

Lecture 3, Jan 11, 2023

Organizational Behaviour

- Organizations are groups of people working together for a common goal
 - A social invention
 - The objective needs to be something that society wants
 - Even if it's only one person, that can be an organization if the person is working towards an objective
- The field of organizational behaviour has 3 common goals:
 1. Prediction
 - e.g. picking who to hire out of a pool of applicants
 - * From an equity perspective, being consistent is important (everyone needs to get the same questions for the same role)
 - Predictions come from experience, e.g. preferring to hire from a certain university because these individuals have been more competent in the past
 2. Explanation
 3. Management
- Many methods are used: observations, interviews, surveys, experiments, etc
- OB has many critical applications, e.g. managing medical professionals
- We can make observations through statistical correlations, e.g. pay incentives and individual productivity, but it's important to note correlation does not imply causation
- OB creates positive work environments that contribute to employee health and wellness, thus increasing productivity
 - Note well-being is an *affect* (it is long-lasting), whereas happiness is a temporary emotion
 - “Creating an environment in which you are better able to succeed”

Psychological Capital (PsyCap)

- An important contributor to employee success and well-being
- Refers to 4 factors (HERO):
 - Hope
 - * Charting a course towards a goal
 - * Persevering toward one's goals and using multiple pathways to achieve one's goals
 - (Self-)Efficacy
 - * When we're confident, we're willing to be seen
 - * Confidence to take on and put in effort
 - Resilience
 - * Ability to bounce back from setbacks
 - Optimism
 - * Internal attributions about positive events in the present and future
 - * External attributions about negative events
 - * Knowing your ability and also what's outside your control
- PsyCap is a resource that organizations provide us with to support us
- In practice, meta-studies show a high correlation between PsyCap and satisfaction, commitment, etc

Lecture 4/5, Jan 16, 2023

Self-Awareness & Personality

- A person's tendency toward *thinking, behaving and feeling* in consistent ways across different types of situations and time
 - Approach to interaction (behaviour)
 - Approach to perception/processing information (thinking)

- Approach to interpreting and reacting (feeling)
- As an observer, what you see of others is the behavioural component of their personality
 - You don't see how they think – this is more hidden
 - Sometimes you can interpret how they feel
- The “Big Five” (“OCEAN”) model
 - Openness: imagination, feelings actions, ideas
 - * High scoring individuals are more curious and adventurous
 - * Low scoring individuals are more practical and routine oriented, likes consistency
 - Conscientiousness: competence, self-discipline, thoughtfulness and goal-drivenness
 - * High scorers have responsibility, accountability and dependability
 - * Low scorers are impulsive, careless and disorganized
 - Extroversion: social, assertiveness, emotional expression
 - Agreeableness: cooperativeness, trustworthiness
 - * High scorers are more helpful and cooperative, even at their own detriment
 - * Low scorers are more suspicious of others and more critical
 - Neuroticism: opposite of emotional stability
 - * Emotional stability is our ability to manage our emotions
 - * Knowing when to release those emotions
- Some factors in the OCEAN model are closely correlated, e.g. openness and agreeableness; this could be a limitation
- When society has expectations for us that differ from what we actually are, we push ourselves in that direction
- Personality does change, but it's typically a stable trait
 - Personality is complex
- Behaviour is the observable component of personality
 - Behaviour is influenced by personality and other factors such as the current environment

The Person-Situation Debate

- How do we draw conclusions from what we see about the behaviour of a person?
- There are 3 approaches:
 1. Dispositional approach: focuses on individual dispositions and personality
 - “everything is associated with personality”
 - e.g. when someone is late consistently, it is because they are low on conscientiousness
 2. Situational approach: individuals' behaviour are more motivated by reward and punishment
 - Based on research
 - The situation or external factors cause their behaviour to unfold this way
 - e.g. the individual will stop showing up late if they are rewarded for being on time or punished for being late
 3. Interactionist approach: considers both the situation and personality
 - Situations can be described as either “weak” or “strong”
 - * “Weak” situations have loosely defined roles and rules, weak reward and punishment; in this situation personality has the strongest effect
 - * “Strong” situations have more defined roles and rules, stronger reward and punishment; in this situation personality has less of an impact
 - Some personality characteristics are useful in certain situations
 - There is no one “best” personality, rather it's important to see who “fits” the best

Self-Awareness

- Self-awareness allows us to collect observations about how we're feeling
 - Understanding how you behave under pressure
- Self-awareness facilitates development of interpersonal skills and allow you to manage yourself
 - Learn about how you're going to adapt and engage with others in the workplace

- Setting appropriate goals and management of stress
- To know what’s expected of us and how to respond
- Improve performance
- Being self-aware also requires you to be aware of how others are feeling
- Self awareness concepts:
 - Locus of control: internal locus of control means you feel you have control; external locus of control means you feel passive
 - * You may change between two sides of the spectrum
 - Self-esteem:
 - * Negative feedback to people with lower self-esteem leads to lower performance
 - * Self-esteem is an aspect of emotional stability; lower levels of neuroticism is correlated with higher self-esteem
 - Individuals with general self-efficacy tend to have good bounceback
 - Individuals with core self-evaluations can better evaluate their self-worth
 - Emotions and moods are affects; they are how we experience things
 - * Our dispositions predict our general emotional tendencies impacting our mood and emotions
 - * Positive affectivity involves viewing things in a positive light (opposite for negative)
- Interpersonal skills involve:
 - Social skills
 - * Interpersonal competence, put oneself in the place of another person and try to understand what they expect
 - Self-monitoring
 - * Incorporate information about others’ expectations in one’s subsequent behaviour
 - * “Reading the room” and reacting accordingly
 - Self-control
 - * Stay focused on others’ expectations
 - * Limiting yourself, delaying gratification

Lecture 6, Jan 18, 2023

Learning

- Any process through which practice or exercise at one time can alter an individual’s behavior at another time
- We learn actively and constantly
- 3 kinds of learning experience:
 - Classical conditioning
 - * Pavlov’s dog
 - Initially conditioned stimulus is the food, unconditioned response is the drool
 - When the food is removed, the drool becomes a conditioned response
 - Operant learning
 - * Positive/negative reinforcement
 - Social Cognitive Theory
 - * Learning on the job

Operant Learning

- Learning in which the subject learns to operate on the environment to achieve certain consequences
 - We are controlled by the consequences of our behaviour
 - Subject learns a connection between certain behaviour and certain consequences that follow
 - We are aiming to increase probability of desirable behaviours and eliminate or reduce probability of undesirable behaviour
- Both positive and negative reinforcement aims to increase positive behaviour:

- Positive reinforcement is the application or *addition* of a stimulus that increases or maintains the probability of some behaviour
 - * e.g. “employee of the month” – recognition for good behaviour increases good behaviour
 - * The stimulus is the positive reinforcer
 - * The reinforcer is dependent or contingent on the occurrence of the desired behaviour
- Negative reinforcement is the *removal* of a stimulus that increases or maintains the probability of some behaviour
 - * It is not punishment; negative reinforcement is removing a barrier to increase good behaviour
 - * e.g. parents stop nagging a child when the child does the desired action
 - * When a response prevents some event or stimulus from occurring
 - * The removed or prevented stimulus is a negative reinforcer
- Reinforcement has limitations:
 - Consistency in applying the stimulus is needed
 - Someone needs to enforce the rules
- To reduce undesirable behaviour, two strategies can be used:
 - Extinction: *removing* the reinforcer
 - * e.g. moving a student when they are talking in class means they can no longer engage in the undesirable behaviour
 - Punishment: *applying* a negative stimulus
- The difference between positive/negative reinforcement and punishment/extinction is the end goal: whether to increase or decrease the behaviour
- Problems using punishment:
 - Does not demonstrate what should be done, only what shouldn't be done
 - Provokes a strong emotional reaction from the subject
 - Suppression of behaviour is temporary

Social Cognitive Theory

- Focuses on giving choice and autonomy, choice and independence (but can't be applied in all scenarios)
- Paying attention to how someone else is doing it (attentional processes), retaining some of that information (retention processes), carrying it out yourself (production processes), and checking it against a model (reinforcement)
- This method of learning builds *self-efficacy*: confidence to successfully perform a task
- *Self-regulation* involves:
 - Collect self-observation data
 - Observe models
 - Set goals
 - Rehearse
 - Reinforce oneself
 - Compare to goals

Organizational Behavior Modification

- Organizational learning practices:
 - OB modification
 - Employee recognition programs
 - * e.g. “employee of the month”
 - Training programs
 - Career development

Lecture 7/8, Jan 23, 2023

Perception

- How we understand other people and situations
- We study perception because we want to understand how others perceive us
 - People base their actions on their perception of reality rather than reality itself
- Establishing a good first impression opens opportunities – we want others to perceive us positively
 - e.g. dressing up for interviews
- Includes 3 components; all of these influence how we perceive
 - Perceiver
 - * People have stereotypes and biases and different moods
 - * We focus on our biases, fears and emotions rather than the entire situation
 - Situation
 - * Depending on the situation, we observe different cues about the target and understand different things
 - * We pay more attention when the context doesn't match the target
 - Target
 - * The person and all the cues they're given off

Social Identity Theory

- We want others to know our social identity; our personal identities are kept to ourselves
 - Personal identity is based on our unique characteristics (e.g. interest)
 - Social identity is based on our perception that we belong to various social groups (e.g. gender)
 - These help us answer “who am I?”
- We form perceptions of ourselves based on our personal characteristics and memberships in social categories
 - We categorize ourselves and others into in-groups and out-groups (people who we identify with and people who we don't)
- Social identity theory:
 1. We perceive ourselves and others as embodying the most typical attributes of a category (“prototypes”)
 2. We form perceptions of others based on their membership in social categories
 3. Social identities are relational and comparative
 4. People tend to perceive members of their own social categories more positively
- These factors all contribute to who we are

