

Organizational Behavior



***CONTENT SUMMARY
AND GLOSSARY***

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CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION TO THE WORLD OF OB

1. **Define the term organizational behavior, and contrast McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y assumptions about employees.** Organizational behavior (OB) is an interdisciplinary field dedicated to better understanding and managing people at work. It is both research and application oriented. Theory X employees, according to traditional thinking, dislike work, require close supervision, and are primarily interested in security. According to the modern Theory Y view, employees are capable of self-direction, of seeking responsibility, and of being creative.
2. **Identify the four principles of total quality management (TQM).** (a) Do it right the first time to eliminate costly rework. (b) Listen to and learn from customers and employees. (c) Make continuous improvement an everyday matter. (d) Build teamwork, trust, and mutual respect.
3. **Define the term e-business, and specify at least three OB-related issues raised by e-leadership.** E-business involves using the Internet to more effectively and efficiently manage every aspect of a business. Six OB-related issues raised by the advent of e-leadership are (a) greater access to information for everyone, (b) leadership is migrating to lower levels and outside the organization, (c) development of nontraditional leadership networks, (d) followers have more information earlier in the decision-making process, (e) greater influence for unethical leaders with limited resources, and (f) more contact between senior leaders and their followers.
4. **Contrast human and social capital, and explain why we need to build both.** The first involves *individual* characteristics, the second involves *social* relationships. Human capital is the productive potential of an individual's knowledge and actions. Dimensions include such things as intelligence, visions, skills, self-esteem, creativity, motivation, ethics, and emotional maturity. Social capital is productive potential resulting from strong relationships, goodwill, trust, and cooperative effort. Dimensions include such things as shared visions and goals, trust, mutual respect, friendships, empowerment, teamwork, win-win negotiations, and volunteering. Social capital is necessary to tap individual human capital for the good of the organization through knowledge sharing and networking.
5. **Define the term management, and identify at least five of the eleven managerial skills in Wilson's profile of effective managers.** Management is the process of working with and through others to achieve organizational objectives in an efficient and ethical manner. According to the Wilson skills profile, an effective manager (a) clarifies goals and objectives, (b) encourages participation, (c) plans and organizes, (d) has technical and administrative expertise, (e) facilitates work through team building and coaching, (f) provides feedback, (g) keeps things moving, (h) controls details, (i) applies reasonable pressure for goals accomplishment, (j) empowers and delegates, and (k) recognizes and rewards good performance.
6. **Characterize 21st-century managers.** They will be team players who will get things done cooperatively by relying on joint decision making, their knowledge instead of formal authority, and their multicultural skills. They will engage in life-long learning and be compensated on the basis of their skills and results. They will facilitate rather than resist change, share rather than hoard power and key information, and be multidirectional communicators. Ethics will be a forethought instead of an afterthought. They will be generalists with multiple specialties.
7. **Describe Carroll's global corporate social responsibility pyramid, and give an overview of the model of individual ethical behavior.** From bottom to top, the four levels of corporate responsibility in Carroll's pyramid are: *economic* (make a profit); *legal* (obey the law); *ethical* (be ethical in its practices); and *philanthropic* (be a good corporate citizen). Progress needs to be made on all levels. An individual's ethical behavior is the product of interaction among the *individual* (personality, values, moral principles, history of reinforcement, and possibly gender), his or her *role expectations* as shaped by internal influences (e.g., ethical codes and organizational culture and strategy) and external influences (e.g., laws and national culture), and *neutralizing/enhancing factors* (e.g., age, length of service, military service, and diversity among the top management team).

8. **Identify four of the seven general ethical principles, and explain how to improve an organization's ethical climate.** The "magnificent seven" moral principles are (a) dignity of human life, (b) autonomy, (c) honesty, (d) loyalty, (e) fairness, (f) humaneness (by doing good and avoiding evil), and (g) the common good (accomplishing the greatest good for the greatest number of people). An organization's ethical climate can be improved by managers being good role models, carefully screening job applicants, creating and firmly enforcing a code of ethics mentioning specific practices, providing ethics training, rewarding ethical behavior, creating ethics-related positions and structures, and reducing the need for whistle-blowing (reporting unethical conduct to outside third parties) through open and honest debate.
9. **Describe the sources of organizational behavior research evidence.** Five sources of OB research evidence are meta-analyses (statistically pooled evidence from several studies), field studies (evidence from real-life situations), laboratory studies (evidence from contrived situations), sample surveys (questionnaire data), and case studies (observation of a single person, group, or organization).

CHAPTER 3 - ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, SOCIALIZATION AND MENTORING

1. **Define organizational culture and discuss its three layers.** Organizational culture represents the shared assumptions that a group holds. It influences employees' perceptions and behavior at work. The three layers of organizational culture include observable artifacts, espoused values, and basic assumptions. Artifacts are the physical manifestations of an organization's culture. Espoused values represent the explicitly stated values and norms that are preferred by an organization. Basic underlying assumptions are unobservable and represent the core of organizational culture.
2. **Discuss the difference between espoused and enacted values.** Espoused values represent the explicitly stated values and norms that are preferred by an organization. Enacted values, in contrast, reflect the values and norms that actually are exhibited or converted into employee behavior. Employees become cynical when management espouses one set of values and norms and then behaves in an inconsistent fashion.
3. **Describe the four functions of organizational culture.** Four functions of organizational culture are organizational identity, collective commitment, social system stability, and sense-making device.
4. **Discuss the four types of organizational culture associated with the competing values framework.** The competing values framework identifies four different types of organizational culture. A clan culture has an internal focus and values flexibility rather than stability and control. An adhocracy culture has an external focus and values flexibility. A market culture has a strong external focus and values stability and control. A hierarchy culture has an internal focus and values stability and control over flexibility.
5. **Summarize the three key conclusions derived from research about the outcomes associated with organizational culture.** Employees prefer to work in organizations that value flexibility and discretion over stability and control and those that are more concerned with satisfying employees' needs than customer or

shareholder desires. Second, the congruence between an individual's values and the organization's values is significantly associated with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit, and turnover. Third, there is not a clear pattern of relationships between organizational culture and outcomes such as service quality, customer satisfaction, and an organization's financial performance. These results in turn suggest that it is important for managers to effectively accommodate the potential conflict between cultures that have both an internal and external focus.

