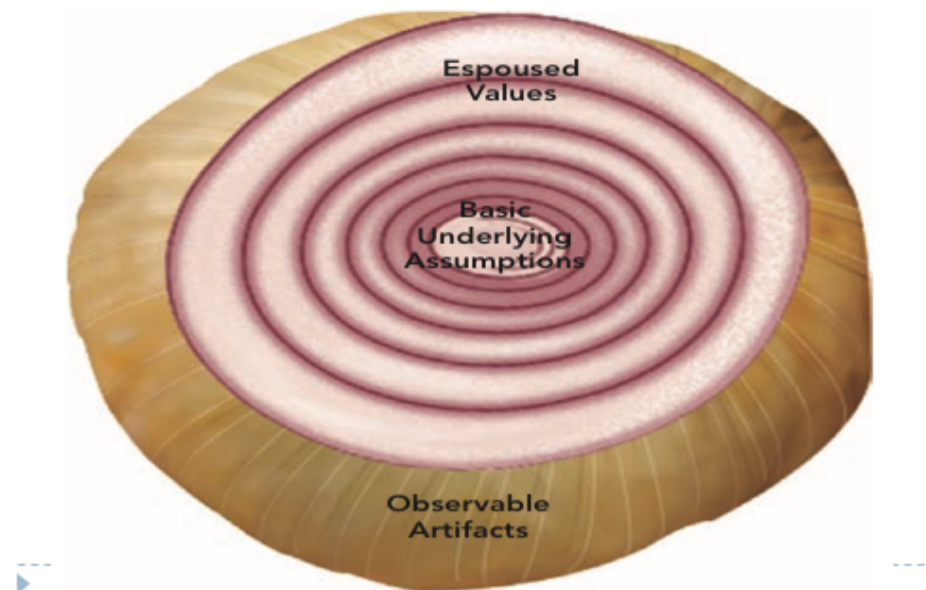
Matrix Structures



Matrix structure: Employees remain members of a functional department while also reporting to a divisional manager.

Ch15: Organizational Culture and Change

Organizational Culture: the shared social knowledge within an organization regarding the rules, norms, and values that shape the attitudes and behaviours of its employees

