



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY
BY EVERYONE'S SMART UNIVERSITY

PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

Lecture 0
Overview

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

Organizational Behavior

Stephen P. Robbins & Timothy A. Judge

Course Content

- Chapter 1: Introduction to OB. (Lecture 1)
- Chapter 2: Attitudes and Job Satisfaction. (Lecture 2)
- Chapter 3: Personality and Values (Lecture 3)
- Chapter 4 : Motivation Concepts and Applications (lecture 4)
- Chapter 5: Foundations of Group Behavior (lecture 5)
- Chapter 6 : Understanding Work Teams (Lecture 5)
- Chapter 7: Communication (Lecture 6)
- Chapter 8: Foundation of Organizational Structure (Lecture 6)
- Chapter 9: Introduction to Leadership (Lecture 7)
- Chapter 10: Basic Approaches to Leadership (Lecture 8)
- Chapter 11: Organizational Culture (lecture 9).
- Chapter 12: Managing change (Lecture 10)

What is OB?

- A field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behavior within organizations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness.

What is OB?

- In other words, Organizational behavior is the study of human behavior in Organizations and the application of knowledge about how, individuals, and groups act and react in an organization, in order to reach and accomplish the highest quality of performances, and dominant results.

OB Main Concern

- Why do people behave a certain way in an organizational environment? What factors affect job performance, employee interaction, job commitment, leadership and managerial styles?
- Individuals have studied this topic for decades in order to find ways of increasing organizational performance.

OB History as A Science

- While Organizational Behavior as a field of academic study wasn't fully recognized by the American Psychological Association (APA) until the 1970's, it's roots go back to the late 1920's when the Hawthorne Electric Company set up a series of experiments designed to explore how changes in environment and design changed the productivity of their employees.

OB History as A Science

- Their various studies, conducted between the years of 1924 and 1933, were broad and measured over large periods of time. The studies included the effect of various types of breaks (lots of small breaks, a few long ones, etc.) on productivity, productivity in isolation, and productivity in varying levels of light. The most famous finding resulting from the of the Hawthorne Studies is what is now called the Hawthorne Effect, the change in behavior of a test subject when they know they're being observed.

The importance of Interpersonal Skills

- Until the late 1980s, Business Schools Curricula emphasized the technical aspects of Management, focusing on Economics, Accounting, Finance and so on.
- Starting from the early 1990s, Business Schools realized the importance of understanding human behavior and the its role in determining a manager's effectiveness.

The importance of Interpersonal Skills

- Understanding OB helps determine manager effectiveness
- Technical and quantitative skills are important
- But leadership and communication skills are CRITICAL
- Organizational benefits of skilled managers
- Lower turnover of quality employees
- Higher quality applications for recruitment
- Better financial performance

Thank you



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة



PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

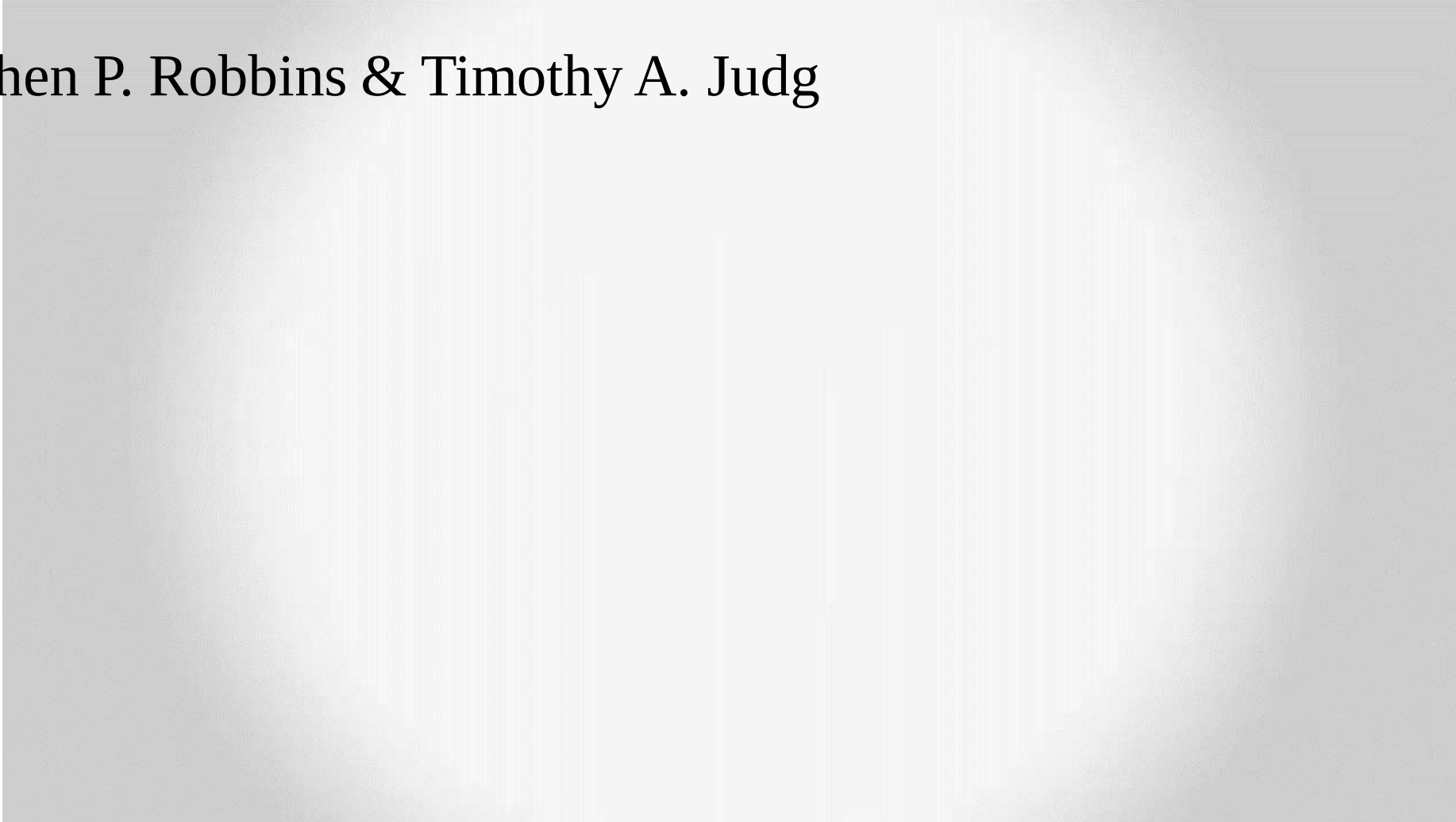
**Lecture 1
Overview**

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

Organizational Behavior

Stephen P. Robbins & Timothy A. Judg



Course Content

- Chapter 1: Introduction to OB. (Lecture 1)
- Chapter 2: Attitudes and Job Satisfaction. (Lecture 2)
- Chapter 3: Personality and Values (Lecture 3)
- Chapter 4 : Motivation Concepts and Applications (lecture 4)
- Chapter 5: Foundations of Group Behavior (lecture 5)
- Chapter 6 : Understanding Work Teams (Lecture 5)
- Chapter 7: Communication (Lecture 6)
- Chapter 8: Foundation of Organizational Structure (Lecture 6)
- Chapter 9: Introduction to Leadership (Lecture 7)
- Chapter 10: Basic Approaches to Leadership (Lecture 8)
- Chapter 11: Organizational Culture (lecture 9).
- Chapter 12: Managing change (Lecture 10)

What is OB?

- A field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behavior within organizations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness.

What is OB?

- In other words, Organizational behavior is the study of human behavior in Organizations and the application of knowledge about how, individuals, and groups act and react in an organization, in order to reach and accomplish the highest quality of performances, and dominant results.

OB Main Concern

- Why do people behave a certain way in an organizational environment? What factors affect job performance, employee interaction, job commitment, leadership and managerial styles?
- Individuals have studied this topic for decades in order to find ways of increasing organizational performance.

OB History as A Science

- While Organizational Behavior as a field of academic study wasn't fully recognized by the American Psychological Association (APA) until the 1970's, it's roots go back to the late 1920's when the Hawthorne Electric Company set up a series of experiments designed to explore how changes in environment and design changed the productivity of their employees.

OB History as a Science

- Their various studies, conducted between the years of 1924 and 1933, were broad and measured over large periods of time. The studies included the effect of various types of breaks (lots of small breaks, a few long ones, etc.) on productivity, productivity in isolation, and productivity in varying levels of light. The most famous finding resulting from the of the Hawthorne Studies is what is now called the Hawthorne Effect, the change in behavior of a test subject when they know they're being observed.

The Importance of Interpersonal Skills

- Until the late 1980s, Business Schools Curricula emphasized the technical aspects of Management, focusing on Economics, Accounting, Finance and so on.
- Starting from the early 1990s, Business Schools realized the importance of understanding human behavior and the its role in determining a manager's effectiveness.

The Importance of Interpersonal Skills

- Understanding OB helps determine manager effectiveness
- Technical and quantitative skills are important
- But leadership and communication skills are CRITICAL
- Organizational benefits of skilled managers
- Lower turnover of quality employees
- Higher quality applications for recruitment
- Better financial performance

Why is it important to Managers To Understand OB?

- Findings from organizational behavior's body of research can be used by executives and Human Relations professionals better understand a business' culture, how that culture may facilitate or hinder productivity and employee retention, and how to best evaluate candidates skill set and personality during the hiring process.

Why is it important to Managers To Understand OB?

- Managers need an understanding of organizational behavior because a large part of their job has to do with exactly that. Organizational behavior is the study of how people behave while in groups and as individuals. Much of what a manager does has to do with trying to get people to work as effectively as possible. It can involve trying to motivate an individual worker or it can involve trying to understand how to get workers who are part of a team to interact with one another in such a way that they are able to work more efficiently and effectively.

OB Objectives

- To determine the motivation level of employees.
- To encourage the people, to work enthusiastically in the organization.
- To create an environment for the development of effective leadership.
- To develop effective group behavior among the employees.
- To identify the reasons for conflict and to resolve the conflict.

OB Objectives

- To find out the reasons for frustration and reduce or eliminate the reasons.
- To increase the moral of employees of the organization.
- To maintain the organizational environment favorable for the work.
- To find out the ways for effective organizational development.

What Managers Do?

- They get things done through other people.
- Management Main Activities:
- Make decisions
- Allocate resources
- Direct activities of others to attain goals

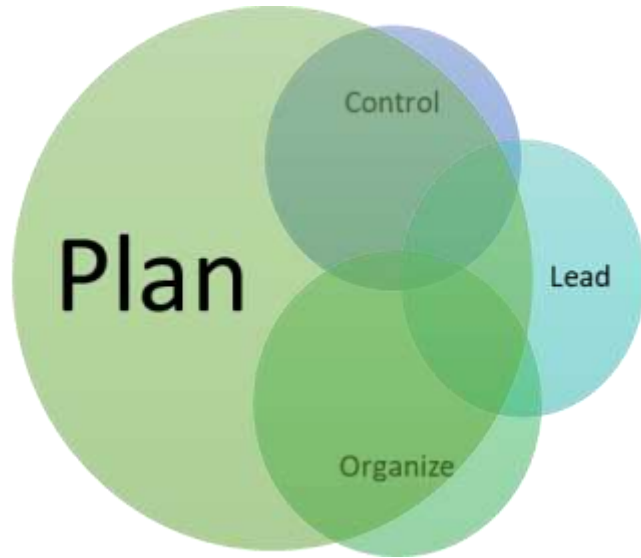
Management Functions According to Fayol:

- Henry Fayol in the early part of the twentieth century wrote that all managers perform five management functions; Planning, Organizing, Commanding, Coordinating and Controlling. Today we have condensed these functions into four: Planning, Organizing, Leading and Controlling.

Management Functions According to Fayol:



Management Functions: Plan



Planning

A process that includes defining goals, establishing strategy, and developing plans to coordinate activities.

As managers advance, they do this function more often.

Management Functions: Organize



Organizing

Determining what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who reports to whom, and where decisions are to be made.

Management Functions:Lead



Leading

A function that includes motivating employees, directing others, selecting the most effective communication channels, and resolving conflicts.

It is about PEOPLE!

Management Functions: Control



Controlling

Monitoring performance, comparing actual performance with previously set goals, and correcting any deviation.

Mintzberg's Managerial Roles

- Henry Mintzberg undertook a careful study of five executives to determine what they mainly do on their jobs. Mintzberg identified that managers perform ten different highly interrelated roles or set of behaviors. These ten roles can be separated under three groups of behavior:
- Interpersonal
- Informational
- Decisional

Mintzberg's Managerial Roles

TABLE 1-1 Mintzberg's Managerial Roles

Role	Description
Interpersonal	
Figurehead	Symbolic head; required to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature
Leader	Responsible for the motivation and direction of employees
Liaison	Maintains a network of outside contacts who provide favors and information

Mintzberg's Managerial Roles: Informational

Informational

Monitor	Receives a wide variety of information; serves as nerve center of internal and external information of the organization
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or from other employees to members of the organization
Spokesperson	Transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans, policies, actions, and results; serves as expert on organization's industry

Mintzberg's Managerial Roles: Decisional

Decisional

Entrepreneur	Searches organization and its environment for opportunities and initiates projects to bring about change
Disturbance handler	Responsible for corrective action when organization faces important, unexpected disturbances
Resource allocator	Makes or approves significant organizational decisions
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organization at major negotiations

Source: Adapted from H. Mintzberg, *The Nature of Managerial Work*, 1st edn. (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1997), © 1973.
Reprinted and electronically reproduced by permission of Pearson Education, Inc., Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

Katz's Essential Management Skills

- Another way of considering what managers do is to look at the skills or competencies they need to achieve their goals. According to Katz, researchers have identified a number of skills that differentiate effective from ineffective managers as follows:
- Technical Skills
- The ability to apply specialized knowledge or expertise.
- Human Skills
- The ability to work with, understand, and motivate other people, both individually and in groups.

Katz's Essential Management Skills

- Conceptual Skills
- The mental ability to analyze and diagnose complex situations.
-

Luthans' Study of Managerial Activities

- Four types of managerial activity:

1. Traditional Management

- Decision-making, planning, and controlling.

2. Communication

- Exchanging routine information and processing paperwork.

Luthans' Study of Managerial Activities

3. Human Resource Management

- Motivating, disciplining, managing conflict, staffing and training.

4. Networking

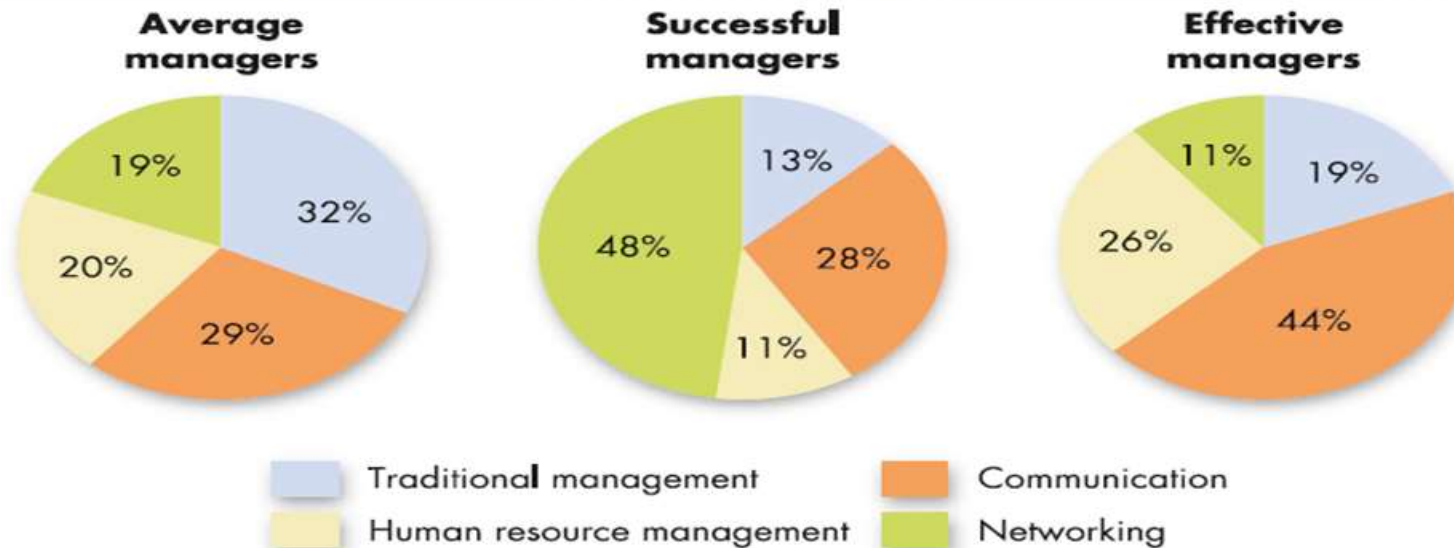
- Socializing, politicking, and interacting with others.

Successful vs. Effective Allocation by Time

Are the managers who are most effective the ones who get promoted the fastest?

Figure 1-1

Allocation of Activities by Time



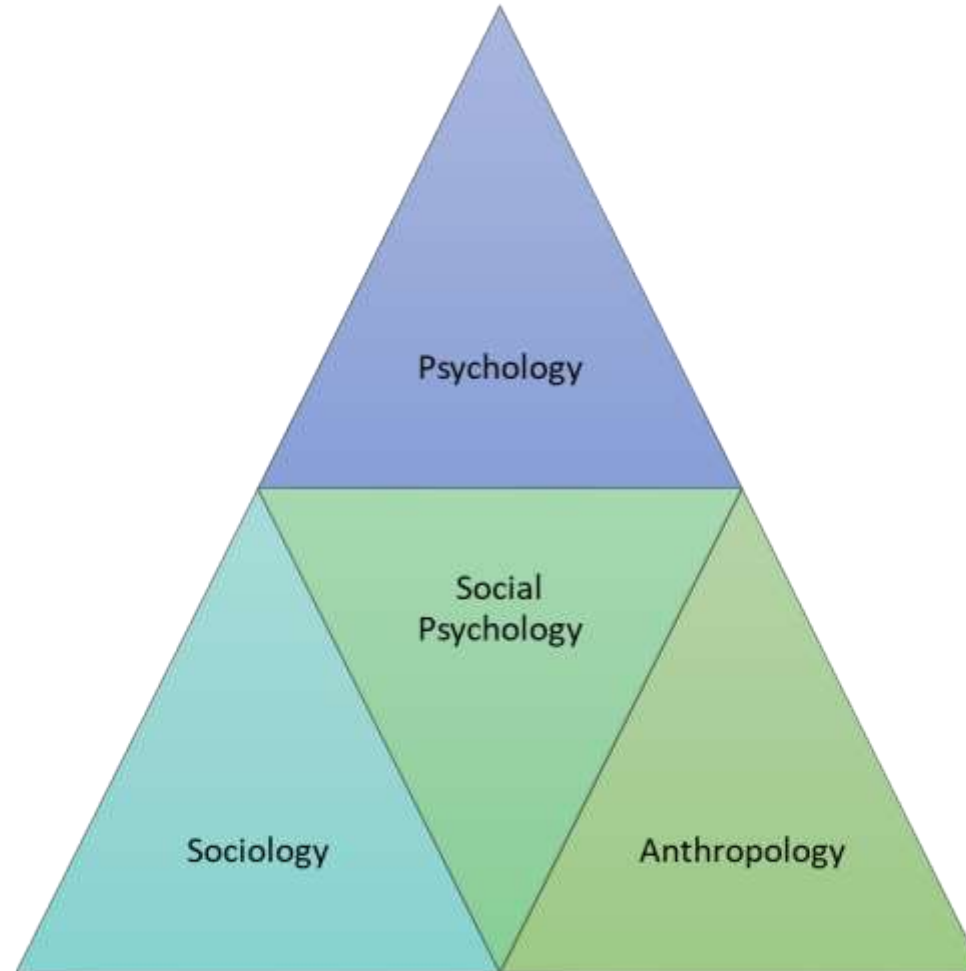
Source: Based on F. Luthans, R. M. Hodgetts, and S. A. Rosenkrantz, *Real Managers* (Cambridge, MA: Ballinger, 1988).

Successful vs. Effective Allocation by Time

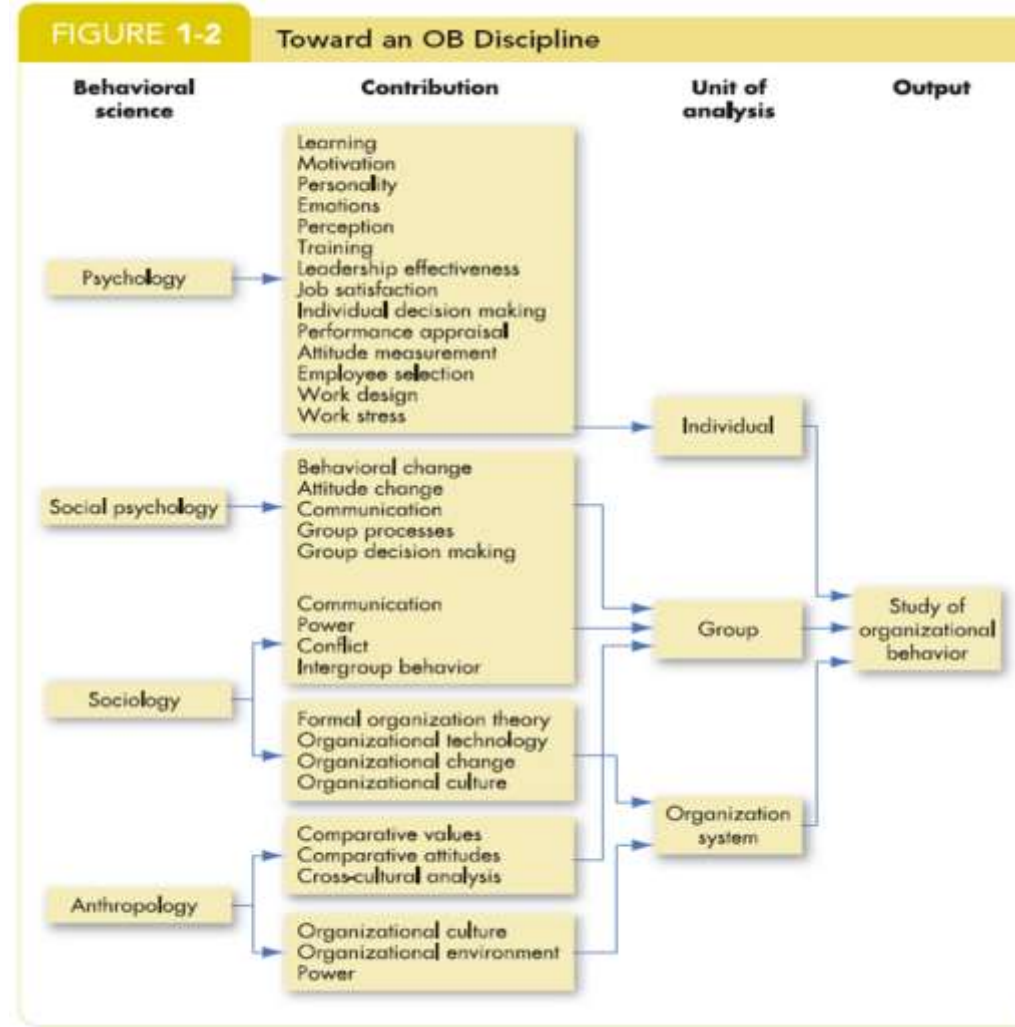
Managers who promoted faster (were successful) did different things than did effective managers (those who did their jobs well).

Contributing Disciplines

Many behavioral sciences have contributed to the development of Organizational Behavior.



Contributing Disciplines



- The science that seeks to measure, explain, and sometimes change the behavior of humans and other animals.
- Unit of Analysis:
- Individual
- Contributions to OB:
- Learning, motivation, personality, emotions, perception.

- Training, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction.
- Individual decision making, performance appraisal attitude measurement.
- Employee selection, work design, and work stress.

- Social psychology is an area within psychology that blends concepts from psychology and sociology and that focuses on the influence of people on one another.
- Unit of Analysis:
- Group
- Contributions to OB:
- Behavioral change
- Attitude change

- Communication
- Group processes
- Group decision making

- The study of people in relation to their fellow human beings.
- Units of Analysis:
 - Organizational system
 - Group
- Contributions to OB:
 - Group dynamics
 - Work teams

- Communication
- Power
- Conflict

- The study of societies to learn about human beings and their activities.
- Units of Analysis:
 - Organizational system
 - Group
- Contributions to OB:
 - Organizational culture
 - Organizational environment

- Comparative values
- Comparative attitudes
- Cross-cultural analysis

Challenges and Opportunities for OB

1. Responding to Globalization

- Increased foreign assignment.
- Working with people from different cultures.

2. Managing Workforce Diversity

The people in organizations are becoming more demographically heterogeneous :

Embracing diversity.

Changing demographics.

Implications: stop treating everyone alike!

3. Improving Quality and Productivity
4. Improving Customer Service
5. Improving People Skills
6. Stimulating Innovation and Change
7. Working in Networked Organizations
8. Helping Employees Balance Work-Life Conflicts

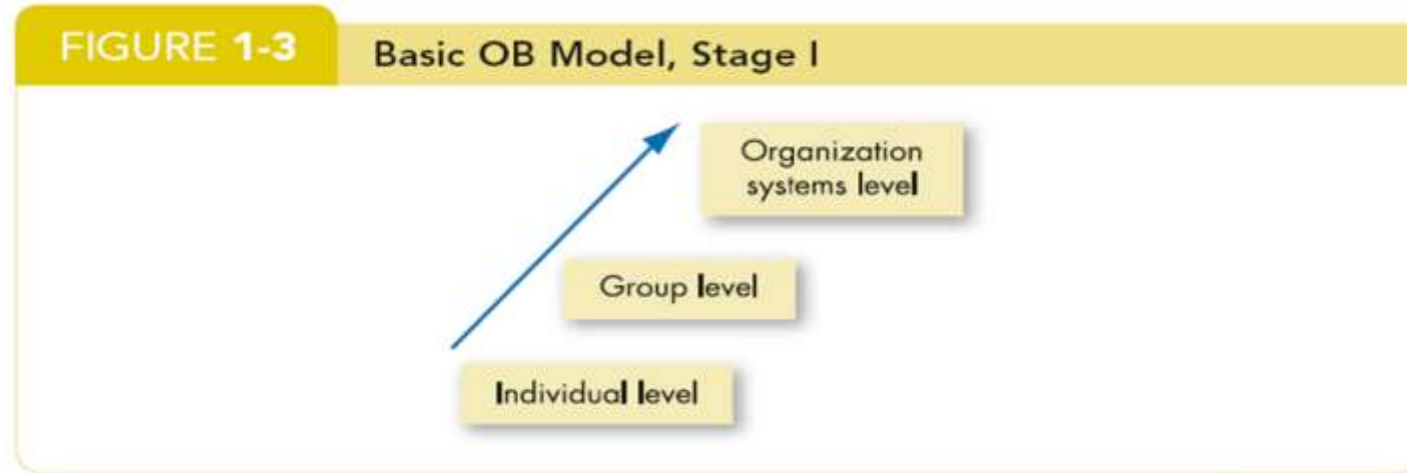
Challenges and Opportunities for OB

- Creating a Positive Work Environment
- Improving Ethical Behavior

Developing an OB Model

A **model** is an abstraction of reality: a simplified representation of some real-world phenomenon.

- Our OB model has three levels of analysis.
- Each level is constructed on top of the prior level.



Types of Study Variables

- Independent (X)
 - The presumed cause of the change in the dependent variable (Y).
 - This is the variable that OB researchers manipulate to observe the changes in Y.
- Dependent (Y)
 - This is the response to X (the independent variable).
 - It is what the OB researchers want to predict or explain.
 - The interesting variable!

Interesting OB Dependent Variables

- Productivity

Transforming inputs to outputs at lowest cost. Includes the concepts of effectiveness (achievement of goals) and efficiency (meeting goals at a low cost).

- Absenteeism

Failure to report to work – a huge cost to employers.

- Turnover

Voluntary and involuntary permanent withdrawal from an organization.

Interesting OB Dependent Variables

- Deviant Workplace Behavior

Voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and thereby threatens the well-being of the organization and/or any of its members.

- Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Discretionary behavior that is not part of an employee's formal job requirements, but that nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organization.

Interesting OB Dependent Variables

- Job Satisfaction

A general attitude (not a behavior) toward one's job; a positive feeling of one's job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics.

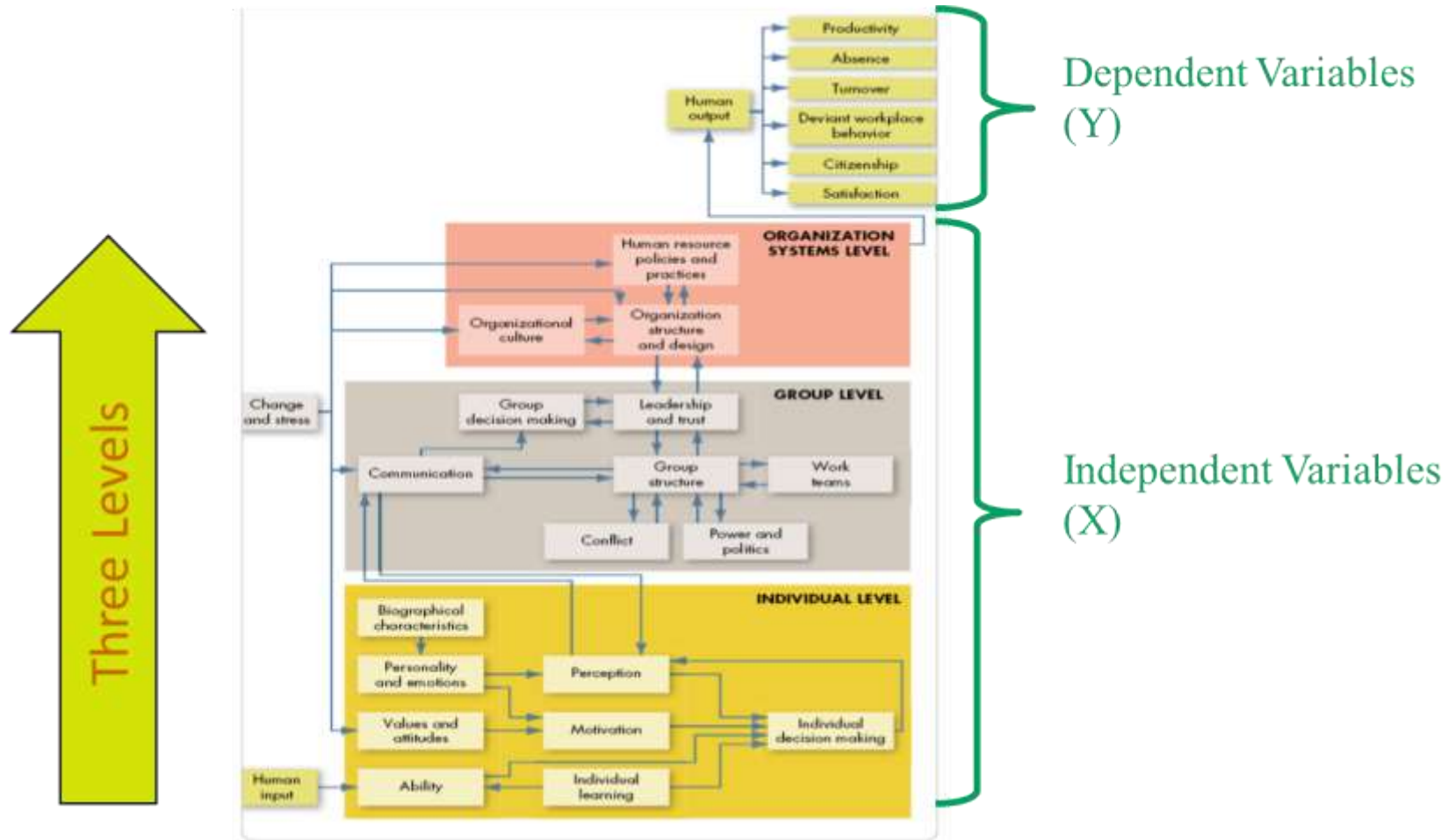
- The independent variable (X) can be at any of these three levels in this model:
- Individual
- Biographical characteristics, personality and emotions, values and attitudes, ability, perception, motivation, individual learning, and individual decision making.
- Group
- Communication, group decision making, leadership and trust, group structure, conflict, power and politics, and work teams.