6. **Review the three caveats about culture change.** First, it is possible to change an organization's culture, and the process essentially begins with targeting one of the three layers of culture for change. Second, it is important to consider the extent to which the current culture is aligned with the organization's vision and strategic plans before attempting to change any aspect of organizational culture. Finally, it is important to use a structured approach when implementing culture change.
7. **Summarize the methods used by organizations to change organizational culture.** Changing culture amounts to teaching employees about the organization's preferred values, beliefs, expectations, and behaviors. This is accomplished by using one or more of the following 11 mechanisms: (a) formal statements of organizational philosophy, mission, vision, values, and materials used for recruiting, selection, and socialization; (b) the design of physical space, work environments, and buildings; (c) slogans, language, acronyms, and sayings; (d) deliberate role modeling, training programs, teaching, and coaching by managers and supervisors; (e) explicit rewards, status symbols, and promotion criteria; (f) stories, legends, and myths about key people and events; (g) the organizational activities, processes, or outcomes that leaders pay attention to, measure, and control; (h) leader reactions to critical incidents and organizational crises; (i) the workflow and organizational structure; (j) organizational systems and procedures; and (k) organizational goals and associated criteria used for recruitment, selection, development, promotion, layoffs, and retirement of people.
8. **Describe the three phases in Feldman's model of organizational socialization.** The three phases of Feldman's model are anticipatory socialization, encounter, and change and acquisition. Anticipatory socialization begins before an individual actually joins the organization. The encounter phase begins when the employment contract has been signed. Phase 3 involves the period in which employees master important tasks and resolve any role conflicts.
9. **Discuss the various socialization tactics used to socialize employees.** There are six key socialization tactics. They are collective versus individual, formal versus informal, sequential versus random, fixed versus variable, serial versus disjunctive, and investiture versus divestiture (see Table 3-1). Each tactic provides organizations with two opposing options for socializing employees.
10. **Explain the four developmental networks associated with mentoring.** The four developmental networks are based on integrating the diversity and strength of an individual's developmental relationships. The four resulting developmental networks are receptive, traditional, entrepreneurial, and opportunistic. A receptive network is composed of a few weak ties from one social system. Having a few strong ties with developers from one social system is referred to as a traditional network. An entrepreneurial network is made up of strong ties among several developers; and an opportunistic network is associated with having weak ties from different social systems.

CHAPTER 5 - SELF-CONCEPT, PERSONALITY, ABILITIES AND EMOTIONS

1. **Define self-esteem, and explain how it can be improved with Branden's six pillars of self-esteem.** Self-esteem is how people perceive themselves as physical, social, and spiritual beings. Branden's six pillars of self-esteem are live consciously, be self-accepting, take personal responsibility, be self-assertive, live purposefully, and have personal integrity.
2. **Define self-efficacy, and explain its sources.** Self-efficacy involves one's belief about his or her ability to accomplish specific tasks. Those extremely low in self-efficacy suffer from learned helplessness. Four sources of self-efficacy beliefs are prior experience, behavior models, persuasion from others, and assessment of one's physical and emotional states. High self-efficacy beliefs foster constructive and goal-oriented action, whereas low self-efficacy fosters passive, failure-prone activities and emotions.
3. **Contrast high and low self-monitoring individuals, and discuss the ethical implications of organizational identification.** A high self-monitor strives to make a good public impression by closely monitoring his or her behavior and adapting it to the situation. Very high self-monitoring can create a "chameleon" who is seen as insincere and dishonest. Low self-monitors do the opposite by acting out their momentary feelings, regardless of their surroundings. Very low self-monitoring can lead to a one-way communicator who seems to ignore verbal and nonverbal cues from others. People who supplant their own identity with that of their organization run the risk of blind obedience and groupthink because of a failure to engage in critical thinking and not being objective about what they are asked to do.
4. **Identify and describe the Big Five personality dimensions, and specify which one is correlated most strongly with job performance.** The Big Five personality dimensions are extraversion (social and talkative), agreeableness (trusting and cooperative), conscientiousness (responsible and persistent), emotional stability (relaxed and unworried), and openness to experience (intellectual and curious). Conscientiousness is the best predictor of job performance.
5. **Describe the proactive personality, and explain the need to balance an internal locus of control with humility.** Someone with a proactive personality shows initiative, takes action, and perseveres to bring about change. People with an internal locus of control, such as entrepreneurs, believe they are masters of their own fate. Humility helps "internals" factor the contributions of others and good fortune into their perceived success.
6. **Identify at least five of Gardner's eight multiple intelligences, and explain "practical intelligence."** Harvard's Howard Gardner broadens the traditional cognitive abilities model of intelligence to include social and physical abilities. His eight multiple intelligences include: linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist. Someone with practical intelligence, according to Sternberg, is good at solving everyday problems and learning from experience by adapting to the environment, reshaping their environment, and selecting new environments in which to work.
7. **Distinguish between positive and negative emotions, and explain how they can be judged.** Positive emotions—happiness/joy, pride, love/affection, and relief—are personal reactions to circumstances congruent with one's goals. Negative emotions—anger, fright/anxiety, guilt/shame, sadness, envy/jealousy, and disgust—are personal reactions to circumstances incongruent with one's goals. Both types of emotions need to be judged in terms of intensity and the appropriateness of the person's relevant goal.
8. **Identify the four key components of emotional intelligence, and discuss the practical significance of emotional contagion and emotional labor.** Goleman's

model says the four components are self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. People can, in fact, catch another person's good or bad moods and expressed emotions, much as they would catch a contagious disease. Managers and others in the workplace need to avoid spreading counterproductive emotions. People in service jobs who are asked to suppress their own negative emotions and display positive emotions, regardless of their true feelings at the time, pay a physical and mental price for their emotional labor. Managers who are not mindful of emotional labor may experience lower productivity, reduced job satisfaction, and possibly aggression and even violence.

CHAPTER 6 - VALUES, ATTITUDES AND JOB SATISFACTION

1. **Distinguish between terminal and instrumental values, and describe three types of value conflict.** A terminal value is an enduring belief about a desired end-state (e.g., happiness). An instrumental value is an enduring belief about how one should behave. Three types of value conflict are intrapersonal, interpersonal, and individual-organization.
2. **Describe the values model of work/family conflict, and specify at least three practical lessons from work/family conflict research.** General life values determine one's values about family and work. Work/family conflict can occur when there is a lack of value similarity with family members. Likewise, work/family conflict can occur when One's own work values are not congruent with the Company's values. When someone does not attain his or her values because of work/family conflicts, job or life satisfaction, or both, can suffer. Six practical lessons from work/family conflict research are (1) work/family balance begins at home, (2) an employer's family-supportive philosophy is more important than specific programs, (3) informal flexibility in work hours and in allowing people to work at home is essential to promoting work/family balance, (4) mentors can help, (5) take a proactive approach to managing work/family conflict, and (6) selfemployment has its rewards, but it is associated with higher work/family conflict and lower family satisfaction.
3. **Identify the three components of attitudes and discuss cognitive dissonance.** The three components of attitudes are affective, cognitive, and behavioral. The affective component represents the feelings or emotions one has about a given object or situation. The cognitive component reflects the beliefs or ideas one has about an object or situation. The behavioral component refers to how one intends or expects to act toward someone or something. Cognitive dissonance represents the psychological discomfort an individual experiences when his or her attitudes or beliefs are incompatible with his or her behavior. There are three main methods for reducing cognitive dissonance: change an attitude or behavior, belittle the importance of the inconsistent behavior, and find consonant elements that outweigh dissonant ones.
4. **Explain how attitudes affect behavior in terms of Ajzen's theory of planned behavior.** Intentions are the key link between attitudes and behavior in Ajzen's model. Three determinants of the strength of an intention are one's attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm (social expectations and role models), and the perceived degree of one's control over the behavior. Intentions, in turn, are powerful determinants of behavior.
5. **Describe the model of organizational commitment.** Organizational commitment reflects how strongly a person identifies with an organization and is committed to its goals. Organizational commitment is composed of three related components:

affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. In turn, each of these components is influenced by a separate set of antecedents: An antecedent is something that causes the component of commitment to occur.