Lecture 9, Jan 25, 2023

Biases

- The impressions we form of others are susceptible to a number of perceptual biases
- Factors of social identity can be used for people to project their biases
- Biases serve as more efficient shortcuts to save us time and from danger
 - However this makes us misunderstand and misjudge people, even when they haven't earned it
- People have implicit theories about which characteristics go together
 - e.g. short and silver hair means little kind old lady
 - This is not often true, which leads to stereotypes
- Stereotypes are our tendency to generalize about people in a social category and ignore variations among them

Attribution

- The process by which we assign causes or motives to explain people's behaviour
 - e.g. attributing behaviour to traits of personality
 - Rewards and punishments are based on judgements about what really caused people to behave in a certain way
 - * e.g. participation marks for attending class
 - An important goal is to determine whether some behaviour is caused by dispositional (internal) or situational (external) factors
- We rely on external cues and make inferences from these cues to make attributions
 - Does the person engage in the behaviour *consistently*?
 - * Consistency points towards dispositional factors
 - Do most people engage in the behaviour (*consensus*), or is it unique to this person?
 - * Consensus points towards situational factors
 - Does the person engage in the behaviour in many situations, or is it *distinctive* to one situation?
 - * Distinctiveness points towards situational factors

Biases in Attribution

- Attributions are not always correct; there are 3 types of biases in attribution:
 - Fundamental attribution error: overemphasizing dispositional explanations
 - * e.g. a person is active in a class not because of the nature of the class but because they are an extravert
 - * Overestimating of the influence of personality and underestimating situational factors
 - * Failure to observe distinction
 - Actor-observer effect: looking at someone's behaviour and making an attribution that's different from what we would associate with if we were in the situation ourselves
 - * e.g. when we're late, we attribute it to situational factors, but when other people are late we think they are lazy
 - * Actors are prone to attribute their own behaviour to situational factors while observers are more likely to invoke dispositional causes
 - Self-serving bias: how we explain our own behaviour differently
 - * Reflects intentional or natural self-promotion, and underestimates situational factors
 - * e.g. attributing success in a course to being smart, not the course being easy
 - * Contributors:
 - We attribute success to ability and effort
 - We attribute failures to external factors
 - We see ourselves as better than average
 - We overestimate how much others agree with us
 - We are unrealistically optimistic about our future
 - We overestimate the commonality of our flaws
 - We underestimate the commonality of our abilities
 - * This applies less to people with lower self-esteem
 - Selective perception: we only select certain things to pay attention to when making attributions
- How do we minimize these errors?
 - Increase personal interaction – talking to them, getting to know them and understanding them
 - * Focus on unique attributes of individuals
 - Identify and confront your stereotypes, don't be defensive about them

Diversity and Discrimination

- Diversity should be valued, not just tolerated
 - This creates a culture of fairness
- Properly managed Diversity can create a competitive advantage, including improved problem solving, creativity, recruiting and marketing, and global competitiveness

- Stereotypes create barriers to diversity in the workforce
 - Generalization and ignorance of variations create a toxic environment – they expect everyone to fit into the same categories
 - Members of a social group feel they might be judged or treated according to a stereotype, which creates a worse environment
- Discrimination is a distinction, exclusion or preference based on a prohibited ground, as set out by law
- Discrimination can be intentional or unintentional
 - Intentional discrimination is direct, involving unequal treatment and direct prejudiced actions
 - Unintentional discrimination is indirect, constructive or systemic and unintentional, embedded in policies and neutral actions

Lecture 10/11, Jan 30, 2023

Discrimination Continued

- Types of (intentional) discrimination:
 - Discriminatory policies or practices: action directly taken by the organization
 - Sexual harassment
 - Intimidation: intentional discrimination, explicit threats, bullying etc
 - Mockery and insults: often jokes taken too far
 - Exclusion
 - Incivility: disrespectful treatment, including aggression, interrupting, ignoring, etc
- In different jurisdictions there are criminally prohibited grounds of discrimination outlined by law

Fairness

- What is fairness? Everyone values fairness, but how do we ensure fairness?
 - Fairness in measurement refers to the value judgements people make about the decisions or outcomes that are based on measurements
 - An unbiased measure may still be unfair
- KSA stands for knowledge, skills and abilities
- A bona fide occupational requirement (BFOR) is a requirement for a job that is necessary; classifying a characteristic as a BFOR allows you to discriminate based on that characteristic
 - “Justifiable reason for discrimination”
 - e.g. vision standards for a bus driver
- Reasonable accommodation the idea that adjustments of the workplace has to be made to reasonably accommodate an employee
 - e.g. someone who’s worked in the company where their eyesight deteriorated, the employer has to accommodate for this
 - If the employer is limited in their ability to accommodate the individual, then the characteristic is a BFOR
 - The employer has to accommodate the individual up to the point of *undue hardship*
 - Tests for undue hardship:
 1. Financial costs make it impossible
 2. Cant rely on outside sources of funding (e.g. government)
 3. Creates a challenge to health and safety requirements

Disability

- A basis determined by the courts, not necessarily the individual workplace
- The employers face a question of substantive sense – is burden imposed or benefit withheld?
- Who has to prove that a disability is there? What counts/does not count as a disability?

Values

- Values inform our biases and actions; they are part of what motivates us
- Sometimes we learn what we value through deficiencies in ourselves or others – we can learn what we like or what we don't like
- Different generations tend to have different values, but generational stereotypes exist
 - How do these differences in values impact how we work together in the workplace?
- Culture also influences our values
 - Culture consists of transitional ideas and values; patterned ways of thinking, feeling, and reacting
- Work centrality: different cultures value work differently
 - For some people work is integral to the way they engage; for others it is less important
 - Do you live to work or work to live?
- Geert Hofstede discovered 4+ basic dimensions of culture:
 - Power distance: level of unequal distribution of power (acceptance by members of the society)
 - * In a more equal society, there is less power distance
 - Individualism vs. Collectivism: individualistic societies stress independence and individual initiative; collective cultures favour interdependence and loyalty
 - Masculinity vs. Femininity: masculine cultures support defined gender roles and stress the dominance of a gender; feminine cultures accept fluid and open gender roles and gender equality
 - Uncertainty avoidance: level of comfort with uncertain and ambiguous situations
 - * Cultures with more rules and customs tend to avoid uncertainty
 - Time orientation: long-term time orientation emphasizes persistence and the future
 - * e.g. long-term well-being, education
 - * Can effect economics as well, e.g. investment in infrastructure
 - Indulgence: how much people control their desires and impulses
 - * Indulgent cultures encourage doing things for pleasure, joy and mutual satisfaction
 - * Lower levels of control for behaviours
- Organizations need to tailor management practices to the home culture's concerns
 - Globalization has brought management practices from other parts of the world, but different cultures view work differently (work centrality)

Lecture 12, Feb 1, 2023

Attitudes

- A fairly stable evaluative tendency to respond consistently to some object, situation, person, or category of people
- Attitudes are influenced by values, beliefs, and behaviour
 - Values and beliefs create attitudes, which then influence behaviour
 - e.g. “job interfering with family” (belief) + “value in family” (value) combine to create the attitude of disliking the job, which influences the behaviour of searching for another job
- Attitudes are built through events and influence behaviour
 - e.g. a negative experience in a course creates a negative attitude to the course, causing showing up to class miserable and not paying attention

Job Satisfaction

- Job satisfaction facets are a collection of attitudes that workers have about their jobs; this can include:
 - The work itself
 - Compensation
 - Career growth opportunities
 - Supervisor, coworkers
 - Policies
 - Working conditions

- Overall job satisfaction is an average of the attitudes towards these facets
- Job satisfaction has 4 determinants:
 - Discrepancies
 - * What do we think we deserve vs. what we get
 - * Comparing your own inputs to your own outputs
 - Mood & emotions
 - * An affect is a broad label for feelings that includes emotions and moods
 - Emotions are intense and short-term
 - Moods are less intense but longer lived
 - * When there is a negative mood going around in the workplace, it influences everyone – the mood can propagate
 - e.g. a loud confrontation between a manager and employee affects all other employees that see it; the confrontation itself is an emotion, but after it’s over, a mood of tension sets in
 - Fairness
 - * Distributive fairness: Comparing your input/output and others’ input/outputs
 - Equivalent inputs should result in the same outcomes
 - Equity theory
 - * Procedural fairness: Fairness in the processes used
 - * Interactional fairness: Fairness when people feel that they have received respectful and informative communication about an outcome
 - We feel we need to advocate for ourselves when we see we’re treated differently
 - Are people treated with politeness, dignity, and respect?
 - Dispositions
 - * Some people are predisposed by virtue of their personalities to be more or less satisfied despite changes in discrepancy or fairness
 - * e.g. extraversion, conscientiousness, self-esteem, etc are positively correlated with satisfaction; neuroticism is negatively correlated

Lecture 13/14, Feb 6, 2023

Emotional Regulations

- Two types:
 - Emotional contagion: the tendency for moods and emotions to spread between people or throughout a group
 - * Positive emotions are more contagious than negative ones
 - Emotional labour: when employees must display a set of emotions (e.g. customer service, child care/education workers)
 - * Often exaggerates positive or suppresses negative emotions
 - * Requirement for people to conform to certain “display rules” in their job behaviour, in spite of their true mood or emotions