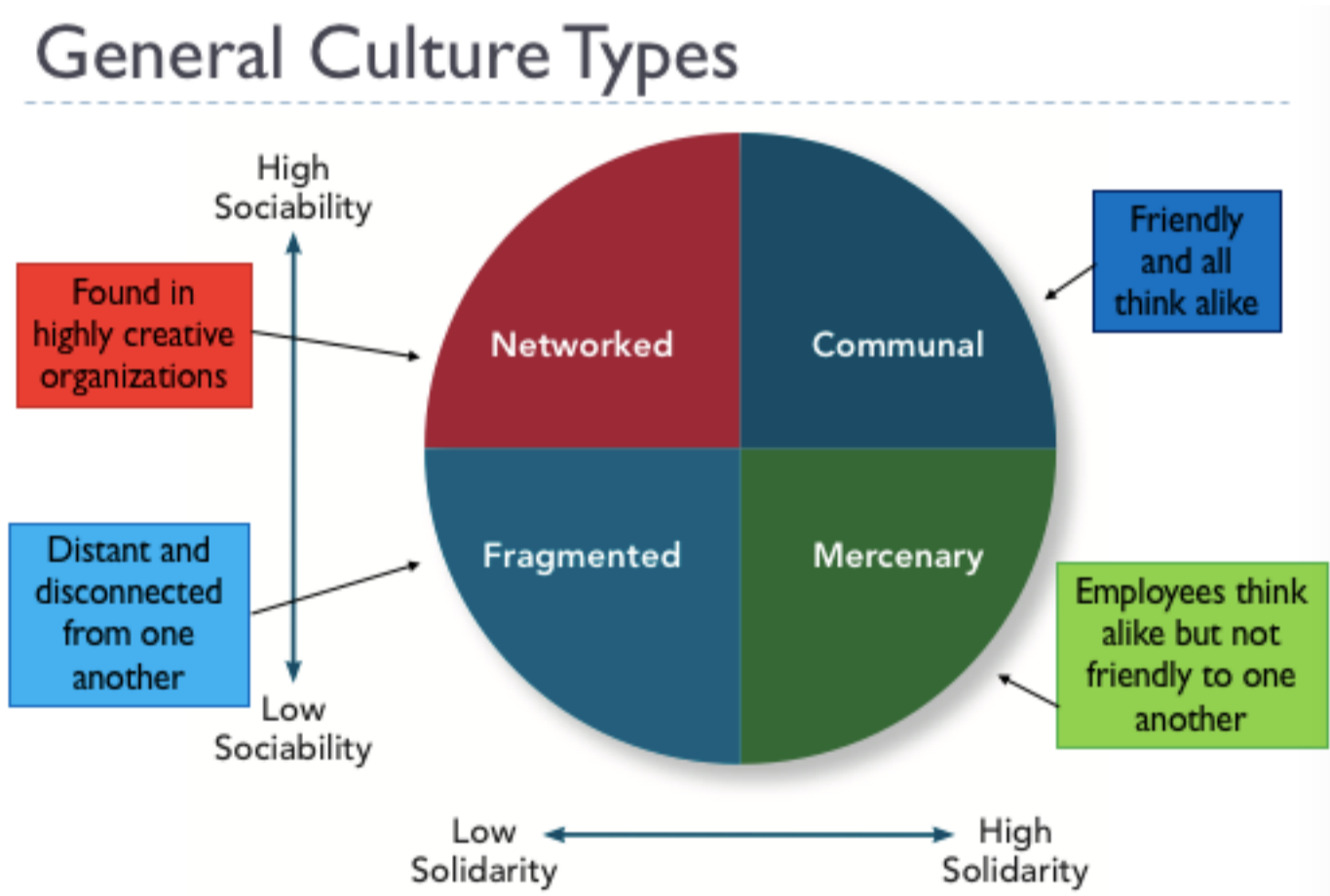


3 Major Components to any Organization's Culture

- **Observable Artifacts:** aspects of an organization's culture that employees and outsiders can easily see or talk about
 - There are 6 major types of artifacts:
 - **Symbols:** the images an organization uses, which generally convey messages
 - E.g. corporate logo, employee uniforms
 - **Physical Structures:** the organization's buildings and internal office designs
 - **Language:** the jargon, slang, and slogans used within an organization
 - **Stories:** anecdotes, accounts, legends, and myths passed down from cohort to cohort within an organization
 - **Rituals:** the daily or weekly planned routines that occur in an organization
 - **Ceremonies:** formal events, generally performed in front of an audience of organizational members
- **Espoused Values:** the beliefs, philosophies, and norms that a company explicitly states
 - E.g. published documents, such as a company's vision or mission statement, or verbal statements made to employees by executives and managers
- **Basic Underlying Assumptions:** taken-for-granted beliefs and philosophies that are so ingrained that employees simply act on them rather than questioning the validity of their behaviour in a given situation
 - E.g. safety in an engineering firm

General Cultural Types

- One popular typology divides organizational culture along two dimensions: *solidarity and sociability*
 - *Solidarity* is the degree to which group members think and act alike
 - *Sociability* represents how friendly employees are to one another
- **Fragmented Culture:** an organizational culture type in which employees are distant and disconnected from one another
- **Mercenary Culture:** an organizational culture type in which employees think alike but are not friendly together
- **Networked Culture:** an organizational culture type in which employees are friendly to one another, but everyone thinks differently and does his/her own thing
- **Communal Culture:** an organizational culture type in which employees are friendly to one another and all think alike