6. **Define the work attitudes of job involvement and job satisfaction.** Job involvement is the extent to which a person is preoccupied with, immersed in, and concerned with their job. Job satisfaction reflects how much people like or dislike their jobs.
7. **Identify and briefly describe five alternative causes of job satisfaction.** They are need fulfillment (the degree to which one's own needs are met), discrepancies (satisfaction depends on the extent to which one's expectations are met), value attainment (satisfaction depends on the degree to which one's work values are fulfilled), equity (perceived fairness of input/outcomes determines one's level of satisfaction), and dispositional/genetic (job satisfaction is dictated by one's personal traits and genetic makeup).
8. **Identify eight important correlates/consequences of job satisfaction, and summarize how each one relates to job satisfaction.** Eight major correlates/consequences of job satisfaction are motivation (moderate positive relationship), job involvement (moderate positive), organizational citizenship behavior (moderate positive), absenteeism (weak negative), withdrawal cognitions (strong negative), turnover (moderate negative), perceived stress (strong negative), and job performance (moderate positive).

CHAPTER 7 - SOCIAL PERCEPTIONS AND ATTRIBUTIONS

1. **Describe perception in terms of the information-processing model.** Perception is a mental and cognitive process that enables us to interpret and understand our surroundings. Social perception, also known as social cognition and social information processing, is a four-stage process. The four stages are selective attention/comprehension, encoding and simplification, storage and retention, and retrieval and response. During social cognition, salient stimuli are matched with schemata, assigned to cognitive categories, and stored in long-term memory for events, semantic materials, or people.
2. **Identify and briefly explain seven managerial implications of social perception.** Social perception affects hiring decisions, performance appraisals, leadership perceptions, communication processes, workplace aggression and antisocial behavior, physical and psychological well-being, and the design of Web pages. Inaccurate schemata or racist and sexist schemata may be used to evaluate job applicants. Similarly, faulty schemata about what constitutes good versus poor performance can lead to inaccurate performance appraisals. Invalid schemata need to be identified and replaced with appropriate schemata through coaching and training. Further, managers are advised to use objective rather than subjective measures of performance. With respect to leadership, a leader will have a difficult time influencing employees when he or she exhibits behaviors contained in employees' schemata of poor leaders. Because people interpret oral and written communications by using schemata developed through past experiences, an individual's ability to influence others is affected by information contained in others' schemata regarding age, gender, ethnicity, appearance, speech, mannerisms, personality, and other personal characteristics. It is very important to treat employees fairly, as perceptions of unfairness are associated with aggressive and antisocial behavior. Try to let negative thoughts roll off yourself like water off a duck to avoid the physical and psychological effects of negative thoughts.
3. **Discuss stereotypes and the process of stereotype formation.** Stereotypes represent grossly oversimplified beliefs or expectations about groups of people.

Stereotyping is a four-step process that begins by categorizing people into groups according to various criteria. Next, we infer that all people within a particular group possess the same traits or characteristics. Then, we form expectations of others and interpret their behavior according to our stereotypes. Finally, stereotypes are maintained by (a) overestimating the frequency of stereotypic behaviors exhibited by others, (b) incorrectly explaining expected and unexpected behaviors, and (c) differentiating minority individuals from oneself. The use of stereotypes is influenced by the amount and type of information available to an individual and his or her motivation to accurately process information.

4. **Summarize the managerial challenges and recommendations of sex-role, age, racial and ethnic, and disability stereotypes.** The key managerial challenge is to reduce the extent to which stereotypes influence decision making and interpersonal processes throughout the organization. Training can be used to educate employees about the problem of stereotyping and to equip managers with the skills needed to handle situations associated with managing employees with disabilities. Because mixed-group contact reduces stereotyping, organizations should create opportunities for diverse employees to meet and work together in cooperative groups of equal status. Hiring decisions should be based on valid individual differences, and managers can be trained to use valid criteria when evaluating employee performance. Minimizing differences in job opportunities and experiences across groups of people can help alleviate promotional barriers. It is critical to obtain top management's commitment and support to eliminate stereotyping and discriminatory decisions.
5. **Describe and contrast the Pygmalion effect, Galatea effect, and the Golem effect.** The Pygmalion effect, also known as the self-fulfilling prophecy, describes how someone's high expectations for another person result in high performance for that person. The Galatea effect occurs when an individual's high self-expectations lead to high self-performance. The Golem effect is a loss of performance resulting from low leader expectations.
6. **Discuss how the self-fulfilling prophecy is created and how it can be used to improve individual and group productivity.** According to the self-fulfilling prophecy, high managerial expectations foster high employee self-expectations. These expectations in turn lead to greater effort and better performance and yet higher expectations.
7. **Explain, according to Kelley's model, how external and internal causal attributions are formulated.** Attribution theory attempts to describe how people infer causes for observed behavior. According to Kelley's model of causal attribution, external attributions tend to be made when consensus and distinctiveness are high and consistency is low. Internal (personal responsibility) attributions tend to be made when consensus and distinctiveness are low and consistency is high.
8. **Contrast the fundamental attribution bias and the self-serving bias.** Fundamental attribution bias involves emphasizing personal factors more than situational factors while formulating causal attributions for the behavior of others. Self-serving bias involves personalizing the causes of one's successes and externalizing the causes of one's failures.

CHAPTER 8 - FOUNDATIONS OF MOTIVATION

1. **Contrast Maslow's, Alderfer's, and McClelland's need theories.** Maslow proposed that motivation is a function of five basic needs arranged in a prepotent hierarchy. The concept of a stair-step hierarchy has not stood up well under research. Alderfer concluded that three core needs explain behavior—existence, relatedness, and growth. He proposed that more than one need can be activated at a time and frustration of higher-order needs can influence the desire for lower-level needs. McClelland argued that motivation and performance vary according to the strength of an individual's need for achievement. High achievers prefer tasks of moderate difficulty, situations under their control, and a desire for more performance feedback than low achievers. Top managers should have a high need for power coupled with a low need for affiliation.
2. **Explain the practical significance of Herzberg's distinction between motivators and hygiene factors.** Herzberg believes job satisfaction motivates better job performance. His hygiene factors, such as policies, supervision, and salary, erase sources of dissatisfaction. On the other hand, his motivators, such as achievement, responsibility, and recognition, foster job satisfaction. Although Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction has been criticized on methodological grounds, it has practical significance for job enrichment.
3. **Discuss the role of perceived inequity in employee motivation.** Equity theory is a model of motivation that explains how people strive for fairness and justice in social exchanges. On the job, feelings of inequity revolve around a person's evaluation of whether he or she receives adequate rewards to compensate for his or her contributive inputs. People perform these evaluations by comparing the perceived fairness of their employment exchange with that of relevant others. Perceived inequity creates motivation to restore equity.
4. **Explain the differences among distributive, procedural, and interactional justice.** Distributive, procedural, and interactional justice are the three key components underlying organizational justice. Distributive justice reflects the perceived fairness of how resources and rewards are distributed. Procedural justice represents the perceived fairness of the process and procedures used to make allocation decisions. Interactional justice entails the perceived fairness of a decision maker's behavior in the process of decision making.
5. **Describe the practical lessons derived from equity theory.** Equity theory has at least nine practical implications. First, because people are motivated to resolve perceptions of inequity, managers should not discount employees' feelings and perceptions when trying to motivate workers. Second, managers should pay attention to employees' perceptions of what is fair and equitable. It is the employee's view of reality that counts when trying to motivate someone, according to equity theory. Third, employees should be given a voice in decisions that affect them. Fourth, employees should be given the opportunity to appeal decisions that affect their welfare. Fifth, employees are more likely to accept and support organizational change when they believe it is implemented fairly and when it produces equitable outcomes. Sixth, managers can promote cooperation and teamwork among group members by treating them equitably. Seventh, treating employees inequitably can lead to litigation and costly court settlements. Eighth, perceptions of justice are influenced by the leadership behavior exhibited by managers. Finally, managers need to pay attention to the organization's climate for justice because it influences employee attitudes and behavior.
6. **Explain Vroom's expectancy theory, and review its practical implications.** Expectancy theory assumes motivation is determined by one's perceived chances of achieving valued outcomes. Vroom's expectancy model of motivation reveals how effort→performance expectancies and performance→outcome instrumentalities influence the degree of effort expended to achieve desired (positively valent) outcomes. Managers are advised to enhance effort→performance expectancies by helping employees accomplish their performance goals. With respect to instrumentalities and valences, managers should attempt to link employee performance and valued rewards.
7. **Explain how goal setting motivates an individual, and review the four practical lessons from goal-setting research.** Four motivational mechanisms of goal setting are as follows: (1) Goals direct one's attention, (2) goals regulate effort, (3) goals increase