Consequences of Job Satisfaction

- Absence from work
 - Going from dissatisfaction to quitting takes time; it’s an incremental process that starts with absenteeism
- Turnover (employees leaving)
 - Certain “shocks” might initiate turnover
 - 3 commitment factors:
 - * Affective commitment: when you want to be at your job – you engage with the work you’re doing, you like the people, and you stay because you want to
 - Staying because you *want to*

- * Continuance commitment: when you stay because it costs you more to leave – e.g. if you need the money, the benefits, or for immigration reasons
 - Staying for yourself because you *have to*
- * Normative commitment: highly normative (people who engage more in normative behaviour) stay based on ideology or feeling of obligation – e.g. “if I leave, this project won’t be successful”
 - Staying for others because you *should*
- Performance
- Organization citizenship behaviour
- Customer satisfaction and profit

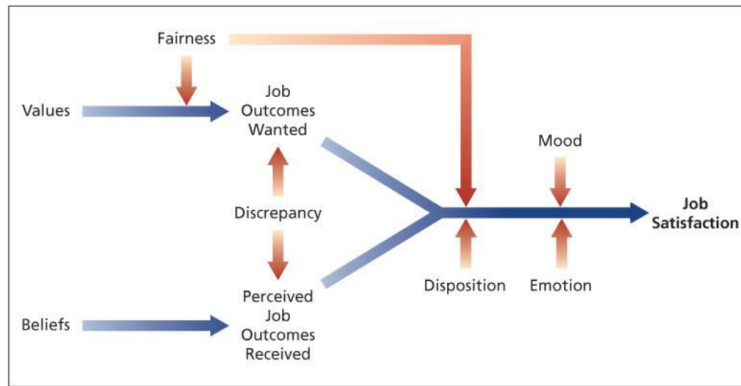


Figure 1: How the 4 factors affect job satisfaction

Motivation

- Motivation is the extent to which persistent effort is directed toward a goal
 - Intensity: how hard a person tries (effort)
 - Direction: the orientation that benefits the organization
 - Persistence: a measure of how long a person can maintain his/her effort
 - All 3 are applied towards a goal
- Two types:
 - Intrinsic motivation: stems from the direct relationship between the worker and the task, usually applied by oneself
 - * e.g. feeling of fulfillment
 - Extrinsic motivation: stems from the work environment external to the task, usually applied by others
 - * Reward relationship
 - * e.g. pay, promotions, free lunches, feeling of being valued by the organization or coworkers
 - You can extrinsically motivate yourself, but it’s hard to get intrinsically motivated by others
- Performance refers to the extent to which an organizational member contributes to achieving the goals of the organization
 - Motivation contributes to performance – we try harder when we’re more motivated (but this relationship is not one-to-one because of other factors like personality and intelligence)
 - Performance is the output of motivation
- (Amount, persistence and direction of) effort feeds into motivation, but these go through a number of other things before performance:
 - General cognitive ability: basic information processing capacities and cognitive abilities
 - Emotional intelligence (EI/EQ): the ability to understand and manage one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions
 - * Perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions
 - * e.g. observing someone’s tired is general cognitive ability, but being able to infer that you’re not being engaging is EI

- Also personality, task understanding and chance

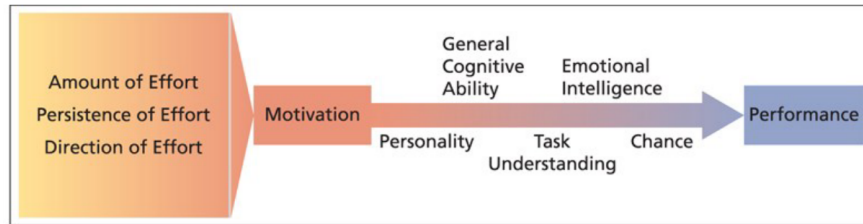


Figure 2: Factors contributing to job performance

Theories of Motivation

- Two kinds:
 - Need theories: what do you want?
 - * e.g. Maslow's hierarchy
 - Process theories: how you achieve what you want?
 - * e.g. expectancy theory, equity theory, goal setting theory
- Maslow's hierarchy & Alderfer's ERG:
 - Maslow's hierarchy of needs orders basic needs to higher order needs
 - * From basic physiological needs (food, water, shelter), then to safety (protection from others, the environment, etc), belongingness (feeling like we're part of society), self-esteem (our view of who we are), then self-actualization (what is my purpose? what's next after I achieve my goals?)
 - * If the more basic needs are not met, then you are not concerned with higher order needs
 - In Alderfer's model, the basic needs are extrinsic motivations, and the higher order needs are intrinsic motivations
 - * From basic existence needs (safety and physiological), to relatedness (how we connect: belonging, self-esteem), then to growth (how we aspire to develop ourselves: self-esteem and self-actualization)
 - * ERG stands for existence, relatedness and growth

Lecture 14, Feb 8, 2023

Motivation Theory Continued (Process Theories)

- Expectancy theory: people act in a certain way based on an expectation that the act will be followed by an outcome; motivation is based on the attractiveness of the outcome
 - Comprised of 3 relationships:
 1. Effort-performance
 2. Performance-reward
 3. Reward-personal goals
 - Force: effort (e.g. studying) put in to a level 1 outcome (e.g. doing well in a course) – how much effort you're putting in to arrive at the performance
 - Expectancy: the likelihood that putting in the effort is going to make you achieve the level 1 outcome
 - Valence: the expected value of that level 1 outcome – how much impact does the reward have?
 - Instrumentality: the likelihood that a level 1 outcome would lead to the level 2 outcome (e.g. getting a 4.0)
 - Outcome: ultimately achieving your personal goals (e.g. getting into grad school)
- Equity theory: people are more satisfied and motivated when they perceive equity
 - Individuals are motivated to maintain an equitable exchange relationship

- Goal setting theory: goals are motivational when they are specific, challenging, and when organizational members are committed to them, and feedback about progress is provided
 - You have to actively want the goal for this to work – this is a theory of intrinsic motivation
 - Goals are more effective with:
 1. Specificity and difficulty
 - * “Do your best” is not good enough because it’s ambiguous
 - * No target performance leads to low performance
 2. Knowledge to attain it
 - * Training and setting learning goals can increase knowledge on how to attain the ultimate goal
 3. Feedback on progress towards the goal
 4. Commitment
 5. Situational conditions
 - A *distal* goal is a long-term or end goal (e.g. becoming a professor); a *proximal* goal is a short-term or sub-goal that is instrumental for achieving a distal goal (e.g. submitting a paper)
 - Learning goals are a type of sub-goal
 - Performance goals are either performance prove (doing something to prove you’re capable of it) goals or performance avoid goals (doing something to avoid negative outcomes)
- Job design (the structure, content, and configuration of a person’s tasks and roles) can also be a motivator, more focused on intrinsic motivation
 - Stretch assignments: providing employees challenging opportunities broaden their skills, and introducing variety to tasks and responsibilities
 - * Getting an employee with the necessary base skills to try a new set of responsibilities
 - Job rotation: employees are rotated to different tasks and jobs in an organization
 - Job enrichment: maintaining the same job but giving employees more value/meaning of their jobs
 - * e.g. more diversity in the tasks within the same area of responsibility
 - Job enlargement: increasing breadth by giving employees more tasks to perform at the same level
 - The last two focus on the *job scope*, or the breadth (number of different activities) and depth (degree of control) of the job
 - * High-scope jobs have great breadth and depth

Lecture 15/16, Feb 13, 2023

Motivation at Work

- Financial incentives increase performance and decrease turnover
 - Pay may well be the most important and effective motivator of performance
 - However money typically has a cap in terms of how much they can satisfy/motivate us
- Compensation is often an incentive to perform, not necessarily for your direct performance – it is an investment in performance
- Money as a motivator primarily focuses on need-based theories
- Problems with wage incentives:
 - Lowered quality
 - Differential opportunity
 - Reduce cooperation
 - Incompatible job design (where the job requires you to do one thing but the incentive makes you do another)
 - Restriction of productivity
- Wage incentives hit differently depending on the occupation (e.g. blue/physical vs white collar/office jobs)
- Merit pay plans are often used to motivate employees; these link pay to performance on white collar jobs
 - Managers use employee evaluation results to recommend merit pay awarded to each individual
 - e.g. linking pay to performance, seniority, responsibilities

- The challenge is the ambiguity in connection between merit pay and performance (e.g. more pay for seniority – does seniority directly lead to performance?)
 - * Subjective evaluations impacted by biases
 - * Small increases – are they motivating enough?
 - * Lack of visibility into standards and privacy
- Pay plans to motivate *teamwork*:
 - Profit sharing: the return of some company profit to employees in the form of a cash bonus or retirement supplement
 - Employee stock ownership plans: allowing employees to own a set amount of a company’s shares
 - * Employees are profiting by making the company successful as a whole
 - * Many CEOs are incentivized through these
 - Gainsharing: a group pay incentive plan based on productivity over which the workforce has some control (e.g. efficiency, cost reductions)
 - Skill-based pay: a system in which employees are paid according to the number of skills they have acquired
 - * Motivates employees to learn more skills
 - * Easier in e.g. construction, civil engineering
 - * Based on e.g. experience, education, certification
- Job characteristics model: why people choose the professions that they do
 - Core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback
 - Critical psychological states: experienced meaningfulness of the work (belongingness and self-actualization), experienced responsibility of the work, and knowledge of the results of the work activities (i.e. my work actually has impact)
 - * Relates to personality, OCEAN model
 - Outcomes: high internal work motivation, high “growth” satisfaction, high general satisfaction and high work effectiveness
 - With moderators: knowledge and skill, growth need strength and “context” satisfactions