The Independent Variables

- Organization System

Organizational culture, human resource policies and practices, and organizational structure and design.

OB Model



Summary and Managerial Implications

- Managers need to develop their interpersonal skills to be effective.
- OB focuses on how to improve factors that make organizations more effective.
- The best predictions of behavior are made from a combination of systematic study and intuition.
- Situational variables moderate cause-and-effect relationships—which is why OB theories are contingent.

Summary and Managerial Implications

- There are many OB challenges and opportunities for managers today.
- The textbook is based on the contingent OB model.

Thank you



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة



PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

**Lecture 2
Overview**

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

Attitudes & Job Satisfaction

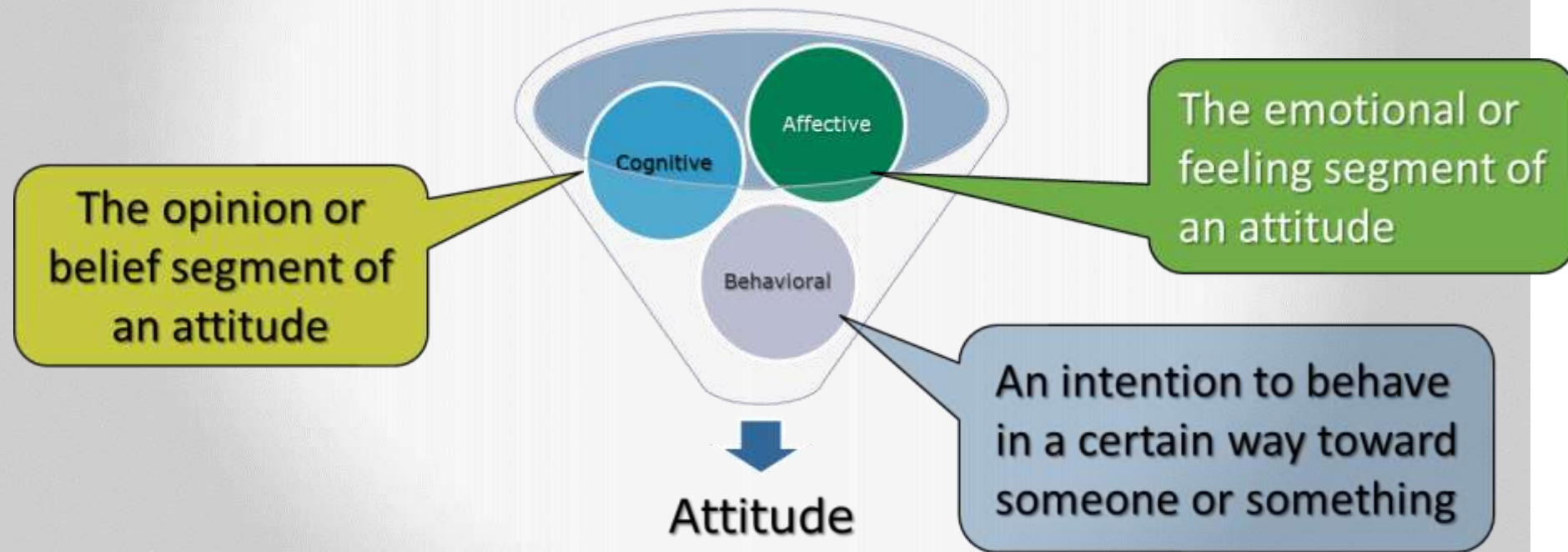
Chapter Learning Objectives

1. Contrast the three components of an attitude.
2. Summarize the relationship between attitudes and behavior.
3. Compare and contrast the major job attitudes.
4. Define job satisfaction and show how it can be measured.

Organizational Behavior

Attitudes are evaluative statements or judgments concerning objects, people, or events.

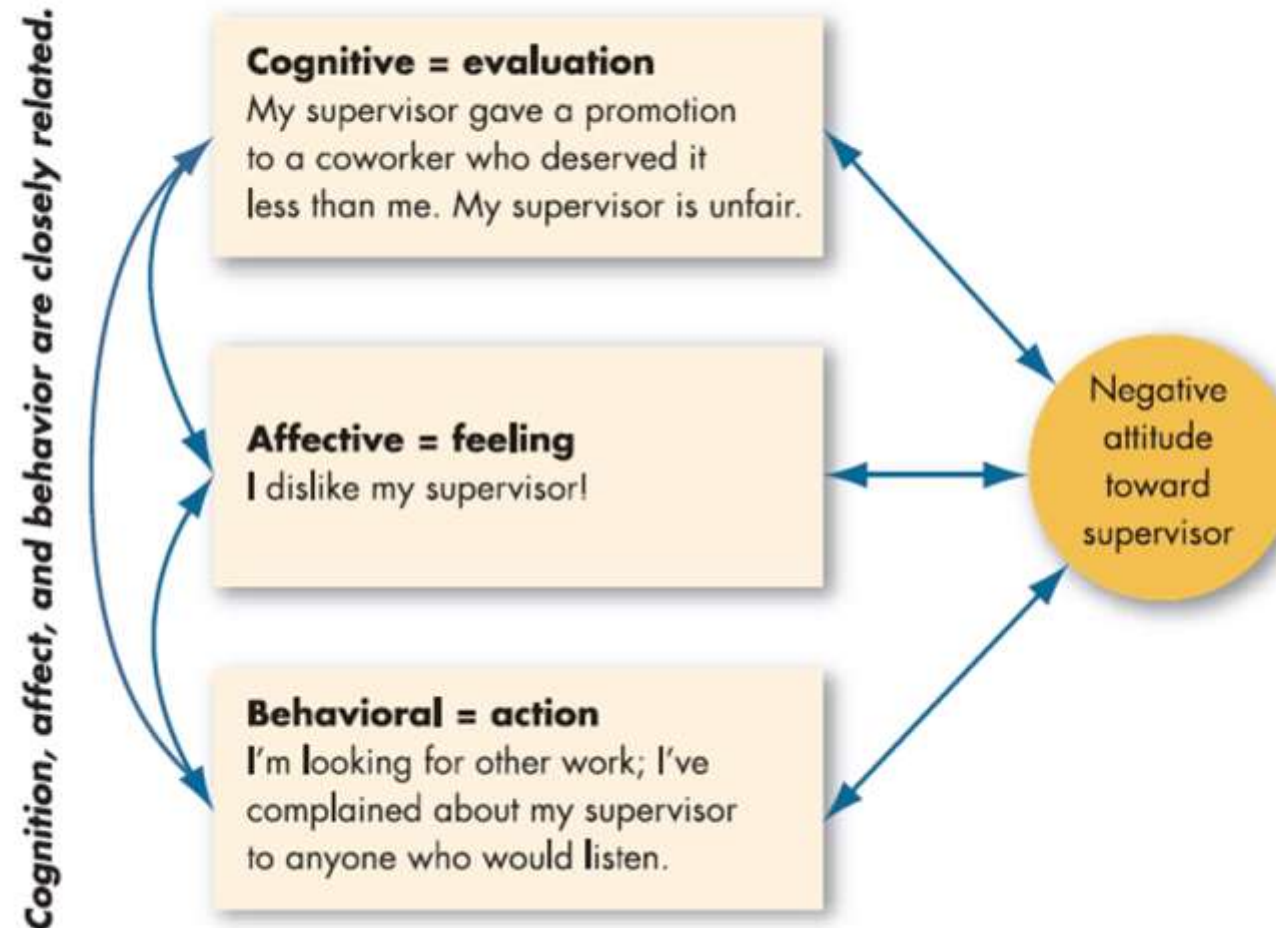
Three components of an attitude:



Attitudes

Figure 3-1

The Components of an Attitude



Does Behavior Always Follow from Attitudes?

No, the reverse is sometimes true!

Leon Festinger

Cognitive Dissonance is any incompatibility between two or more attitudes or between behavior and attitudes.

Individuals seek to reduce this uncomfortable gap, or *dissonance*, to reach stability and consistency.

Does Behavior Always Follow from Attitudes?

Consistency is achieved by changing the attitudes, modifying the behaviors, or through rationalization.

Desire to reduce dissonance depends on:

- importance of elements;

- degree of individual influence;

- rewards involved in dissonance.

Predicting Behavior from Attitudes

Important attitudes have a strong relationship to behavior.

The closer the match between attitude and behavior, the stronger the relationship:

Specific attitudes predict specific behavior.

General attitudes predict general behavior.

Predicting Behavior from Attitudes

The more frequently expressed an attitude is, the better predictor it is.

High social pressures reduce the relationship and may cause dissonance.

Attitudes based on personal experience are stronger predictors.

Predicting Behavior from Attitudes (cont'd)



Predicting Behavior from Attitudes (cont'd)

Marriott Hotels strives for consistency between attitudes and behavior through its motto 'Spirit to Serve.'

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Job satisfaction

- A positive feeling about the job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Job involvement

Degree of psychological identification with the job where perceived performance is important to self-worth.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Psychological Empowerment:

Employees' beliefs in the degree to which they influence their work environment, their competence, the meaningfulness of their job, and their perceived autonomy.

12 One study of nursing managers in Singapore found that good leaders empower their employees by involving them in decisions, making them feel their work is important, and giving them discretion to “do their own thing

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Organizational Commitment

Identifying with a particular organization and its goals, while wishing to maintain membership in the organization.

Three dimensions:

Affective commitment: emotional attachment to organization.

Continuance commitment: economic value of staying.

Normative commitment: moral or ethical obligations.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Has some relation to performance, especially for new employees.

Less important now than in past—now perhaps more of *occupational commitment*, loyalty to profession rather than a given employer.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Perceived organizational support (POS)

The degree to which employees believe the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being.

Higher when rewards are fair, employees are involved in decision-making, and supervisors are seen as supportive.

High POS is related to higher OCBs and performance.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Employee engagement

The degree of involvement with, satisfaction with, and enthusiasm for the job.

Engaged employees are passionate about their work and company.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?



To encourage employee engagement, Phillips has a program rewarding entrepreneurship in 22 Arab League states.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the primary job attitudes measured

Broad term involving a complex individual summation of a number of discrete job elements.

How to measure it?

Single global rating (one question/one answer) – Best.

Summation score (many questions/one average) – OK.

What Are the Major Job Attitudes?

Are people satisfied in their jobs?

Results depend on how job satisfaction is measured.

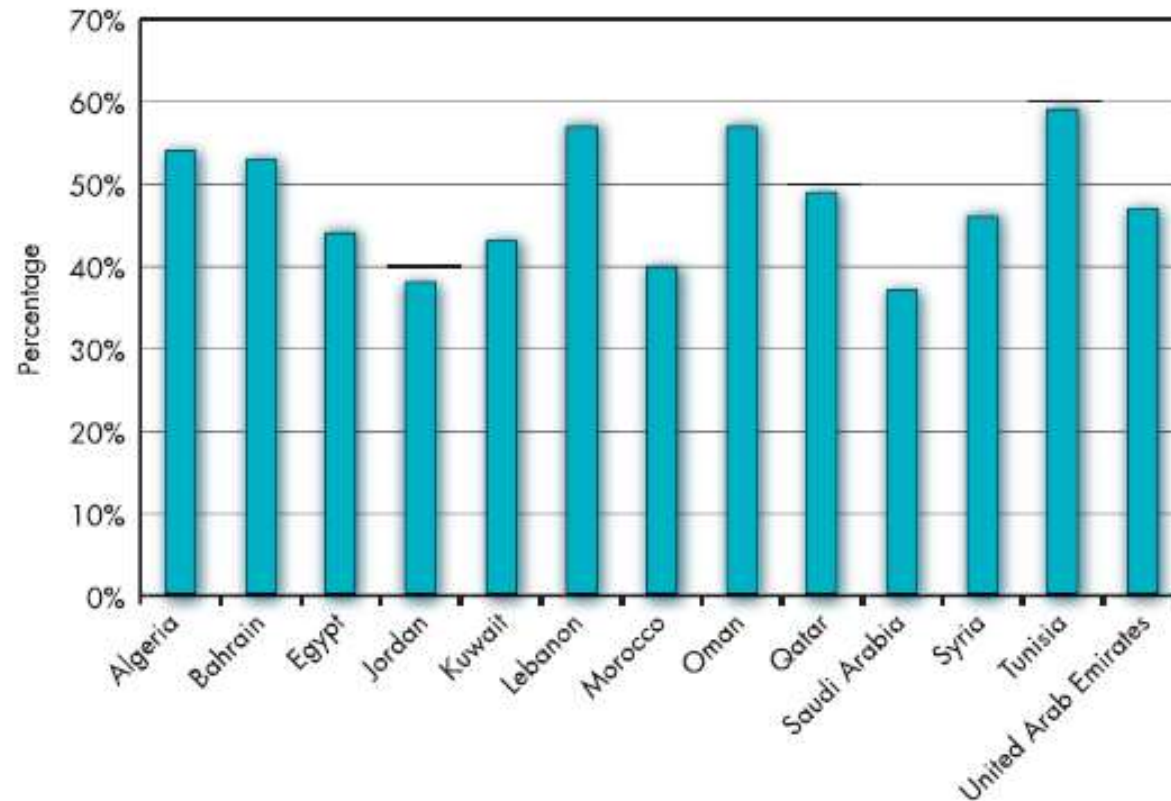
Pay and promotion are the most problematic elements.

Figures 3-2 and 3-3 show motivation and satisfaction levels in the Arab world.

Job Satisfaction

Figure 3-2

Levels of Motivation at Work by Arab World Countries

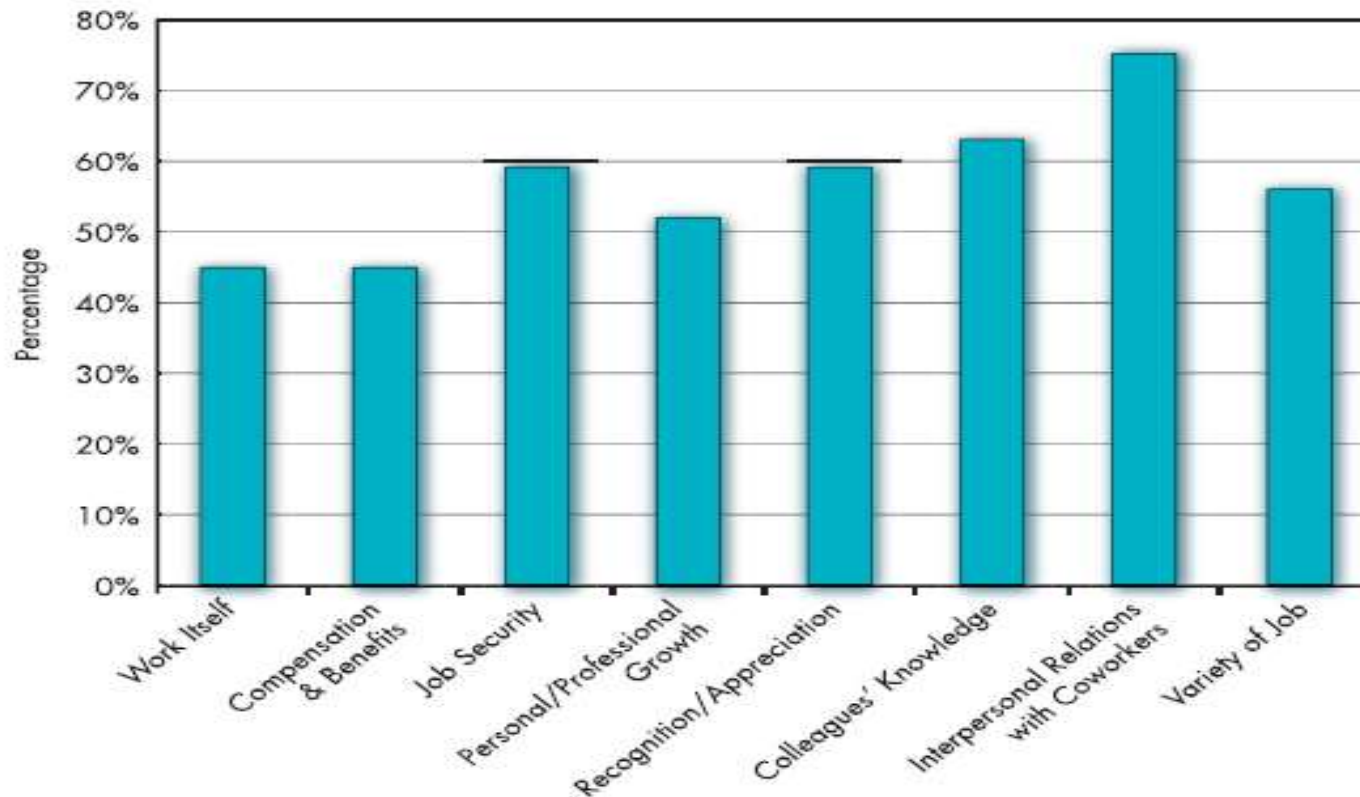


Source: Data collected from "Employee Motivation Study," September 2009, Bayt.com.

Job Satisfaction

Figure 3-3

Average Job Satisfaction Levels by Variable in the Arab World



Source: Data collected from "Employee Motivation Study," September 2009, Bayt.com.

Causes of Job Satisfaction

Pay influences job satisfaction only to a point

Money may bring happiness, but not necessarily job satisfaction.

Personality can influence job satisfaction

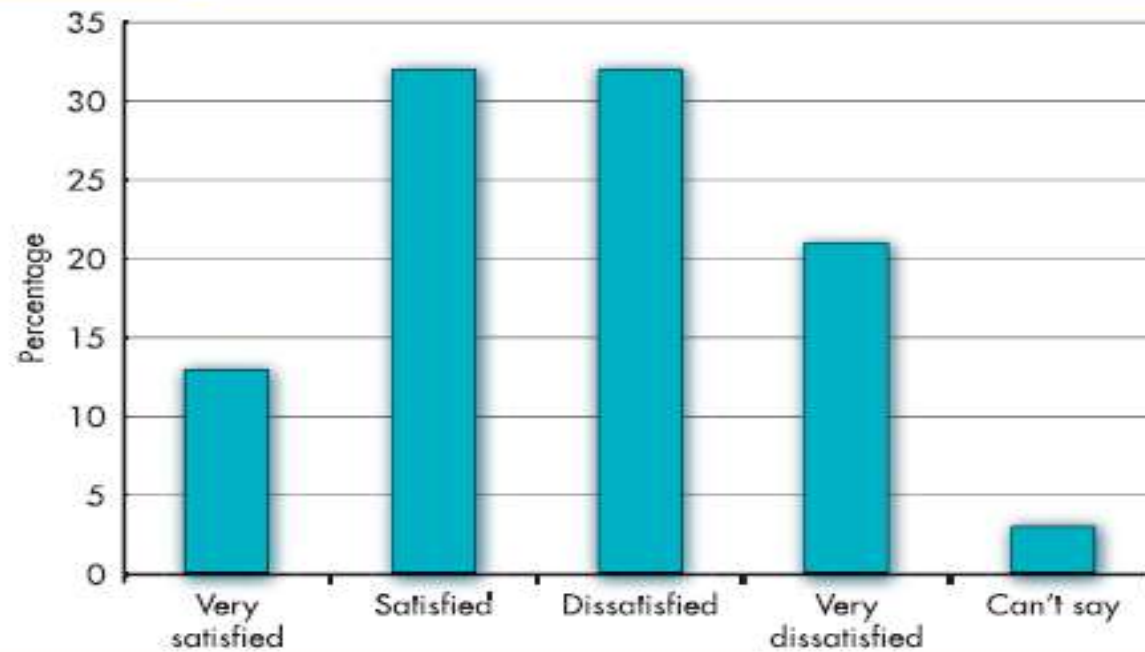
Negative people are usually not satisfied with their jobs.

Those with **positive core self-evaluation** are more satisfied with their jobs.

Causes of Job Satisfaction

Figure 3-4

The Relationship Between Compensation and Job Satisfaction in the Arab World



Source: Data collected from "Employee Motivation Study," September 2009, Bayt.com.

Employee Responses to Dissatisfaction



Job performance

Satisfied workers are more productive AND more productive workers are more satisfied!

The causality may run both ways.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Organizational citizenship behaviors

Satisfaction influences OCB through perceptions of fairness.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction

Satisfied frontline employees increase customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Absenteeism

Satisfied employees are moderately less likely to miss work.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction



A major focus of Nissan Motor Company's Diversity Development Office in Japan is helping female employees develop their careers.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Lower turnover

Satisfied employees are less likely to quit.

Many moderating variables in this relationship.

Economic environment and tenure.

Organizational actions taken to retain high performers and to weed out lower performers.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Workplace deviance

Dissatisfied workers are more likely to unionize, abuse substances, steal, be tardy, and withdraw.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Despite the overwhelming evidence of the impact of job satisfaction on the bottom line, most managers are either unconcerned about, or overestimate, worker satisfaction.

Is job satisfaction specific to cultures?

Most of the research so far has been in the U. S., but the concept of job satisfaction is not specific to the U.S. More research is needed elsewhere.

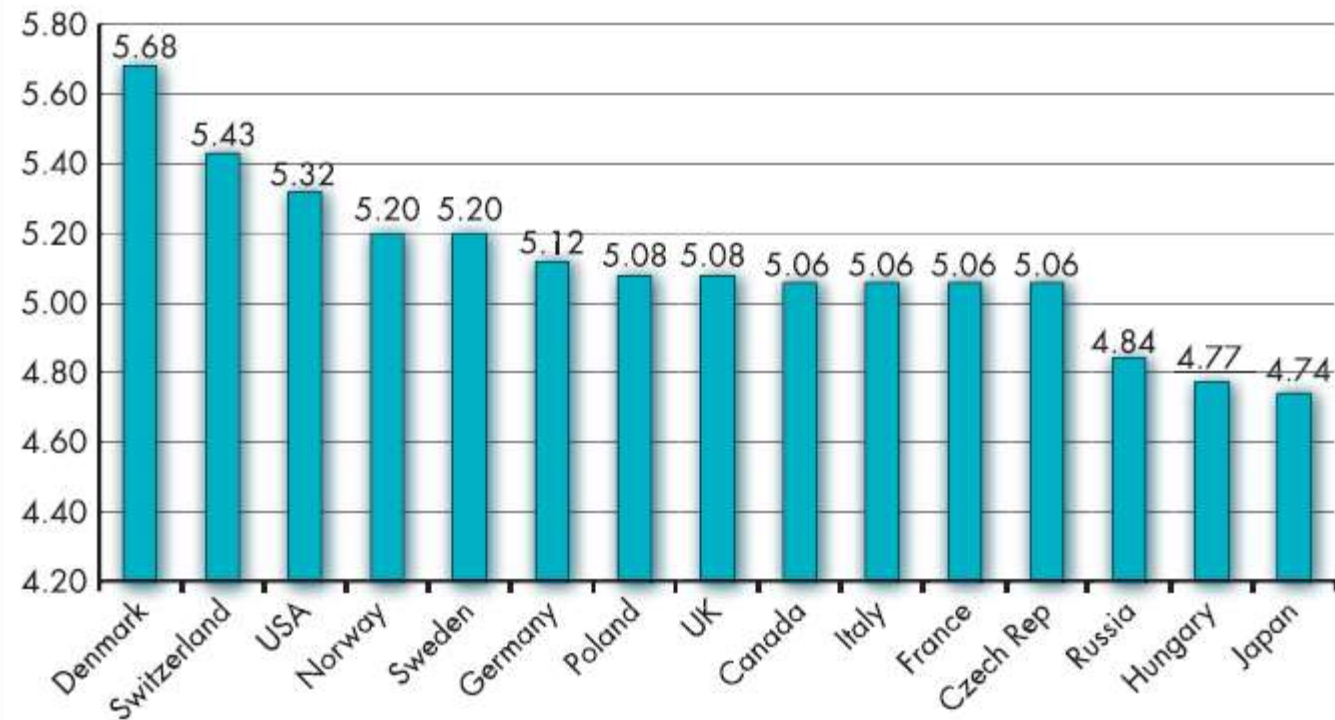
Are employees in Western cultures more satisfied with their jobs?

Western workers appear to be more satisfied than those in Eastern cultures.

Perhaps because Westerners emphasize positive emotions and individual happiness more than do those in Eastern cultures.

Figure 3-5

Average Levels of Job Satisfaction by Country



Source: M. Benz and B. S. Frey, "The Value of Autonomy: Evidence from the Self-Employed in 23 Countries," working paper 173, Institute for Empirical Research in Economics, University of Zurich, November 2003 (<http://ssrn.com/abstract=475140>).

Note: Scores represent average job-satisfaction levels in each country as rated on a 1 – very dissatisfied to 10 – very satisfied scale.

Summary and Managerial Implications

Managers should watch employee attitudes

They give warnings of potential problems.

They influence behavior.

Managers should try to increase job satisfaction and generate positive job attitudes

Reduces costs by lowering turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, theft, and increasing OCB.

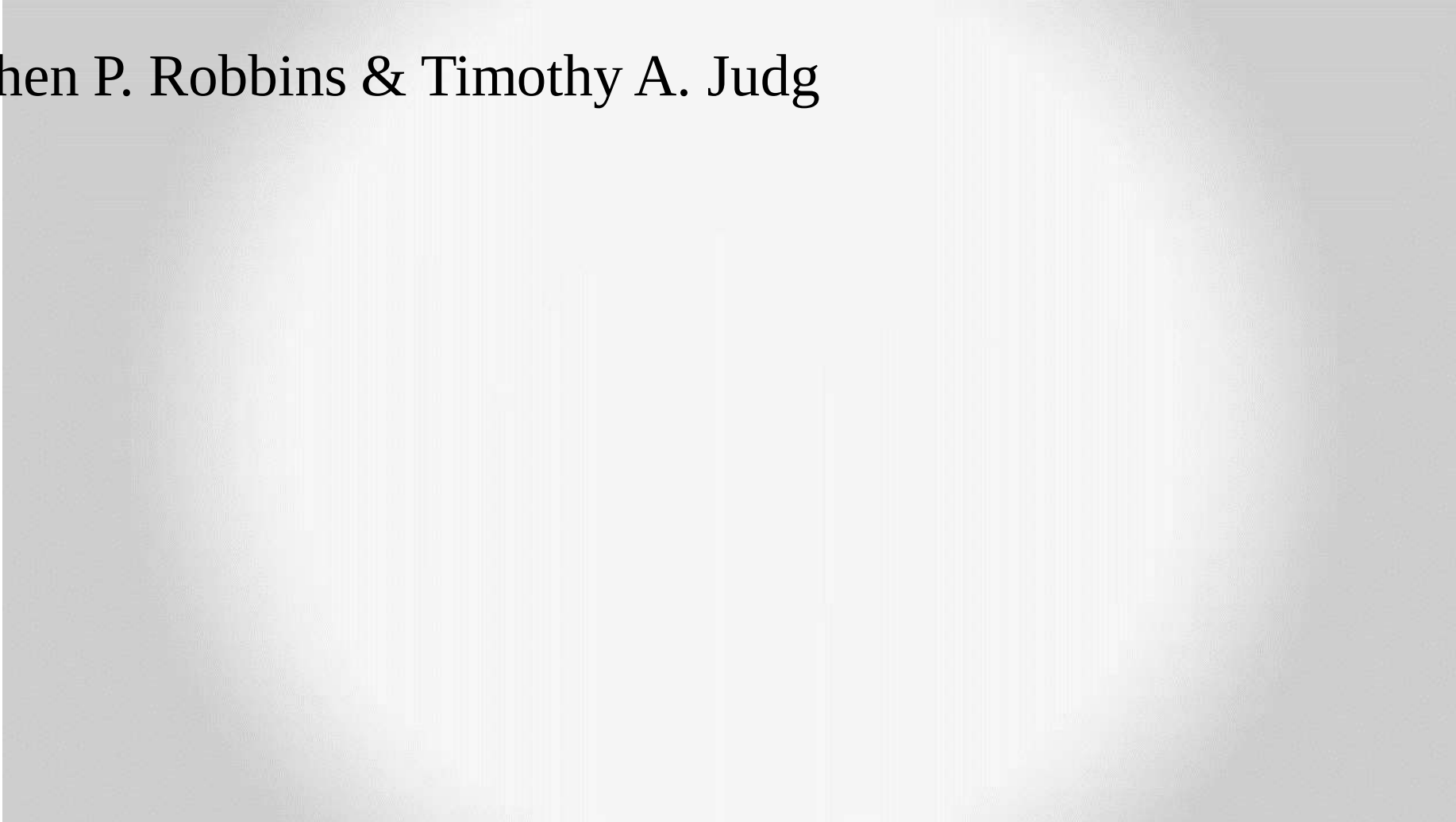
Focus on the intrinsic parts of the job

Make work challenging and interesting.

Pay is not enough.