one's persistence, and (4) goals encourage development of goal-attainment strategies and action plans. Research identifies four practical lessons about goal setting. First, specific high goals lead to greater performance. Second, feedback enhances the effect of specific, difficult goals. Third, participative goals, assigned goals, and self-set goals are equally effective. Fourth, goal commitment and monetary incentives affect goal-setting outcomes.

8. **Review the mechanistic, motivational, biological, and perceptual-motor approaches to job design.** The mechanistic approach is based on industrial engineering and scientific management and focuses on increasing efficiency, flexibility, and employee productivity. Motivational approaches aim to improve employees' affective and attitudinal reactions and behavioral outcomes. Job enlargement, job enrichment, job-rotation, and a contingency approach called the job characteristics model are motivational approaches to job design. The biological approach focuses on designing the work environment to reduce employees' physical strain, fatigue, and health complaints. The perceptual-motor approach emphasizes the reliability of work outcomes.
9. **Specify issues that should be addressed before implementing a motivational program.** Managers need to consider the variety of causes of poor performance. Motivation is only one of several factors that influence performance. Managers should not ignore the many individual differences that affect motivation. The goal-setting process should be consistent with the four practical lessons derived from goal-setting research. The method used to evaluate performance as well as the link between performance and rewards must be examined. Performance must be accurately evaluated, and rewards should be equitably distributed. Rewards should also be directly tied to performance. Finally, managers should recognize that employee motivation and behavior are influenced by organizational culture.

CHAPTER 9 - IMPROVING JOB PERFORMANCE WITH GOALS, FEEDBACK, REWARDS AND POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT

1. **Define the term performance management, distinguish between learning goals and performance outcome goals, and explain the three-step goal-setting process.** Performance management is a continuous cycle of improving individual job performance with goal setting, feedback and coaching, and rewards and positive reinforcement. Learning goals encourage learning, creativity, and skill development. Performance outcome goals target specified end-results. The three-step goal-setting process includes (1) set goals that are SMART—specific, measurable, attainable, results oriented, and time bound; (2) promote goal commitment with clear explanations, participation, and supportiveness; (3) provide support and feedback by providing information, needed training, and knowledge of results.
2. **Identify the two basic functions of feedback, and specify at least three practical lessons from feedback research.** Feedback, in the form of objective information about performance, both instructs and motivates. Feedback is not automatically accepted as intended, especially negative feedback. Managerial credibility can be enhanced through expertise and a climate of trust. Feedback must not be too frequent or too scarce and must be tailored to the individual. Feedback directly from computers is effective. Active participation in the feedback session helps people perceive feedback as more accurate. The quality of feedback received decreases as one moves up the organizational hierarchy.
3. **Define 360-degree feedback, and summarize how to give good feedback in a performance management program.** A focal person receives anonymous 360-degree feedback from subordinates, the manager, peers, and selected others such as

customers or suppliers. Good feedback is tied to performance goals and clear expectations, linked with specific behavior or results, reserved for key result areas, given as soon as possible, provided for improvement as well as for final results, focused on performance rather than on personalities, and based on accurate and credible information.

4. ***Distinguish between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, and explain the four building blocks of intrinsic rewards and motivation.*** Extrinsic rewards—including pay, material goods, and social recognition—are granted by others. Intrinsic rewards are psychic rewards, such as a sense of competence or a feeling of accomplishment, that are self-granted and experienced internally. According to Thomas's model, the four basic intrinsic rewards are meaningfulness, choice, competence, and progress. Managers can boost intrinsic motivation by letting employees work on important whole tasks (meaningfulness), delegating and trusting (choice), providing challenge and feedback (competence), and collaboratively celebrating improvement (progress).
5. ***Summarize the reasons why extrinsic rewards often fail to motivate employees.*** Extrinsic reward systems can fail to motivate employees for these reasons: overemphasis on money, no appreciation effect, benefits become entitlements, wrong behavior is rewarded, rewards are delayed too long, use of one-size-fits-all rewards, one-shot rewards with temporary impact, and demotivating practices such as layoffs.
6. ***Discuss how managers can generally improve extrinsic reward and pay-for-performance plans.*** They need to be strategically anchored, based on quantified performance data, highly participative, actively sold to supervisors and middle managers, and teamwork oriented. Annual bonuses of significant size are helpful.
7. ***State Thorndike's law of effect, and explain Skinner's distinction between respondent and operant behavior.*** According to Edward L Thorndike's law of effect, behavior with favorable consequences tends to be repeated, while behavior with unfavorable consequences tends to disappear. B F Skinner called unlearned stimulus-response reflexes respondent behavior. He applied the term operant behavior to all behavior learned through experience with environmental consequences.
8. ***Define positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment, and extinction, and distinguish between continuous and intermittent schedules of reinforcement.*** Positive and negative reinforcement are consequence management strategies that strengthen behavior, whereas punishment and extinction weaken behavior. These strategies need to be defined objectively in terms of their actual impact on behavior frequency, not subjectively on the basis of intended impact.
Every instance of a behavior is reinforced with a continuous reinforcement (CRF) schedule. Under intermittent reinforcement schedules—fixed and variable ratio or fixed and variable interval—some, rather than all, instances of a target behavior are reinforced. Variable schedules produce the most extinction-resistant behavior.
9. ***Demonstrate your knowledge of behavior shaping.*** Behavior shaping occurs when closer and closer approximations of a target behavior are reinforced. In effect, the standard for reinforcement is made more difficult as the individual learns. The process begins with continuous reinforcement, which gives way to intermittent reinforcement when the target behavior becomes strong and habitual.