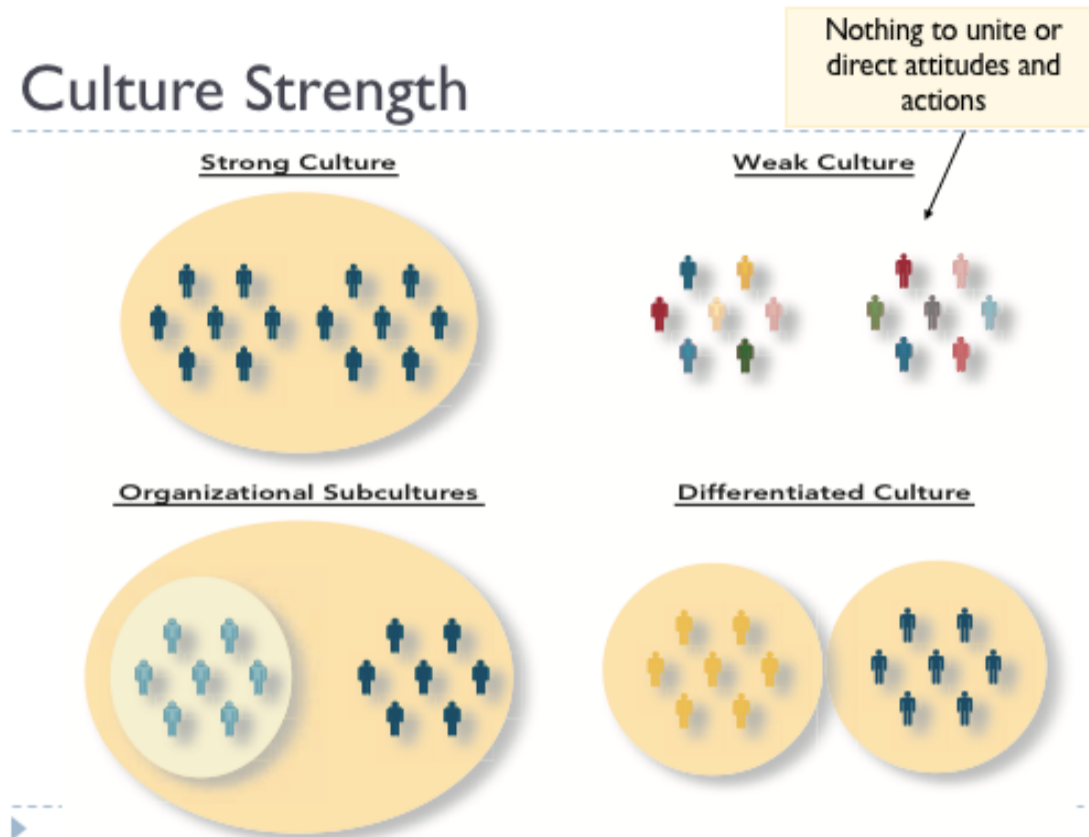


Not in Slides

- Service-Oriented Leadership Behaviour
- Service Culture
- Service-Oriented Employee Behaviours
- Customer Satisfaction
- Unit Sales

15.3

Culture Strength: the degree to which employees agree about how things should happen within the organization and behave accordingly



Pros and Cons of a Strong Culture

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

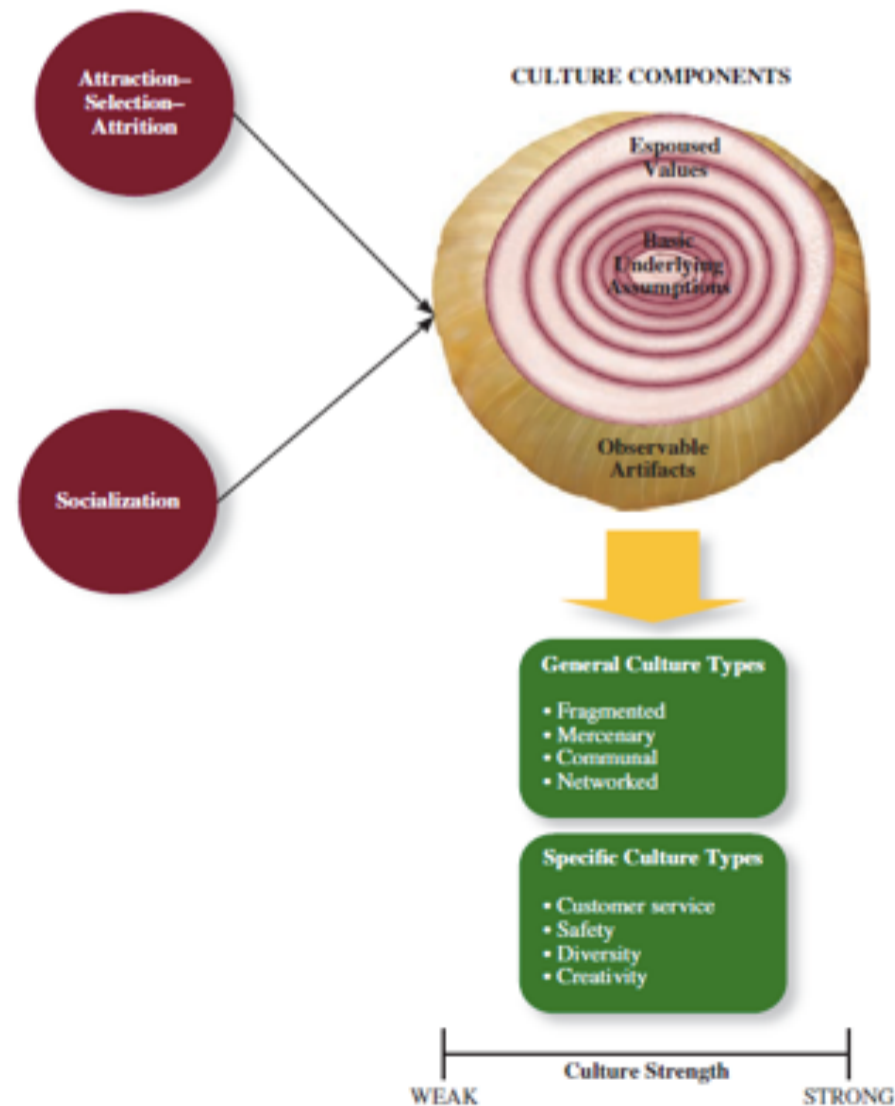
- **Subcultures:** cultures created within small subsets of the organization's employees
- **Countercultures:** subcultures whose values do not match those of the organization