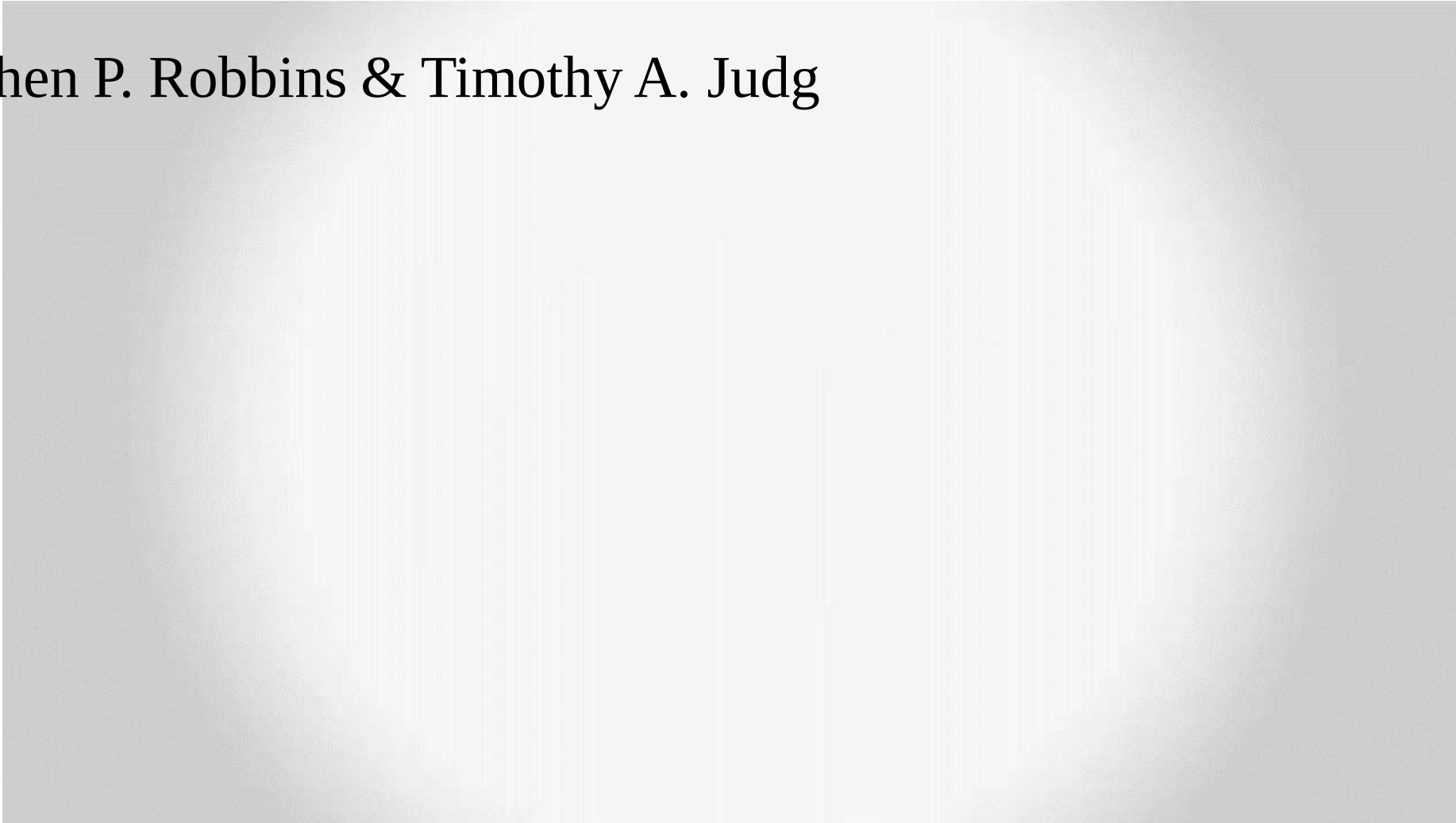
Organizational Behavior

Stephen P. Robbins & Timothy A. Judg



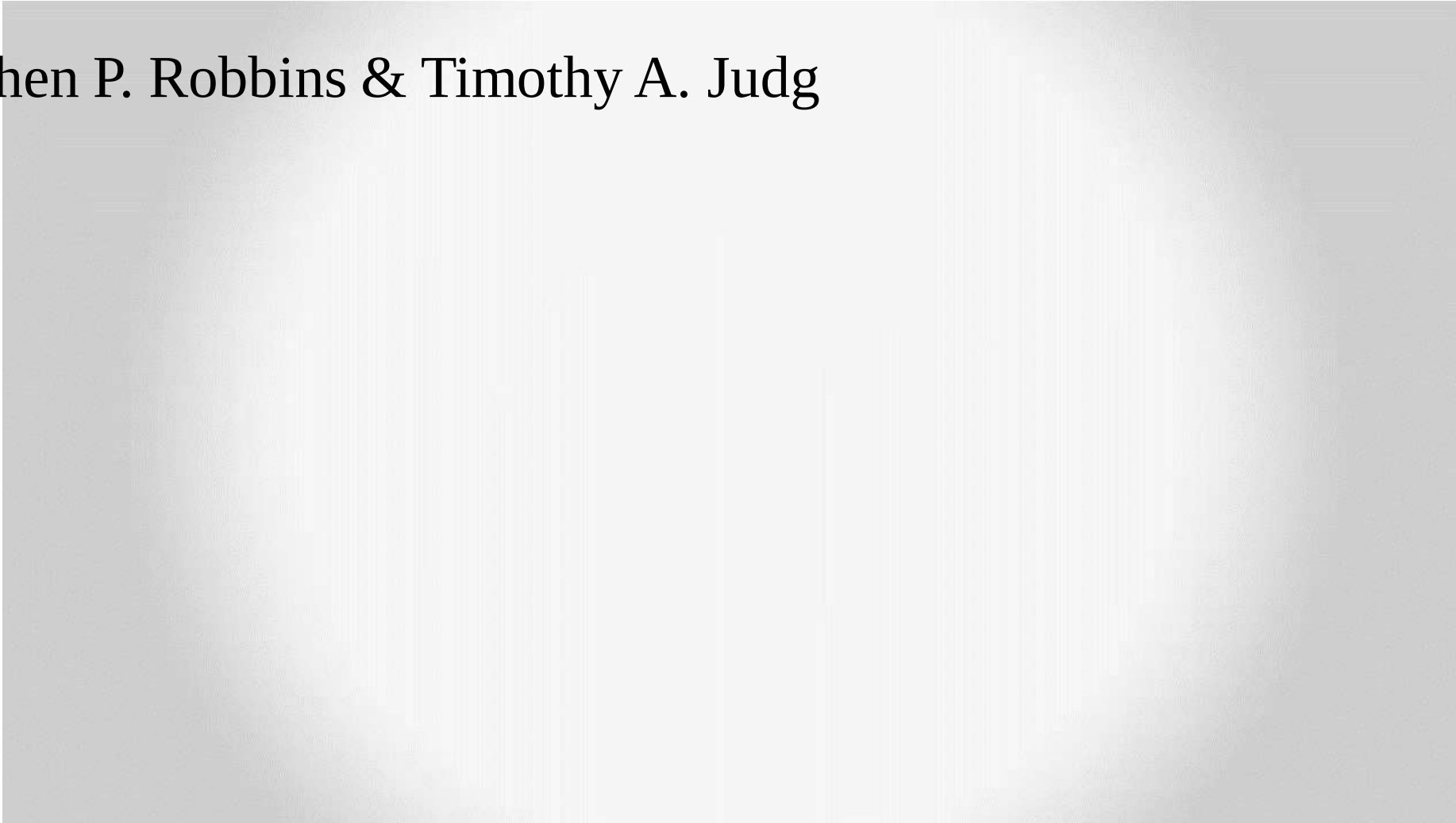
Organizational Behavior

Stephen P. Robbins & Timothy A. Judge



Organizational Behavior

Stephen P. Robbins & Timothy A. Judge





مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY
BY EVERYONE'S SMART UNIVERSITY

PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

**Lecture 3
Overview**

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

This chapter will enable you to:

1. Contrast the two types of ability: intellectual and physical.
2. Identify the key biographical characteristics and describe how they are relevant to OB.
3. Define learning and outline the principles of the three major theories of learning.

This chapter will enable you to:

4. Define shaping and show how it can be used in OB.
5. Define personality, describe how it is measured, and explain the factors that determine an individual's personality.

Personality & Values

This chapter will enable you to:

6. Describe the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality framework and assess its strengths and weaknesses.
7. Identify the key traits in the Big Five personality model and demonstrate how the Big Five traits predict behavior at work.

Personality & Values

This chapter will enable you to:

8. Identify other personality traits relevant to OB.
9. Define values, demonstrate the importance of values, and contrast terminal and instrumental values.
10. Show the relationship between individual personality and the workplace.
11. Identify Hofstede's five value dimensions of national culture.

Ability is an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job. It is made up of two sets of factors:

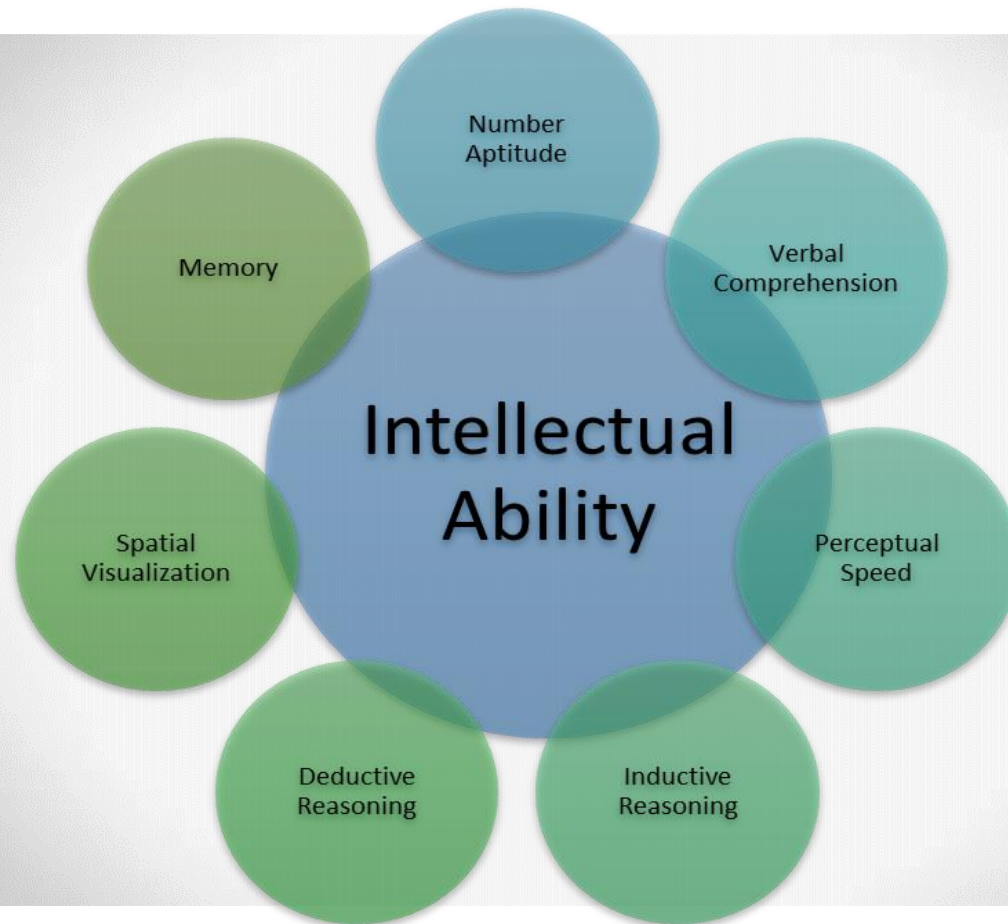
Intellectual Abilities

- The abilities needed to perform mental activities like thinking and reasoning.

Physical Abilities

- The capacity to do tasks demanding stamina, strength, and similar characteristics.

Dimensions of Intellectual Ability



Dimensions of Intellectual Ability

TABLE 2-1 Dimensions of Intellectual Ability

Dimension	Description	Job Example
Number aptitude	Ability to do speedy and accurate arithmetic	Accountant: Computing the sales tax on a set of items
Verbal comprehension	Ability to understand what is read or heard, and the relationship of words to each other	Plant manager: Following corporate policies on hiring
Perceptual speed	Ability to identify visual similarities and differences quickly and accurately	Fire investigator: Identifying clues to support a charge of arson
Inductive reasoning	Ability to identify a logical sequence in a problem and then solve the problem	Market researcher: Forecasting demand for a product in the next time period
Deductive reasoning	Ability to use logic and assess the implications of an argument	Supervisor: Choosing between two different suggestions offered by employees
Spatial visualization	Ability to imagine how an object would look if its position in space were changed	Interior decorator: Redecorating an office
Memory	Ability to retain and recall past experiences	Salesperson: Remembering the names of customers

Nine Basic Physical Abilities

Strength Factors

1. Dynamic strength
2. Trunk strength
3. Static strength
4. Explosive strength

Flexibility Factors

5. Extent flexibility
6. Dynamic flexibility

Other Factors

7. Body coordination
8. Balance
9. Stamina

Nine Basic Physical Abilities

TABLE 2-2 Nine Basic Physical Abilities

Strength Factors

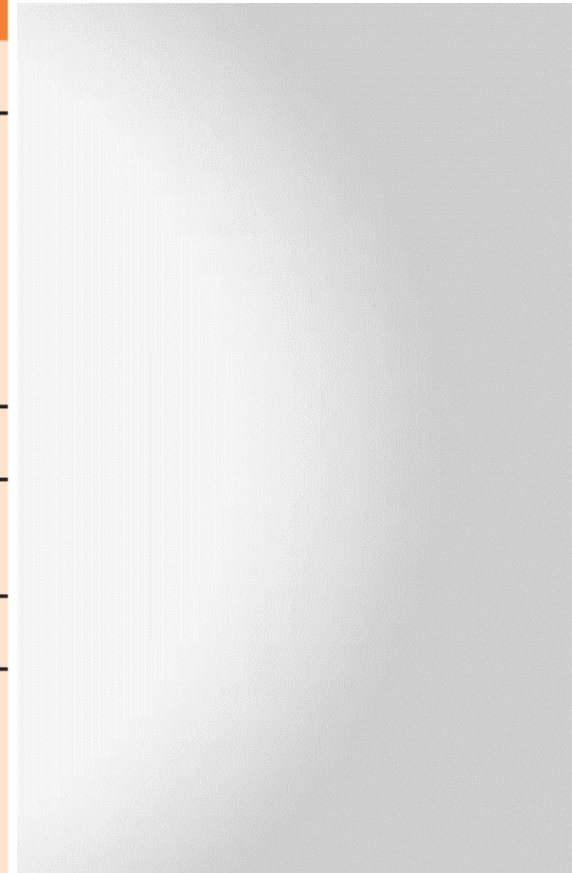
- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| 1. Dynamic strength | Ability to exert muscular force repeatedly or continuously over time |
| 2. Trunk strength | Ability to exert muscular strength using the trunk (particularly abdominal) muscles |
| 3. Static strength | Ability to exert force against external objects |
| 4. Explosive strength | Ability to expend a maximum of energy in one or a series of explosive acts |

Flexibility Factors

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| 5. Extent flexibility | Ability to move the trunk and back muscles as far as possible |
| 6. Dynamic flexibility | Ability to make rapid, repeated flexing movements |

Other Factors

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| 7. Body coordination | Ability to coordinate the simultaneous actions of different parts of the body |
| 8. Balance | Ability to maintain equilibrium despite forces pulling off balance |
| 9. Stamina | Ability to continue maximum effort requiring prolonged effort over time |



Biographical Characteristics

Objective and easily obtained personal characteristics:

Age

Older workers bring experience, judgment, a strong work ethic, and commitment to quality.

Gender

Very few differences exist between men and women that affect job performance.

Race

The biological heritage used to identify oneself.

Contentious issue: differences exist, but could be more culture-based than race-based.

Biographical Characteristics



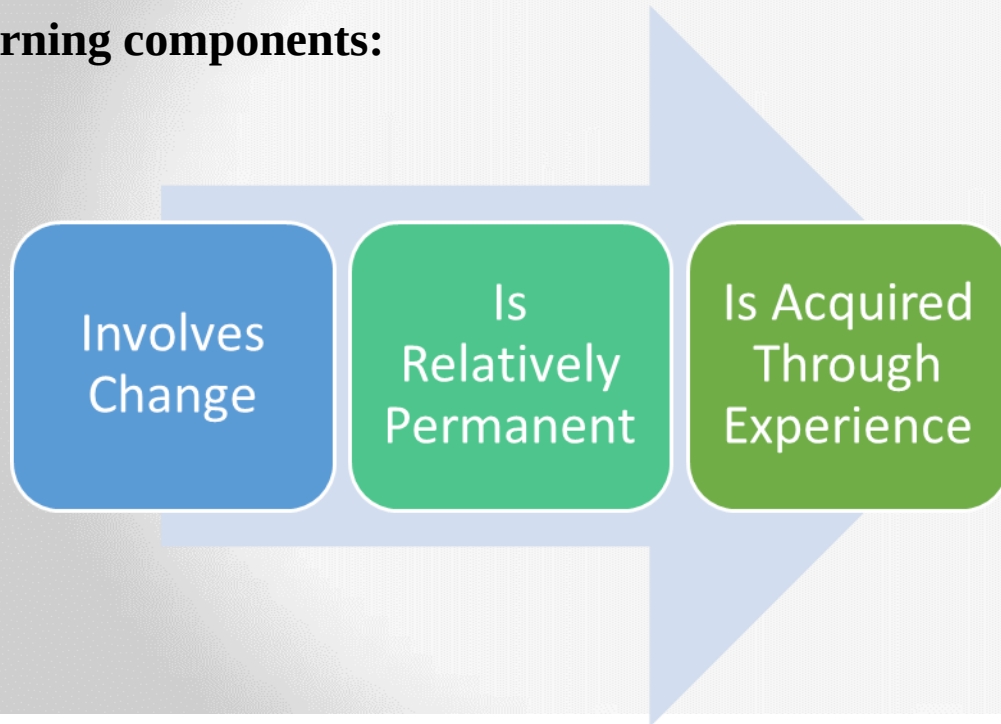
Gender:

The Qatari Business Women's Forum (QBWF) was set up to raise awareness of the role that women play in business in Qatar.

Learning

Learning is any relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience

Learning components:



Theories of Learning

Classical Conditioning

A type of conditioning in which an individual responds to some stimulus that would not ordinarily produce such a response.

Operant Conditioning

A type of conditioning in which desired voluntary behavior leads to a reward or prevents a punishment.

Social-Learning Theory

People can learn through observation and direct experience.

Classical Conditioning

Pavlov's Dog Drool

Key Concepts:

Unconditioned stimulus

A naturally occurring phenomenon.

Unconditioned response

The naturally occurring response to a natural stimulus.

Conditioned stimulus

An artificial stimulus introduced into the situation.

Conditioned response

The response to the artificial stimulus.

This is a passive form of learning. It is reflexive and not voluntary—not the best theory for OB learning.

Operant Conditioning

Skinner's Behaviorism

B. F. Skinner's concept of Behaviorism: behavior follows stimuli in a relatively unthinking manner.

Key Concepts:

Conditioned behavior: voluntary behavior that is learned, not reflexive.

Reinforcement: the consequences of behavior which can increase or decrease the likelihood of behavior repetition.

Pleasing consequences increase likelihood of repetition.

Rewards are most effective immediately after performance.

Unrewarded/punished behavior is unlikely to be repeated.

في المرة الأولى التي تذهب فيها إلى محل البقالة مع طفلك يطلب منك شراء الحلوى في البداية فإنك ترفض ، ولكن عندما يبدأ في البكاء تشتري له الحلوى ، وهذا يعزز الفكرة في ذهنه أنه في كل مرة يلقي فيها نوبة غضب في سيحصل على شوكولاتة من محل بقالة ، ويواصل القيام بذلك ، وتستمر في مكافأة سلوكه عن غير قصد ، ثم يوماً ما تقول ببساطة “لا” لطلبه على الرغم من نوبات الغضب التي يمر بها ، ويكي ولكنك تجاهلت هذا في المناسبتين التاليتين وفي النهاية عندما تذهب إلى المتجر للمرة الثالثة تدرك أنه لم يعد يلقي بنوبات الغضب.

Schedules of Reinforcement: A Critical Issue

There are two major types:

Continuous Reinforcement

- A desired behavior is reinforced each time it is demonstrated.

Intermittent Reinforcement

- A desired behavior is reinforced often enough to make the behavior worth repeating but not every time it is demonstrated.
- Multiple frequencies.

Types of Intermittent Reinforcement

Ratio

- Depends on the number of responses made.

Interval

- Depends on the time between reinforcements.

Fixed

Rewards are spaced at uniform time intervals or after a set number of responses.

Variable

Rewards that are unpredictable or that vary relative to the behavior.

Schedule of Reinforcement

TABLE 2-3 Schedules of Reinforcement

Reinforcement Schedule	Nature of Reinforcement	Effect on Behavior	Example
Continuous	Reward given after each desired behavior	Fast learning of new behavior but rapid extinction	Compliments
Fixed-interval	Reward given at fixed time intervals	Average and irregular performance with rapid extinction	Weekly paychecks
Variable-interval	Reward given at variable time intervals	Moderately high and stable performance with slow extinction	Pop quizzes
Fixed ratio	Reward given at fixed amounts of output	High and stable performance attained quickly but also with rapid extinction	Piece-rate pay
Variable-ratio	Reward given at variable amounts of output	Very high performance with slow extinction	Commissioned sales

What is Personality?

The dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

Gordon Allport.

Personality is the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others, the measurable traits a person exhibits.

What is Personality?

Measuring Personality

- Helpful in hiring decisions.
- Most common method: self-reporting surveys.
- Observer-ratings surveys provide an independent assessment of personality—often better predictors.

Personality Determinants

Heredity

Factors determined at conception: physical stature, facial attractiveness, gender, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level.

This 'Heredity Approach' argues that genes are the source of personality.

Twin studies: raised apart but very similar personalities.

Parents don't add much to personality development.

There is some personality change over long time periods.

Personality Traits

Traits are enduring مستمر characteristics that describe an individual's behavior.

The more consistent the characteristic and the more frequently it occurs in diverse situations, the more important the trait.

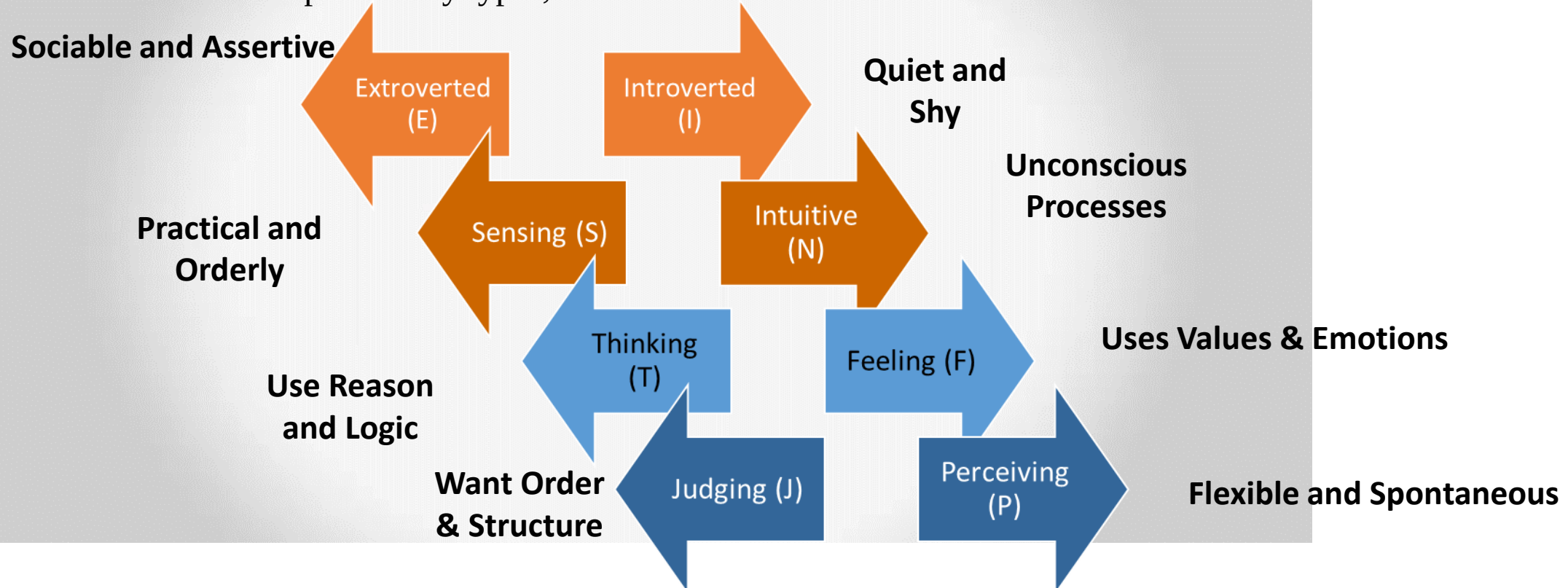
Two dominant frameworks are used to describe personality:

- Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)
- Big Five Model

The Myers- Briggs Type Indicator

Most widely used instrument in the world.

Participants are classified on four axes to determine one of 16 possible personality types, such as ENTJ.



Myers- Briggs Types and Their Uses

Each of the sixteen possible combinations has a name, for instance:

Visionaries (INTJ) – original, stubborn, and driven.

Organizers (ESTJ) – realistic, logical, analytical, and business-like.

Conceptualizer (ENTP) – entrepreneurial, innovative, individualistic, and resourceful.

Research results on the validity of MBTI are mixed.

MBTI is a good tool for self-awareness and counseling.

Should not be used as a selection test for job candidates.

The Big Five Model of Personality Dimensions



How do The Big Five Traits Predict Behavior?

Research has shown this to be a better framework.

Certain traits have been shown to strongly relate to higher job performance:

Highly conscientious people develop more job knowledge, exert greater effort, and have better performance.

Other Big Five Traits also have implications for work.

Emotional stability is related to job satisfaction.

Extroverts tend to be happier in their jobs and have good social skills.

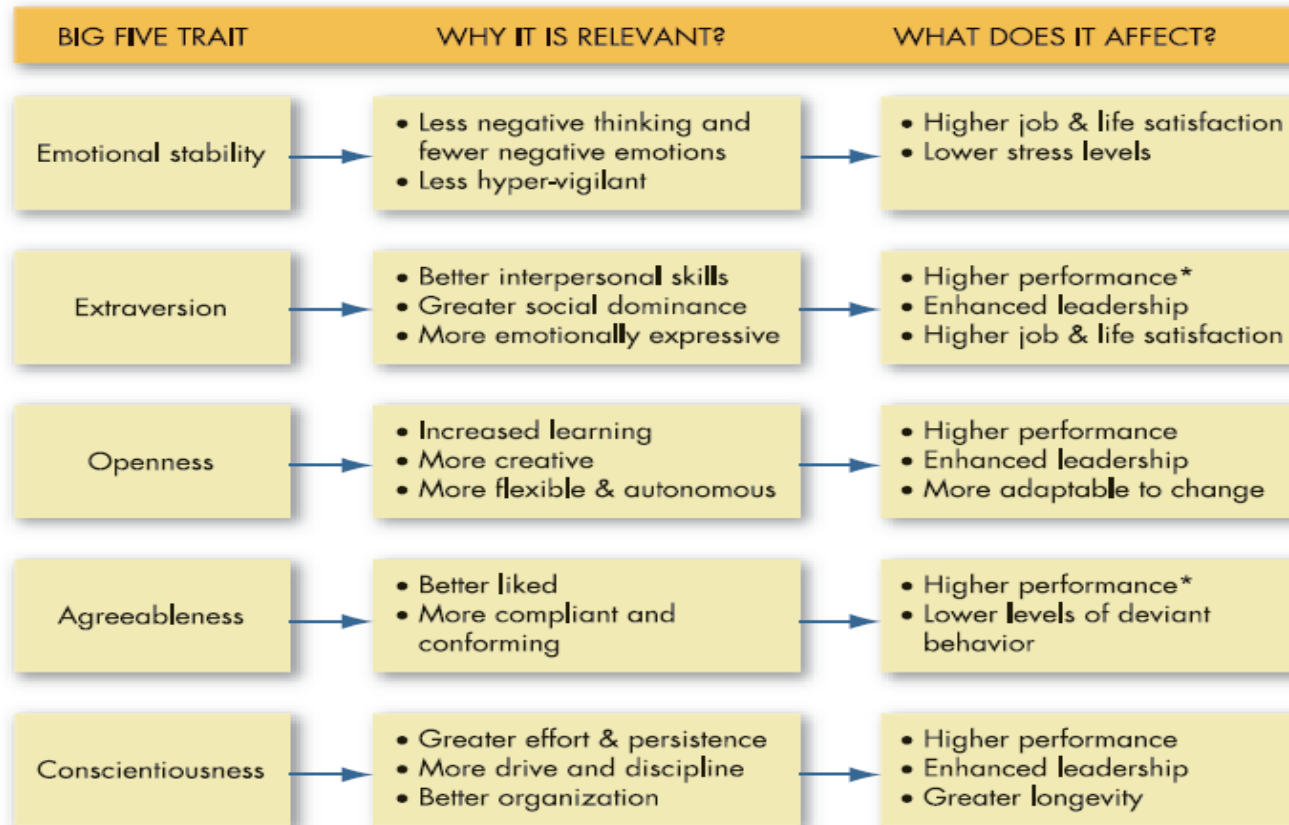
Open people are more creative and can be good leaders.

Agreeable people are good in social settings.

The Big Five Traits

Figure 2-2

Model of How Big Five Traits Influence OB Criteria



Other Personality Traits Relevant to OB

Core Self-Evaluation

Represent a stable personality trait which includes an individual's subconscious, fundamental evaluations about themselves, their own abilities and their own control. People who have high core self-evaluations will think positively of themselves and be confident in their own abilities.

Machiavellianism

A pragmatic, emotionally distant power-player who believes that ends justify the means.

High Machs are manipulative, win more often, and persuade more than they are persuaded. Flourish when:

- they have direct interaction;
- they work with minimal rules and regulations;
- their emotions distract others.

Other Personality Traits Relevant to OB

Narcissism

A **narcissist** is an arrogant, entitled, self-important person who needs excessive admiration.

Less effective in their jobs.

Self-Monitoring

The ability to adjust behavior to meet external, situational factors.

High self-monitors conform more and are more likely to become leaders.

Other Personality Traits Relevant to OB

Risk Taking

The willingness to take chances.

May be best to align propensities النزعَات with job requirements.

Risk takers make faster decisions with less information.

Creates positive change in the environment.

Values

Values are basic convictions قناعات on how to conduct yourself or how to live your life that are personally or socially preferable— “How To” live life properly.

Attributes of Values:

Content Attribute—that the mode of conduct or end-state is important.

Intensity Attribute—just how important that content is.

Value System:

A person's values rank-ordered by intensity.

Tends to be relatively constant and consistent.

Classifying Values- Rokeach Value Survey

Terminal Values

Desirable end-states of existence; the goals that a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime.

Instrumental Values

Preferable modes of behavior or means of achieving one's terminal values.

People in same occupations or categories tend to hold similar values, but:

- values vary between groups

- value differences make it difficult for groups to negotiate and may create conflict.

Value Different Between Groups

TABLE 2-4 Mean Value Ranking of Executives, Union Members, and Activists (Top Five Only)

Executives		Union Members		Activists	
Terminal	Instrumental	Terminal	Instrumental	Terminal	Instrumental
1. Self-respect	1. Honest	1. Family security	1. Responsible	1. Equality	1. Honest
2. Family security	2. Responsible	2. Freedom	2. Honest	2. A world of peace	2. Helpful
3. Freedom	3. Capable	3. Happiness	3. Courageous	3. Family security	3. Courageous
4. A sense of accomplishment	4. Ambitious	4. Self-respect	4. Independent	4. Self-respect	4. Responsible
5. Happiness	5. Independent	5. Mature love	5. Capable	5. Freedom	5. Capable

Source: Based on W.C. Frederick and J. Weber, "The Values of Corporate Managers and Their Critics: An Empirical Description and Normative Implications," in W.C. Frederick and L.E. Preston (eds.), *Business Ethics: Research Issues and Empirical Studies* (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 1990), pp. 123–144.

Linking Personality & Values To The WorkPlace

Managers are less interested in someone's ability to do a specific job than in that person's flexibility.

John Holland's Personality-Job Fit Theory

Six personality types.

Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI).

Key Points of the Model:

There appear to be intrinsic حقيقي differences in personality between people.

There are different types of jobs.

People in jobs congruent with their personality should be more satisfied and therefore turnover should reduce.

Holland's Personality Typology & Occupations

TABLE 2-5 Holland's Typology of Personality and Congruent Occupations

Type	Personality Characteristics	Congruent Occupations
<i>Realistic</i> : Prefers physical activities that require skill, strength, and coordination	Shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical	Mechanic, drill press operator, assembly-line worker, farmer
<i>Investigative</i> : Prefers activities that involve thinking, organizing, and understanding	Analytical, original, curious, independent	Biologist, economist, mathematician, news reporter
<i>Social</i> : Prefers activities that involve helping and developing others	Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding	Social worker, teacher, counselor, clinical psychologist
<i>Conventional</i> : Prefers rule-regulated, orderly, and unambiguous activities	Conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, inflexible	Accountant, corporate manager, bank teller, file clerk
<i>Enterprising</i> : Prefers verbal activities in which there are opportunities to influence others and attain power	Self-confident, ambitious, energetic, domineering	Lawyer, real estate agent, public relations specialist, small business manager
<i>Artistic</i> : Prefers ambiguous and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression	Imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, impractical	Painter, musician, writer, interior decorator

Still Linking Personality To The Workplace

In addition to matching the individual's personality to the job, managers are also concerned with **Person-Organization Fit**.

The employee's personality must fit with the organizational culture.

People are attracted to organizations that match their values.

Those who match are most likely to be selected.

Mismatches will result in turnover.

Can use the Big Five personality types to match to the organizational culture.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework: Power Distance

Power Distance is the extent to which a society accepts that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally.

Low distance

- Relatively equal power between those with status/wealth and those without status/wealth

High distance

- Extremely unequal power distribution between those with status/wealth and those without status/wealth

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework:

Individualism vs. Collectivism:

Collectivist cultures emphasize the needs and goals of the group as a whole over the needs and desires of each individual. In such cultures, relationships with other members of the group and the [interconnectedness between people](#) play a central role in each person's identity.

Collectivism contrasts with individualism, in which personal needs take precedence.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework:

Individualism vs. Collectivism:

Common traits of collectivist cultures include:

Individuals define themselves in relation to others (for example, “I am a member of...”).

Communication is often more indirect to avoid potential conflict or embarrassment.¹

Group loyalty is encouraged.

Decisions are based on what is best for the group.

Compromise is favored when a decision needs to be made to achieve greater levels of peace.²

Working as a group and supporting others is essential.

Greater emphasis is placed on common goals than on individual pursuits.