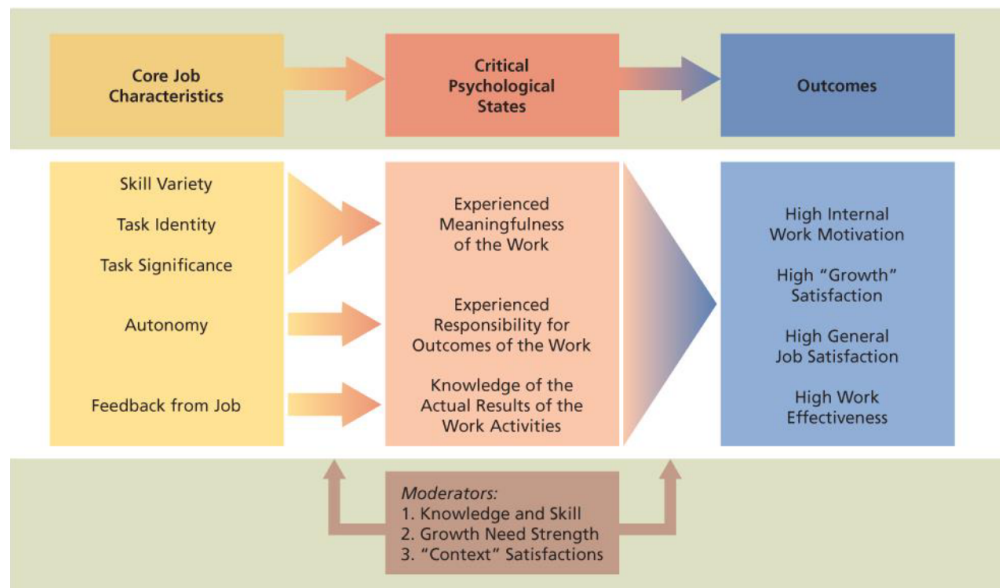


Figure 3: Job characteristics model

- We are more passionate about jobs we find more meaningful

Lecture 17, Feb 15, 2023

Ergonomics and Cognitive Ergonomics

- Ergonomics is the study of the interface between an individual's physiology and the characteristics of the physical environment
 - How do we reduce the physical demands of jobs so that people are better able to perform them?
- *Cognitive ergonomics* is designing for mental capacity, instead of physical capacity
 - When there are distractions around you, there is an additional demand for mental capacity
 - Cognitive ergonomics aims to reduce errors and accidents through processes such as reducing manual processes or reducing the amount of memorization
 - Reducing cognitive demands can keep us more focused and motivated
- Alternative working schedules can be used to reduce cognitive demand, allowing you to work and live your personal life at the same time
 - Flex-time: flexibility in the time you start and end work
 - Split shifts: working at different times throughout the day
 - Compressed workweek: working more during some days to take more days off
 - * Disadvantages: you might burn out, your colleagues have less access to you, etc
 - * Can also rearrange times during the year, e.g. for educators getting summers off
 - Job and work sharing
 - Telecommuting

Management By Objectives (MBO)

The Five-Step MBO Process

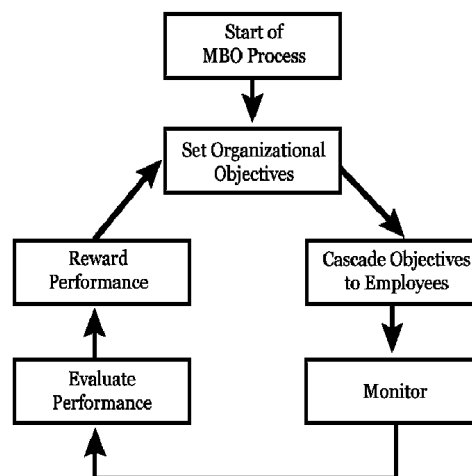


Figure 4: The MBO process

- Companies have an objective (e.g. developing an app to increase student productivity), which is cascaded down to employees (e.g. designing a UI for students to enter their info)
- Employees' performance are monitored, and at the end of the year there is a performance evaluation
- The hard part is translating that company objective to a specific objective for an employee (e.g. what font for the UI?)
- Manager-employee interaction cycle:
 - Goal setting: manager meets with individual employees to develop employee objectives (which can include performance and personal development objectives)
 - Check-ins: periodic meetings to monitor employee progress
 - Appraisal meeting: held to evaluate how well the agreed upon objectives have been achieved

- When does MBO fail?
 - Lack of commitment from top management
 - Too much focus on quantitative rather than qualitative factors
 - Goals are too short-term
 - Performance reviews are used as punishment
- The motivational systems should fit the goals of the organization
- Consider employee needs, nature of the job, organizational characteristics and motivational outcome
- Motivational systems that make use of a variety of motivators are more effective

Lecture 18/19, Feb 27, 2023

Group Development

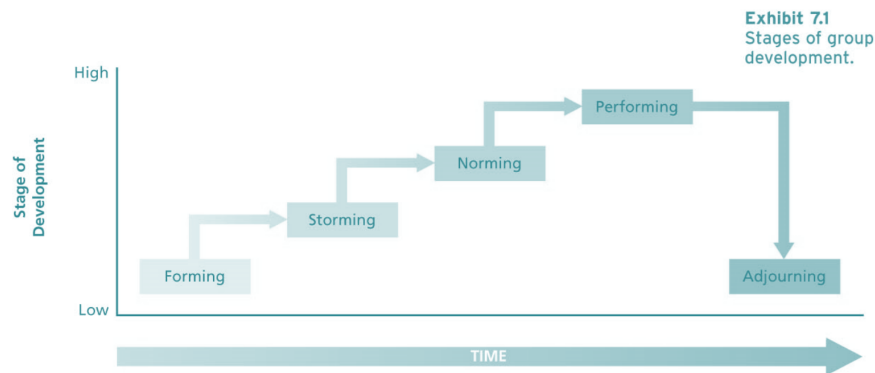


Figure 5: Stages of group development

- Groups are people interacting independently to achieve a common goal
 - Interaction is the most basic aspect of a group
- Interdependence: group members rely to some degree on each other to accomplish goals
- Groups may be formal (established by organizations) or informal (emerging naturally in response to common interests)
- Groups develop through a typical process:
 - Forming: a group comes together, either by being assigned together or coming together voluntarily
 - Storming: establishing who we are in a group
 - Norming: solidifying our identities and roles in the group (who we are, what we want to do, what we can contribute)
 - Performing: taking on the tasks and doing them
 - Adjourning: when we look back on what we've done and reflect
 - * Short-term groups don't usually involve this reflection

Lecture 20, Mar 1, 2023

Impact of Group Structure

- Size
 - In a larger group, there is less satisfaction with group membership
 - * More difficult to identify with the success and accomplishments of the group
 - * Fewer chances to work on and develop friendships
 - * Inhibitions to participation
 - Type of task and definition of performance impact relationship between group size and performance

- * *Additive* tasks are tasks where the group performance is dependent on the sum of performance of individuals (e.g. tug of war)
 - More people means more performance
 - * *Disjunctive* tasks are tasks where the group performance is dependent on the best group member (e.g. research team, surgery)
 - More people means more performance
 - * *Conjunctive* tasks are tasks where the performance is limited by the worst group member (e.g. relay race, assembly line)
 - More people means less performance
- Diversity
 - Diversity increases difficulty of effective communication and cohesion, so they take longer to develop
 - After development they are just as effective
 - Sometimes performs better on tasks that require creativity
- Norms
 - Norms are expectations of behaviour created over time
 - Norms are often unconscious – we only become aware of them in special circumstances (e.g. entering new social situations, conflicting norms)
 - Examples:
 - * Dress norms
 - * Reward allocation norms (e.g. equity, equality, reciprocity, social responsibility)
 - * Performance norms
- Roles
 - Roles are positions in a group that have expectations attached to them
 - “packages” of norms
 - Can be either assigned (formally prescribed by an organization) or emergent (naturally developed to meet the needs of the group)
 - *Role ambiguity* occurs when one’s job or its goals are unclear
 - * Leads to people sitting around and not doing anything at all
 - *Role conflict* occurs when one is faced with incompatible expectations
 - * Can occur with incompatibilities within someone’s roles or between roles of different people
 - * Can be avoided by avoiding contradictory messages, conferring with other role senders, being sensitive to multiple demands and fitting the right person to the roles
 - Roles can have categories:
 - * Task roles (e.g. initiating conversations, clarifying, etc)
 - Easy to take on; members can take on a lot of these roles
 - * Maintenance roles help you carry out your tasks (e.g. encouraging, harmonizing, etc)
 - Oftentimes team members with maintenance roles can help with reducing hindering roles
 - * Hindering roles
 - Role conflict and role ambiguity can lead to hindering roles
- Status of members
- Cohesiveness
 - The degree to which a group is especially attractive to its members – a sense of belonging
 - Groups are cohesive when members want to stay in the group and describe the group in favourable terms
 - Tend to be higher in shorter, more intensive experiences (e.g. a hackathon), or with groups of friends
 - * Social aspects increase cohesiveness
 - Cohesiveness leads to more participation in group activities, more conformity to group norms, more success, and less variation in productivity among members
 - Important factors that effect cohesiveness:
 - * Threat and competition: when there is a threat, we’re more likely to work together
 - * Success: doing well together makes us want it more
 - * Member diversity: diversity increases the chance of having common experiences

- * Group size: smaller groups are easier to stay cohesive
- * Toughness of initiation: going through tough challenges together increases cohesion
- Cohesive groups tend to be more or less productive than less cohesive groups; they have more consistency in productivity, but are not necessarily always more productive
 - * A cohesive group can collectively reject norms, or collectively accept norms