Maintaining an Organizational Culture

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

- Some applicants won't apply due to a perceived lack of fit
- In addition, organizations will select candidates on the basis of whether their personalities fit the culture, further weeding out potential "misfits"

- **Socialization:** the primary process by which employees learn the social knowledge that enables them to understand and adapt to the organization's culture
 - **Anticipatory Stage:** a stage of socialization that begins as soon as a potential employee develops an image of what it would be like to work for a company
 - **Encounter Stage:** a stage of socialization beginning the day an employee starts work, during which employee compares the information as an outsider to the information learned as an insider
 - **Reality Shock:** a mismatch of information that occurs when an employee finds that aspects of working at a company are not what he/she expected them to be
 - **Understanding and Adaptation:** the final stage of socialization, during which newcomers come to learn the content areas of socialization and internalize the norms and expected behaviours of the organization



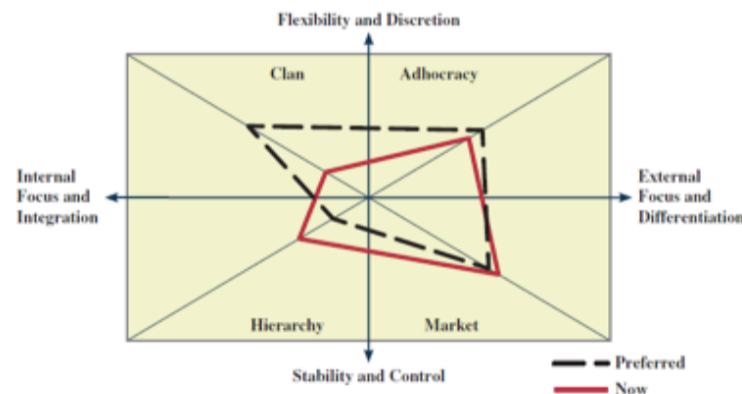
The Culture Change Process

1. Analysis and Diagnosis: Is There a Need to Change?
 - a. Is the status quo working?
2. Understanding and Managing Resistance?
 - a. **Resistance:** the deliberate act of opposing or withstanding change
3. Change Interventions?
 - a. *Selection*
 - b. *Training*
 - c. *Performance Management*
 - d. *Changes in Leadership*
 - e. *Mergers and Acquisitions*
4. Evaluating the Change Process?
 - a. Did the change occur? Did it change happen in the better direction? Are you better off?

I. Analysis and Diagnosis: Is There a Need to Change?

▶ OCAI

- ▶ Organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI), a structured diagnostic tool used to describe and categorize corporate cultures



2. Understanding and Managing Resistance?

- ▶ Resistance refers to the deliberate act of opposing or withstanding change
- ▶ Employees can express resistance in many different ways
 - ▶ Lower task performance
 - ▶ Lower levels of organizational citizenship behaviour
 - ▶ Elevated counterproductive behaviour
 - ▶ Increased withdrawal

3. Change Interventions?

- ▶ Selection
- ▶ Training
- ▶ Performance Management
- ▶ Changes in Leadership
- ▶ Mergers and Acquisitions

4. Evaluating the Change Process?

- ▶ Did change occur? And if so, did the change happen in the desired direction?
 - ▶ Example of Evidence
 - ▶ Re-administer your diagnostic tool (e.g. OCAI)
 - ▶ Look for evidence of improved job performance, stronger (and the right kind of) commitment, reduced turnover, higher job satisfaction, less stress, increased motivation, greater trust, better decisions, less conflict within project teams

How Important is Culture?

> Person-organization fit is the degree to which a person's personality and values match the culture of an organization

Steps Organizations Can Take

- > Realistic Job Previews
- > Orientation Programs
- > Mentoring

30% before midterm, 70% all chapters after midterm
80 Multiple Choice or T/F