The rights of families and communities come before those of the individual.

Asian countries—such as China, Japan, and South Korea—as well as countries in South America tend to be more collectivist

Individualism vs. Collectivism

Collectivist cultures are usually contrasted with individualistic cultures. Collectivism stresses the importance of the community, while individualism is focused on the rights and concerns of each person. Where unity and selflessness or altruism are valued traits in collectivist cultures, independence and personal identity are promoted in individualistic cultures.

These cultural differences are pervasive and can influence many aspects of how society functions. How people shop, dress, learn, and conduct business can all be influenced by whether they are from a collectivist or individualist culture.

For example, workers who live in a collectivist culture might strive to sacrifice their own happiness for the greater good of the group. Those from individualistic cultures, on the other hand, may feel that their own well-being and goals carry greater weight

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework

Masculinity

The extent to which society values the work roles of achievement, power, and control, and where assertiveness and materialism are also valued. Masculinity describes the degree to which society focus on assertiveness and achievement.

Femininity

When in contrary, femininity describes the focus of society to quality-of-life issues, such as caring for others, group solidarity and helping the less fortunate are valued. In other words, society still recognizes a gap between male and female values. This dimension is frequently viewed as taboo in highly masculine societies.

Masculinity: Strong egos – feelings of pride and importance are attributed to status. Money and achievement are important. Examples of masculinity cultures are Slovakia, Japan, Hungary, Austria, Venezuela.

Femininity: Relationship oriented, more focus on quality of life. Examples of femininity culture are Sweden, Norway, Netherlands and Denmark.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid them.

High Uncertainty Avoidance:

Society does not like ambiguous situations and tries to avoid them.

Low Uncertainty Avoidance:

Society does not mind ambiguous situations and embraces them.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework

Long-term Orientation

A national culture attribute that emphasizes the future, thrift, and persistence.

Short-term Orientation

A national culture attribute that emphasizes the present and the here and now.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework

There are regional differences within countries.

The original data is old and based on only one company.

Hofstede had to make many judgment calls while doing the research.

Some results don't match what is believed to be true about given countries.

Despite these problems it remains a very popular framework.

Globe Framework For Assessing Cultures

Identifies nine dimensions of national culture.

Similar to Hofstede's framework with these additional dimensions:

- Humane Orientation: how much society rewards people for being generous, and kind.
- Performance Orientation: how much society encourages and rewards performance improvement and excellence.

Summary & Managerial Implications

1. **Ability**

- Directly influences employees' level of performance.
- Managers need to focus on ability in selection, promotion, and transfer.
- Fine-tune job to fit incumbent's abilities.

2. **Biographical Characteristics**

- Should not be used in management decisions: possible source of bias.

3. **Learning**

- Observable change in behavior = learning.
- Reinforcement works better than punishment.

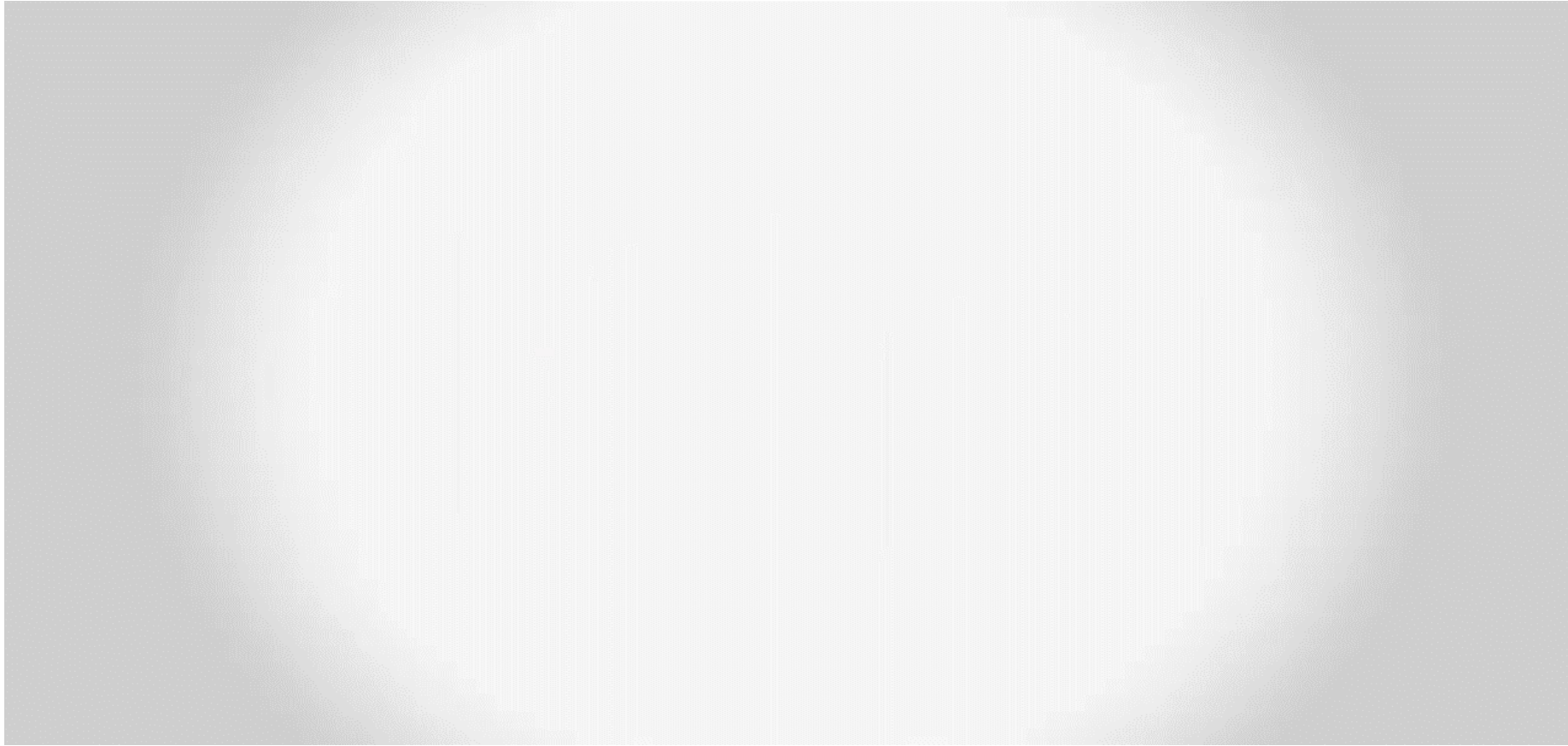
Summary & Managerial Implications

4. Personality

Screen for the Big Five trait of conscientiousness.
Take into account the situational factors as well.
MBTI can help with training and development.

5. Values

Often explain attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions.
Higher performance and satisfaction achieved when
the individual's values match those of the
organization.





مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY
BY EVERYONE'S SMART UNIVERSITY

PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

**Lecture 3
Overview**

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

This chapter will enable you to:

1. Contrast the two types of ability: intellectual and physical.
2. Identify the key biographical characteristics and describe how they are relevant to OB.
3. Define learning and outline the principles of the three major theories of learning.

This chapter will enable you to:

4. Define shaping and show how it can be used in OB.
5. Define personality, describe how it is measured, and explain the factors that determine an individual's personality.

Personality & Values

This chapter will enable you to:

6. Describe the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality framework and assess its strengths and weaknesses.
7. Identify the key traits in the Big Five personality model and demonstrate how the Big Five traits predict behavior at work.

Personality & Values

This chapter will enable you to:

8. Identify other personality traits relevant to OB.
9. Define values, demonstrate the importance of values, and contrast terminal and instrumental values.
10. Show the relationship between individual personality and the workplace.
11. Identify Hofstede's five value dimensions of national culture.

Ability is an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job. It is made up of two sets of factors:

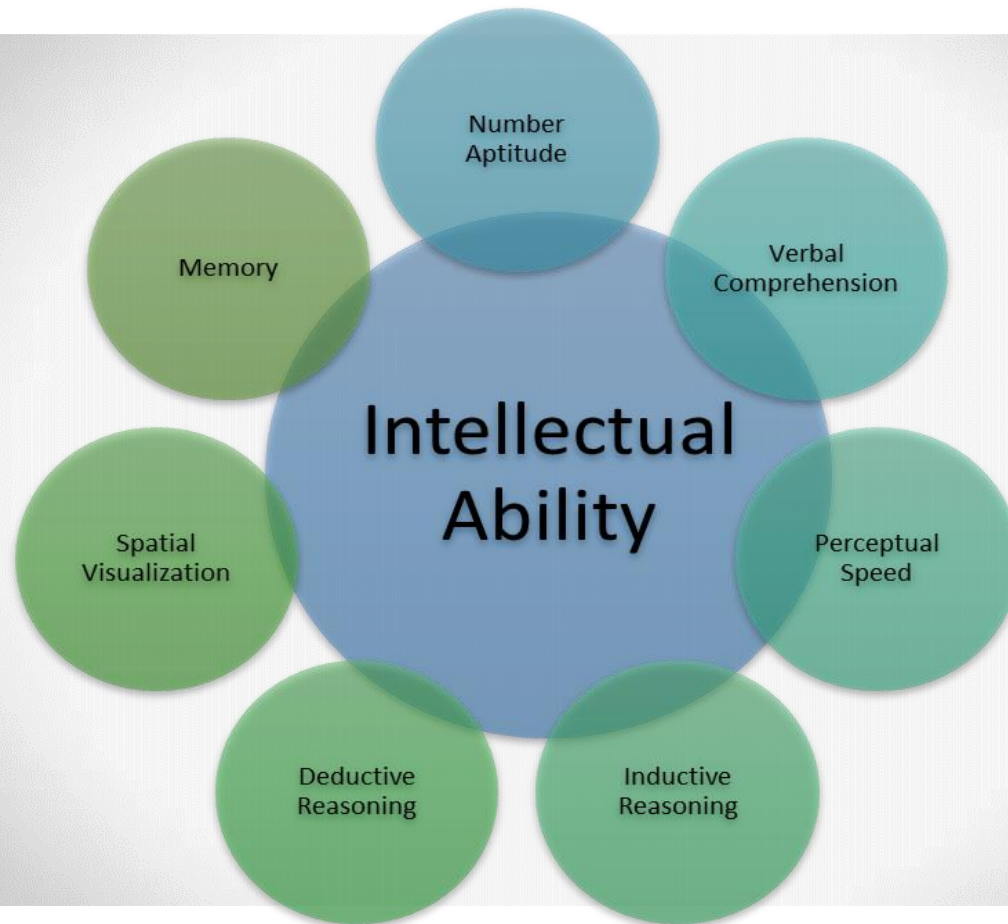
Intellectual Abilities

- The abilities needed to perform mental activities like thinking and reasoning.

Physical Abilities

- The capacity to do tasks demanding stamina, strength, and similar characteristics.

Dimensions of Intellectual Ability



Dimensions of Intellectual Ability

TABLE 2-1 Dimensions of Intellectual Ability

Dimension	Description	Job Example
Number aptitude	Ability to do speedy and accurate arithmetic	Accountant: Computing the sales tax on a set of items
Verbal comprehension	Ability to understand what is read or heard, and the relationship of words to each other	Plant manager: Following corporate policies on hiring
Perceptual speed	Ability to identify visual similarities and differences quickly and accurately	Fire investigator: Identifying clues to support a charge of arson
Inductive reasoning	Ability to identify a logical sequence in a problem and then solve the problem	Market researcher: Forecasting demand for a product in the next time period
Deductive reasoning	Ability to use logic and assess the implications of an argument	Supervisor: Choosing between two different suggestions offered by employees
Spatial visualization	Ability to imagine how an object would look if its position in space were changed	Interior decorator: Redecorating an office
Memory	Ability to retain and recall past experiences	Salesperson: Remembering the names of customers

Nine Basic Physical Abilities

Strength Factors

1. Dynamic strength
2. Trunk strength
3. Static strength
4. Explosive strength

Flexibility Factors

5. Extent flexibility
6. Dynamic flexibility

Other Factors

7. Body coordination
8. Balance
9. Stamina

Nine Basic Physical Abilities

TABLE 2-2 Nine Basic Physical Abilities

Strength Factors

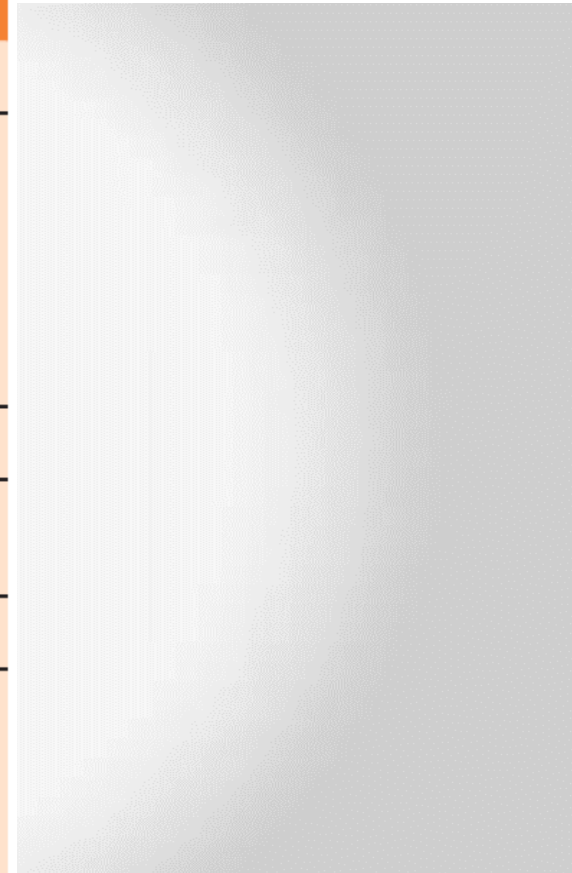
- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| 1. Dynamic strength | Ability to exert muscular force repeatedly or continuously over time |
| 2. Trunk strength | Ability to exert muscular strength using the trunk (particularly abdominal) muscles |
| 3. Static strength | Ability to exert force against external objects |
| 4. Explosive strength | Ability to expend a maximum of energy in one or a series of explosive acts |

Flexibility Factors

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| 5. Extent flexibility | Ability to move the trunk and back muscles as far as possible |
| 6. Dynamic flexibility | Ability to make rapid, repeated flexing movements |

Other Factors

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| 7. Body coordination | Ability to coordinate the simultaneous actions of different parts of the body |
| 8. Balance | Ability to maintain equilibrium despite forces pulling off balance |
| 9. Stamina | Ability to continue maximum effort requiring prolonged effort over time |



Biographical Characteristics

Objective and easily obtained personal characteristics:

Age

Older workers bring experience, judgment, a strong work ethic, and commitment to quality.

Gender

Very few differences exist between men and women that affect job performance.

Race

The biological heritage used to identify oneself.

Contentious issue: differences exist, but could be more culture-based than race-based.

Biographical Characteristics



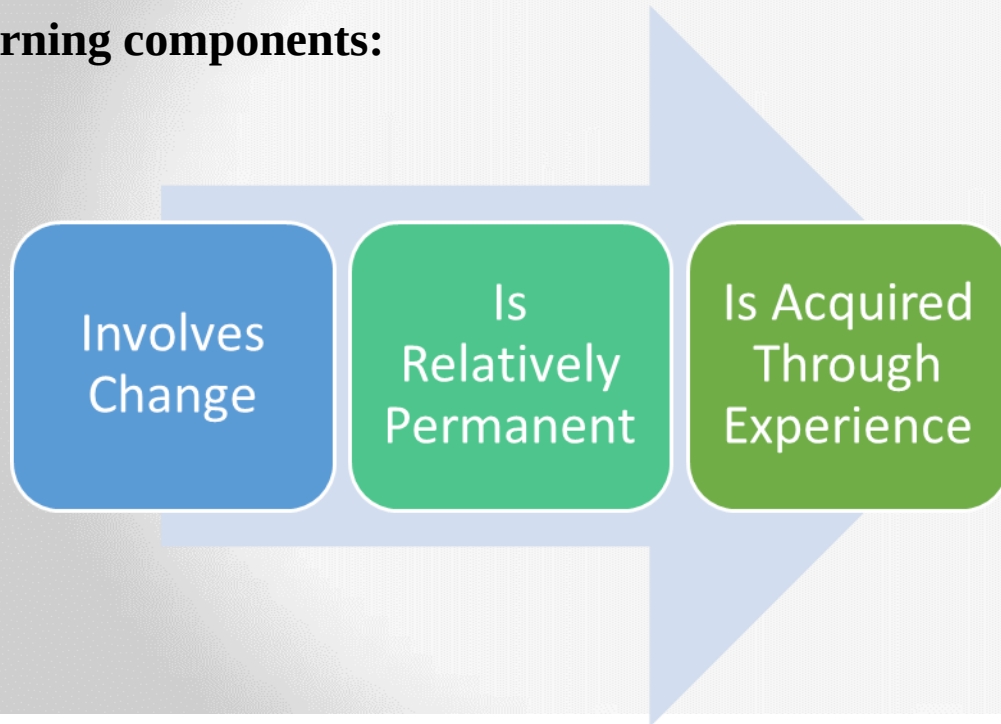
Gender:

The Qatari Business Women's Forum (QBWF) was set up to raise awareness of the role that women play in business in Qatar.

Learning

Learning is any relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience

Learning components:



Theories of Learning

Classical Conditioning

A type of conditioning in which an individual responds to some stimulus that would not ordinarily produce such a response.

Operant Conditioning

A type of conditioning in which desired voluntary behavior leads to a reward or prevents a punishment.

Social-Learning Theory

People can learn through observation and direct experience.

Classical Conditioning

Pavlov's Dog Drool

Key Concepts:

Unconditioned stimulus

A naturally occurring phenomenon.

Unconditioned response

The naturally occurring response to a natural stimulus.

Conditioned stimulus

An artificial stimulus introduced into the situation.

Conditioned response

The response to the artificial stimulus.

This is a passive form of learning. It is reflexive and not voluntary—not the best theory for OB learning.

Classical Conditioning

Pavlov's Dog Drool

Watson's controversial experiment involving Little Albert is also an example of classical conditioning (Powell, Digdon, Harris, & Smithson, 2014). Little Albert was a young boy who was introduced to a white rat. At first, he enjoyed playing with and petting the rat; however, Watson began pairing the furry rat with a loud sound. Soon, Little Albert associated the rat with the loud noise, which made him cry.

Watson could eventually present the white rat without the loud noise and elicit a cry from Little Albert. It was theorized that Little Albert would develop a phobia of furry animals.

Operant Conditioning

Skinner's Behaviorism

B. F. Skinner's concept of Behaviorism: behavior follows stimuli in a relatively unthinking manner.

Key Concepts:

Conditioned behavior: voluntary behavior that is learned, not reflexive.

Reinforcement: the consequences of behavior which can increase or decrease the likelihood of behavior repetition.

Pleasing consequences increase likelihood of repetition.

Rewards are most effective immediately after performance.

Unrewarded/punished behavior is unlikely to be repeated.

Social Learning Theory

Based on the idea that people can also learn indirectly: by observation, reading, or just hearing about someone else's—a model's—experiences.

Key Concepts:

Attentional processes

Must recognize and pay attention to critical features to learn.

Retention processes

Model's actions must be remembered to be learned.

Motor reproduction processes

Watching the model's behavior must be converted to doing.

Reinforcement processes

Positive incentives motivate learners.

Shaping: A Managerial Tool

Systematically reinforcing each successive step that moves an individual closer to the desired response

Four Methods of Shaping Behavior:

1. Positive reinforcement
 - Providing a reward for a desired behavior (learning).
2. Negative reinforcement
 - Removing an unpleasant consequence when the desired behavior occurs (learning).

Shaping: A Managerial Tool

3. Punishment

- Applying an undesirable condition to eliminate an undesirable behavior (“unlearning”).

4. Extinction

- Withholding (hagb) reinforcement of a behavior to cause its cessation (“unlearning”).

في المرة الأولى التي تذهب فيها إلى محل البقالة مع طفلك يطلب منك شراء الحلوى في البداية فإنك ترفض ، ولكن عندما يبدأ في البكاء تشتري له الحلوى ، وهذا يعزز الفكرة في ذهنه أنه في كل مرة يلقي فيها نوبة غضب في سيحصل على شوكولاتة من محل بقالة ، ويواصل القيام بذلك ، وتستمر في مكافأة سلوكه عن غير قصد ، ثم يوماً ما تقول ببساطة “لا” لطلبه على الرغم من نوبات الغضب التي يمر بها ، ويكي ولكنك تجاهلت هذا في المناسبتين التاليتين وفي النهاية عندما تذهب إلى المتجر للمرة الثالثة تدرك أنه لم يعد يلقي بنوبات الغضب.

Schedules of Reinforcement: A Critical Issue

There are two major types:

Continuous Reinforcement

- A desired behavior is reinforced each time it is demonstrated.

Intermittent Reinforcement

- A desired behavior is reinforced often enough to make the behavior worth repeating but not every time it is demonstrated.
- Multiple frequencies.

Types of Intermittent Reinforcement

Ratio

- Depends on the number of responses made.

Interval

- Depends on the time between reinforcements.

Fixed

Rewards are spaced at uniform time intervals or after a set number of responses.

Variable

Rewards that are unpredictable or that vary relative to the behavior.

Schedule of Reinforcement

TABLE 2-3 Schedules of Reinforcement

Reinforcement Schedule	Nature of Reinforcement	Effect on Behavior	Example
Continuous	Reward given after each desired behavior	Fast learning of new behavior but rapid extinction	Compliments
Fixed-interval	Reward given at fixed time intervals	Average and irregular performance with rapid extinction	Weekly paychecks
Variable-interval	Reward given at variable time intervals	Moderately high and stable performance with slow extinction	Pop quizzes
Fixed ratio	Reward given at fixed amounts of output	High and stable performance attained quickly but also with rapid extinction	Piece-rate pay
Variable-ratio	Reward given at variable amounts of output	Very high performance with slow extinction	Commissioned sales

What is Personality?

The dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

Gordon Allport.

Personality is the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others, the measurable traits a person exhibits.

What is Personality?

Measuring Personality

- Helpful in hiring decisions.
- Most common method: self-reporting surveys.
- Observer-ratings surveys provide an independent assessment of personality—often better predictors.

Personality Determinants

Heredity

Factors determined at conception: physical stature, facial attractiveness, gender, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level.

This 'Heredity Approach' argues that genes are the source of personality.

Twin studies: raised apart but very similar personalities.

Parents don't add much to personality development.

There is some personality change over long time periods.

Personality Traits

Traits are enduring مستمر characteristics that describe an individual's behavior.

The more consistent the characteristic and the more frequently it occurs in diverse situations, the more important the trait.

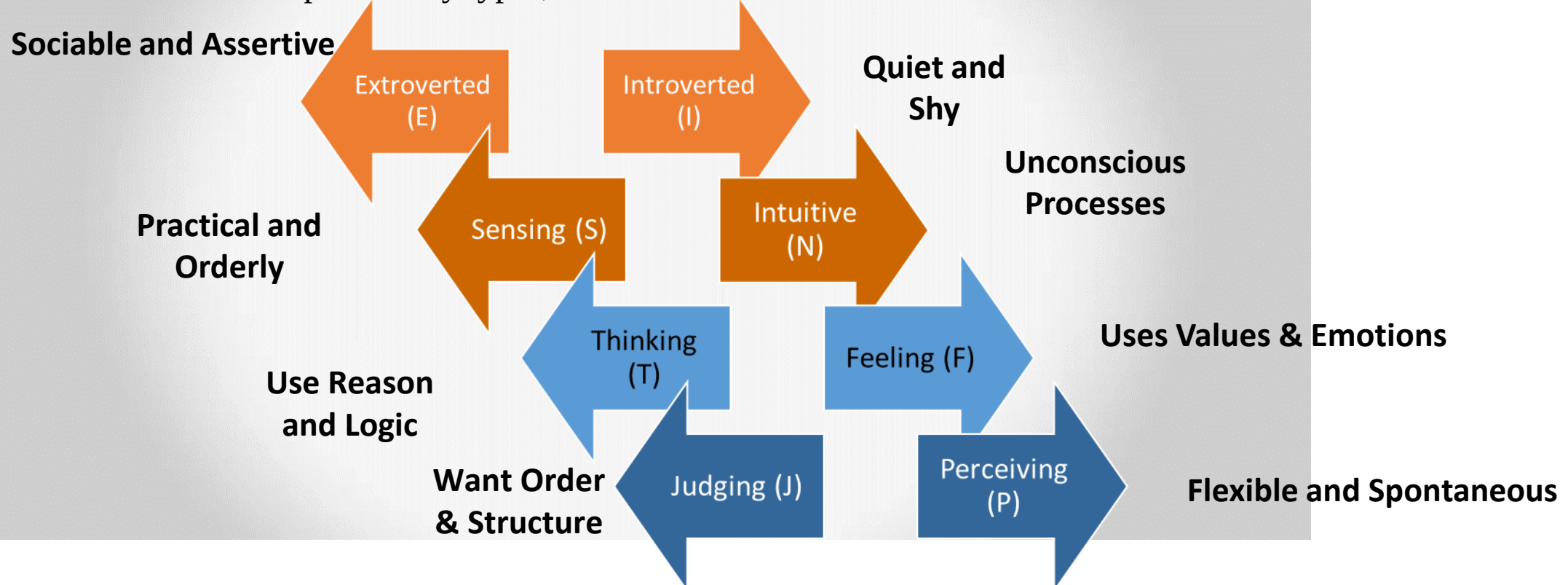
Two dominant frameworks are used to describe personality:

- Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)
- Big Five Model

The Myers- Briggs Type Indicator

Most widely used instrument in the world.

Participants are classified on four axes to determine one of 16 possible personality types, such as ENTJ.



Myers- Briggs Types and Their Uses

Each of the sixteen possible combinations has a name, for instance:

Visionaries (INTJ) – original, stubborn, and driven.

Organizers (ESTJ) – realistic, logical, analytical, and business-like.

Conceptualizer (ENTP) – entrepreneurial, innovative, individualistic, and resourceful.

Research results on the validity of MBTI are mixed.

MBTI is a good tool for self-awareness and counseling.

Should not be used as a selection test for job candidates.

The Big Five Model of Personality Dimensions



How do The Big Five Traits Predict Behavior?

Research has shown this to be a better framework.

Certain traits have been shown to strongly relate to higher job performance:

Highly conscientious people develop more job knowledge, exert greater effort, and have better performance.

Other Big Five Traits also have implications for work.

Emotional stability is related to job satisfaction.

Extroverts tend to be happier in their jobs and have good social skills.

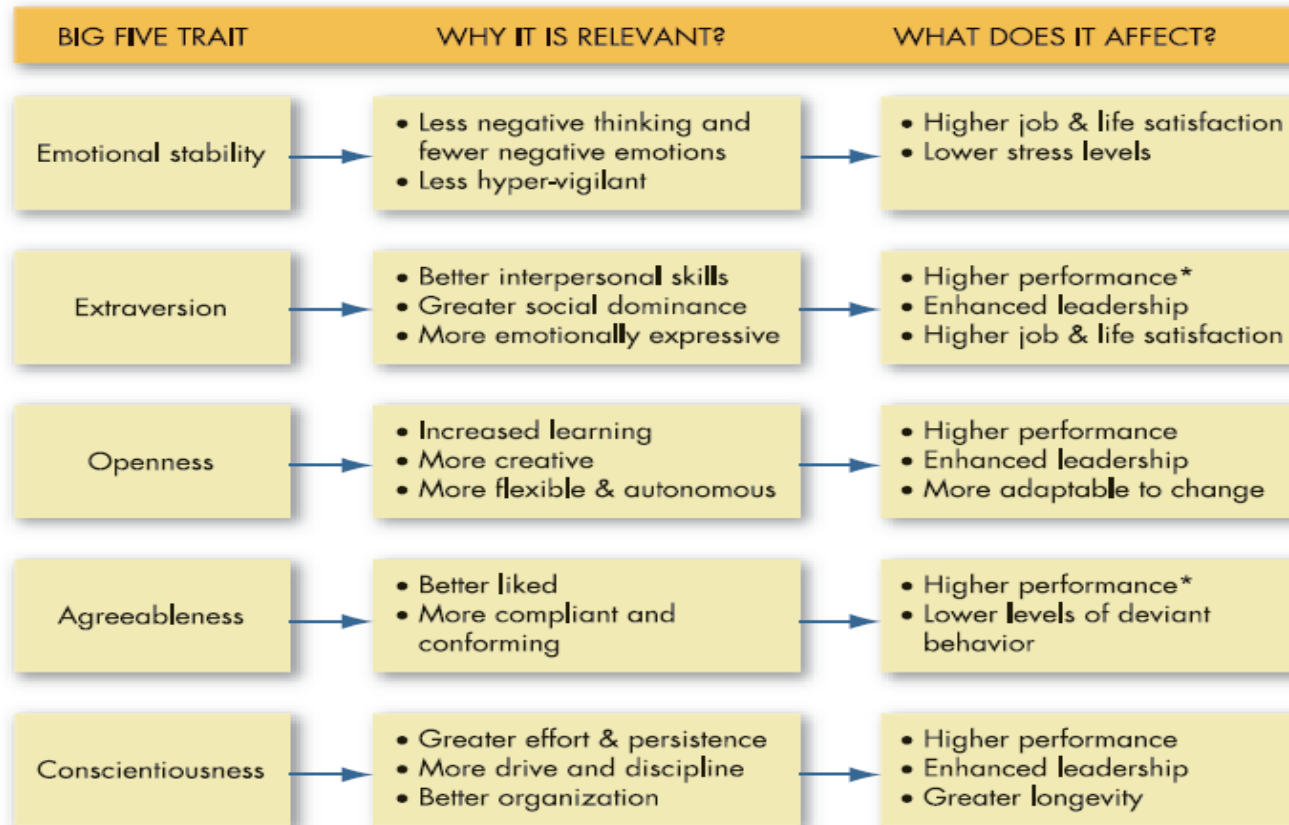
Open people are more creative and can be good leaders.

Agreeable people are good in social settings.

The Big Five Traits

Figure 2-2

Model of How Big Five Traits Influence OB Criteria



Other Personality Traits Relevant to OB

Core Self-Evaluation

Represent a stable personality trait which includes an individual's subconscious, fundamental evaluations about themselves, their own abilities and their own control. People who have high core self-evaluations will think positively of themselves and be confident in their own abilities.

Machiavellianism

A pragmatic, emotionally distant power-player who believes that ends justify the means.

High Machs are manipulative, win more often, and persuade more than they are persuaded. Flourish when:

- they have direct interaction;
- they work with minimal rules and regulations;
- their emotions distract others.

Other Personality Traits Relevant to OB

Narcissism

A **narcissist** is an arrogant, entitled, self-important person who needs excessive admiration.

Less effective in their jobs.

Self-Monitoring

The ability to adjust behavior to meet external, situational factors.

High self-monitors conform more and are more likely to become leaders.

Other Personality Traits Relevant to OB

Risk Taking

The willingness to take chances.

May be best to align propensities النزعَات with job requirements.

Risk takers make faster decisions with less information.

Creates positive change in the environment.

Values

Values are basic convictions قناعات on how to conduct yourself or how to live your life that are personally or socially preferable— “How To” live life properly.

Attributes of Values:

Content Attribute—that the mode of conduct or end-state is important.

Intensity Attribute—just how important that content is.

Value System:

A person's values rank-ordered by intensity.

Tends to be relatively constant and consistent.

Classifying Values- Rokeach Value Survey

Terminal Values

Desirable end-states of existence; the goals that a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime.

Instrumental Values

Preferable modes of behavior or means of achieving one's terminal values.

People in same occupations or categories tend to hold similar values, but:

- values vary between groups

- value differences make it difficult for groups to negotiate and may create conflict.