CHAPTER 10 - GROUPS AND TEAMS

1. **Identify the four sociological criteria of a group, and explain the role of equity in the Workplace Social Exchange Network (WSEN) model.** Sociologically, a *group* is defined as two or more freely interacting individuals who share collective norms and goals and have a common identity. The WSEN model identifies three levels of social exchange: employee– organization, employee– supervisor, and employee–team. Individuals judge each type of social exchange in terms of perceived equity or fairness. The greater the perceived fairness, the more loyal, motivated, and hard-working the individual will be. Lack of perceived fairness is demotivating.
2. **Describe the five stages in Tuckman's theory of group development, and discuss the threat of group decay.** The five stages in Tuckman's theory are forming (the group comes together), storming (members test the limits and each other), norming (questions about authority and power are resolved as the group becomes more cohesive), performing (effective communication and cooperation help the group get things done), and adjourning (group members go their own way). According to recent research, group decay occurs when a work group achieves the "performing" stage and then shifts into reverse. Group decay occurs through de-norming (erosion of standards), destorming (growing discontent and loss of cohesiveness), and de-forming (fragmentation and breakup of the group).
3. **Distinguish between role conflict and role ambiguity.** Organizational roles are sets of behaviors persons expect of occupants of a position. One may experience role overload (too much to do in too little time), role conflict (conflicting role expectations), or role ambiguity (unclear role expectations).
4. **Contrast roles and norms, and specify four reasons norms are enforced in organizations.** While roles are specific to the person's position, norms are shared attitudes that differentiate appropriate from inappropriate behavior in a variety of situations. Norms evolve informally and are enforced because they help the group or organization survive, clarify behavioral expectations, help people avoid embarrassing situations, and clarify the group's or organization's central values.
5. **Distinguish between task and maintenance roles in groups.** Members of formal groups need to perform both task (goal-oriented) and maintenance (relationship-oriented) roles if anything is to be accomplished.
6. **Summarize the practical contingency management implications for group size.** Laboratory simulation studies suggest decision-making groups should be limited to five or fewer members. Larger groups are appropriate when creativity, participation, or socialization are the main objectives. If majority votes are to be taken, odd-numbered groups are recommended to avoid deadlocks.
7. **Discuss why managers need to carefully handle mixed-gender task groups.** Women face special group dynamics challenges in mixed-gender task groups. Steps need to be taken to make sure increased sexualization of work environments does not erode into illegal sexual harassment.
8. **Describe groupthink, and identify at least four of its symptoms.** Group think plagues cohesive in-groups that shortchange moral judgment while putting too much emphasis on unanimity. Symptoms of groupthink include invulnerability, inherent morality, rationalization, stereotyped views of opposition, self-censorship, illusion of unanimity, peer pressure, and mindguards. Critical evaluators, outside expertise, and devil's advocates are among the preventive measures recommended by Irving Janis, who coined the term *groupthink*.
9. **Define social loafing, and explain how managers can prevent it.** Social loafing involves the tendency for individual effort to decrease as group size increases. This problem can be contained if the task is challenging and important, individuals are held accountable for results, and group members expect everyone to work hard. The stepladder technique, a structured approach to group decision making, can reduce social loafing by increasing personal effort and accountability.

CHAPTER 15 - INFLUENCE, POWER AND POLITICS

1. **Explain the concept of mutuality of interest.** Managers are constantly challenged to foster mutuality of interest (a win-win situation) between individual and organizational interests. Organization members need to actively cooperate with actual and potential adversaries for the common good.
2. **Name at least three "soft" and two "hard" influence tactics, and summarize the practical lessons from influence research.** Five soft influence tactics are rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, ingratiation, and personal appeals. They are more friendly and less coercive than the four hard influence tactics: exchange, coalition tactics, pressure, and legitimating tactics. According to research, soft tactics are better for generating commitment and are perceived as more fair than hard tactics. Ingratiation—making the boss feel good through compliments and being helpful—can slightly improve performance appraisal results and make the boss like you a lot more. Influence through domination is a poor strategy for both men and women. Influence is a complicated and situational process that needs to be undertaken with care, especially across cultures.
3. **Identify and briefly describe French and Raven's five bases of power, and discuss the responsible use of power.** French and Raven's five bases of power are reward power (rewarding compliance), coercive power (punishing noncompliance), legitimate power (relying on formal authority), expert power (providing needed information), and referent power (relying on personal attraction). Responsible and ethical managers strive to use socialized power (primary concern is for others) rather than personalized power (primary concern for self). Research found higher organizational commitment among employees with bosses who used uplifting power than among those with power-hungry bosses who relied on dominating power.
4. **Define the term empowerment, and explain why it is a matter of degree.** Empowerment involves sharing varying degrees of power and decision-making authority with lower-level employees to tap their full potential. Empowerment is not an either-or, all-or-nothing proposition. It can range from merely consulting with employees, to having them actively participate in making decisions, to granting them decision making authority through delegation
5. **Explain why delegation is the highest form of empowerment, and discuss the connections among delegation, trust, and personal initiative.** Delegation gives employees more than a participatory role in decision making. It allows them to make their own work-related decisions. Managers tend to delegate to employees they trust. Employees can get managers to trust them by demonstrating personal initiative (going beyond formal job requirements and being self-starters).
6. **Define organizational politics, and explain what triggers it.** Organizational politics is defined as intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self-interests of individuals or groups. Uncertainty triggers most politicking in organizations. Political action occurs at individual, coalition, and network levels. Coalitions are informal, temporary, and single-issue alliances.
7. **Distinguish between favorable and unfavorable impression management tactics.** Favorable upward impression management can be job-focused (manipulating information about one's job performance), supervisor-focused (praising or doing favors for the boss), or self-focused (being polite and nice). Unfavorable upward impression management tactics include decreasing performance, not working to potential, withdrawing, displaying a bad attitude, and broadcasting one's limitations.
8. **Explain how to manage organizational politics.** Since organizational politics cannot be eliminated, managers need to keep it within reasonable bounds. Measurable objectives for personal accountability are key. Participative management also helps, especially in the form of open-book management. Formal conflict resolution and grievance programs are helpful. Overly political people should not be hired, and employees who get results without playing political games should be publicly recognized and rewarded. The "how-would-it-look-on-TV" ethics test can limit political maneuvering.

CHAPTER 16 - LEADERSHIP

1. **Define the term leadership, and explain the difference between leading and managing.** Leadership is defined as a process in which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Although leadership and management overlap, each entails a unique set of activities or functions. Managers typically perform functions associated with planning, investigating, organizing, and control, and leaders deal with the interpersonal aspects of a manager's job. Table 16-2 summarizes the differences between leading and managing. All told, organizational success requires a combination of effective leadership and management.
2. **Review trait theory research and the takeaways from this theoretical perspective.** Historical leadership research did not support the notion that effective leaders possessed unique traits from followers. More recent research showed that effective leaders possessed the following traits: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, honesty/ integrity, sociability, extraversion, conscientiousness and problem-solving skills. In contrast, bad leaders displayed the following characteristics: incompetence, rigid, intemperate, callous, corrupt, insular, and evil. Research also demonstrated that men and women exhibited different styles of leadership. The takeaways from trait theory are that (a) we can no longer ignore the implications of leadership traits; traits influence leadership effectiveness; (b) organizations may want to include personality and trait assessments into their selection and promotion processes; and (c) management development programs can be used to enhance employees' leadership traits.
3. **Explain behavioral styles theory and its takeaways.** The thrust of behavioral styles theory is to identify the leader behaviors that directly affect work-group effectiveness. Researchers at Ohio State uncovered two key leadership behaviors: consideration and initiating structure. These behaviors are similar to the employee-centered and job-centered behaviors uncovered by researchers at the University of Michigan. The takeaways from this theoretical perspective are as follows: (a) leaders are made, not born; (b) there is no one best style of leadership; (c) the effectiveness of a particular style depends on the situation at hand; and (d) managers are encouraged to concentrate on improving the effective execution of their leader behaviors.
4. **Explain, according to Fiedler's contingency model, how leadership style interacts with situational control, and discuss the takeaways from this model.** Fiedler believes leader effectiveness depends on an appropriate match between leadership style and situational control. Leaders are either task motivated or relationship motivated. Situation control is composed of leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. Task-motivated leaders are effective under situations of both high and low control. Relationship-motivated leaders are more effective when they have moderate situational control. The three takeaways are: (a) leadership effectiveness goes beyond traits and behaviors, (b) leaders are unlikely to be successful in all situations, and (c) leaders need to modify their style to fit a situation.
5. **Discuss House's revised path-goal theory and its practical takeaways.** There are three key changes in the revised path-goal theory. Leaders now are viewed as exhibiting eight categories of leader behavior (see Table 16-5) instead of four. In turn, the effectiveness of these styles depends on various employee characteristics and environmental factors. Second, leaders are expected to spend more effort fostering intrinsic motivation through empowerment. Third, leadership is not limited to people in managerial roles. Rather, leadership is shared among all employees within an organization. There are three takeaways: (a) effective leaders possess and use more than one style of leadership, (b) the theory offers specific suggestions for how leaders can help employees, and (c) managers are advised to modify their leadership style to fit relevant contingency factors.
6. **Describe the difference between laissez-fair, transactional, and transformational leadership.** Laissez-faire leadership is the absence of leadership. It represents a general failure to take responsibility for leading. Transactional leadership focuses on clarifying employees' role and task requirements and providing