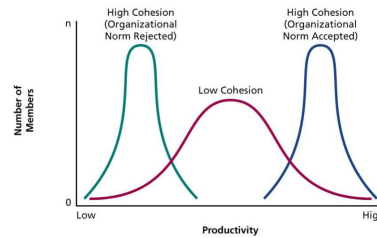


Figure 6: Effect of cohesion

- *Social loafing* is the attempt for group mates to put in less effort than what they are capable of
 - Free riding: people lower their effort to get a free ride at the expense of the other members
 - Sucker effect: people lower their effort because they feel others are free riding
 - Strategies to counteract social loafing:
 - * Keep individual performance visible by making smaller groups
 - * Make sure work is interesting, to use intrinsic motivation
 - * Increase feelings of indispensability; make members feel unique
 - * Increase performance feedback
 - * Reward group performance

Factors Influencing Group Effectiveness



Figure 7: Factors influencing group effectiveness

- Cross-functional teams are groups that bring together people with different expertise
 - Communication is harder
 - Members can learn from each other
 - Principles of effectiveness cross-functional teams:
 - * Composition: all relevant specialties are necessary and must be included
 - * Superordinate goals: attractive outcomes that can only be achieved by collaboration
 - * Physical proximity
 - * Autonomy
 - * Rules and procedures: basic decision rules must be laid down
 - * Leadership
- Safety nets in groups allow us to better take risks
- High-performing teams prioritize both the goals of the group and the goals of the individuals

Virtual Teams

- Key characteristics: lack of face-to-face contact, high physical/geographical dispersion
- Often cross-functional
- Advantages:
 - Around-the-clock work
 - Reduced travel time and cost
 - Larger talent pool
 - * Access to better levels of expertise because people hired don't need to be physically close
 - * Having people spread out geographically can also mean some members are closer to physical locations
- Challenges:
 - Trust: difficult to develop between virtual team members due to lack of physical contact/socialization
 - Miscommunication: more prevalent due to lack of face-to-face communication
 - High costs: with acquiring, setting up and setting up the required tech
 - Isolation: causal interaction between teammates is not possible
 - Management issues: managers have issue dealing with subordinates who are no longer in view
- To establish norms, we need to develop trust and effect patterns of communication
 - Clear roles need to be established
 - Code of conduct to make sure people don't vanish

Lecture 21/22, Mar 6, 2023

Decision Making and Problem Solving

- The process of developing a commitment to some course of action
- Decision making is problem solving
 - Problem: when a gap is perceived between existing state and desired state
- Decision making involves making a choice and committing resources; it is a process
- Problems can be well-structured (clear existing and desired state and how to get there; familiar problems that have standard operating procedures) or ill-structured (unclear existing and desired states and how to get there; unique problems without a standard procedure)
 - With experience, an ill-structured problem becomes a well-structured problem
- The rational decision-making process:
 1. Identify problem
 2. Search for relevant info
 3. Develop alternative solutions
 4. Evaluate alternative solutions
 5. Choose best solution
 6. Implement solution
 7. Monitor and evaluate chosen solution
- Perfect rationality: a decision strategy that is completely informed, perfectly logical and oriented towards economic gain (minimize cost, maximize output)
 - The “Economic Person” is the perfect decision maker
 - The Economic Person is:
 - * Completely informed, able to gather information without cost
 - * Perfectly logical
 - * Only decides based on economic gain, never emotions etc
- Bounded rationality: a decision strategy that relies on limited information and focuses on using what's in front of you, reflecting time and other constraints
- 2 types of decision makers:
 - Maximizers: using perfect rationality to get the best results
 - * Spends more time and energy and are less happy with outcomes

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	Satisfies 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

Figure 8: Comparison between perfect and bounded rationality

- Satisficers: using bounded rationality, accepting the “good enough” to get good results given minimal effort
 - * Can move on after deciding, happier with outcomes
- Framing: the aspects of the presentation of information that are assumed by decision makers
- Cognitive biases: tendencies to acquire and process information in a particular way that is prone to error
- Solution implementation: taking the decision and implementing it
 - Decision makers are often dependent on others to implement their decisions
 - When the implementer is not the decision maker problems can arise due to differential motivation, ability, and understanding of the problem
- Solution evaluation
 - Perfectly rational decision makers should be able to evaluate the effectiveness of a decision completely objectively
 - Bounded decision makers might encounter problems:
 - * Justification: overconfidence in the adequacy of your own decisions
 - Trying to defend your own decisions even when they’re bad
 - * Sunk cost: justifying a faulty decision by arguing that it’s not worth it to go back
 - Sunk costs are permanent losses of resources as the result of a decision
 - People are unlined to stick to a decision due to sink costs
 - Whether it’s a sunk cost or an investment depends on framing – what is your perception?
 - Escalation of commitment (commitment bias): the tendency to invest additional resources in an apparently failing course of action
 - People acting as if they can recoup sunk costs
 - Personality, moods, and emotions can affect this
 - e.g. getting married when you’re having relationship problems
 - To prevent this, shift the framing from saving rather than spending
 - * Hindsight: the tendency to review the decision-making process that was used to find what was done right or wrong
 - The tendency to assume (after the fact) that we knew the outcome all along
 - Taking personal responsibility for successful decisions while denying responsibility for unsuccessful outcomes
 - e.g. “I had a feeling this won’t work out, look what happened now”
 - * Moods and emotions:
 - When we’re in positive moods we tend to focus on the positives and overlook the negatives

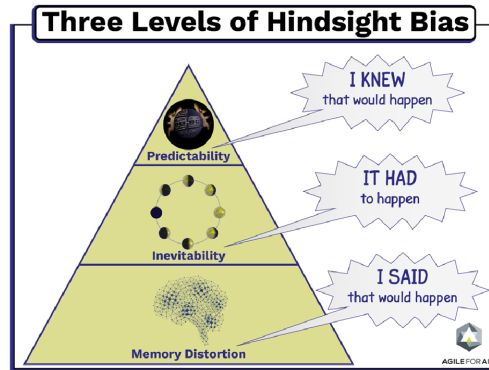


Figure 9: Levels of hindsight bias

- Common cognitive biases:
 - Overconfidence
 - Confirmation bias
 - Recency effect: more recent experiences have greater effect
 - Law of small numbers: rare exceptions and small samples
 - Anchoring
 - Hindsight

Group Decision Making

- Advantages:
 - Decision quality (everyone’s knowledge contributes)
 - * Groups are more vigilant (careful), generate more ideas, can better evaluate ideas
 - Decision acceptance and commitment (making sure everybody has the same view)
 - * Group decision is more acceptable to those involved
 - * Acceptability is especially important to make sure a decision is actually implemented
 - Diffusion of responsibility (less responsibility per person)
 - * If the decision doesn’t turn out well, no one is singled out for punishment
- Group decision making makes ill-defined problems easier solve, but well-defined problems harder to solve
- Groups are more effective because:
 - They have more diversity in experience and skill
 - Can evaluate in different aspects and characteristics
- Disadvantages:
 - Time: group decisions take much longer because people need to discuss
 - Conflict: people may have different opinions, which leads to conflict
 - Domination: when a single (or a small group of) individuals dominate the conversation, the advantages of group decision making will not be realized
 - Groupthink: when group pressure damages the mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgement of decision-making groups
 - * Did a unanimous decision arose naturally or is it because we didn’t consider all the factors?
 - * If everyone is always agreeing to everything, it might be a symptom of groupthink
 - * Other symptoms include a sense of superiority, self-censorship (staying quiet and accepting others’ opinions even though you disagree), stereotyping of other groups, overconfidence, rationalization
 - * To overcome groupthink:
 - Training discussion leadership
 - Leaders should focus on decision making processes, and not exert pressure over decision

- outcomes
 - Establish norms that encourage and reward responsible dissent
 - Outside experts can be brought in from time to time
 - Stimulating and managing controversy to encourage discussion and bring attention to weaknesses
 - Using devil's advocates
 - Traditional and electronic brainstorming with anonymity
 - Nominal group technique: each individual generates ideas separately, and then shares them to the group for discussion and objective ranking
 - Structured ranking process encourages individuals to share their opinions separately and evaluate them objectively
 - Delphi technique: individuals contribute ideas anonymously, then revise them based on feedback from others
- Follow the rational decision making model

Lecture 23, Mar 8, 2023

Lecture 24/25, Mar 13, 2023

Organizational Change

- Organizational change can have profound impacts on stakeholders; the way changes are implemented and managed is crucial
- Change is influenced by external (e.g. changing market) and internal (e.g. employee pressure, change in leadership) sources of pressure which can be planned or unplanned
- What do organizations change?
 - Structure (e.g. reducing hierarchy)
 - Technology
 - * Can involve a huge (and expensive) overhaul of existing systems and having to retrain employees
 - People (e.g. leadership, staff)
 - Processes (i.e. how we do things)
- Change is often systemic – change in one area often affects other areas
- Necessary skills and favourable outcomes should be fostered before changes are introduced

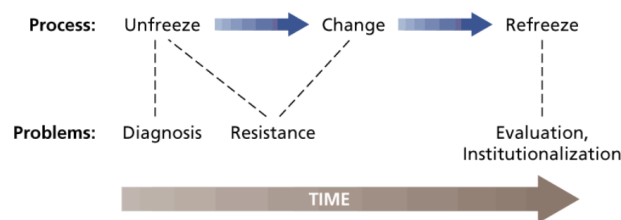


Figure 10: Lewin's 3-step process to change

- Regardless of the type of change, there are 3 steps to the process:
 1. Unfreezing: recognizing the need for change and what needs to change; planning the change
 - Crises often stimulate this step
 2. Changing: implementing the planned change
 3. Refreezing: accepting the newly changed state and evaluating its effectiveness
- However often organizations are in hyperturbulent environments where change is an ill-structured problem
 - Lewin's model only works if the change is clear to implement; the more resistance there is, the more volatile the model

- In hyperturbulent environments it can be hard to follow through the process, so this model does not always apply
- Issues in the change process:
 - Diagnosis problems (not being able to diagnose what to change)
 - * Make sure to collect information from all available sources
 - * Understand the problem from all aspects and perspectives
 - Resistance (more below)
 - Evaluation and institutionalization (how can we maintain the change?)