Value Different Between Groups

TABLE 2-4 Mean Value Ranking of Executives, Union Members, and Activists (Top Five Only)

Executives		Union Members		Activists	
Terminal	Instrumental	Terminal	Instrumental	Terminal	Instrumental
1. Self-respect	1. Honest	1. Family security	1. Responsible	1. Equality	1. Honest
2. Family security	2. Responsible	2. Freedom	2. Honest	2. A world of peace	2. Helpful
3. Freedom	3. Capable	3. Happiness	3. Courageous	3. Family security	3. Courageous
4. A sense of accomplishment	4. Ambitious	4. Self-respect	4. Independent	4. Self-respect	4. Responsible
5. Happiness	5. Independent	5. Mature love	5. Capable	5. Freedom	5. Capable

Source: Based on W.C. Frederick and J. Weber, "The Values of Corporate Managers and Their Critics: An Empirical Description and Normative Implications," in W.C. Frederick and L.E. Preston (eds.), *Business Ethics: Research Issues and Empirical Studies* (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 1990), pp. 123-144.

Linking Personality & Values To The WorkPlace

Managers are less interested in someone's ability to do a specific job than in that person's flexibility.

John Holland's Personality-Job Fit Theory

Six personality types.

Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI).

Key Points of the Model:

There appear to be intrinsic حقيقي differences in personality between people.

There are different types of jobs.

People in jobs congruent with their personality should be more satisfied and therefore turnover should reduce.

Holland's Personality Typology & Occupations

TABLE 2-5 Holland's Typology of Personality and Congruent Occupations

Type	Personality Characteristics	Congruent Occupations
<i>Realistic</i> : Prefers physical activities that require skill, strength, and coordination	Shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical	Mechanic, drill press operator, assembly-line worker, farmer
<i>Investigative</i> : Prefers activities that involve thinking, organizing, and understanding	Analytical, original, curious, independent	Biologist, economist, mathematician, news reporter
<i>Social</i> : Prefers activities that involve helping and developing others	Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding	Social worker, teacher, counselor, clinical psychologist
<i>Conventional</i> : Prefers rule-regulated, orderly, and unambiguous activities	Conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, inflexible	Accountant, corporate manager, bank teller, file clerk
<i>Enterprising</i> : Prefers verbal activities in which there are opportunities to influence others and attain power	Self-confident, ambitious, energetic, domineering	Lawyer, real estate agent, public relations specialist, small business manager
<i>Artistic</i> : Prefers ambiguous and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression	Imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, impractical	Painter, musician, writer, interior decorator

Still Linking Personality To The Workplace

In addition to matching the individual's personality to the job, managers are also concerned with **Person-Organization Fit**.

The employee's personality must fit with the organizational culture.

People are attracted to organizations that match their values.

Those who match are most likely to be selected.

Mismatches will result in turnover.

Can use the Big Five personality types to match to the organizational culture.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework: Power Distance

Power Distance is the extent to which a society accepts that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally.

Low distance

- Relatively equal power between those with status/wealth and those without status/wealth

High distance

- Extremely unequal power distribution between those with status/wealth and those without status/wealth

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework:

Individualism vs. Collectivism:

Collectivist cultures emphasize the needs and goals of the group as a whole over the needs and desires of each individual. In such cultures, relationships with other members of the group and the [interconnectedness between people](#) play a central role in each person's identity.

Collectivism contrasts with individualism, in which personal needs take precedence.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework:

Individualism vs. Collectivism:

Common traits of collectivist cultures include:

Individuals define themselves in relation to others (for example, “I am a member of...”).

Communication is often more indirect to avoid potential conflict or embarrassment.¹

Group loyalty is encouraged.

Decisions are based on what is best for the group.

Compromise is favored when a decision needs to be made to achieve greater levels of peace.²

Working as a group and supporting others is essential.

Greater emphasis is placed on common goals than on individual pursuits.

The rights of families and communities come before those of the individual.

Asian countries—such as China, Japan, and South Korea—as well as countries in South America tend to be more collectivist

Individualism vs. Collectivism

Collectivist cultures are usually contrasted with individualistic cultures. Collectivism stresses the importance of the community, while individualism is focused on the rights and concerns of each person. Where unity and selflessness or altruism are valued traits in collectivist cultures, independence and personal identity are promoted in individualistic cultures.

These cultural differences are pervasive and can influence many aspects of how society functions. How people shop, dress, learn, and conduct business can all be influenced by whether they are from a collectivist or individualist culture.

For example, workers who live in a collectivist culture might strive to sacrifice their own happiness for the greater good of the group. Those from individualistic cultures, on the other hand, may feel that their own well-being and goals carry greater weight

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework

Masculinity

The extent to which society values the work roles of achievement, power, and control, and where assertiveness and materialism are also valued. Masculinity describes the degree to which society focus on assertiveness and achievement.

Femininity

When in contrary, femininity describes the focus of society to quality-of-life issues, such as caring for others, group solidarity and helping the less fortunate are valued. In other words, society still recognizes a gap between male and female values. This dimension is frequently viewed as taboo in highly masculine societies.

Masculinity: Strong egos – feelings of pride and importance are attributed to status. Money and achievement are important. Examples of masculinity cultures are Slovakia, Japan, Hungary, Austria, Venezuela.

Femininity: Relationship oriented, more focus on quality of life. Examples of femininity culture are Sweden, Norway, Netherlands and Denmark.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid them.

High Uncertainty Avoidance:

Society does not like ambiguous situations and tries to avoid them.

Low Uncertainty Avoidance:

Society does not mind ambiguous situations and embraces them.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework

Long-term Orientation

A national culture attribute that emphasizes the future, thrift, and persistence.

Short-term Orientation

A national culture attribute that emphasizes the present and the here and now.

Linking Cultures & Behaviors

Hofstade's Framework

There are regional differences within countries.

The original data is old and based on only one company.

Hofstede had to make many judgment calls while doing the research.

Some results don't match what is believed to be true about given countries.

Despite these problems it remains a very popular framework.

Globe Framework For Assessing Cultures

Identifies nine dimensions of national culture.

Similar to Hofstede's framework with these additional dimensions:

- Humane Orientation: how much society rewards people for being generous, and kind.
- Performance Orientation: how much society encourages and rewards performance improvement and excellence.

Summary & Managerial Implications

1. **Ability**

- Directly influences employees' level of performance.
- Managers need to focus on ability in selection, promotion, and transfer.
- Fine-tune job to fit incumbent's abilities.

2. **Biographical Characteristics**

- Should not be used in management decisions: possible source of bias.

3. **Learning**

- Observable change in behavior = learning.
- Reinforcement works better than punishment.

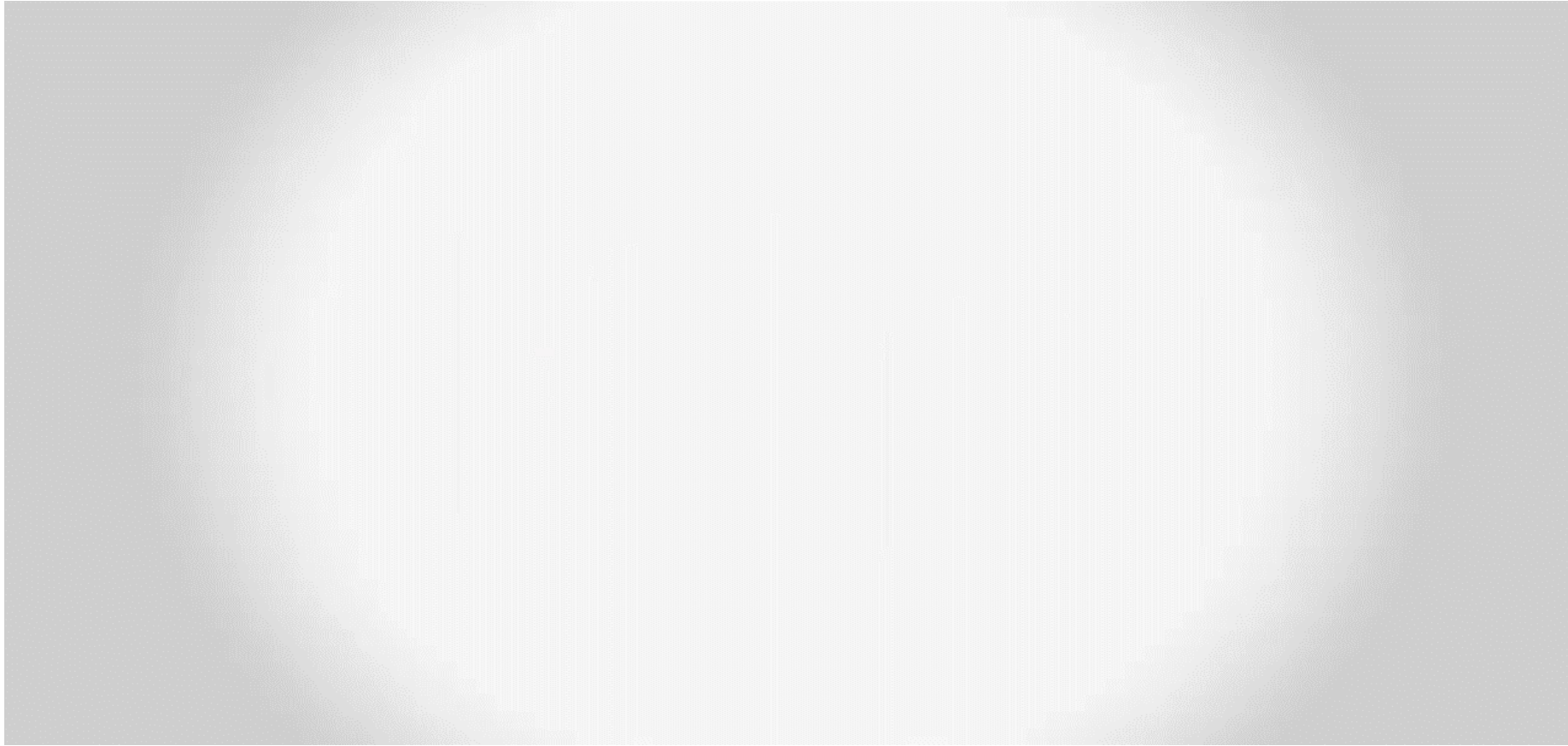
Summary & Managerial Implications

4. Personality

Screen for the Big Five trait of conscientiousness.
Take into account the situational factors as well.
MBTI can help with training and development.

5. Values

Often explain attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions.
Higher performance and satisfaction achieved when
the individual's values match those of the
organization.





مجموعة جامعة
الجميع للذكاء
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY
BY EVERYONE'S SMART UNIVERSITY

PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

**Lecture 4
Overview**

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

This chapter will enable you to:

1. Describe the key elements of motivation.
2. Identify four early theories of motivation and evaluate their applicability today.
3. Compare contemporary theories of motivation.
4. Identify the motivational theories of equity and expectancy.

5. Describe the job characteristics model and evaluate the way it motivates by changing the work environment.
6. Compare and contrast the main ways jobs can be redesigned.
7. Identify alternative work arrangements and employee involvement measures and show how they might motivate employees.

MOTIVATION ???

- it is defined as a driving force that initiates and directs behavior.
- motivation is a kind of internal energy which drives a person to do something in order to achieve something.
- It is a temporal or dynamic state within a person which is not concerned with his/her personality

Defining Motivation

Motivation is the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal—specifically, an organizational goal.

Three key elements:

Intensity: how hard a person tries.

Direction: effort that is channeled toward, and consistent with, organizational goals.

Persistence: how long a person can maintain effort.

Early Theories of Motivation

These early theories may not be valid, but they do form the basis for contemporary theories and are still used by practicing managers:

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Alderfer's ERG (Existence, Relatedness, and Growth)

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

McClelland's Theory of Needs

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Figure 5-1

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: Adapted from A. H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality*, 3rd ed., R. D. Frager and J. Fadiman (eds). © 1997. Reprinted and electronically reproduced by permission of Pearson Education, Inc., Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Physiological needs: Air, water, food, shelter, sleep, clothing.

Safety needs: Personal security, employment

Social needs: Love and belonging, family, sense of connection.

Esteem needs: Respect, self esteem, status, recognition.

Self Actualization needs: Drive to become the most that one can be.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Level of human needs	Applying it to Business
Physiological	Acceptable pay and working conditions
Safety	Job security/ clear job role and description / health and safety protection/ insurance
Social	Working in teams
Esteem	Status/ job title/Authority/trust/ recognition for achievement
Self actualization	Promotion opportunities/ challenging work/ job enrichment

A reworking of Maslow to fit empirical research.

Three groups of core needs:

1. Existence (Maslow: physiological and safety)
2. Relatedness (Maslow: social and status)
3. Growth (Maslow: esteem and self-actualization)

Removed the hierarchical assumption.

Can be motivated by all three at once.

Popular, but not accurate, theory.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Two distinct views of human beings: Theory X (basically negative) and Theory Y (positive).

Managers that were studied used a set of assumptions based on their view.

The assumptions molded their behavior toward employees.

Theory X

- Workers have little ambition
- Dislike work
- Avoid responsibility

Theory Y

- Workers are self-directed
- Enjoy work
- Accept responsibility

McClelland's Four Needs Theory

The American psychologist David McClelland studied the way in which people satisfy their needs. What motivates people and what motivators are learned? According to David McClelland, people have motivating drivers that are directly linked to need regardless of age, gender, culture or race. As a result of the McClelland Motivation Theory, David McClelland identified four types of motivational need:

Need for Achievement (nAch)

The drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed.

Need for Power (nPow)

The need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise.

McClelland's Four Needs Theory

Need for Affiliation (nAff)

The desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

People have varying levels of each of the three needs.
Hard to measure.

Need for avoidance

People have fear of failure, fear of rejection and even fear of success. By avoiding situations that may trigger these fears, they think to have found a safe solution.

Performance Predictions for High nAch

People with a high need for achievement are likely to:

- prefer to undertake activities with a 50/50 chance of success, avoiding very low- or high-risk situations;
- be motivated in jobs that offer high degree of personal responsibility, feedback, and moderate risk;
- not necessarily make good managers—too personal a focus (most good general managers do NOT have a high nAch);
- need high level of nPow and low nAff for managerial success.

Good research support, but it is not a very practical theory.

HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Frederick Herzberg's well known Two-Factor Theory was designed in year 1959. Based on two hundred engineers and accountant feedback collected in the USA regarding their personal feelings towards their working environments. Herzberg defined two sets of factors in deciding employees working attitudes and level of performance, named Motivation & Hygiene Factors.

He classified his theory in to 2 factors:

Motivators: factors that directly motivate people to work harder.

Hygiene: factors that can demotivate if not present but do not actually motivate employees to work harder

HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Herzberg felt that satisfied employees would be productive employees. Herzberg's theory is sometimes called the two-factor theory. These factors are hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene factors are often referred to as 'dissatisfiers'. These are elements in the workplace that could make employees unhappy, such as excessive company bureaucracy or an autocratic working environment, pay, working environment and relationship with colleagues. However, the existence of these elements cannot make employees motivated, only the non existence can make them unhappy and unmotivated. While motivators are like opportunities for promotion, self improvement, job design (job enlargement- job enrichment- empowerment)

HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Two Factor Theory states that there are certain factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction.

HERZBERG'S THEORY RESTS ON 2

ASSUMPTIONS

- 1.) Being satisfied with one's job is equivalent to being motivated; "a satisfied worker is a motivated worker"
- 2.) Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate concepts with unique determinants based on work with accountants and engineers

DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION ARE MOTIVATOR FACTORS:

Work itself, responsibility ☐ Recognition ☐
Achievement ☐ Advancement ☐ Personal
Growth ☐ Promotion

DETERMINANTS OF JOB DISSATISFACTION ARE HYGIENE

Pay Benefits ☐ Working conditions ☐ Job
Security ☐ Quality of supervision ☐ Company
policy ☐ Relationships with co-workers -
Relationship with Boss -Relationship with
Peers

Contemporary Theories of Motivation

There are several current theories of motivation:

- Self- Determination Theory

- Goal-Setting Theory

 - Management by Objectives (MBO)

- Self-Efficacy Theory

 - Also known as Social Cognitive Theory or Social

 - Learning Theory

- Reinforcement Theory

- Equity Theory

- Expectancy Theory

Self- Determination Theory

Which proposes that people prefer to feel they have control over their actions, so anything that makes a previously enjoyed task feel more like an obligation than a freely chosen activity will undermine motivation.

Locke's Goal-Setting Theory

Basic premise:

Specific and difficult goals, with self-generated feedback, lead to higher performance.

Difficult goals:

Focus and direct attention.

Energize the person to work harder.

Difficulty increases persistence.

Force people to be more effective and efficient.

But why are people motivated by difficult goals? **First**, challenging goals get our attention and thus tend to help us focus. **Second**, difficult goals energize us because we have to work harder to attain them. **Third**, when goals are difficult, people persist in trying to attain them. Finally, difficult goals lead us to discover strategies that help us perform the job or task more effectively.

Implementation: Management by Objectives

MBO is a systematic way to utilize goal-setting.

Goals must be:

- tangible;

- verifiable;

- measurable;

Corporate goals are broken down into smaller, more specific goals at each level of organization.

Four common ingredients to MBO programs are:

- goal specificity;

- participative decision making;

- explicit time period;

- performance feedback.

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-Efficacy: An individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task.

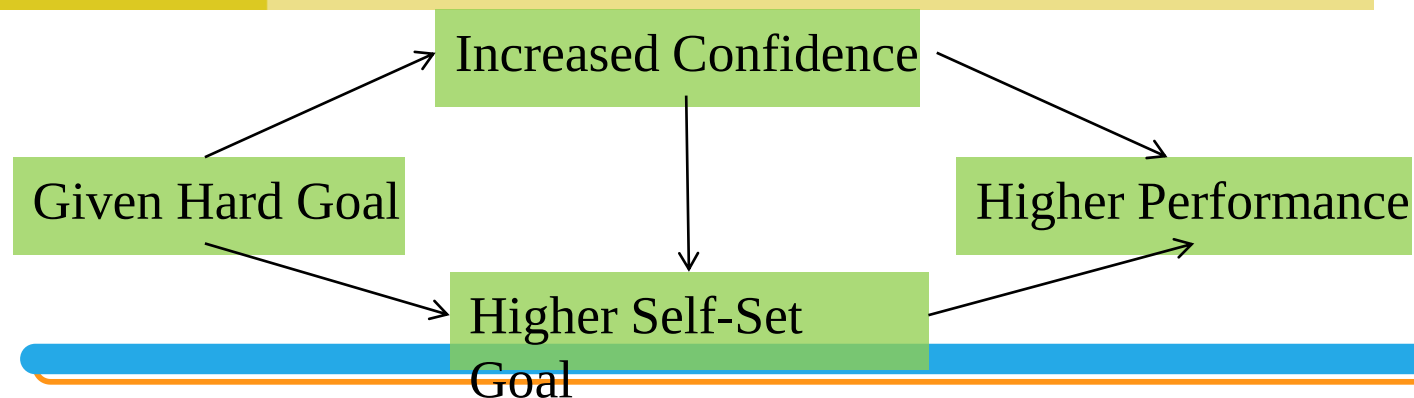
Higher efficacy is related to:

- greater confidence;
- greater persistence in the face of difficulties;
- better response to negative feedback (work harder).

Self-Efficacy complements Goal-Setting Theory.

Figure 5-3

Joint Effects of Goals and Self-Efficacy on Performance



Increasing Self-Efficacy

1. Enactive mastery

- that is, gaining relevant experience with the task or job. If you've been able to do the job successfully in the past, you're more confident you'll be able to do it in the future.

2. Vicarious modeling

Vicarious modeling is most effective when you see yourself as similar to the person you are observing

- Increasing confidence by watching others perform the task.
- Most effective when observer perceives the model to be similar to him- or herself.

Increasing Self-Efficacy

3. Verbal persuasion
becoming more confident because someone convinces you that you have the skills necessary to be successful. Motivational speakers use this tactic.

Adams' Equity Theory

Employees compare their ratios of outcomes-to-inputs of relevant others.

When ratios are equal: state of equity exists—there is no tension as the situation is considered fair.

When ratios are unequal: tension exists due to unfairness.

Underrewarded states cause anger.

Overrewarded states cause guilt.

Tension motivates people to act to bring their situation into equity.

Equity Theory's 'Relevant Others'

Can be four different scenarios:

Self-inside

The person's experience in a different job in the same organization.

Self-outside

The person's experience in a different job in a different organization.

Other-inside

Another individual or group within the organization.

Other-outside

Another individual or group outside of the organization.

Propositions relating to inequitable pay:

Paid by time:

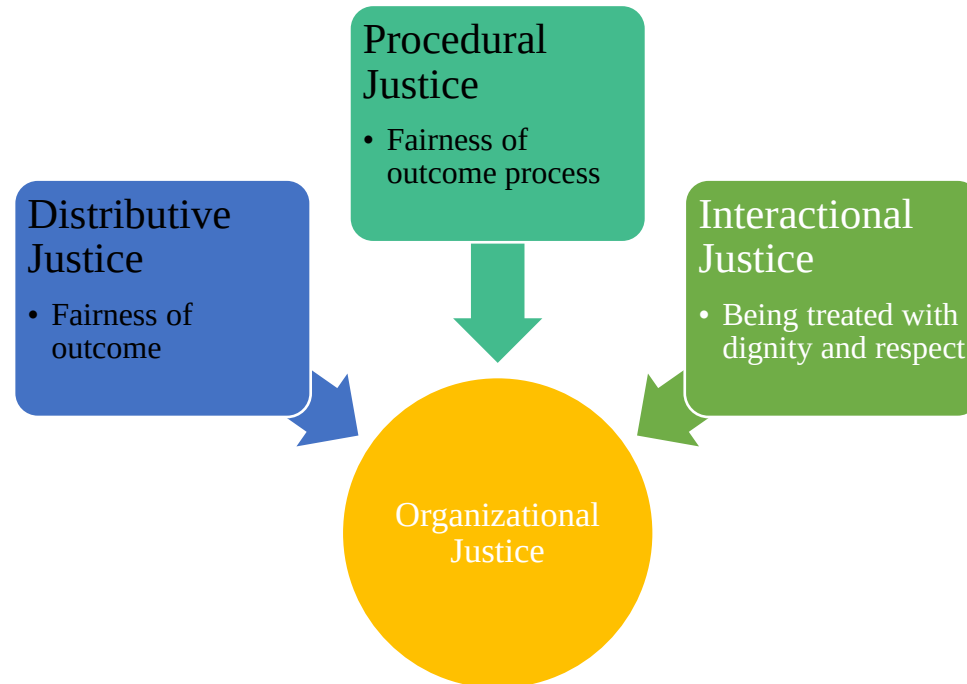
- Overrewarded employees produce more.
- Underrewarded employees produce less with low quality.

Paid by quality

- Overrewarded employees give higher quality.
- Underrewarded employees make more of low quality.

Justice and Equity Theory

FIGURE 5-4 Model of Organizational Justice



Justice and Equity Theory

In social psychology, **distributive justice** is **defined** as perceived fairness of how rewards and costs are shared by (distributed across) group members.

Procedural justice (or procedural fairness) is defined as **the fairness of processes used by those in positions of authority to reach specific outcomes or decisions**. Example: If a company has a strict tardiness policy, with specific punishments if employees are repeatedly late, that policy must apply to every person at every level.

Interactional justice **focuses on the way in which an individual is treated when decisions are made**; individuals feel they are being treated fairly when employers provide explanations for decisions and treat employees with dignity, respect, and sensitivity

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory argues that the strength of our tendency to act a certain way depends on the strength of our expectation of a given outcome and its attractiveness.

In more practical terms, employees will be motivated to exert a high level of effort when they believe it will lead to a good performance appraisal; that a good appraisal will lead to organizational rewards such as bonuses, salary increases, or promotions; and that the rewards will satisfy the employees' personal goals.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

- 1. Effort–performance relationship.** The probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance.
- 2. Performance–reward relationship.** The degree to which the individual believes performing at a particular level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome.
- 3. Rewards–personal goals relationship.** The degree to which organizational rewards satisfy an individual's personal goals or needs and the attractiveness of those potential rewards for the individual.

Motivation by Job Design: The JCM

The **Job Characteristics Model (JCM)** is Hackman and Oldham's concept that any job can be described through five core job dimensions:

Skill variety: Requirements for different tasks in the job.

Task identity: Completion of a whole piece of work.

Task significance: The job's impact on others.

Autonomy: Level of discretion in decision making.

Feedback: Amount of direct and clear information on performance.

Motivation by Job Design: The JCM (cont'd)

The way elements in a job are organized
(*job design*) impacts motivation,
satisfaction, and performance.

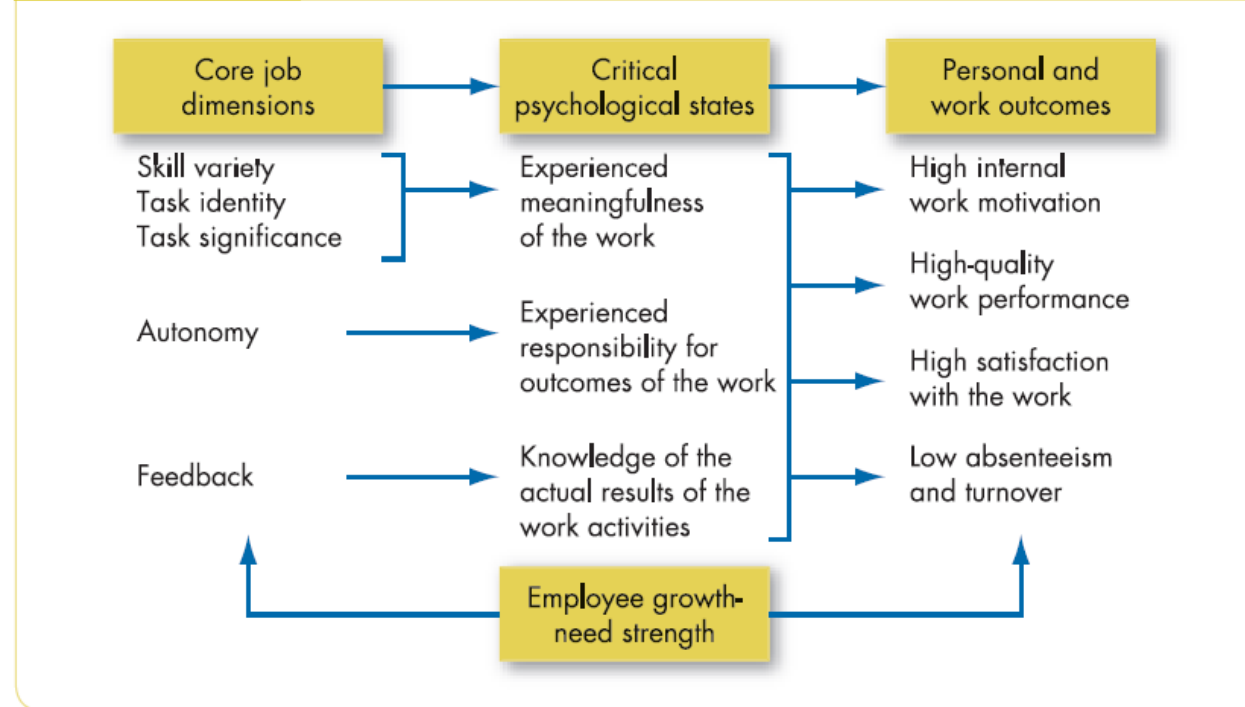
Job design:
Various training organizations such as
Meirc Training & Consulting, pictured,
offer courses in how best to use job
design to develop employees' skills and
motivation.



The Job Characteristics Model

Figure 5-6

The Job Characteristics Model



Source: Adapted from J. R. Hackman and G. R. Oldham, *Work Redesign* © 1980; pp. 78–80. Reprinted and electronically reproduced by permission of Pearson Education, Inc., Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

How Can Jobs Be Redesigned?

Job Rotation

The periodic shifting of a worker from one task to another.

Job enlargement

The horizontal expansion of jobs. The definition of job enlargement is **adding additional activities within the same level to an existing role**. This means that a person will do more, different activities in their current job. For example, an employee who will now also manage her own planning where this was formerly done by her manager.

Job enrichment

The vertical expansion of jobs.

How Can Jobs Be Redesigned?

Job enrichment

The vertical expansion of jobs. Job enrichment **expands the task set that you perform, and the skills that you can develop.** This makes for more stimulating and interesting work, and adds variety, challenge and depth to your daily routine. Enriched jobs give you more freedom, independence and responsibility.

Reinforcement Theory of Motivation

Reinforcement Theory of motivation **aims at achieving the desired level of motivation among the employees by means of reinforcement, punishment and extinction.** Reinforcement approach, which can be both positive and negative, is used to reinforce the desired behavior.

Positive Reinforcement

Positive behavior followed by positive consequences
(Manager praises the employee)

Negative Reinforcement

Positive behavior followed by removal of negative consequences (Manager stops nagging the employee)

Punishment

Negative behavior followed by negative consequences
(Manager demotes the employee)

Extinction

Negative behavior followed by removal of positive consequences (Manager ignores the behavior)

Summary and Managerial Implications

Need Theories (Maslow, Alderfer, McClelland, Herzberg)

Well known, but not very good predictors of behavior.

Goal-Setting Theory

While limited in scope, good predictor.

Reinforcement Theory

Powerful predictor in many work areas.

Equity Theory

Best known for research in organizational justice.

Summary and Managerial Implications

Expectancy Theory

Good predictor of performance variables but shares many of the assumptions as rational decision making.

To Motivate Employees

Recognize individual differences.

Use goals and feedback.

Allow employees to participate in decisions that affect them.

Link rewards to performance.

Check the reward system for equity.



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY
BY EVERYONE'S SMART UNIVERSITY

PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

Lecture 5

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

This chapter will enable you to:

1. Define groups, and differentiate between different types of groups.
2. Identify the five stages of group development.
3. Show how role requirements change in different situations.
4. Demonstrate how norms and status exert influence on an individual's behavior.
5. Show how group size affects group performance.

This chapter will enable you to:

6. Contrast the benefits and disadvantages of cohesive groups.
7. Contrast the strengths and weaknesses of group decision making.
8. Compare the effectiveness of interacting, brainstorming, nominal, and electronic meeting groups.
9. Evaluate evidence for cultural differences in group status and social loafing, and the effects of diversity in groups.

Defining and Classifying Groups

Group:

Two or more individuals interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives

Formal Group:

Defined by the **organization's structure** with designated work assignments establishing tasks

Informal Group:

Alliances that are neither formally structured nor organizationally determined

Appear naturally in response to the need for social contact

Deeply affect behavior and performance

Sub Classifications of Groups

Formal Groups

- Command Group
 - A group composed of the individuals who report directly to a given manager
- Task Group
 - Those working together to complete a job or task in an organization but not limited by hierarchical boundaries.
 - It is a unit or formation established to work on a single defined task or activity. Committee formed for a specific task or objective, and dissolved after the completion of the task or achievement of the objective.