followers with positive and negative rewards contingent on performance. Transformational leaders motivate employees to pursue organizational goals above their own self-interests. Transactional and transformational leadership are both important for organizational success.

7. **Discuss how transformational leadership transforms followers and work groups.** Individual characteristics and organizational culture are key precursors of transformational leadership, which is comprised of four sets of leader behavior. These leader behaviors in turn positively affect followers' and work-group goals, values, beliefs, aspirations, and motivation. These positive effects are then associated with a host of preferred outcomes.
8. **Explain the leader-member exchange model of leadership and the concept of shared leadership.** The LMX model revolves around the development of dyadic relationships between managers and their direct reports. These leader-member exchanges qualify as either in-group or out-group relationships. Research supports this model of leadership. Shared leadership involves a simultaneous, ongoing, mutual influence process in which individuals share responsibility for leading regardless of formal roles and titles. This type of leadership is most likely to be needed when people work in teams, when people are involved in complex projects, and when people are doing knowledge work. Shared leadership also is beneficial when people are working on tasks or projects that require interdependence and creativity.
9. **Review the Level 5 model of leadership and the principles of servant-leadership.** Level 5 leadership represents a hierarchy of leadership capabilities that are needed to lead companies in transforming from good to great. Servant-leadership is more a philosophy than a testable theory. It is based on the premise that great leaders act as servants, putting the needs of others, including employees, customers, and community, as their first priority.
10. **Describe the follower's role in the leadership process.** Followers can use a four-step process for managing the leader-follower relationship. Followers need to understand their boss and themselves. They then conduct a gap analysis between the understanding they have about their boss and themselves. The final step requires followers to build on mutual strengths and to adjust or accommodate the leader's divergent style, goals, expectations, and weaknesses.

CHAPTER 11 - CREATING EFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONS

1. **Describe the four characteristics common to all organizations, and explain the difference between closed and open systems.** They are coordination of effort (achieved through policies and rules), a common goal (a collective purpose), division of labor (people performing separate but related tasks), and a hierarchy of authority (the chain of command). Closed systems, such as a battery-powered clock, are relatively self-sufficient. Open systems, such as the human body, are highly dependent on the environment for survival. Organizations are said to be open systems.
2. **Define the term learning organization.** A learning organization is one that proactively creates, acquires, and transfers knowledge and changes its behavior on the basis of new knowledge and insights.
3. **Describe horizontal, hourglass, and virtual organizations.** Horizontal organizations are flat structures built around core processes aimed at identifying and satisfying customer needs. Cross-functional teams and empowerment are central to horizontal organizations. Hourglass organizations have a small executive level; a short and narrow middle-management level (because information technology links the top and bottom levels), and a broad base of operating personnel. Virtual organizations typically are families of interdependent companies. They are contractual and fluid in nature.

4. **Describe the four generic organizational effectiveness criteria, and discuss how managers can prevent organizational decline.** They are goal accomplishment (satisfying stated objectives), resource acquisition (gathering the necessary productive inputs), internal processes (building and maintaining healthy organizational systems), and strategic constituencies satisfaction (achieving at least minimal satisfaction for all key stakeholders). Because complacency is the leading cause of organizational decline, managers need to create a culture of continuous improvement. Decline automatically follows periods of great success preventive steps are not taken to avoid the erosion of organizational resources (money, customers, talent, and innovative ideas).
5. **Explain what the contingency approach to organization design involves.** The contingency approach to organization design calls for fitting the organization to the demands of the situation. Environmental uncertainty can be assessed in terms of social, political, economic, technological, resource, and demand factors.
6. **Describe the relationship between differentiation and integration in effective organizations.** Harvard researchers Lawrence and Lorsch found that successful organizations achieved a proper balance between the two opposing structural forces of differentiation and integration. Differentiation forces the organization apart. Through a variety of mechanisms—including hierarchy, rules, teams, and liaisons—integration draws the organization together.
7. **Discuss Burns and Stalker's findings regarding mechanistic and organic organizations.** British researchers Burns and Stalker found that mechanistic (bureaucratic, centralized) organizations tended to be effective in stable situations. In unstable situations, organic (flexible, decentralized) organizations were more effective. These findings underscored the need for a contingency approach to organization design.
8. **Define and briefly explain the practical significance of centralization and decentralization.** Because key decisions are made at the top of centralized organizations, they tend to be tightly controlled. In decentralized organizations, employees at lower levels are empowered to make important decisions. Contingency design calls for a proper balance.
9. **Discuss the effective management of organizational size.** Regarding the optimum size for organizations, the challenge for today's managers is to achieve smallness within bigness by keeping subunits at a manageable size.

GLOSSARY

ability	Stable characteristic responsible for a person's maximum physical or mental performance.
adhocracy culture	A culture that has an external focus and values flexibility.
affective component	The feelings or emotions one has about an object or situation.
affirmative action	Focuses on achieving equality of opportunity in an organization.
alternative dispute resolution	Avoiding costly lawsuits by resolving conflicts informally or through mediation or arbitration.
Americans with Disabilities Act	Prohibits discrimination against the disabled.
anticipatory socialization	Occurs before an individual joins an organization, and involves the information people learn about different careers, occupations, professions, and organizations.
Asch effect	Giving in to a unanimous but wrong opposition.
attention	Being consciously aware of something or someone.
attitude	Learned predisposition toward a given object.
benchmarking	Process by which a company compares its performance with that of high-performing organizations.
blog	Online journal in which people comment on any topic.
bounded rationality	Constraints that restrict rational decision making.
brainstorming	Process to generate a quantity of ideas.
care perspective	Involves compassion and an ideal of attention and response to need.
career plateauing	The end result when the probability of being promoted is very small.
case study	In-depth study of a single person, group, or organization.
causal attributions	Suspected or inferred causes of behavior.
centralized decision making	Top managers make all key decisions.
change and acquisition	Requires employees to master tasks and roles and to adjust to work group values and norms.
clan culture	A culture that has an internal focus and values flexibility rather than stability and control.
closed system	A relatively self sufficient entity.
coalition	Temporary groupings of people who actively pursue a single issue.
coercive power	Obtaining compliance through threatened or actual punishment.
cognitions	A person's knowledge, opinions, or beliefs.
cognitive categories	Mental depositories for storing information.
cognitive dissonance	Psychological discomfort experienced when attitudes and behavior are inconsistent.