Resistance to Change

- People may resist both unfreezing and change
- Being more inclusive and clear to the people affected by change can help to avoid resistance
- Communicating the motivation behind the change is very important
- Resistance can have many causes (e.g. the change is uncomfortable, the need is unclear, etc)
 - The more we think we don't need the change, the more resistance there will be
 - On the other side, if the change is perceived as unattainable or insufficient, it will also be resisted
- Active resistance can include sabotage (e.g. changes at Twitter)

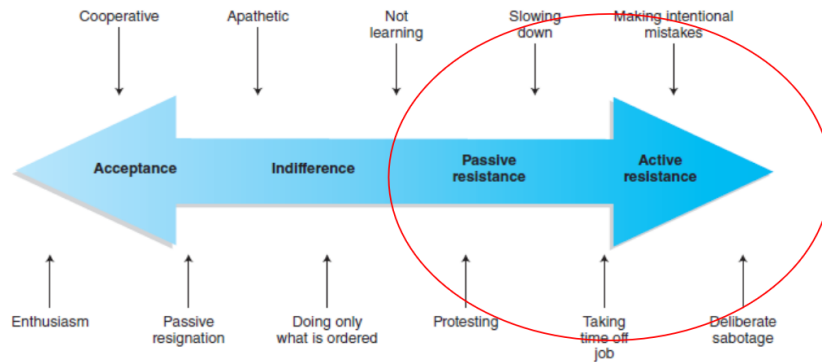


Figure 11: Reactions to organizational change

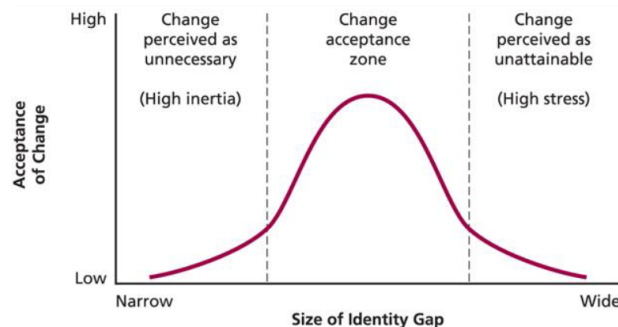


Figure 12: Relation between change acceptance to identity gap

- Sources of individual resistance include:
 - Economic insecurity (will I have a job after this change?)
 - Fear of the unknown (risk)
 - Threats to social relationships (will other people see me differently?)
 - Habit (this is inconvenient because I've always done it the old way)
- Sources of organizational resistance include:
 - Structural inertia (e.g. employees always reporting to the same superiors in the past, so they don't like changing that)

- Work group inertia (the group has always done things a certain way so people gravitate towards that way)
- Threats to existing balance of power
- Previously unsuccessful change efforts (so employees have a negative perception of change)
- How do we overcome resistance to change?
 - Gain leadership support (gets groups onboard)
 - Identify and neutralize change resisters (target the individuals and understand what their concerns are)
 - Educate the workforce and “sell” the need for change (clear communication about the motivation of change)
 - Involve employees in the change efforts
 - Creating a “learning organization”
- In a position of leadership, to minimize resistance to change:
 1. Establish a sense of urgency (making people feel like they need the change)
 2. Form a powerful guiding coalition (have a group of individuals with diverse perspectives that support your change, to show that you have considered everyone)
 3. Creating a vision for the change
 4. Communicating the vision
 5. Empowering others to act on the vision
 6. Planning for and creating short-term wins (create motivational systems to encourage the change)
 7. Consolidating improvements and producing still more change (implement the change gradually)
 8. Institutionalizing new approaches

The Learning Organization

- Organizational learning refers to the process through which an organization acquires, develops and transfers knowledge throughout the organization
- Learning organizations are constantly developing and improving
- The two main techniques are continuous knowledge acquisition and development
- 4 critical dimensions:
 - Vision/support (making sure values align)
 - Culture
 - Learning systems/dynamics (making sure people have resources to learn and grow, e.g. workshops)
 - Knowledge management/infrastructure (ways to build developmental programs into the organization)
- Organizational development techniques are used by learning organizations to work towards improvement of organizational functioning
 1. Team building
 - Can help teams understand their goals better and clarify the challenges they’re facing
 - Can help establish motivations, roles, styles of embracing change
 2. Survey feedback
 - A pulse check with employees and stakeholders to understand what the challenges are
 3. Total Quality Management (TQM)
 - Improving products and services
 - Systematic attempt to achieve continuous improvement in the quality of an organization’s products and services
 - Common tools used include flowcharts, Pareto analysis, statistical process control, and fishbone diagrams
 4. Re-engineering
 - The radical redesign of organizational processes
 - Breaking something down to its root causes

Lecture 26, Mar 15, 2023

Salary Negotiation Basics

- Preparation
 - Do research on the typical salaries expected
 - Ask about what is expected
 - There 2 types of negotiations: distributive (zero-sum – one winner) and integrative (positive sum – mutual gains)
 - 3 types of outcomes:
 - * Perfect outcome
 - * Best available alternative (BATNA) is something you would be okay with
 - e.g. walking away if you have another job available
 - * Worst available alternative (WATNA)
- Acknowledgement
 - After receiving the offer, acknowledge it and express interest and gratitude, but don't immediately accept the offer because you need time to read through it carefully
 - “I will take some time to review and respond”
 - Use this offer to pressure other companies giving offers
 - Understanding the deadline for acceptance
- Planning
 - Be comfortable with the medium you're using – in person, over a call, by email
 - Write out your plan and what you intend to argue
 - Have clear expectations of what you want
 - Zone of potential agreement (ZOPA) is the space between the two parties' *reservation points* (i.e. the range between the employer's max possible offer and your minimum possible acceptance point)
 - * The target point is the realistic goal
 - * The aspiration point is the optimistic goal
 - * The resistance point is an outcome below which you will not go
 - * Each party has an initial offer/asking price
 - Anchor point: where the negotiation starts
 - Expanding the pie: what about other benefits?
 - * Employers can have other methods of motivating a potential hire, e.g. bonuses, vacation, education/tuition, pension plans
 - * Try to push for more vacation days (usually starting at 2 weeks minimum)
 - Go into the negotiation with the power to walk away – this can be another offer, or an alternative plan (the BATNA)
 - Strategies:
 - * Dig for information to find the opponent's resistance point, to push for a settlement near that
 - * Prove your value to the opponent to get them to push their resistance point (e.g. degrees, experiences)
 - * Convince the other party that the settlement is the best possible
 - * If you have an alternative offer, use it as leverage – mention it or imply it
 - * Source of power can include information (what did they pay others), position in an organization, relationship-based sources, contextual sources
 - Tactics both sides might use:
 - * Lowballing (providing an offer significantly lower expectation/industry standard)
 - * Bogey (playing up a different factor to distract from what you really want)
 - * The nibble (using small concessions, moving the offer by a little bit)
 - * Intimidation/aggressive behaviour
 - * Snow job (overwhelming the opponent with information)
- Negotiation
 - Be realistic about what you expect

- Share but don't overshare
- Make sure the negotiation is done in a friendly way

Lecture 27/28, Mar 20, 2023

Organizational Conflict

- Conflict doesn't have to be interpersonal, could also be about a task
 - Could be between individuals, or groups
- Involves antagonistic attitudes and behaviours
- Causes of conflict:
 - Group identification and intergroup bias
 - * People think more positively of their in-group
 - * Self-esteem is a critical factor
 - * People don't just represent themselves; in complex groups people can represent an entire group of people and their ideals
 - Interdependence (reliance on one another)
 - * When one group is reliant on another, it creates a power imbalance
 - * Does not always lead to conflict
 - Ambiguity in goals, jurisdictions, performance criteria, etc
 - Differences in power, status, culture
 - * Power: one-sided dependence
 - People protest together because they don't have the power to push for the change themselves
 - * Status: authority within an organization
 - * Culture: clashes in beliefs and values between very different cultures can result in conflict
 - Resource scarcity
 - * Power jockeying (to get into a better position by any means) leads to conflict
- Types of conflict:
 - Relationship conflict: interpersonal tensions that stem from their relationship
 - * Always interpersonal, between individuals
 - * e.g. personality clashes
 - Task conflict: disagreements about the nature of work (what we need to do)
 - * Difference in understanding of the task
 - * e.g. differences in opinion about goals or technical matters
 - Process conflict: disagreements about how work should be organized and accomplished (how we should do it)
 - * Difference in understanding of how the task needs to be accomplished
 - * e.g. disagreements about responsibility, authority, resource allocation
- Conflict leads to lower member satisfaction and performance, and prevents the development of cohesiveness
 - Conflict is unpleasant because it requires change – that is what we're really afraid of
 - Conflict requires change, and change leads to stress
- However not all conflict is detrimental; some occasional conflict might be beneficial (opens up diverse perspectives, encourages resiliency, etc)
- Conflict leads to discomfort, and if discomfort becomes too much, it will cause aggressive behaviour
 - The consequences of a little conflict and a lot of conflict are very different
 - Conflicts are productive to a point
 - Relationship conflicts especially are bad
- Conflict can be functional when it promotes necessary organizational change
 - New ideas are considered
 - Each party monitors the other's performance more carefully
 - Signals that a redistribution of power is necessary