Informal Groups

Interest Group

Members work together to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned

Friendship Group

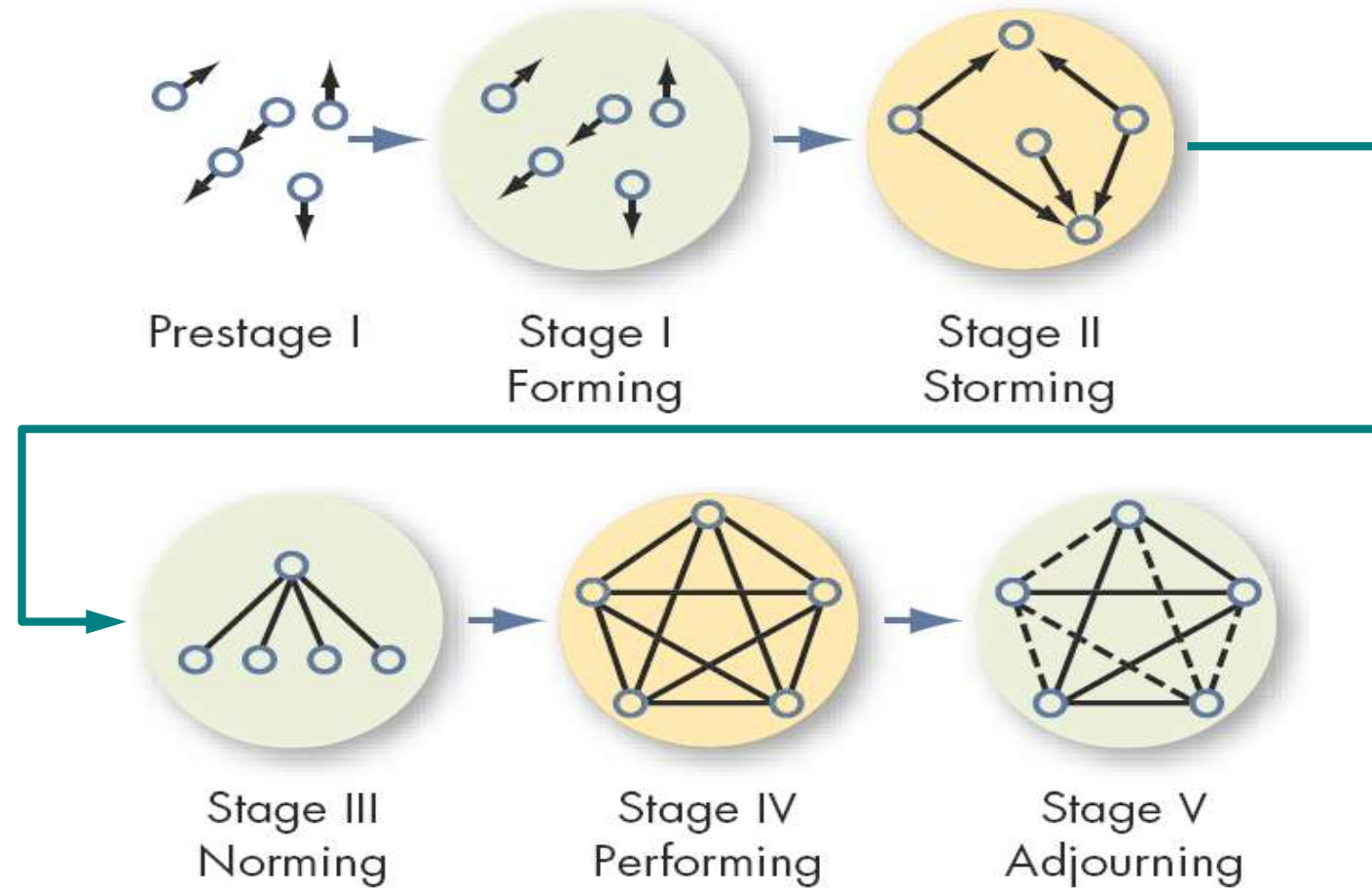
Those brought together because they share one or more common characteristics

Why people Join Groups?

Security
Status
Self-esteem
Affiliation
Power
Goal Achievement



Five Stages of Group Development Model



The Five Stages of Group Behavior

In 1965, psychologist Bruce Tuckman proposed his original model of group development. This model suggests that groups and teams move through a series of stages in order to achieve their peak level of performance. The first five stages of the model are:

1. Forming

Members feel much uncertainty. At this stage, the group witnesses orientation and ice-breaking.

2. Storming

Lots of conflict between members of the group. At this stage, the group is addressing its conflicts and disagreements.

The Five Stages of Group Behavior

3. Norming Stage

Members have developed close relationships and cohesiveness. They resolved their conflicts and reached a consensus on how the group will function

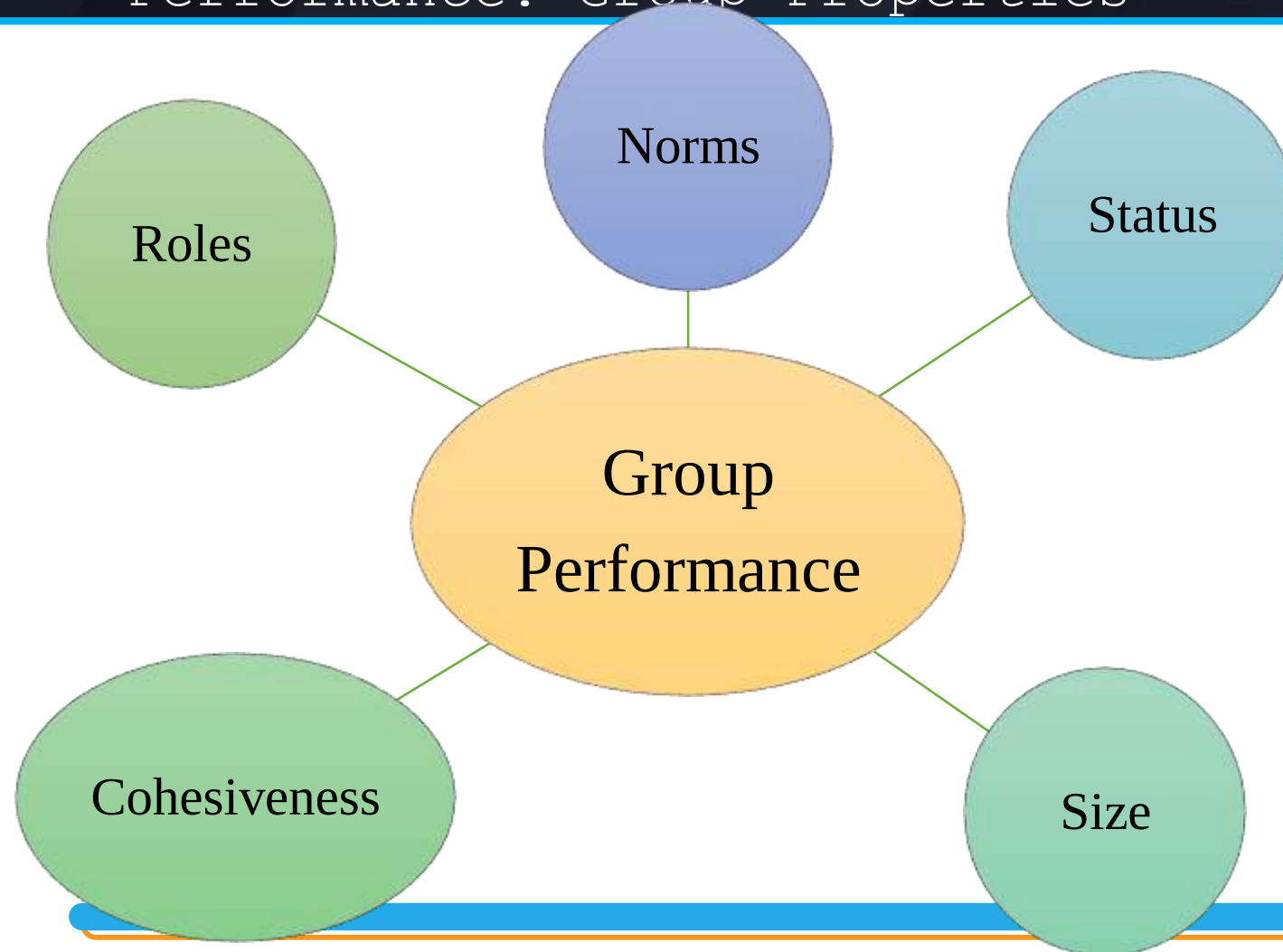
4. Performing Stage

The group is finally fully functional.

5. Adjourning Stage

In temporary groups, the group wraps up its work and then dissolves.

What Do Effect Groups' Performance? Group Properties



Group Property 1: Roles

Role

A set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit

Role Identity

Certain attitudes and behaviors consistent ثابتة with a role

Role Perception

An individual's view of how he or she is supposed to act in a given situation – received by external stimuli

Role Expectations

How others believe a person should act in a given situation

Psychological Contract: an unwritten agreement that sets out mutual expectations of management and employees

Group Property 2 : Norms

Norms

Acceptable standards of behavior within a group that are shared by the group's members

Classes of Norms

Performance norms - level of acceptable work

Appearance norms - what to wear

Social arrangement norms - friendships and the like

Allocation of resources norms - distribution and assignments of jobs and material

Group Property 3: Status

A socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others – it differentiates group members

Important factor in understanding behavior

Significant motivator

Status Characteristics Theory

Status derived from one of three sources:

Power a person has over others

Ability to contribute to group goals

Personal characteristics

Status Effects

On Norms and Conformity

High-status members are less restrained by norms and pressure to conform

Some level of deviance is allowed to high-status members so long as it doesn't affect group goal achievement

On Group Interaction

High-status members are more assertive

Large status differences limit diversity of ideas and creativity

On Equity

If status is perceived to be inequitable, it will result in various forms of corrective behavior.

Group Property 4: Size

Group size affects behavior

Size:

Twelve or more members is a “large” group

Seven or fewer is a “small” group

Best use of a group:

Attribute	Small	Large
Speed	X	
Individual Performance	X	
Problem Solving		X
Diverse Input		X
Fact-finding Goals		X
Overall Performance	X	

Issues with Group Size

Social Loafing

The tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually
Caused by either equity concerns or a diffusion of responsibility (*free riders*)

Managerial Implications

Build in individual accountability

Prevent social loafing by:

- Setting group goals

- Increase intergroup competition

- Use peer evaluation

- Distribute group rewards based on individual effort

Group Property 5: Cohesiveness

Degree to which group members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group

Managerial Implication

To increase cohesiveness:

- Make the group smaller.

- Encourage agreement with group goals.

- Increase time members spend together.

- Stimulate competition with other groups.

- Give rewards to the group, not individuals.

Group Decision Making Vs Individual Choice

Group Strengths:

- Generate more complete information and knowledge
- Offer increased diversity of views and greater creativity
- Increased acceptance of decisions
- Generally more accurate (but not as accurate as the most accurate group member)

Group Weaknesses:

- Time-consuming activity
- Conformity pressures in the group
- Discussions can be dominated by a few members
- A situation of ambiguous responsibility

Group Decision Making Phenomena

Group think : Groupthink is a psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people, in which the desire for harmony or conformity in the group results in an irrational or dysfunctional decision-making outcome. Group members try to minimize conflict and reach a consensus decision without critical evaluation of alternative viewpoints, by actively suppressing dissenting viewpoints, and by isolating themselves from outside influences.

Group Decision Making Phenomena

Group shift : is a phenomenon in which the initial positions of individual members of a group are exaggerated toward a more extreme position. When people are in groups, they make decisions about risk differently from when they are alone. In the group, they are likely to make riskier decisions, as the shared risk makes the individual risk less.

Group Decision Making Technique

Made in interacting groups where members meet face-to-face and rely on verbal and nonverbal communication.

Brainstorming

- It is a [group creativity technique](#) by which efforts are made to find a conclusion for a specific problem by gathering a list of ideas spontaneously contributed by its members.

Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

Works by restricting discussion during the decision-making process. Participants are asked to write their ideas anonymously. Then the facilitator collects the ideas and the group votes on each idea.

Electronic Meeting

It is a type of [computer software](#) that facilitates [creative problem solving](#) and decision-making of groups within or across organizations.

Global Implications

Status and Culture

- The importance of status varies with culture
- Managers must understand who and what holds status when interacting with people from another culture

Social Loafing

- Most often in Western (individualistic) cultures

Group Diversity

- Increased diversity leads to increased conflict
- May cause early withdrawal and lowered morale
- If the initial difficulties are overcome, diverse groups may perform better
- Surface diversity may increase openness

Summary & Managerial Implications

Performance

Typically, clear role perception, appropriate norms, low status differences and smaller, more cohesive groups lead to higher performance

Satisfaction

Increases with:

High congruence لتطابق between boss and employee's perceptions about the job

Not being forced to communicate with lower-status employees

Smaller group size

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Analyze the growing popularity of teams in organizations.
2. Contrast groups and teams.
3. Compare and contrast four types of teams.
4. Identify the characteristics of effective teams.
5. Show how organizations can create team players.
6. Decide when to use individuals instead of teams.
7. Show how our understanding of teams differs in a global context.

Differences Between Groups and Teams

Work Group

A group that interacts primarily to share information and to make decisions to help each group member perform within his or her area of responsibility

No joint effort required

Work Team

Generates positive synergy through **coordinated effort**.
The individual efforts result in a performance that is greater than the sum of the individual inputs

Comparing Work Groups & Work Teams

Work groups



Share information

Neutral (sometimes negative)

Individual

Random and varied

Work teams



Collective performance

Positive

Individual and mutual

Complementary

Goal

Synergy

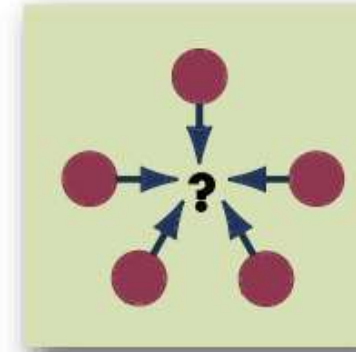
Accountability

Skills

Types of Teams

Problem-Solving Teams

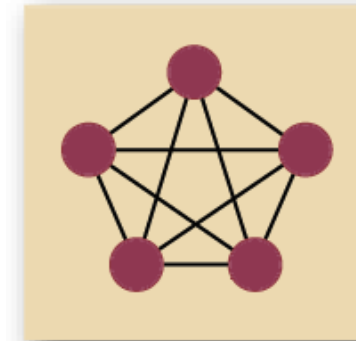
Groups of 5 to 12 employees from the **same department** who meet for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving quality, efficiency, and the work environment



Problem-solving

Self-Managed Work Teams

Groups of 10 to 15 people who take on the responsibilities of their former supervisors



Self-managed

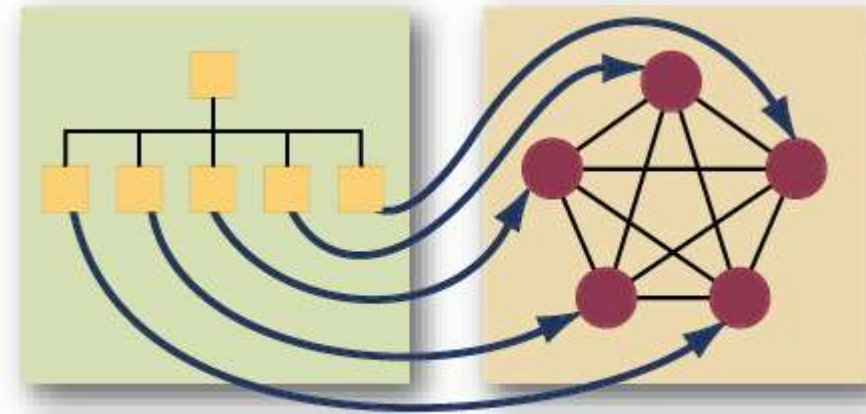
Cross-Functional Teams

Employees from about the same hierarchical level, but from **different work areas**, who come together to accomplish a task

Very common

Task forces

Committees



Cross-functional

A Final Type of Team

Virtual Teams

Teams that use computer technology to tie together physically dispersed members in order to achieve a common goal

Characteristics

- Limited socializing

- The ability to overcome time and space constraints

To be effective, needs:

- Trust among members

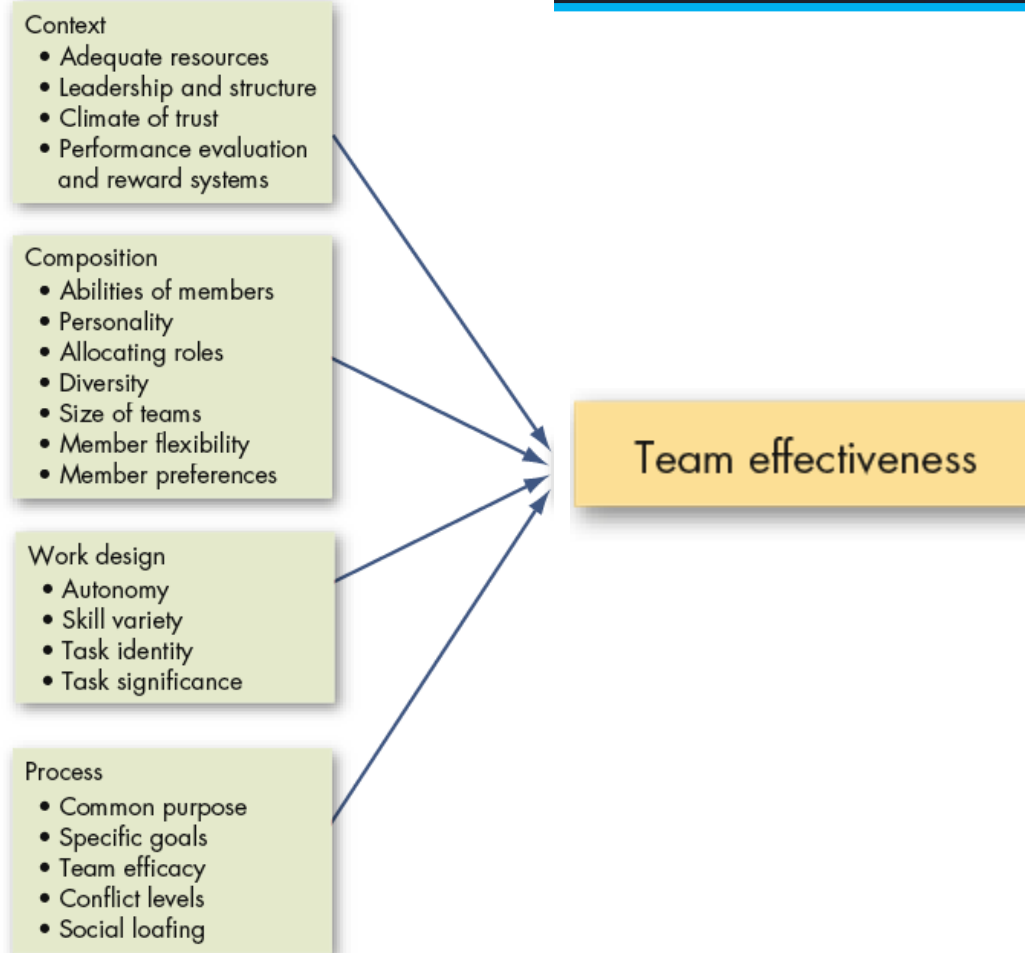
- Close monitoring

- To be publicized

Why Have Teams Become So Popular?

1. Great way to use employee talents.
2. Teams are more flexible and responsive to changes in the environment.
3. Can quickly assemble, deploy, refocus, and disband.
4. Facilitate employee involvement.
5. Increase employee participation in decision making.
6. Democratize an organization and increase motivation.

A Team Effectiveness Model



Caveat 1: This is a general guide only.

Caveat 2: The model assumes that teamwork is preferable to individual work.

Key Components of Effective Teams

- 1.Context
- 2.Composition
- 3.Work Design
- 4.Process Variables

Creating Effective Teams: Context

Team Adequate Resources

Need the tools to complete the job

Team Effective Leadership and Structure

Agreeing to the specifics of work and how the team fits together to integrate individual skills

Even “self-managed” teams need leaders

Leadership especially important in multi-team systems

Team Climate of Trust

Members must trust each other and the leader

Team Performance and Rewards Systems that Reflect Team Contributions

Cannot just be based on individual effort

Creating Effective Teams: Composition

Abilities of Members

Need technical expertise, problem-solving, decision-making, and good interpersonal skills

Personality of Members

Openness to experience, and relate any achieved success to team performance

Allocating Roles and Diversity

Many necessary roles must be filled

Diversity can lead to lower or high performance

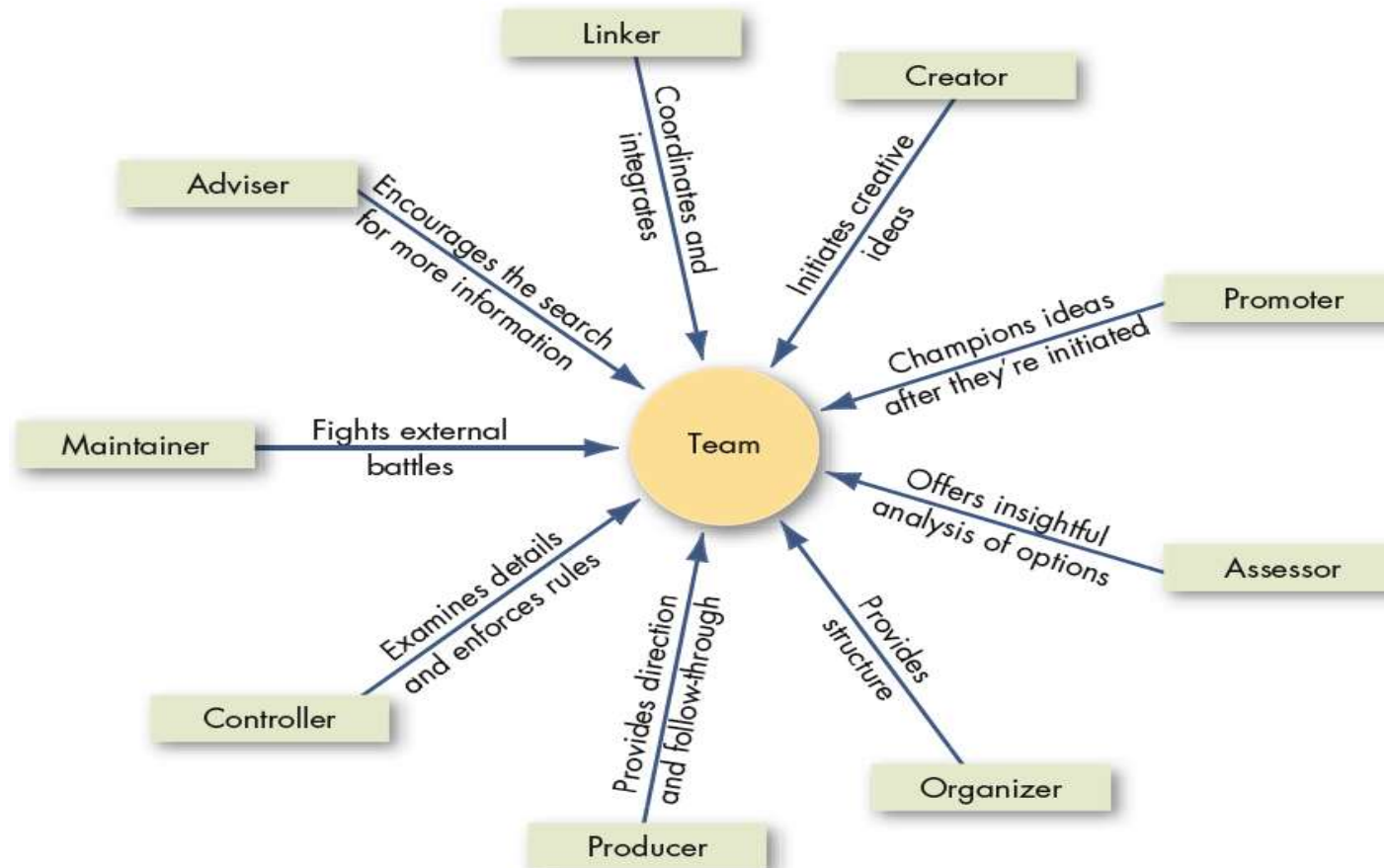
Size of Team

The smaller the better: 5 to 9 is optimal

Member's Preference for Teamwork

Do the members want to be on teams?

Key Roles on Teams



Key Roles on Teams

Linker: Coordinates and integrates
Creator: Indicates creative ideas
Promoter: Champions ideas after they are created
Assessor: Offers insightful analysis of options
Organizer: Provides structure
Producer: Provides direction
Controller: Examines details and enforces rules
Maintainer: Fights external battles
Advisor: Encourages the search for more information

Creating Effective Teams: Work Design

Team Freedom and Autonomy

- Ability to work independently

Team Skill Variety

- Ability to use different skills and talents

Team Task Identity

- Ability to complete a whole and identifiable task or product

Team Task Significance

- Working on a task or project that has a substantial impact on others

Creating Effective Teams: Process

Commitment to a Common Purpose

- Create a common purpose that provides direction

- Willing to adjust plan if necessary

Establishment of Specific Team Goals

- Must be specific, measurable, realistic, and challenging

Team Efficacy

- Team believes in its ability to succeed

Mental Models

- Have an accurate and common mental map of how the work gets done

A Managed Level of Conflict

- Task conflicts are helpful; interpersonal conflicts are not

Minimized Social Loafing

- Team holds itself accountable both individually and as a team

Turning Individuals into Team Players

Selection

Make team skills one of the interpersonal skills in the hiring process.

Training

Individualistic people can learn

Rewards

Rework the reward system to encourage cooperative efforts rather than competitive (individual) ones

Continue to recognize individual contributions while still emphasizing the importance of teamwork

Beware , Teams are not always the answer

Teams take more time and resources than does individual work.

Three tests to see if a team fits the situation:

1. Is the work complex and is there a need for different perspectives: will it be better with the insights of more than one person?
2. Does the work create a common purpose or set of goals for the group that is larger than the aggregate of the goals for individuals?
3. Are members of the group involved in interdependent (depending on each other) tasks?

Global Implications

Extent of Teamwork

Other countries use teams more often than does the U.S.

Self-Managed Teams

Do not work well in countries with low tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty and a high power distance

Team Cultural Diversity and Team Performance

Diversity caused by national differences interferes with team efficiency, at least in the short run

After about three months the differences between diverse and non-diverse team performance disappear

Summary and Managerial Implications

Effective teams have common characteristics:

- Adequate resources

- Effective leadership

- A climate of trust

- Appropriate reward and evaluation systems

- Composed of members with correct skills and roles

- Are smaller

- Do work that provides freedom, autonomy, and the chance to contribute

- The tasks are whole and significant

- Has members who believe in the team's capabilities

Managers should modify the environment and select team-oriented individuals to increase the chance of developing effective teams.



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة



PMG 671 Leadership & Organizational Behavior

Lecture 6

Prepared by
Dr. Walid K. El Leithy

www.midocean.ae

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Identify the main functions of communication.
2. Describe the communication process and
3. distinguish between formal and informal communication.
4. Contrast downward, upward, and lateral communication with examples.
5. Contrast oral, written, and nonverbal communication.
6. Compare and contrast formal communication networks and the grapevine.

7. Analyze the advantages and challenges of electronic communication.
8. Show how channel richness underlies the choice of communication channel.
9. Identify common barriers to effective communication.

Communication

The transference and understanding of meaning

Communication Functions

Foster motivation and stimulate members to perform.

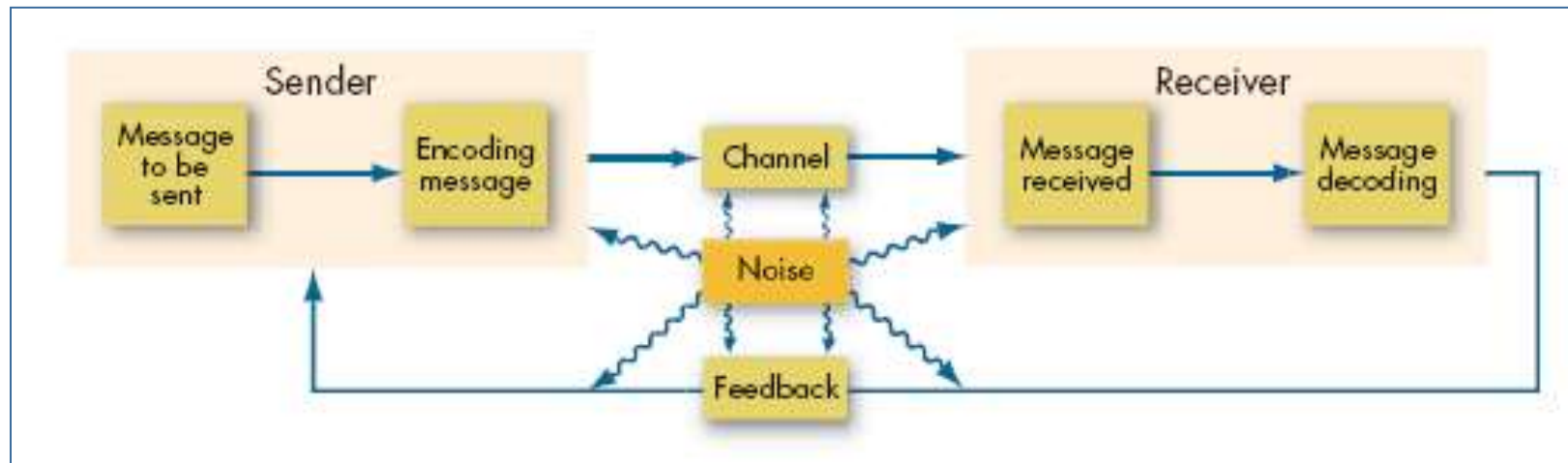
Provide a release for emotional expression

Provide information needed to make decisions

Sort of control

➤ Communication Process

- The steps between a source and a receiver that result in the transference and understanding of meaning.