cohesiveness	A sense of "we-ness" helps group stick together.
collectivist culture	Personal goals less important than community goals and interests.
commitment to change	A mind-set of doing whatever it takes to effectively implement change.
communication	Interpersonal exchange of information and understanding.
communication competence	Ability to effectively use communication behaviors in a given context.
competing values framework	A framework for categorizing organizational culture.
conflict	One party perceives its interests are being opposed or set back by another party.
conflict triangle	Conflicting parties involve a third person rather than dealing directly with each other.
consensus	Presenting opinions and gaining agreement to support a decision.
consideration	Creating mutual respect and trust with followers.
content theories of motivation	Identify internal factors influencing motivation.
contingency approach	Using management tools and techniques in a situationally appropriate manner; avoiding the one-best-way mentality.
contingency approach to organization design	Creating an effective organization-environment fit.
contingency factors	Variables that influence the appropriateness of a leadership style.
continuous reinforcement	Reinforcing every instance of a behavior.
control strategy	Coping strategy that directly confronts or solves problems.
core job dimensions	Job characteristics found to various degrees in all jobs.
corporate social responsibility	The idea that corporations are expected to go above and beyond following the law and making a profit.
creativity	Process of developing something new or unique.
cross-cultural management	Understanding and teaching behavioral patterns in different cultures.
cross-cultural training	Structured experiences to help people adjust to a new culture/country.
cross-functionalism	Team made up of technical specialists from different areas.
cultural intelligence	The ability to interpret ambiguous cross-cultural situations accurately.
culture	Beliefs and values about how a community of people should and do act.
culture shock	Anxiety and doubt caused by an overload of new expectations and cues.
day of contemplation	A onetime-only day off with pay to allow a problem employee to recommit to the organization's values and mission.

decentralized decision making	Lower-level managers are empowered to make important decisions.
decision making	Identifying and choosing solutions that lead to a desired end result.
decision-making style	A combination of how individuals perceive and respond to information.
decision tree	Graphical representation of the process underlying decision making.
delegation	Granting decision-making authority to people at lower levels.
Delphi technique	Process to generate ideas from physically dispersed experts.
developmental relationship strength	The quality of relationships among people in a network.
devil's advocacy	Assigning someone the role of critic.
dialectic method	Fostering a debate of opposing viewpoints to better understand an issue.
differentiation	Division of labor and specialization that causes people to think and act differently.
discrimination	Occurs when employment decisions are based on factors that are not job related.
distributive justice	The perceived fairness of how resources and rewards are distributed.
diversity	The host of individual differences that make people different from and similar to each other.
diversity of developmental relationships	The variety of people in a network used for developmental assistance.
dysfunctional conflict	Threatens organization's interests.
e-business	Running the <i>entire</i> business via the Internet.
electronic mail	Uses the Internet/intranet to send computer-generated text and documents.
emotional intelligence	Ability to manage oneself and interact with others in mature and constructive ways.
emotions	Complex human reactions to personal achievements and setbacks that may be felt and displayed.
employee assistance programs	Help employees to resolve personal problems that affect their productivity.
empowerment	Sharing varying degrees of power with lower-level employees to tap their full potential.
enacted values	The values and norms that are exhibited by employees.
encounter phase	Employees learn what the organization is really like and reconcile unmet expectations.
equity sensitivity	An individual's tolerance for negative and positive equity.
equity theory	Holds that motivation is a function of fairness in social exchanges.
ERG theory	Three basic needs—existence, relatedness, and growth—

	influence behavior.
escape strategy	Coping strategy that avoids or ignores stressors and problems.
espoused values	The stated values and norms that are preferred by an organization.
ethics	Study of moral issues and choices.
ethnocentrism	Belief that one's native country, culture, language, and behavior are superior.
eustress	Stress that is good or produces a positive outcome.
expatriate	Anyone living or working in a foreign country.
expectancy	Belief that effort leads to a specific level of performance.
expectancy theory	Holds that people are motivated to behave in ways that produce valued outcomes.
expert power	Obtaining compliance through one's knowledge or information.
explicit knowledge	Information that can be easily put into words and shared with others.
external factors	Environmental characteristics that cause behavior.
external forces for change	Originate outside the organization.
external locus of control	Attributing outcomes to circumstances beyond one's control.
extinction	Making behavior occur less often by ignoring or not reinforcing it.
extranet	Connects internal employees with selected customers, suppliers, and strategic partners.
extrinsic motivation	Motivation caused by the desire to attain specific outcomes.
extrinsic rewards	Financial, material, or social rewards from the environment.
feedback	Objective information about performance.
field study	Examination of variables in real-life settings.
fight-or-flight response	To either confront stressors or try to avoid them.
formal communication channels	Follow the chain of command or organizational structure.
formal group	Formed by the organization.
functional conflict	Serves organization's interests.
fundamental attribution bias	Ignoring environmental factors that affect behavior.
Galatea effect	An individual's high self-expectations lead to high performance.
garbage can model	Holds that decision making is sloppy and haphazard.
genderflex	Temporarily using communication behaviors typical of the other gender.
glass ceiling	Invisible barrier blocking women and minorities from top management positions.

goal	What an individual is trying to accomplish.
goal commitment	Amount of commitment to achieving a goal.
goal specificity	Quantifiability of a goal.
Golem effect	Loss in performance due to low leader expectations.
grapevine	Unofficial communication system of the informal organization.
group	Two or more freely interacting people with shared norms and goals and a common identity.
group cohesiveness	A "we feeling" binding group members together.
group support systems	Using computer software and hardware to help people work better together.
groupthink	Janis's term for a cohesive in-group's unwillingness to realistically view alternatives.
hardiness	Personality characteristic that neutralizes stress.
hierarchy culture	A culture that has an internal focus and values stability and control over flexibility.
high-context cultures	Primary meaning derived from nonverbal situational cues.
holistic wellness approach	Advocates personal responsibility for healthy living.
human capital	The productive potential of one's knowledge and actions.
humility	Considering the contributions of others and good fortune when gauging one's success.
hygiene factors	Job characteristics associated with job dissatisfaction.
implicit cognition	Represents any thoughts or beliefs that are automatically activated from memory without our conscious awareness.
impostor syndrome	Failing to take any credit for one's success and feeling like a fake.
impression management	Getting others to see us in a certain manner.
individualistic culture	Primary emphasis on personal freedom and choice.
informal communication channels	Do not follow chain of command or organizational structure.
informal group	Formed by friends or those with common interests.
information/decision-making theory	Diversity leads to better task-relevant processes and decision making.
information richness	Information-carrying capacity of data.
in-group exchange	A partnership characterized by mutual trust, respect, and liking.
initiating structure	Organizing and defining what group members should be doing.
instrumental cohesiveness	Sense of togetherness based on mutual dependency needed to get the job done.
instrumental values	Personally preferred ways of behaving.
instrumentality	A performance → outcome perception.