Conflict Resolution Styles

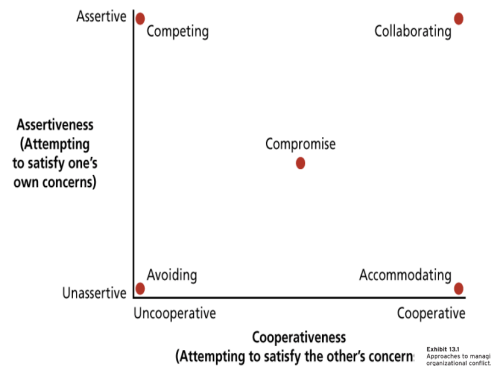


Figure 13: Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI)

- Different individuals approach conflict differently
 - Even as the same person, we approach conflicts differently based on who the conflict is with (e.g. family, friends, professors)
- TKI measures conflict management behaviour in two dimensions:
 - Assertiveness: how far are you willing to go to get what you want
 - Cooperativeness: how far are you willing to make sure others get what they want
- Avoiding: uncooperative, unassertive
 - Short term stress reduction, but doesn't change the situation in the long term
 - Effective when:
 - * The issue is trivial
 - * Others in the group are aggressive and need to cool down
- Accommodating: cooperative, unassertive
 - Cooperating with the other party and not asserting one's own interests
 - Effective when:
 - * You are wrong
 - * The issue is more important to the other party
 - * You want to build good will
- Competing: high assertiveness, low cooperation
 - Effective when:
 - * You have a lot of power/confidence/knowledge
 - * The situation is win-lose
 - * There are no long-term consequences (you won't have to interact with the other person again)
- Compromise: intermediate assertiveness and cooperation
 - Nobody gets what they truly want
 - Does not result in the most creative response
 - Not useful for resolving conflicts that stem from power asymmetry
 - Effective when:
 - * Conflict from scarcity
 - * As a fall-back option
- Collaborating: high assertiveness and cooperation
 - Advocating for ourselves and the other party
 - Pushes for creative responses that result in a win-win situation
 - Enhances productivity and achievement, but hard to develop
 - Effective when:
 - * Each party has information useful to the other
 - * Conflict is not intense

Stress

- Conflict leads to stress
- Stress is a response to some motivator – it is the flight or flight response or preparation for action
 - The decision to engage or not engage
 - When high effort leads to low rewards (effort-reward imbalance model), strain follows
 - * We're not motivated enough to engage more
- The *stressor* is the person or event that triggers the stress
- *Distress* (stress reactions) are the adverse psychological, physical, behavioural, and organizational consequences that follow as a result of stress
 - e.g. sweat, nail biting, fear, nervousness, anxiety
 - Our ability to deal with emotions decreases, which projects as anger
 - Some of these are passive responses that the individual has no control over (e.g. elevated blood pressure)
- Personality can make you more or less susceptible to stress
 - Locus of control
 - Positive/negative affectivity
 - Type A behaviour pattern (aggressiveness, ambitiousness, competitiveness, hostility, impatience, sense of urgency)
- Common stressors occur in particular roles:
 - Executive and managerial roles: heavy responsibility, role overload
 - Operative-level roles: poor physical working conditions and job design
 - Boundary roles (people who straddle the boundary between the organization and its environment)
- What can an organization do?
 - Reducing physical and task demands
 - Training, mentoring
 - Better treatment, more control
 - Better work-life balance
- Jobs have demands and resources
 - Demands: physical, psychological, social, or organizational features of a job that require sustained effort
 - * High demands lead to burnout
 - * e.g. work overload, time pressure
 - Resources: features of a job that are functional in that they help achieve work goals, reduce job demands, and meet growth needs
 - * They come from the organization, interpersonal social relations, organization of work, or the task itself

Lecture 29/30, Mar 27, 2023

Power

- Power is the capacity to influence others who are in a state of dependence
- Not always perceived or exercised
- Does not imply a good or poor relationship – people can like or dislike the people who have power over them
- Power comes from 5 bases:
 1. Legitimate power: derived from a person's position, formal authority and level in an hierarchy (results in compliance)
 - e.g. politicians, CEOs
 - We are socialized to accept its influence
 2. Reward power: derived from ability to provide positive and prevent negative outcomes (results in compliance)
 - e.g. payment, but also praising, complimenting

- The reward doesn't always take into consideration everything we want
- Largely about influencing and encouraging desired behaviour
- 3. Coercive power: derived from use of punishment and threat (results in the most resistance)
 - Generally less effective and can provoke resistance
- 4. Referent power: derived from being well liked by others (results in commitment)
 - Friendly interpersonal relations cause influence to go beyond organizations
 - Tends to be by choice
- 5. Expert power: derived from having special knowledge/information that is valuable (results in commitment)
 - Also tends to be by choice
- Referent and expert power are the most effective because they result in commitment – we comply and we want to do it
- Reward and legitimate power result in compliance, but people may not want it
- Coercive power is the least effective because it will result in resistance

Acquiring Power

- People obtain power by getting into positions, doing certain activities, and developing relationships with others
- Certain activities are more effective for generating power:
 - Extraordinary: unusual, non-routine activities (e.g. innovation, taking big risks, new roles)
 - Visible: power can only be generated if others know about your activities
 - Relevant: people have to care about your activity to generate power
- Developing relationships with the right people can generate power:
 - Outsiders
 - Subordinates
 - Peers
 - Superiors

Need for Power

- Need for power (n Pow) is the need to have strong influence over others
- Power has consequences – it comes with responsibilities
- n Pow is a personality characteristic; some people want power more than others
 - Individuals with internal locus of control tend to have high n Pow
- *Institutional managers* are effective managers that use their power for the good of the organization
 - Typically high n Pow
 - Relative unconcerned with how much others like them
- There are positive and negative ways that we influence people (influence means); this is also affected by our intentions

Organizational Politics

- Using and abusing power/influence to further your own goals, whether or not it aligns with the goals of the organization
- Typically involves using means of influence that the organization does not sanction or pursuing goals that it does not sanction
- Political activity is self-conscious and intentional (unconscious behaviour is not organizational politics)
- Political behaviour can involve using means not sanctioned by the organization to achieve ends sanctioned by the organization; in this case the outcomes can be beneficial even though the tactics are questionable
- Political skill is the ability to understand others and use it to your advantage to enhance your own objectives
- 4 facets to political skill:
 1. Social astuteness: being able to “read” people, interpersonal skills/emotional intelligence

Influence Means	Influence Ends	
	Organizationally Sanctioned	Not Sanctioned by Organization
Organizationally Sanctioned	Nonpolitical Job Behaviour I	Organizationally Dysfunctional Political Behaviour II
Not Sanctioned by Organization	Political Behaviour Potentially Functional to the Organization III	Organizationally Dysfunctional Political Behaviour IV

Figure 14: Types of organizational behaviour

2. Interpersonal influence: being able to convince and persuade others; not to pressure but to make them feel at ease
3. Apparent sincerity: coming across as genuine and exhibiting high integrity; making people think you care more than you actually do
4. Networking ability: establishing good relations with key people to establish your goals; building a good reputation

Positive:

- Pressure/Assertiveness
- Ingratiation
- Rationality
- Exchange
- Upward Appeal
- Coalition
- Consultation
- Inspirational Appeals
- Personal Appeals
- Legitimizing Tactics

Negative:

- Blaming/attacking others (using scapegoats)
- Controlling access to information
- Avoiding, stalling
- Intimidation
- Taking credit for other's work
- Deceit
- Buffing
- Buck passing
- Over-conforming

Figure 15: Means of influence

Lecture 31, Mar 29, 2023

Ethics

- Decision makers need to consider important questions about challenges, e.g. bribery and corruption, nationalism, discrimination, etc
- Societal values shift over time and ethical issues shift with it – ethics is dynamic
- Ethics is viewed as systematic thinking about the moral consequences of decisions – who does it impact and how does it impact them?
 - Moral consequences can be framed in terms of the potential harm to stakeholders
- Ethical conflict focus on disagreements due to differences in philosophy; institutional conflicts focus on disagreements due to differences in policy
- Why do we engage in unethical behaviour?