Key Parts of Communication Process

- **The Sender** – *initiates message*
- **Encoding** – *translating thought to message*
- **The Message** – *what is communicated*
- **The Channel** – *the medium the message travels through*
- **Decoding** – *the receiver's action in making sense of the message*
- **The Receiver** – *person who gets the message*
- **Noise** – *things that interfere with the message*
- **Feedback** – *a return message regarding the initial communication*

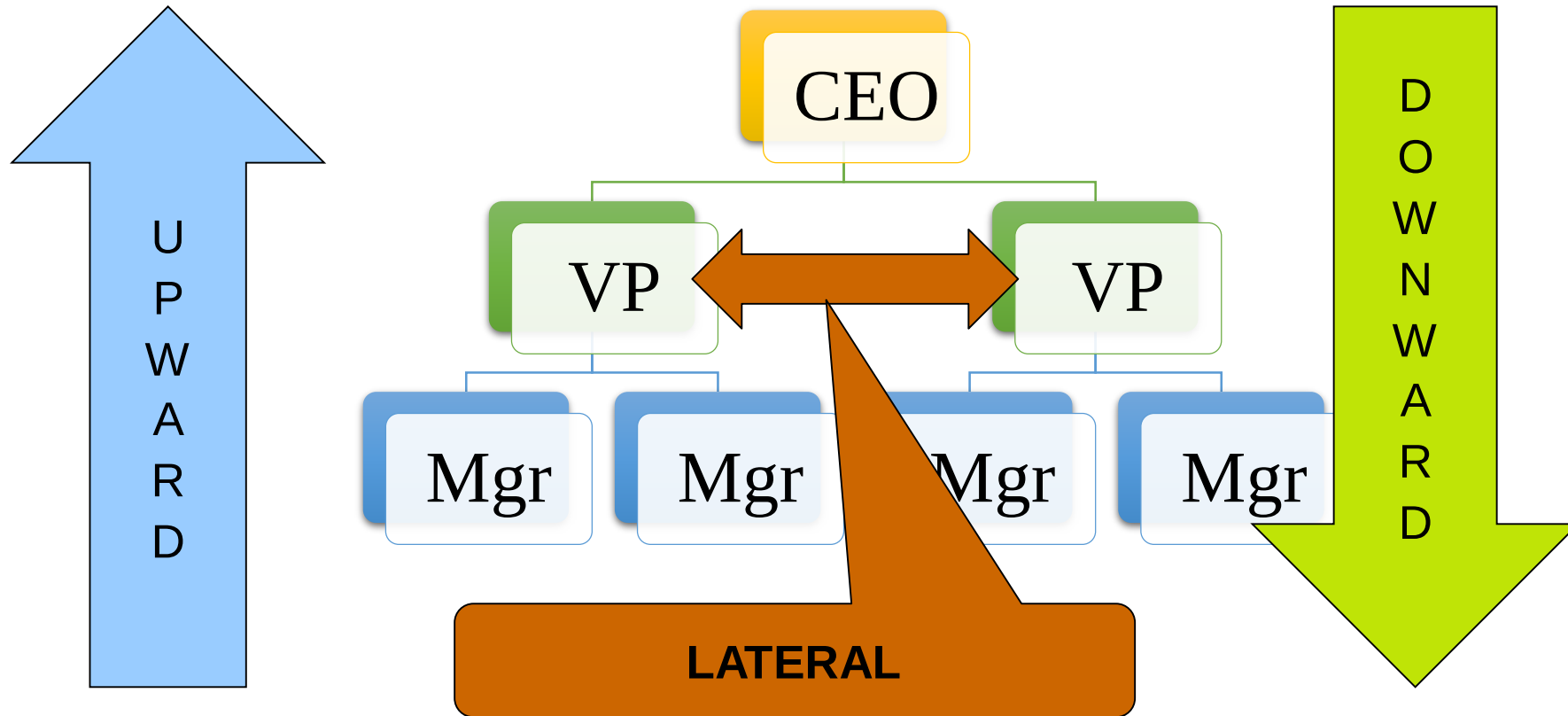
➤ **Channel**

- The medium selected by the sender through which the message travels to the receiver

➤ **Types of Channels**

- Formal Channels
 - Are established by the organization and transmit messages that are related to the professional activities of members
- Informal Channels
 - Used to transmit personal or social messages in the organization. These informal channels are spontaneous and emerge as a response to individual choices

Direction of Communication



➤ **Oral Communication**

- Advantages: Speed and feedback
- Disadvantage: Distortion of the message

➤ **Written Communication**

- Advantages: Tangible and verifiable
- Disadvantages: Time-consuming and lacks feedback

➤ **Nonverbal Communication**

- Advantages: Supports other communications and provides observable expression of emotions and feelings
- Disadvantage: Misperception of body language or gestures can influence receiver's interpretation of message

➤ **Body Movement**

- Unconscious motions that provide meaning
- Shows extent of interest in another and relative perceived status differences

➤ **Intonations and Voice Emphasis**

- The way something is said can change meaning

➤ **Facial Expressions**

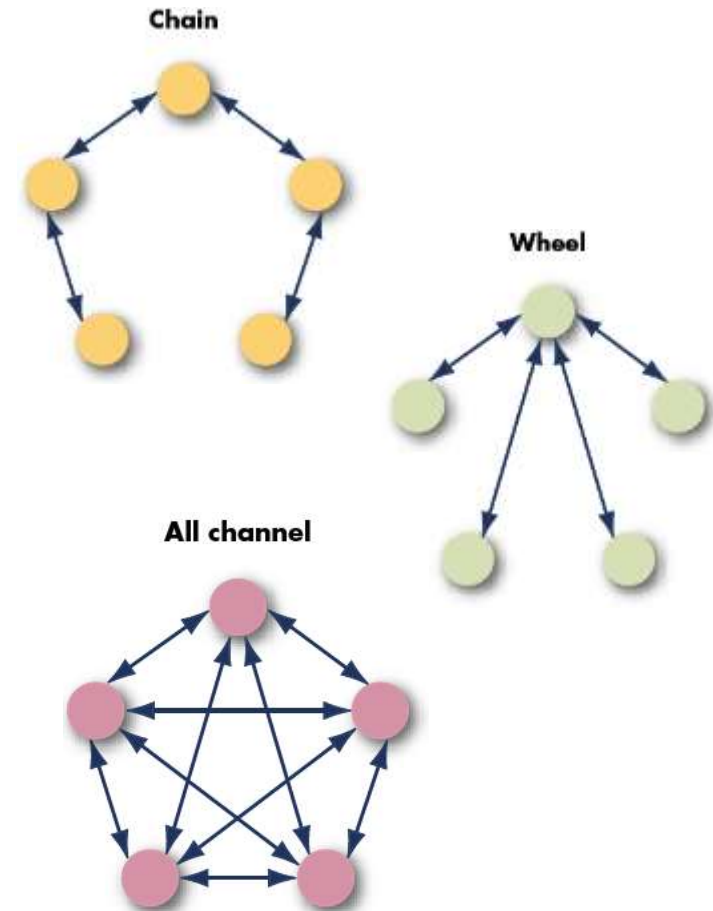
- Show emotion

➤ **Physical Distance between Sender and Receiver**

- Depends on cultural norms
- Can express interest or status

Three Common Formal Organizations Small- Group

- **Chain:**
 - Rigidly follows the chain of command
- **Wheel:**
 - Relies on a central figure to act as the conduit (a pipe or tube through which something such as water or wire) passes for all communication
 - Team with a strong leader
- **All Channel:**
 - All group members communicate actively with each other
 - Self-managed teams



The Grapevine as an informal way of Communication

Within a business, there are two types of internal **communication**, formal and informal. Formal **communication** spreads through newsletters, manuals, emails, memos, staff meetings, conferences and official notices (chain-wheel-all channel). Informal **communication** occurs through **the grapevine**, which is generally word-of-mouth **communication**

The Grapevine

➤ **Three Main Grapevine Characteristics**

1. Informal, not controlled by management
2. Perceived by most employees as being more believable and reliable than formal communications
3. Largely used to serve the self-interests of those who use it

➤ **Results from:**

- Desire for information about important situations
- Ambiguous conditions
- Conditions that cause anxiety

➤ **Insightful to managers**

➤ **Serves employee's social needs**

Reducing Rumors

1. Announce timetables for making important decisions
2. Explain decisions and behaviors that may appear inconsistent or secretive
3. Emphasize the downside, as well as the upside, of current decisions and future plans

Barriers to Effective Communication

- **Filtering**
- **Filtering is the distortion or withholding of information to manage a person's reactions. An example of filtering include a manager's keeping a division's negative sales figures from a superior.**
- **filtering prevents members of an organization from getting the complete picture of a situation.**
- **filtering can lead to miscommunications in business. Listeners translate messages into their own words, each creating a unique version of what was said (Alessandra, 1993).**

Selective Perception

- refers to filtering what we see and hear to suit our own needs.
- This process is often unconscious. we pick and choose according to our own needs.
- Selective perception is a time-saver, a necessary tool in a complex culture. But it can also lead to mistakes.
- For example, the boss asked his assistant to order more toner cartridges .Since the assistant found the to-do list from his boss to be unreasonably demanding, he assumed the request could wait. The boss, assuming

- **Messages reach us in countless ways every day.**
- **Adding these together and it's easy to see how we may be receiving more information than we can take in.**
- **This state of imbalance is known as information overload, which occurs “when the information processing demands on an individual's time to perform interactions exceed the capacity of time available for such processing” .**

- **An effective communication requires a sender and a receiver who are open to speaking and listening to one another, despite possible differences in opinion or personality.**
- **One or both parties may have to put their emotions aside to achieve the goal of communicating clearly.**
- **A receiver who is emotionally upset tends to ignore or distort what the sender is saying.**
- **A sender who is emotionally upset may be unable to present ideas or feelings effectively.**

- **Communicated message must be understandable to the receiver. Words mean different things to different people. Language reflects not only the personality of the individual but also the culture of society in which the individual is living.**
- **Age, education and cultural background are three of the more obvious variables that influence the language a person uses and the definitions he or she gives to words. Therefore, use simple, direct, declarative language.**

Foundation of Organizational Structure

➤ **After studying this chapter, you should be able to:**

- Identify the six elements of an organization's structure.
- Identify the characteristics of a bureaucracy.
- Describe a matrix organization.
- Identify the characteristics of a virtual organization.
- Show why managers want to create boundaryless organizations.

Foundation of Organizational Structure

- Demonstrate how organizational structures differ, and contrast mechanistic and organic structural models.
- Analyze the behavioral implications of different organizational designs.
- Show how globalization affects organizational structure.

What is Organizational Structure?

- **Organizational Structure**
- **How job tasks are formally divided, grouped, and coordinated**, managers need to address six key elements when they design their organization's structure:
 - Key Elements in Organizational Structure :
 1. Work specialization
 2. Departmentalization
 3. Chain of command
 4. Span of control
 5. Centralization and decentralization
 6. Formlization

- **The degree to which tasks in the organization are subdivided into separate jobs**
- **Division of Labor**
 - Makes efficient use of employee skills
 - Increases employee skills through repetition
 - Specialized training is more efficient
 - Allows use of specialized equipment

- **The basis by which jobs are grouped together**
- **Grouping Activities by:**
 - **Functional departmentalization** - Grouping activities by functions performed. Activities can be grouped according to function (work being done) to pursue economies of scale by placing employees with shared skills and knowledge into departments for example human resources, IT, accounting, manufacturing, logistics, and engineering.

- **Product departmentalization** - Grouping activities by product line. Tasks can also be grouped according to a specific product or service, thus placing all activities related to the product or the service under one manager.
- **Customer departmentalization** - Grouping activities on the basis of common customers or types of customers. Jobs may be grouped according to the type of customer served by the organization.
-

- **Geographic departmentalization** - Grouping activities on the basis of territory. If an organization's customers are geographically dispersed, it can group jobs based on geography.
- **Divisional departmentalization** - When the firm develops independent lines of business that operate as separate companies, all contributing to the corporation profitability.

- **Authority**
 - The rights inherent in a managerial position to give orders and to expect the orders to be obeyed
- **Chain of Command**
 - The unbroken line of authority that extends from the top of the organization to the lowest level and clarifies who reports to whom
- **Unity of Command**
 - A subordinate should have only one superior to whom he or she is directly responsible

The number of subordinates a manager can efficiently and effectively direct

- **Wider spans of management increase organizational efficiency and leads to :**
- **Faster decision-making due to fewer levels of approvals required for a specific decision, which allows the company to respond more quickly to business issues.**

- **Better and more frequent communication between higher-level managers and staffers, so the staff is more knowledgeable about company goals and the higher-level managers are more knowledgeable about daily operational issues faced by staff.**
- **Reduced costs relative to a taller organization, since there are fewer management layers needing compensation.**

- **Narrow span drawbacks:**
 - **Expense of additional layers of management**
 - **Increased complexity of vertical communication**
 - **Encouragement of overly tight supervision and discouragement of employee autonomy**

Centralization and Decentralization

➤ **Centralization**

- The degree to which decision making is concentrated at a single point in the organization.

➤ **Decentralization**

- The degree to which decision making is spread throughout the organization

- **Formalization** refers to the degree to which jobs within the organization are standardized.
- Formalization in organizational structure is a process in which managers specify (in writing), procedures, rules and responsibilities for the individual employees, organizational units, groups, teams and the organization as a whole, which leads to the development of processes, relationships, and operating procedures.
- Employees can be expected always to handle the same input in exactly the same way, resulting in a consistent and uniform output. There are explicit job descriptions, lots of organizational rules, and clearly defined procedures covering work processes in organizations in which there is high formalization.

Formalization

Where formalization is low, job behaviors are relatively unprogrammed, and employees have a great deal of freedom to exercise discretion in their work. Standardization not only eliminates the possibility of employees engaging in alternative behaviors, but it even removes the need for employees to consider alternatives.

Common Organization Designs: Function Structure

➤ **Functional Structure**

A functional organizational structure is a structure that consists of activities such as coordination, supervision and task allocation. The organizational structure determines how the organization performs or operates. The term organizational structure refers to how the people in an organization are grouped and to whom they report.

Common Organization Designs: Function Structure

➤ **Functional Structure**

One traditional way of organizing people is by function. Some common functions within an organization include production, marketing, human resources, and accounting.

➤ **Divisional Structure**

- The divisional structure or product structure consists of self-contained divisions. A division is a collection of functions which produce a product. It also utilizes a plan to compete and operate as a separate business or profit center.

Common Organization Designs: Function Structure

- The [matrix structure](#) groups employees by both function and product. This structure can combine the best of both separate structures. A matrix organization frequently uses teams of employees to accomplish work, in order to take advantage of the strengths, as well as make up for the weaknesses, of functional and decentralized forms.

PMG 671
Leadership & Organizational
Behavior

Prepared by

Dr. Walid El Leithy

Chapter 7



Chapter 7

Chapter
07

Agenda

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- Define leadership and contrast leadership and management.

- Summarize the conclusions of trait theories.

- Identify the central tenets and main limitations of behavioral theories.

- Assess contingency theories of leadership by their level of support.

- Contrast the interactive theories (path-goal and leader-member exchange).

- Identify the situational variables in the leader-participation model.

- Show how U.S. managers might need to adjust their leadership approaches in Brazil, France, Egypt, and China.

Chapter
07

What is Leadership?

Leadership

The ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals

Management

Use of authority inherent in designated formal rank to obtain compliance from organizational members

Both are necessary for organizational success

Chapter
07

Leadership & Management

Bennis (1989) identified 12 distinctions between managers and leaders:

- 1. Managers administer, leaders innovate.**
- 2. Managers ask how and when, leaders ask what and why.**
- 3. Managers focus on systems, leaders focus on people.**
- 4. Managers do things right, leaders do the right things.**
- 5. Managers maintain, leaders develop**
- 6. Managers rely on control, leaders inspire trust.**

Chapter
07

Leadership & Management

Managers have a short-term perspective, leaders have a longer-term perspective.

8. Managers accept the status quo, leaders challenge the status quo.

9. Managers have an eye on the bottom line, leaders have an eye on the horizon.

10. Managers imitate, leaders originate.

12. Managers copy, leaders show originality.

.

Chapter
07

Leadership & Management

Table 1.1 Distinctions between management and leadership (Kotter, 1991)

Management involves	Leadership involves
Focusing on managing complexity by planning and budgeting with the aim of producing orderly results, not change.	Focusing on producing change by developing a vision for the future along with strategies for bringing about the changes needed to achieve that vision.
Developing the capacity to achieve plans by creating an organization structure and staffing it – developing human systems that can implement plans as precisely and efficiently as possible.	Aligning people by communicating the new direction and creating coalitions that understand the vision and are committed to its achievement.
Ensuring plan accomplishment by controlling and problem-solving – formally and informally comparing results to the plan, identifying deviations and then planning and organizing to solve the problems.	Using motivation to energize people, not by pushing them in the right direction as control mechanisms do, but by satisfying basic human needs for achievement, a sense of belonging, recognition, self-esteem, a feeling of control over one's life and the ability to live up to one's ideals.

Chapter
07

Leadership Style

The way in which bosses deal with their employees is known as their leadership style. For example, some managers are quite strict with workers. They always expect deadlines to be met and targets to be hit. Others are more relaxed and understanding. If there is a good reason why a particular task has not been completed by the deadline, they will be willing to accept this and give the employee more time. Although the way in which managers manage will vary slightly from individual to individual, their styles can be categorised under four headings: autocratic, democratic, paternalistic and laissez faire.

Chapter
07

Types of Management/ Leadership Style

Tight Control



Loose Control

Autocratic
Paternalistic
Democratic
Liassez Fair

Chapter
07

Autocratic Managers

Autocratic managers are authoritarian: they tell employees what to do and do not listen much to what workers themselves have to say. Autocratic managers tend to use one-way, top-down communication. They give orders to workers and do not want feedback.

Chapter
07**Democratic Managers**

Democratic managers, by comparison, like to involve their workers in decisions. They tend to listen to employees' ideas and ensure people contribute to the discussion. Communication by democratic managers tends to be two-way. Bosses put forward an idea and employees give their opinion. A democratic leader will regularly delegate decision-making power to junior staff. The delegation of authority, which is at the heart of democratic leadership, can be approached in one of two main ways: management by objectives and laissez faire.

Chapter
07**Laissez Fair Managers**

Meaning 'let it be', this occurs when managers are so busy, or so lazy, that they do not take the time to ensure that junior staff know what to do or how to do it. Some people may respond very well to the freedom to decide how to spend their working lives; others may become frustrated. It is said that Bill Gates, in the early days of Microsoft, hired brilliant students and told them no more than to create brilliant software. Was this a laissez-faire style or management by objectives? Clearly the dividing line can be narrow.

Chapter
07**Paternalistic Managers**

A paternalistic manager thinks and acts like a father. He or she tries to do what is best for their staff/ children. There may be consultation to find out the views of the employees, but decisions are made by the head of the 'family'. This type of boss believes employees need direction but thinks it is important that they are supported and cared for properly. Paternalists are interested in the security and social needs of staff.

Chapter
07

Why Managers Need to Acquire Leadership Skills

Since Leadership is all about making a change in the society a man lives in or an organization a person works for.

Any change needs followers who believe in the importance of such change to the welfare of the organization they work for.

Therefore Managers need to learn how to make a change , how to be a leader and to develop followers.

Chapter
07

Leadership Theories

Researchers have been trying to answer these questions for years:
What does it take to be a successful leader?
What is the most effective leadership style?

Leadership Theories:

The great man Theory

Trait Theory

Behavior Theory

Contingency Theory

Transactional Theory

Transformational Theory

Chapter
07

The Great Man Theory (1840)

The Great Man theory evolved around the mid 19th century. The Great Man theory assumes that the traits of Leadership are intrinsic. That simply means that great leaders are born and not made.

This theory sees great leaders as those who are destined by birth to become a leader. Furthermore, the belief was that great leaders will rise when confronted with the appropriate situation.

Chapter
07**Leadership Trait Theory (1930-1940)**

The trait leadership theory believes that people are either born or are made with certain qualities that will make them excel in leadership roles. That is, certain qualities such as intelligence, sense of responsibility, creativity and other values puts anyone in the shoes of a good leader.

The trait theory of leadership focused on analyzing mental, physical and social characteristic in order to gain more understanding of what is the characteristic or the combination of characteristics that are common among leaders.

Chapter
07

Leadership Trait Theory (1930-1940)

Edwin Gheselli identified six traits for effective leadership:

Need for achievement

Intelligence

Decisiveness

Self-confidence

Initiative

Supervisory ability

Chapter
07

Leadership Behavior Theory (1940-1950)

In the 1930s, emphasis on behaviorism moved researchers in the direction of leadership behavior.

In reaction to the trait leadership theory, the behavioural theories are offering a new perspective, one that focuses on the behaviours of the leaders as opposed to their mental, physical or social characteristics.

Chapter
07

Leadership Behavior Theory (1940-1950)

Ralph Stogdill at Ohio State University

Helped develop the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ)

The behavioural theories first divided leaders in two categories. Those that were concerned with the tasks and those concerned with the people.

Respondents described leaders' behavior in two dimensions:

Initiating structure

Showing consideration

Chapter
07

Leadership Behavior Theory (1940-1950)

Initiating structure means:

the extent to which a leader defines leader and group member roles, initiates actions, organizes group activities, and defines how tasks are to be accomplished by the group.

Measures of initiating structure:

Trying out new ideas

Encouraging slow workers to work harder

Meeting deadlines

Meeting at scheduled times

Making sure everyone works to capacity.

Chapter
07

Leadership Behavior Theory (1940-1950)

Showing consideration means...

taking action to develop trust, respect, support, and friendship with subordinates

Measures of consideration:

Being helpful

Treating all people as equals

Willing to make changes

Standing behind subordinates

Doing things to make group membership pleasant

Chapter
07

Leadership Contingency Theory (1960)

Both trait and behavioral theories tried to identify the one best leader or style for all situations

By the late 1960s, it became apparent that there is no such universal answer.

The Contingency Leadership theory argues that there is no single way of leading and that every leadership style should be based on certain situations, which signifies that there are certain people who perform at the maximum level in certain places; but at minimal performance when taken out of their element.

Chapter
07

Leadership Contingency Theory (1960)

Leadership effectiveness depends on a *combination* of the:

Leader

Followers

Situational factors

Chapter
01

Leadership Contingency Theory (1960)

Most agree that leadership effectiveness depends on the leader, the followers, and situation variables

Leaders in different situations need different interests, values, and skills

A leader in a bank differs from one on a farm

Experienced vs new followers have different needs

Situational factors include the job performed, the workplace culture, and task urgency

Chapter
07**Leadership Contingency Theory (1960)**

Leadership results when...
the ideas and deeds (actions) of the leader match the needs and expectations of the follower in a particular situation

Examples:

Nelson Mandela

Adolf Hitler

For leadership to take place, the leader, followers, and situation must match

Chapter
07

Leadership Transactional Theory (1970)

Transactional theories, also known as exchange theories of leadership, are characterized by a transaction made between the leader and the followers. In fact, the theory values a positive and mutually beneficial relationship.

For the transactional theories to be effective and as a result have motivational value, the leader must find a means to align to adequately reward (or punish) his follower, for performing leader-assigned task.

Chapter
07**Leadership Transactional Theory (1970)**

Transactional leadership styles are more concerned with maintaining the normal flow of operations. Transactional leadership can be described as "keeping the ship afloat." Transactional leaders use disciplinary power and an array of incentives to motivate employees to perform at their best. The term "transactional" refers to the fact that this type of leader essentially motivates subordinates by exchanging rewards for performance.

Chapter
07

Leadership Transactional Theory (1970)

A transactional leader generally does not look ahead in strategically guiding an organization to a position of market leadership; instead, these managers are solely concerned with making sure everything flows smoothly today.

Chapter
07

Leadership Transformational Theory

A transformational leader goes beyond managing day-to-day operations and crafts strategies for taking his company, department or work team to the next level of performance and success. Transformational leadership styles focus on team-building, motivation and collaboration with employees at different levels of an organization to accomplish change for the better.

Chapter
07

Leadership Transformational Theory

Transformational leaders set goals and incentives to push their subordinates to higher performance levels, while providing opportunities for personal and professional growth for each employee.

Chapter
07

Advantages of both Transactional and Transformational Styles

Both leadership styles are needed for guiding an organization to success. Transactional leaders provide distinct advantages through their abilities to address small operational details quickly. Transactional leaders handle all the details that come together to build a strong reputation in the marketplace, while keeping employees productive on the front line.

Chapter
07

Advantages of both Transactional and Transformational Styles

Transformational leadership styles are crucial to the strategic development of a small business. Small businesses with transformational leaders at the helm shoot for ambitious goals, and can achieve rapid success through the vision and team-building skills of the leader

Chapter
07

Contemporary Theory of Leadership (The Fiedler Model)

- Fred Fiedler developed the first comprehensive contingency model for leadership. The **Fiedler contingency model** proposes that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style and the degree to which the situation gives the leader control.
- Fiedler assumes an individual's leadership style is fixed. This means if a situation requires a task-oriented leader and the person in the leadership position is relationship oriented, either the situation has to be modified or the leader has to be replaced to achieve optimal effectiveness.

Chapter
07

Situational Leadership Theory

- 
- **Situational leadership theory (SLT) focuses on the followers.** It says successful leadership depends on selecting the right leadership style contingent on the followers' readiness, or the extent to which they are willing and able to accomplish a specific task. A leader should choose one of four behaviors depending on follower readiness.
 - If followers are *unable* and *unwilling* to do a task, the leader needs to give clear and specific directions;

Chapter
07

Situational Leadership Theory

- If they are *unable* and *willing*, the leader needs to display high task orientation to compensate for followers' lack of ability and high relationship orientation to get them to “buy into” the leader's desires.

Chapter
07

Situational Leadership Theory

- If followers are *able* and *unwilling*, the leader needs to use a supportive and participative style;
- if they are both *able* and *willing*, the leader doesn't need to do much.

Chapter
07

The Path- Goal Theory

The path-goal theory states that **a leader's behavior is contingent on the satisfaction, motivation, and performance of their employees**. The manager's job is viewed as guiding workers to choose the best paths to reach both their goals as well as the corporation's goals.

- **Path-goal theory centers on how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals Emphasizes the relationship between**
- **the leaders style**
- **the characteristics of the subordinates**
- **the work setting**

Chapter
07

Path Goal Theory

- **Motivational Principles (based on Expectancy Theory) - Subordinates will be motivated if they believe:**
- ☐ they are capable of performing their work
- ☐ that their efforts will result in a certain outcome
- ☐ that the payoffs for doing their work are worthwhile

Chapter
07

Path Goal Theory

- **Leader Behaviors :**
- **Directive Leadership** □ Leader who gives subordinates task instruction including: □ What is expected of them □ How task is to be done □ Timeline for task completion.
- **Supportive Leadership** □ Refers to being friendly, approachable, and supportive as a leader and includes:
 - Attending to well-being & human needs of subordinates' ;
 - Using supportive behavior (cognitive and affective) to make work environment pleasant and more tolerant;
 - Increase self-confidence and lower anxiety

Chapter
07

Path Goal Theory

- **Participative Leadership** □ Leader who invites subordinates to share in the decision-making □ A participative leader: □ Consults with subordinates □ Seeks their ideas & opinions □ Integrates their input into group/organizational decisions.
- **Achievement Oriented Leadership** □ Leader who challenges subordinates to perform work at the highest level possible □ An achievement oriented leader: □ Establishes a high standard of excellence for subordinates; □ Seeks continuous improvement; □ Demonstrates a high degree of confidence in subordinates' ability to establish & achieve challenging goals.

Chapter
07

Charismatic Leadership Theory

A leadership theory that states that followers make attributions of heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities when they observe certain behaviors.

Charismatic leader is this certain quality of an individual personality, by virtue of which he or she is set apart from ordinary people and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities.



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY



Thank You



PMG 671
Leadership & Organizational
Behavior

Prepared by

Dr. Walid El Leithy

Chapter 8



Chapter 8

Chapter
08

Agenda

This chapter discusses ten qualities that make a leader and influence the leadership process.

The study of followership.

Factors Affecting Leadership Process

Chapter
08

Leadership Qualities

- Vision
- Ability
- Enthusiasm
- Stability
- Concern for Others

Chapter
08

Leadership Qualities

- Self-Confidence
- Persistence
- Vitality
- Charisma
- Integrity

Chapter
08

Vision

A leader requires a strong sense of purpose

Recognizes what must be done and does it

Inspires others

Causes him/her to accept the leadership duties

Evokes power

Questions to ask:

Do I have a plan?

What is the vision for this department or organization?

.

Chapter
08

Ability

Leaders must know the job

Employees do not respect, and lose faith in, leaders who:

- Fail to understand the job

- Rely on others when making decisions, giving guidance, or solving problems

Leaders must also:

- Keep job knowledge current

- Have an ability to understand information, formulate strategies, and make decisions

Chapter
08

Ability

Questions to ask:

- How competent am I?
- Am I current in my field?
- Do I set an example?
- Do I keep job knowledge current?
- Are my perceptions accurate?
- Is my memory good?
- Are my judgments sound?

Chapter
08

Enthusiasm

An important trait of a leader:

Causes others to become interested and willing to accept the leader's accomplishments
Leaders can generate enthusiasm in followers

Questions to ask:

Do I care about what I am doing, personally and deeply?
Do I show enthusiasm to my employees?
Does my enthusiasm ignite others to take action?

Chapter
08

Stability

Leaders must understand their world and how it relates to others

Leaders should not:

- Bring personal problems to work
- Be emotionally unstable

Questions to ask:

- Do I possess objectivity?
- Do I convey stability to the employees?
- Do personal problems interfere with my judgment?

Chapter
08

Concern for Others

The heart of caring leadership

Leaders must:

- Never look down on others or treat people as machines
- Be concerned about others' welfare

Caring leaders never tear down, downgrade, or diminish others

Leaders should possess humility and selflessness

- When the interests of others are put first, loyalty is built

Chapter
08

Concern for Others

- **Questions to ask:**
 - Do I care about my employees as people?
 - Do I ever demean (cause people to feel less respected) people?
 - Do I lift up my employees?
 - Do my employees know that I value them?

Chapter
08

Self Confidence

Gives the leader inner strength to overcome tasks

People question a leader lacking self-confidence

Successful leaders stay calm and confident

Grace under pressure inspires others

Questions to ask:

What is my self-confidence level?

Do I show confidence in my actions?

Have I done the homework and preparation to build self-confidence?

Chapter
08

Presistence

Drive and determination are:

Important for business success

Important on the battlefield

Questions to ask:

Do I have self-drive and the
unflagging persistence to overcome adversity (difficult
situations)?

Chapter
08

Vitality

Leaders need strength and stamina

Effective leaders are electric, vigorous, active, and full of life, regardless of age or disability

To achieve goals, leaders need *stamina, energy, health, and vigor*

Questions to ask:

Am I fit for the tasks of leadership?

Do I have energy?

Am I doing everything I can to keep strong?

Chapter
08

Charisma

A quality that generates others' interest and creates followers

Charismatic leaders show *optimism, a sense of adventure, and commitment*

Results in *admiration, enthusiasm, and loyalty of followers*

Questions to ask:

Do I possess a positive outlook and commitment that promotes follower loyalty?

Chapter
08

Integrity

The most important quality of leadership

Honesty, strength of character, and courage

Leads to trust

Trust leads to *respect, loyalty, and action*

Questions to ask:

Do my people trust me?

Do they know that I seek the truth and am true to my word?

Do they see that I possess strength of character?

Chapter
08

The Study of Followership

The study of followership is integral to a better understanding of leadership, as the success and failure of groups, organizations, and teams is not only dependent on how well a leader can lead, but also on how well **the followers can follow**. Specifically, followers play an active role in organization, group, and team successes and failures.

Chapter
08

Characteristics of Good Effective Followers

- **Self-Management**: This refers to the ability to think critically, to be in control of one's actions, and work independently. It is important that followers manage themselves well as leaders are able to delegate tasks to these individuals.

Chapter
08

Characteristics of Good Effective Followers

- **Commitment:** This refers to an individual being committed to the goal, vision, or cause of a group, team, or organization. This is an important quality of followers as it help keep one's (and other member's) morale and energy levels high.

Chapter
08

Characteristics of Good Effective Followers

- **Competence:** It is essential that individuals possess the skills and aptitudes necessary to complete the goal or task or the group, team, or organization. Individuals high on this quality often hold skills higher than their average co-worker (or team member). Further, these individuals continue their pursuit of knowledge by upgrading their skills through classes and seminars.

Chapter
08

Characteristics of Good Effective Followers

- **Courage:** Effective followers hold true to their beliefs and maintain and uphold ethical standards, even in the face of dishonest or corrupt superiors (leaders). These individuals are loyal and honest.

Chapter
08

Fellowship Type (Followers or Non-Followers)

- Kelley identified two underlying behavioral dimensions that help identify the difference between **followers and non-followers**. The first behavioral dimension is whether or not the individual is an independent, critical thinker. The second dimension is whether or not the individual is **active or passive**. From these dimensions, Kelley has identified five followership patterns, or types of followers:

Chapter
08

Fellowship Type (Followers or Non-Followers)

- **The Sheep:** These individuals are passive and require external motivation from the leader. These individuals lack commitment and require constant supervision from the leader.

Chapter
08

Fellowship Type (Followers or Non-Followers)

- **The Yes-People:** These individuals are committed to the leader and the goal (or task) of the organization (or group/team). These conformist individuals do not question the decisions or actions of the leader. Further, yes-people will defend adamantly their leader when faced with opposition from others.

Chapter
08**Fellowship Type (Followers or Non-Followers)**

- **The Pragmatics:** These individuals will not stand behind controversial or unique ideas until the majority of the group has expressed their support. These individuals often remain in the background of the group.

Chapter
08**Fellowship Type (Followers or Non-Followers)**

- **The Alienated:** These individuals are negative and often attempt to bring the group down by constantly questioning the decisions and actions of the leader. These individuals often view themselves as the rightful leader of the organization and are critical of the leader and fellow group members.

Chapter
08**Fellowship Type (Followers or Non-Followers)**

- **The Star Followers:** These exemplary individuals are positive, active, and independent thinkers. Star followers will not blindly accept the decisions or actions of a leader until they have evaluated them completely. Furthermore, these types of followers can succeed without the presence of a leader.

Chapter
08

Characteristics of Followers

- **Leadership requires adjustment to followers' ideas and expectations**
 - **Past leaders:**
 - Ruled with authority
 - Forced employees to obey
 - Fired or punished employees
 - **Defenses developed by employees:**
 - Organized unions
 - Created legislation

Chapter
08

Characteristics of Followers

- **Effective leaders avoid the power tactics of the past**
 - Threatening employees is counterproductive
- **Leaders today:**
 - Motivate employees
 - Function as facilitators
 - Believe that trust and respect should be earned

Chapter
08

The Importance of Trust

- **Stuart Levine and Michael Crom**
 - Wrote about building trust in the workplace
 - **Principles of trust for effective leadership:**
 - Deal openly with everyone
 - Consider all points of view
 - Keep promises
 - Give responsibility
 - Listen to understand
 - Care about people

Chapter
08

Factors Affecting Leadership Process

Situational factors influence the leadership process:

- 1- Size of the organization
- 2- Social and psychological climate
- 3- Patterns of employment
- 4- Type, place, and purpose of work performed
- 5- Organizational Life Cycle
- 6- Culture of the organization
- 7- Leader-follower compatibility

Chapter
08

Size of the Organization

- **Leaders of small organizations:** can be in the form of salespeople, marketing manager and production managers. These leaders organize the system, assign the task, coach the team and evaluate the system. The small organizations have a flexible system and flatter structure. The approach of the small organization is more entrepreneurs.