- Personal gain
- Role conflict (differences between what you want vs. what the organization wants)
- Strong organizational identification (doing what's best for the organization, even if it's not the best for everyone else)
- Organizational and industry culture (what is expected in the organization/field isn't necessarily ethical, e.g. corruption)
- Competition
- Personality
 - * The cynical and those with an external locus of control are less tuned in to ethical matters
 - * Low conscientiousness, low agreeableness, high neuroticism
 - * High n Pow, strong economic values (i.e. valuing power and money) both make people more likely to behave unethically
 - * Also individual differences in people's degree of sophistication when thinking about moral issues
- Ethical managerial behaviour consists of ethical behaviour, social responsibility (fairness and advocating for justice, for local and global communities), environmental stewardship and fair employment practices
- There are 3 traditional branches of ethics and 2 additional concepts:
 - Virtue ethics (Aristotle): focused on your character; prudence, temperance, courage and justice
 - * Your character pushes you to behave ethically
 - Deontology/duty ethics (Immanuel Kant): rooted in rules; the intent is more important than the consequences
 - * Process matters; if you follow the process, then it is ethical regardless of consequences
 - Utilitarianism (John Stuart Mill): maximizing benefit for maximum number of people
 - * The process doesn't really matter as long as utility is maximized
 - Human rights perspective (John Locke): rooted in everybody having the right to life, liberty, and dignity; this supersedes everything else
 - Ethics of care (Nel Noddings): rooted in developing relationships and empathy
- Definitions:
 - Ethics: Moral principles that govern a person or a group's behaviour
 - Diversity: Recognizing the demographic and experiential heterogeneity of a group
 - Equity: Creating opportunities and removing barriers to address historic and current disadvantages
 - Inclusion: Creating a welcoming environment where people feel they belong
- Ethical theories have variabilities, so ethics are conveyed in laws and policies, e.g. human rights laws, labour laws, accessibility laws
- Ethical dilemmas often faced by organizations include:
 - Honest communication (e.g. misleading customers to sell a product)
 - Fair treatment (equitable and ethical treatment)
 - Special consideration (e.g. favors)
 - Fair competition
 - Responsibility to organization
 - Corporate social responsibility (making a positive change in the world)
 - Respect for law
- Ethical guidelines: identify stakeholders, costs and benefits present and future, consider the moral expectations, the nature of the dilemma, and discuss with stakeholders
- More equity concepts:
 - Privilege: invisible advantages linked to a social dimension
 - Implicit discrimination: subtly discriminatory practices
 - Identity: part of your identity being central and other parts of your identity not being visible unless they are of interest – there is more to what we are than meets the eye
 - Inclusion: not just that you are something (identity), but also that you belong there

Lecture 32/33, Apr 3, 2023

Leadership

- Leadership is about motivating people, gaining their commitment and directing them towards a goal
- Leaders are proactive and creates the vision, as opposed to managers who uphold the status quo and implements the vision
 - Leaders need to be passionate about their work
 - Goals are a lot more personal for leaders
- There are 2 types of leaders: “footsteps” (using position to guide and develop followers) and “shadows” (using position to satisfy their own needs, leaving followers in the dark)

Lecture 34, Apr 5, 2023

Leadership Theories

- Trait theories: theories based on characteristics – leaders are born; focuses on personality traits, social traits, physical characteristics
 - Leadership depends on the personal qualities (traits) of the leader
 - Based on the assumption that those who become good leaders have a special set of traits that distinguish them from everyone else
 - * e.g. intelligence, energy and drive, confidence, dominance, motivation to lead, emotional stability, honesty and integrity, need for achievement, sociability
 - Personality dimensions can be directly related to leadership emergence and success
 - * Extraversion and conscientiousness are most consistent predictors
 - Narcissism is often linked to leadership
 - Limitation: difficult to determine whether traits make the leader or whether the opportunity for leadership produces the traits
- Exchange relationship-based theories
 - Transactional leadership: contingent reward-based behaviour
 - * Manage by exception – if followers do well, reward them; if followers don't do well, let them know about it
 - Use transactional leadership to build the relationship, then transformational leadership to take that relationship further – invest in the follower
 - Transformational leadership: helping and motivating subordinates to grow
 - * Increase subordinates awareness of the importance of tasks and performing well
 - * Make aware of their needs for development and accomplishment
 - * Motivate them to work for the good of the organization, rather than their own benefit
 - 4 dimensions of transformational leadership:
 - * Charisma (idealized influence): leaders should be someone that people look up to; taking legitimate power to referent power
 - * Individualized consideration: being empathetic and caring of others
 - * Inspirational motivation: the ability to articulate a vision to create intrinsic motivation
 - * Intellectual stimulation: giving follower challenges and motivating them; making them go past their comfort zone; allowing independence
 - Transformational leadership is the most consistent predictor of effective leadership
 - Transformational leadership builds self-efficacy
- Situational/contingency theories: conditions affect leadership
 - Leadership depends on the situation and context that's involved
 - House's path-goal theory: using goal setting as a leadership approach
 - The leader helps employees achieve their goals and in doing so achieve organizational goals
 - A leader's behaviour in interacting with their followers and the environment contributes to how the employee feels, how much effort they put in and how receptive they are of the leader
 - 4 different path-goal styles:

- * Directive: instructive, coaching, guiding; being hands-on and giving guidance
- * Supportive: coaching but without telling them what do to
- * Participative: consulting with subordinates, asking and taking suggestions
- * Achievement oriented: sets challenging goals and expecting high performance; pushing employees past their limits to build self-efficacy
- A leader has to first understand who their followers are before choosing a style
- Leaders assess their followers’ needs and attributes with the context, and use appropriate behaviours to guide followers to actions that lead to need satisfaction
- Issues with perceived fairness, too much effort involved with using different styles for different subordinates

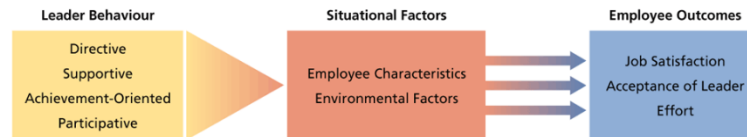


Figure 16: House’s path goal theory

Lecture 35/36, Apr 10, 2023

Emerging Theories of Leadership

- Emerging leaders are guided by their values; followers look to their leaders to determine their behaviour
- Global leadership: involves having leadership capabilities required to function effectively in different cultures (crossing language, social, economic and political barriers)
 - Global leaders deal with diverse employees and customer base as well
 - They typically have experience working and living in different countries and cultures
 - Need a global mindset, tolerate high levels of ambiguity, and exhibit adaptability and flexibility to adapt to local cultures
 - 4 key characteristics:
 1. Unbridled inquisitiveness: continuously asking questions to learn about different cultures
 2. Personal character: prioritizing people
 3. Duality: can manage both uncertainty and innovation
 4. Savvy: high resourcefulness, can use tools and resources to their advantage; seeing opportunities
- Authentic leadership: focuses on the leader coming to the table with a number of behaviors, including understanding their own strengths, weaknesses, and capacity
 - 4 related behaviours:
 - * Self-awareness: Understanding of one’s own strengths, weaknesses and capacity
 - * Relational transparency: presenting the true authentic self to others
 - * Balanced processing: objective analysis of relevant information before making decisions, including discussion with other experts
 - * Internalized moral perspective: internal moral standards and values guide behaviour and decision making
 - Authentic leadership increases the ownership of followers and is especially good for trust
 - Authentic leadership increases psychcap, builds trust among members, which results in higher group citizenship behaviours and higher performance
- Empowering leadership: implementing conditions that enable power to be shared with employees (leading by handing over the keys rather than sitting in the driver seat)
 - Valuing participation and autonomy
 - Providing structural, relational, and psychological empowerment by removing barriers
 - * Structural empowerment is removing barriers and giving power (e.g. access to information,

- time, capital, people)
 - * Psychological empowerment is enabling the development of meaning, competence, self-determination and impact
 - Empowerment is not delegation, but enablement (not just offering the tool, but teaching them how to use it)
- Servant leadership: going beyond self-interests and having a genuine concern to serve others
 - Servant leaders want to serve first and lead second; they aim to empower people
 - Servant leaders focus on what supports their community the most and are not in it for any personal gain (e.g. unions, religious organizations)
 - Intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation, collective rather than individualistic
 - Leading with humility, authenticity, acceptance, and values
 - Advisors, mentors, counselors, not to direct but to guide
 - Aboriginal leaders are an example of this
- Ethical leadership: being the role model for normative behaviour and decision making; setting and following ethical standards
 - Bearing the onus of rewarding and disciplining others for adherence – giving them a reason to uphold ethical principles
 - Ethical leadership is challenging since they need to be ethical all the time – ethical behaviour is personal
 - Leader's behaviours affect follower's behaviours through their relationships and actions, ultimately leading to follower being ethical as well
 - Positive effects include better performance, fewer counterproductive behaviours, and more honesty, fairness, effectiveness; these effects are most present in people closest to the leaders
 - Ethical leadership decreases corrupt behaviour since it encourages followers to report problems to management
 - Typical values include integrity, altruism, humility, empathy and healing, personal growth, authenticity, empowerment, fairness and justice

Dark Leadership

- Unethical leadership: engaging in behaviours that violate moral or social standards, or rules and laws
 - Leaders that engage in such behaviour promotes similar behaviour from their followers
 - Unethical leaders' typical vices include:
 - * Self-serving
 - * Deceptive behaviour
 - * Hypocrisy
 - * Arrogance
 - * Lack of social inhibition (thinking that whatever they do should be socially acceptable, thinking that they are above the law/societal norms)
 - * High self monitoring (always being aware of how they're seen and controlling it to get a specific outcome)
 - * Malevolence
 - * Masked intentions (saying that they're doing this because of some reason but in reality the reason is different)
 - Can be motivated by self-interest
 - Doesn't always appear to be such; it is hard to spot
- Pseudo-transformational leadership: being self-centered and manipulating followers for their own gain
 - Transformational leadership but with masked intentions – leader is focused on their own goals, but telling you otherwise
 - With idealized influence, they wish to be idolized and respected but are not actually earning that respect (making others believe they have referent power)
 - With individualized consideration, they will only care about you as long as it directly benefits them
 - With inspirational motivation, they will still communicate a vision, but it is no longer focused on

- the organization's needs but rather their own personal needs
- With intellectual stimulation, they will discourage such behaviour; they will not challenge or motivate followers but rather limiting them from engaging in independent thought and action
- Abusive leadership: sustained hostile and especially nonverbal behaviours (excluding violence)
 - Not yelling or berating someone but mistreating, deceiving, and manipulating them
 - Can typically last as long as the employment relationship
 - Rooted in a power dynamic
 - Usually targeted more towards vulnerable followers, like harassment or discrimination
 - Can be cyclic – individuals subjected to abuse or injustice by their leaders often become abusive themselves
- Dark leadership can often be hard to spot

Lecture 37, Apr 12, 2023