Leaders of large organizations: In the large organization, the main focus will be on to create public image and future investment plans. The system of the large organization will be more procedural and structure of the large organization will also be more rigid and more complex because of its operations

Chapter
08

Social and Psychological Climate

Every organization has its own climate of working and environment in which the employees work together. Different factors that influence the organizations climate;

- _ Confusion
- _ Anxiety
- _ Conflicts
- _ Mistrust
- _ Stress
- _ Politics

These factors also play their role on the formulation of situation and ultimately the leadership process.

Chapter
08

Pattern of Emplotment

In today's organization the pattern of the employees also varies from organization to organization. We can now see the permanent or temporary and Short-term or Long-term employees. So it also effects the situation of the organization. Today's people need more job security and organizations are facing more challenges in shape of changing the external environment. So it is another challenge for leadership to create a congenial working environment for satisfaction of employees.

Chapter
08**Type, Place and Purpose of Work**

- **The type of work is an important factor**
- The Work duties should be clear-cut. The routine or monotonous work could create hostile working environment. Many researcher claims that in today's organization work duties loosely defined which always cause de-motivation and stress.
- **Context of place and purpose is also a factor**
 - Where is the setting?
 - What is the challenge?

Chapter
08

Organizational Life Cycle Stage

Every organization has its own life cycle. Which always start from its birth and end with its decline. To save from decline, most of the organization introduces new products and new paths etc.

Chapter
08

Culture of the Organization

The system of shared values and beliefs held by organizational members or the system of the shared values norms and behavior that held by the top management is called organizational culture. All organizations have their own cultures.

Culture has an effect on behaviors during Communication, Cooperation, Commitment, Decision Making, Implementation, and Leadership style etc.

Chapter
08

Leaders- Follower Compatibility

- For running an organization successfully there is need of leader-followers interaction. There should be Leader-follower compatibility for working together in the organization. Proper communication and confidence on each other is very essential for trust and performance.
This factor affects directly or indirectly the situation and ultimately the leadership process.

Chapter
08

Leadership Effectiveness Today

Leadership is:

- More art than science
- More skill than knowledge
- Difficult

Effective leaders must be:

- Director and motivator
- Implementer and innovator
- Mentor and team builder
- Expert and moral force
- Organizer and developer of people

Chapter
08

The Vision

Management author Peter Drucker once said,
“The best way to predict the future is to create it”

The leader wants to make a difference and strives to create a thing that never was before

This thing, this difference, constitutes a
vision

The most important function of a leader:
To develop a clear picture of the future.

Chapter
08

The Vision

- **Leaders must have *intensity* and *stamina***
 - CEO of Johnson & Johnson, James Burke, spent 40% of his time communicating and reinforcing his vision
- **Leaders:**
 - Have energy and vitality
 - Can transmit this energy to others
 - Have deep passion

Chapter
08

Why Create a Vision

- **Peter Drucker** explains the importance of a vision:
 - It makes the organization's purpose crystal clear
 - It provides a single-minded focus point
 - A focused, shared vision holds an organization together and enables it to produce
 - Without purpose and values, organizations lose credibility
 - Without credibility, an organization loses its ability to attract the people it needs to perform

Chapter
08

Vision as an Ideal

- **Elements that give life and strength to vision**
 - Evokes pictures in the mind
 - Suggests future orientation
 - Implies a standard of excellence
 - Has the quality of uniqueness
 - Is an image of what could and should be

Chapter
08

Vision as an Ideal

- **Leaders must ask three questions to test his/her vision:**
 - Is this the right direction?
 - Are these the right goals?
 - Is this the right time?
- **The vision must be shared and supported**

Chapter
08

Forum Leadership Qualities

- **The vision and strategy must be:**
 - Leader-initiated
 - Shared and supported by followers
 - Comprehensive and detailed
 - Worth doing
- Vision must be uplifting and inspiring for others

Chapter
08

Visioning Content Principles

- **Element 1**

- A good vision should provide direction for the organization

- **Element 2**

- A good vision should involve strategic planning; they give definition to the vision and focus people and resources on objectives

- **Element 3**

- A good vision should refer to projects and activities that implement strategy

Chapter
08

Requirements for an Affective Vision

- A vision must be comprehensive and detailed, so that every member of the organization can understand his or her part in the whole
- Roles and responsibilities must be understood
- Everyone must know what is expected and the rewards that will accrue when the vision is achieved
- A major determinant of vision fulfillment is personal rewards vs. personal efforts

Chapter
08

Requirements for an Affective Vision

- A vision must be uplifting and inspiring
- The vision must be meaningful and important to the members
- The members of an organization must try to achieve the organization's fullest potential



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY



Thank You



PMG 671
Leadership & Organizational
Behavior

Prepared by

Dr. Walid El Leithy

Chapter 9



Chapter 9

Chapter
09

Agenda

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- Relate institutionalization to organizational culture.
- Define organizational culture and describe its common characteristics.
- Compare the functional and dysfunctional effects of organizational culture on people and the organization.
- Explain the factors that create and sustain an organization's culture.

Chapter
09

Agenda

- Show how culture is transmitted to employees.
- Demonstrate how an ethical culture can be created.
- Describe a positive organizational culture.
- Identify characteristics of a spiritual culture.
- Show how national culture may affect the way organizational culture is transported to a different country.

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture definition

- **Organizational culture is a set of values, principles, beliefs that may be reflected through attitudes, eventually behaviour of the employees of any organisation.**

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture definition

Organizational culture is rather a dynamic process that might be affected and changed by the learning experiences accumulated within group members as well as the new beliefs, values, and assumptions brought in by new members and leaders.

.

Chapter
09**Organizational Culture definition**

The outcome of that is work processes could be run smoothly inside the organisation and no culture clashes might exist among members, so all employees can act in a harmonised way towards achieving the organisation's objectives and hence improve organisational performance and effectiveness.”

Chapter
09

Do Organizations have a uniform culture?

➤ **Dominant Culture**

- Expresses the core values that are shared by a majority of the organization's members

Chapter
09

Do Organizations have a uniform culture?

➤ **Subcultures**

- Mini cultures within an organization, typically defined by department designations and geographical separation

Chapter
09

Do Organizations have a uniform culture?

➤ **Strong Culture**

- A culture in which the core values are intensely held and widely shared

Chapter
09

What do Cultures do?

➤ Culture's Functions

1. Defines the boundary between one organization and others
2. Conveys a sense of identity for its members
3. Facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than self-interest.
4. Serves as a sense-making and control mechanism for fitting employees in the organization

Chapter
09

How does culture begin?

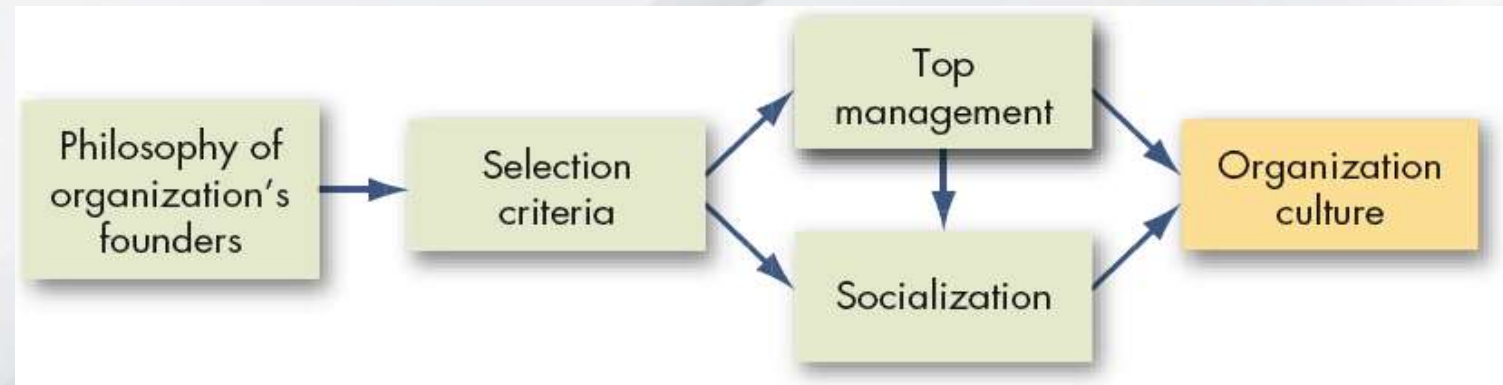
➤ **Stems from the actions of the founders:**

- Founders hire and keep only employees who think and feel the same way they do.
- Founders indoctrinate and socialize these employees to their way of thinking and feeling.
- The founders' own behavior acts as a role model that encourages employees to identify with them and thereby internalize their beliefs, values, and assumptions.

Chapter
09

How Organizational Culture form?

- **Organizational cultures are derived from the founder**
- **They are sustained through managerial action**



Chapter
09

How Organizational Culture is transferred to employees?

➤ **Schein (1992), states the method through which cultures are transferred from founders to their employees. He believes the leaders transfer their cultures to their followers through some internal mechanisms:**

- (1) Through what they pay attention to and reward.**
- (2) Through the ways they allocate resources.**

Chapter
09

How Organizational Culture is transferred to employees?

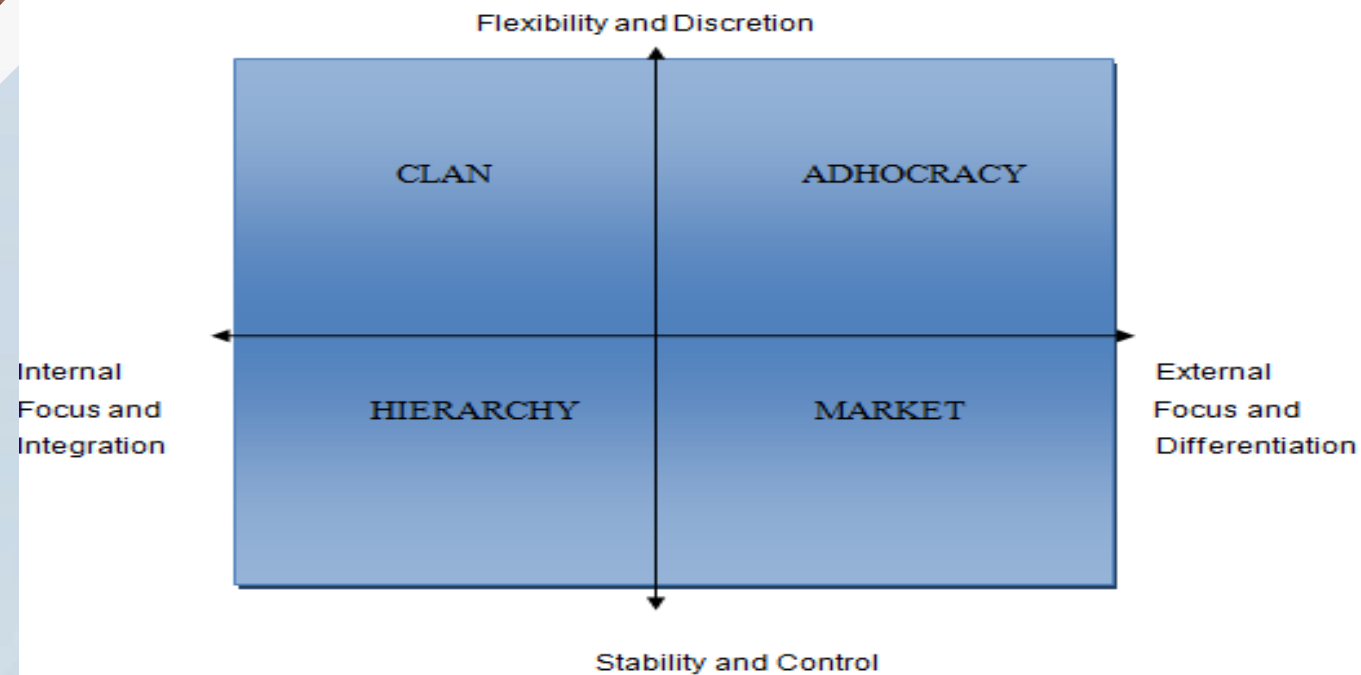
Through the role modeling they do.

- (4) Through the way they react and deal with different problems and critical situations.**
- (5) Through the criteria they use for recruitment, selection, and promotion.**

And accordingly organisations in general transfer their cultures to new employees through same mechanism as above.

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture: Quinn Rohrbaugh's types of organizational culture



Source: The competing Values Framework, Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983

Figure (3)

Chapter
09

Hierarchy Culture

Hierarchy culture can be described by clear lines of decision-making, authority, standardized rules and procedures, and control and accountability mechanisms were valued as the keys to success.

Chapter
09

The Market Culture

The term market is not synonymous with the marketing; rather, it refers to a type of organisation that functions as a market itself. It is a result oriented organisation. The major concern is getting the job done. People are competitive and goal oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers, and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organisation together is the emphasis on winning.

Chapter
09

The Market Culture

Reputation and success are common concerns. The long term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. The organisational style is hard-driving competitiveness.

Chapter
09

The Clan Culture

- It is called a Clan because of its similarity to a family-type organisation. Organisations in which the clan culture is dominant seem more like extended families than economic entities. Instead of the rules and procedures of hierarchies, the clan culture is typified by a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves.

Chapter
09

The Clan Culture

- **Leaders are thought of as mentors and perhaps as parent figures. Organisation is held together by loyalty and tradition. Commitment is high. The organisation emphasises the long-term benefit of individual development, with high cohesion and morale being important. Success is defined in terms of internal climate and concern for people. Organisation places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus**

Chapter
09

Adhocracy Culture

It is characterized by a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative work place. People are encouraged to take risks and initiate new and innovative ideas. Effective leadership is visionary, innovative, and risk-oriented. The glue that holds the organisation together is commitment to experimentation and innovation.

Chapter
09

Adhocracy Culture

The emphasis is on being at the leading edge of new knowledge, products, and services. Readiness for change and meeting new challenges are important. The long-term emphasis of organisations is on rapid growth and acquiring new resources. Success means producing unique and original products and services.

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture and Organizational Life Cycle

According to Cameron and Quinn (1983), researches evidently show that both new and small organizations tend to progress through a predictable pattern of organization culture changes without recognizing that they do so,

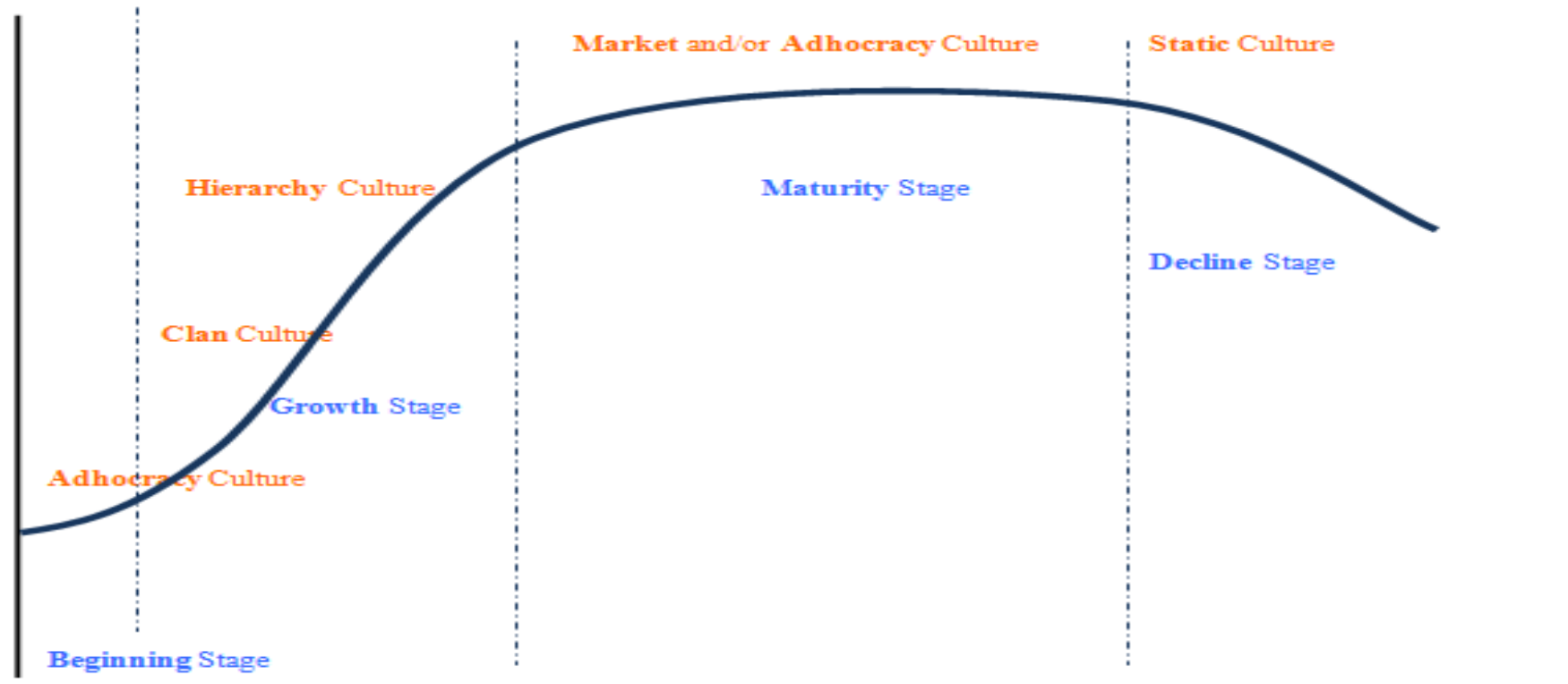
Chapter
09

Organizational Culture and Organizational Life Cycle

while culture change occurs in a less predictable pattern in large and mature organizations in a way that must generally be managed consciously. Moreover, they align organizations' progresses over time with the type of culture they acquire or must acquire

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture and Organizational Life Cycle



Source: Organization life cycle and types of culture

Created by El Leithy (2011)

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture Change Program Example

On Feb 1, 2003, the space shuttle Columbia and its crew of seven were lost during return to earth.

A group of distinguished experts was appointed and spent 6 months conducting a thorough investigation of the causes of the accident.

The group of investigators found that Nasa's current organizational culture contributed to Columbia's accident.

.

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture Change Program Example

As a result, Nasa decided to conduct an organizational culture change program.

BST was selected to assess Nasa's current organizational culture, decide on the new preferred culture and develop and implement a culture change program.

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture Change Program Example

Negative aspects includes:

- (1) Nasa's current organizational culture does not reflect the agency's espoused core values of (a) safety (Nasa has not created an organizational culture that is fully supportive of safety and its people do not feel comfortable to raise their safety concerns to their management) , (b)people (Do not feel that they are highly respected and appreciated by the organization),

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture Change Program Example

(C) excellence (is only seen and valued when it comes to technical work, yet the culture does not value other organizational aspects like management skills, supportive administrative functions and creating an environment that encourages excellence in communication) and (d) integrity (there are some signals that raising of issues by people is not welcome)

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture Change Program Example

- **The current culture reflects an organization transformation with many on going initiatives and lack of a clear sense at working level of how it all fits together.**

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture Change Program Example

Recommended Organizational culture change plan includes:

- (1) Change in processes: Guiding principles must underlie the definition of Nasa's desired culture , serve as a frame work for mission safety improvements at Nasa and help inform every one about the consideration that should be reflected in day to day actions and decisions.**

Chapter
09

Organizational Culture Change Program Example

Recommended Organizational culture change plan includes:

(2) Leadership behavior: Through a set of behavior- based tools , they will work on changing Nasa's leaders' behavior as they are key to changing Nasa's organizational culture.

Chapter
09

The Impact of National Culture on Organizational Culture

National culture tends to influence the organizational culture. Culture is the function of social norm, ethics, value system and behavioral pattern, which may vary from country to country. It is difficult to transport and implant Organizational culture in another country.

Chapter
09

Global Implications

- **Organization cultures, while strong, can't ignore local culture**
- **Managers should be more culturally sensitive by:**
 - Speaking slowly and in a low tone
 - Listening more
 - Avoiding discussions of religion or politics
- **All global firms (not just U.S. firms) need to be more culturally sensitive**

Chapter
09

Summary and Managerial Implications

- **Strong cultures are difficult for managers to change**
 - In the short run, strong cultures should be considered fixed
- **Selecting new hires that fit well in the organizational culture is critical for motivation, job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover**

Chapter
09

Summary and Managerial Implications

- **Socialization into the corporate culture is important**
- **As a manager, your actions as a role model help create the cultural values of ethics, spirituality, and a positive culture**



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY



Thank You



PMG 671
Leadership & Organizational
Behavior

Prepared by

Dr. Walid El Leithy

Chapter 10



Chapter 10

Chapter
10

Agenda

To understand what change management is about.

- To understand that all organizations need to change in order to survive and last longer.
- To understand that change is difficult.
- To understand that all companies need to conduct a certain change(s) at a specific point of time(s) in their lives cycle.
- To clarify the importance of organizational diagnosis
- To understand the reasons that might make some diagnosis process fail

Chapter
10

Agenda

- To understand what is the basic concepts of organizational diagnosis
- To learn about the types of planned change programs
- To learn about the main characteristics of organizational change programs
- What are the Main Characteristics of successful Changed Programs

Chapter
10

Change Management

when the rate of change outside exceeds the rate of change
inside, an end is
in sight “
Jack Welsh

Chapter
10

Change Management

It is not the strongest of the species that survives, nor the most intelligent, but the one most responsive to change. —Charles Darwin

•

Chapter
10

What is Change Management?

It is not about personal change.
It is not about creating new organizations.
We focus here on what is happening inside existing organizations and in their environment.

Chapter
10**What is Change Management?**

Change Management is something very organized, conducted intentionally by group of people whose leader enjoys certain authorities that enable him to look at the whole organization's policies and procedures, in a systematic way, for the purpose of both diagnosing and recognizing any part (s) that need change, then justify the reasons for such change to others and finally put a clear plan for change that includes and involves many people inside the organization.

Chapter
10

Why do Organizations need to change?

Both the internal (low productivity, conflicts, strikes, sabotage, and high absenteeism and turnover) and external environment (new comers with new products, old competition launching new products or reducing prices, new technology, ect.) of organizations change constantly. All organizations turn from stage to another in their life cycle.

Thus in order to survive and last longer, organizations must adapt to new changes occurred either internally or externally.

Chapter
10

Organizational change in daily news

- Mergers.
- Acquisitions.
- New labor laws.
- New governmental regulations.
- New structures.
- New products.
- New markets.
- Reported loss by some organizations.
- Selling part of some organizations.
- Laying offs.
- New management
- New CEO and so on.

Chapter
10

Organizational Change is difficult

According to John Kotter (1996), only 30% of change programs succeed.

-According to Mc Minsey (2008), through surveying 3199 executives, they figure out that only 1 change program in three succeeds.

-According to E.de Rooij (1996) average life expectancy for a company is 13 years.

-According to Strangler and Ablesman (2012), the average time at which companies stay on Fortune 500 list is 40 years.

-Finally, according to recent studies, average life for companies in 1935 was 90 years yet it dramatically went down in 2010 to 14 years only.

Chapter
10

Does this mean that only companies that face difficulty need to change?

Change is a continuous process that all companies must apply at different times of their lives in order to survive, reach higher ranks, gain more profits and better market positions, thus last longer.

Thus, companies should not seek change only at difficult times.

Chapter
10**Understanding Lewin's Change Management Model**

If you have a large cube of ice but realize that what you want is a cone of ice, what do you do? First you must melt the ice to make it amenable to change (unfreeze). Then you must mold the iced water into the shape you want (change). Finally, you must solidify the new shape (refreeze).



Chapter
10**Unfreezing**

Before you can cook a meal that has been frozen, you need to defrost or thaw it out. The same can be said of change. Before a change can be implemented, it must go through the initial step of unfreezing. Because many people will naturally resist change, the goal during the unfreezing stage is to create an awareness of how the status quo, or current level of acceptability, is hindering the organization in some way.

Old behaviors, ways of thinking, processes, people and organizational structures must all be carefully examined to show employees how necessary a change is for the organization to create or maintain a competitive advantage in the marketplace.

Chapter
10

Changing

Now that the people are 'unfrozen' they can begin to move. Lewin recognized that change is a process where the organization must transition or move into this new state of being. This changing step, also referred to as 'transitioning' or 'moving,' is marked by the implementation of the change. This is when the change becomes real. It's also, consequently, the time that most people struggle with the new reality.

Chapter
10

Changing

It is a time marked with uncertainty and fear, making it the hardest step to overcome. During the changing step people begin to learn the new behaviors, processes and ways of thinking. The more prepared they are for this step, the easier it is to complete. For this reason, education, communication, support and time are critical for employees as they become familiar with the change.

Chapter
10**Refreezing**

Lewin called the final stage of his change model freezing, but many refer to it as refreezing to symbolize the act of reinforcing, stabilizing and solidifying the new state after the change. The changes made to organizational processes, goals, structure, offerings or people are accepted and refrozen as the new norm or status quo.

Lewin found the refreezing step to be especially important to ensure that people do not revert back to their old ways of thinking or doing prior to the implementation of the change.

Chapter
10

Importance of Organizational Diagnosis

Organizational diagnosis is a step that should be taken prior to any change plans
It enables us to uncover the real problem instead of its symptoms only
Accordingly, an accurate organizational diagnosis enables us to choose the right solution (s) as well as right direction

Chapter
10**Why do Organizational Change Programs Fail?**

Spending little time investigating and deeply analyzing , accordingly, they often diagnose symptoms of their problems rather than the problems themselves

- The tendency of many firms to imitate the change programs of their competitors or other visible firms without doing a careful diagnosis of their own specific needs
- Any planned change program also requires a careful assessment of individual and organization capacity for change
- Change plans must include all organization (Organization- wide change

Chapter
10

What is Organizational Diagnosis?

On-going process:

Organizational diagnosis is based on the Strategic management concepts and is a on-going process which is in existence through out the life of organization.

Shaping broad plans:

First, it is an on-going process in which broad plans are firstly formulated than implementing and finally controlled.

Chapter
10

What is Organizational Diagnosis?

Strategic goals:

Strategic goals are those which are set by top management. The broad plans are made in achieving the goals.

Internal and external environment:

Internal and external environment generally set the goals. Simply external environment forced internal environment to set the goals and guide them that how to achieve the goals?

Chapter
10

What are the Types of Planned Change Programs?

Discontinuous change: This type of change mainly occurs as a result of a huge and major problem that forces top management of an organization to take certain revolutionary and immediate decisions regarding part of their organization in order to contain and face such problem.

Chapter
10

What are the Types of Planned Change Programs?

Continuous change: This type of change does not happen all of a sudden or as a reaction of a certain major and huge circumstances, on the contrary, it happens over time and tends to more radical change that includes more major shifts involving many different levels of organizations and many different aspect of business.

Chapter
10**What are the main Organizational Change Programs?**

According to The Harvard Business Essentials Series (2003), generally, change programs fall into one of the following categories:

Structural change: These programs aim at reshuffling the existing structure of an organization in a way that serves its current challenges. During structural change, top management, might also be supported by external consultants, attempts to reconfigure different parts (departments, business units, subsidiaries) of an organization to achieve greater overall performance. Mergers, acquisitions, consolidations, and divestiture of operating units are all examples of attempts at structural change.

Chapter
10**What are the main Organizational Change Programs?**

Cost cutting: Programs such as these focus on the elimination of nonessential activities or on other methods for squeezing costs out of operations. Such programs may appear more in time of slow growth and low sales figures in a form of discontinuous programs to immediately contain and control such problems, thus the decision taken are very fast and might be painful. Yet, it is important to all organizations to look at cost cutting as a continuous and incremental activity rather than as a reaction of new circumstances or financial problems.

Chapter
10**What are the main Organizational Change Programs?**

Process change: These programs focus on altering how things get done. The nature of such types of programs is continuous and covers all aspects and processes found in an organization. For example revisiting the current work flow process as a result of increasing number of customers' complaints is one the process change programs that aims at increasing both customer satisfaction and loyalty. Thus, such process change typically aims to make processes faster, more effective, more reliable, and/or less costly.

Chapter
10

What are the main Organizational Change Programs?

Cultural change: These programs focus on the “human” side of the organization, such as a company’s general approach to doing business or the relationship between its management and employees.

-

Chapter
10**What are the main Organizational Change Programs?**

Other programs may include:

Mission & Strategy change : In theory, all changes in an organization are aligned to the organization's mission and strategy. In reality, changes may be difficult to map to strategy or may even contradict it.

People change : Hiring, turnover, roles & responsibilities, training and other individual changes. People changes may seem minor but taken as a whole they represent a critical focus for change management. For example, training is critical to the acceptance of change

Chapter
10**What are the main Organizational Change Programs?**

Policies & Legal Agreements change : A change as minor as a new rule or policy can have a big impact on an organization. New rules (or changes to legal agreements) aren't always popular with employees and customers — implementation and acceptance can be a change management challenge.

Technology change: Changes to technology infrastructure, systems, automations and tools. Some firms focus on technology change — letting it drive other change within the organization. It's common for change management to be highly focused on technology changes.

Chapter
10

What are the main Organizational Change Programs?

Products, Marketing and Customer Relationships change :Changes to products, marketing and sales are a critical focus for many organizations. For example, new product development is often key to strategy execution.

Chapter
10**What are the Main Characteristics of
Planned Changed Programs?**

According to Cummings and Worley (1997), effective planned change efforts are often characterized by some common characteristics- from the management side of an organization – mostly through communication and management of the change process as follows:

- Motivating change by creating a readiness for the change among employees and attempting to overcome resistance to change.
- Creating a shared vision of the desired future state of the organization.

Chapter
10

What are the Main Characteristics of Planned Changed Programs?

Developing political support for the needed change.

- Managing the transition from the current state to the desired future state.
- Sustaining momentum for change so that it will be carried for completion.

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

Kotter (1995), there are 8 steps for a successful organizational transformation as follows:

1- Establishing a sense of urgency:

Express the need for change among both managers and employees

Show the risks that might occur in case of not applying change

Start a good discussion about how to make change and what needs to be changed to get people participating and thinking

Refer to a change consultant

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

Forming a powerful guiding coalition

Form a group of 3 to 5 employees in small and midsize companies and 50 or more in large companies to be the leaders of the coalition

Make sure that all members trust each other and can work in a harmonized manner

Make sure that the chosen members are well respected and trusted among all other employees of the organization

Make sure to include people from different departments in this coalition

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

3- Creating a vision

That should include the key reasons for change

That should include how the future of your organization will be once the change is successfully implemented

That should include all steps for successful implementation and results

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

4- Communicating the vision

Talk to your people often about your vision to change

Use all possible means of communication you have to convey your vision

Make sure to address all the concerns and sources of anxiety of your people

Explain to your people that the change plan will tackle all aspects of operations

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

5. Empowering others to act on the vision

Give the change committee all the power they need

Support and empower all other employees to act on the vision

Recognize and reward people who make change happen

Identify people who are resisting the change and help them to be part of the change process

Take actions to quickly remove barriers

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

6- Planning for and creating short-term wins

Do not wait for years to celebrate the success of the change program

Start the change process with programs and targets that gain approval from most of your employees and that you see that they are easier to implement.

Recognize, award and celebrate the short term wins to make people feel that change is possible

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

7- Consolidating improvements and producing still more change

Do not ever declare victory until change has strongly become an embedded culture of your organization

After every change achievement, analyze what went right and what went wrong for continuous improvement

Set new goals to continue building on your achievements

Generate new ideas by adding new change agents to the change coalition

Chapter
10

What are the Main steps of successful change programs?

8- Reinforce the changes by demonstrating the relationship between new behaviors and organizational success:

Show people how the new approaches, attitudes and behaviors have helped improve performance

Talk to your people about the change progress every chance you have

Tell your people about the success stories that had taken place in other organizations

When hiring new people, make sure that they are open to change

Organize training that concentrate on the change values and principles

Publically recognize key members of your change coalition and make sure that all know their contribution in the change process

Create succession plans to replace key change leaders as they move to other places



مجموعة جامعة
الجميع الذكية
للتعليم القابضة

MIDOCEAN
UNIVERSITY



Thank You