integration	Cooperation among specialists to achieve a common goal.
intelligence	Capacity for constructive thinking, reasoning, problem solving.
interactional justice	Extent to which people feel fairly treated when procedures are implemented.
intermittent reinforcement	Reinforcing some but not all instances of behavior.
internal factors	Personal characteristics that cause behavior.
internal forces for change	Originate inside the organization.
internal locus of control	Attributing outcomes to one's own actions.
Internet	A global system of computer networks.
intranet	An organization's private Internet.
intrinsic motivation	Motivation caused by positive internal feelings.
intrinsic rewards	Self-granted, psychic rewards.
intuition	Making a choice without the use of conscious thought or logical inference.
jargon	Language or terminology that is specific to a particular profession, group, or company.
job design	Changing the content or process of a specific job to increase job satisfaction and performance.
job enlargement	Putting more variety into a job.
job enrichment	Building achievement, recognition, stimulating work, responsibility, and advancement into a job.
job involvement	Extent to which an individual is immersed in his or her present job.
job rotation	Moving employees from one specialized job to another.
job satisfaction	An affective or emotional response to one's job.
judgmental heuristics	Rules of thumb or shortcuts that people use to reduce information-processing demands.
justice perspective	Based on the ideal of reciprocal rights and driven by rules and regulations.
knowledge management	Implementing systems and practices that increase the sharing of knowledge and information throughout an organization.
laboratory study	Manipulation and measurement of variables in contrived situations.
law of effect	Behavior with favorable consequences is repeated; behavior with unfavorable consequences disappears.
leader-member relations	Extent that leader has the support, loyalty, and trust of work group.
leader trait	Personal characteristics that differentiate leaders from followers.
leadership	Process whereby an individual influences others to achieve a common goal.

leadership prototype	Mental representation of the traits and behaviors possessed by leaders.
learning goal	Encourages learning, creativity, and skill development.
learning organization	Proactively creates, acquires, and transfers knowledge throughout the organization.
legitimate power	Obtaining compliance through formal authority.
liaison individuals	Those who consistently pass along grapevine information to others.
line managers	Have authority to make organizational decisions.
line of sight	employees know the company's strategic goals and how they need to contribute.
linguistic style	A person's typical speaking pattern.
listening	Actively decoding and interpreting verbal messages.
low-context cultures	Primary meaning derived from written and spoken words.
maintenance roles	Relationship-building group behavior.
management	Process of working with and through others to achieve organizational objectives efficiently and ethically.
management by objectives	Management system incorporating participation in decision making, goal setting, and feedback.
management by walking around	Managers actually walk around and talk to people across lines of authority.
managing diversity	Creating organizational changes that enable all people to perform up to their maximum potential.
market culture	A culture that has a strong external focus and values stability and control.
mechanistic organizations	Rigid, command-and-control bureaucracies.
mentoring	Process of forming and maintaining developmental relationships between a mentor and a junior person.
met expectations	The extent to which one receives what he or she expects from a job.
meta-analysis	Pools the results of many studies through statistical procedure.
mission statement	Summarizes "why" an organization exists.
monochronic time	Preference for doing one thing at a time because time is limited, precisely segmented, and schedule driven.
motivation	Psychological processes that arouse and direct goal-directed behavior.
motivators	Job characteristics associated with job satisfaction.
mutuality of interest	Balancing individual and organizational interests through win-win cooperation.
need for achievement	Desire to accomplish something difficult.
need for affiliation	Desire to spend time in social relationships and activities.
need for power	Desire to influence, coach, teach, or encourage others to

achieve.

need hierarchy theory	Five basic needs—physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization—influence behavior.
needs	Physiological or psychological deficiencies that arouse behavior.
negative inequity	Comparison in which another person receives greater outcomes for similar inputs.
negative reinforcement	Making behavior occur more often by contingently withdrawing something negative.
negotiation	Give-and-take process between conflicting interdependent parties.
noise	Interference with the transmission and understanding of a message.
nominal group technique	Process to generate ideas and evaluate solutions.
nonrational model	Explains how decisions actually are made.
nonverbal communication	Messages sent outside of the written or spoken word.
norm	Shared attitudes, opinions, feelings, or actions that guide social behavior.
onboarding	Programs aimed at helping employees integrate, assimilate, and transition to new jobs.
open system	Organism that must constantly interact with its environment to survive.
operant behavior	Skinner's term for learned, consequence-shaped behavior.
optimizing	Choosing the best possible solution.
organic organizations	Fluid and flexible networks of multitalented people.
organization	System of consciously coordinated activities of two or more people.
organization chart	Boxes-and-lines illustration showing chain of formal authority and division of labor.
organization development	A set of techniques or tools used to implement organizational change.
organizational behavior	Interdisciplinary field dedicated to better understanding and managing people at work.
organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs)	Employee behaviors that exceed work-role requirements.
organizational commitment	Extent to which an individual identifies with an organization and its goals.
organizational culture	Shared values and beliefs that underlie a company's identity.
organizational decline	Decrease in organization's resource base (money, customers, talent, innovations).
organizational identification	Organizational values or beliefs become part of one's self-identity.
organizational moles	Those who use the grapevine to enhance their power and status.

organizational politics	Intentional enhancement of self-interest.
organizational socialization	Process by which employees learn an organization's values, norms, and required behaviors.
ostracism	Rejection by other group members.
out-group exchange	A partnership characterized by a lack of mutual trust, respect, and liking.
participative management	Involving employees in various aspects of decision making.
pay for performance	Monetary incentives tied to one's results or accomplishments.
perception	Process of interpreting one's environment.
perceptual model of communication	Process in which receivers create their own meaning.
performance management	Continuous cycle of improving job performance with goal setting, feedback and coaching, and rewards and positive reinforcement.
performance outcome goal	Targets a specific end-result.
persistence	Extent to which effort is expended on a task over time.
personal barriers	Any individual attribute that hinders communication.
personal initiative	Going beyond formal job requirements and being an active self-starter.
personality	Stable physical and mental characteristics responsible for a person's identity.
personality conflict	Interpersonal opposition driven by personal dislike or disagreement.
personalized power	Directed at helping oneself.
polychronic time	Preference for doing more than one thing at a time because time is flexible and multidimensional.
position power	Degree to which leader has formal power.
positive inequity	Comparison in which another person receives lesser outcomes for similar inputs.
positive reinforcement	Making behavior occur more often by contingently presenting something positive.
primary appraisal	Determining whether a stressor is irrelevant, positive, or stressful.
proactive personality	Action-oriented person who shows initiative and perseveres to change things.
problem	Gap between an actual and desired situation.
procedural justice	The perceived fairness of the process and procedures used to make allocation decisions.
process theories of motivation	Identify the process by which internal factors and cognitions influence motivation.
programmed conflict	Encourages different opinions without protecting management's personal feelings.
propensity to trust	A personality trait involving one's general willingness to trust

others.

proxemics	Hall's term for the study of cultural expectations about interpersonal space.
psychological contract	An individual's perception about the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange with another party.
punishment	Making behavior occur less often by contingently presenting something negative or withdrawing something positive.
rational model	Logical four-step approach to decision making.
realistic job preview	Presents both positive and negative aspects of a job.
referent power	Obtaining compliance through charisma or personal attraction.
repetitive motion disorders (RMDs)	Muscular disorder caused by repeating motions.
resiliency	The ability to handle pressure and quickly bounce back from personal and career setbacks.
resilience to change	Composite personal characteristic reflecting high self-esteem, optimism, and an internal locus of control.
resistance to change	Emotional/behavioral response to real or imagined work changes.
respondent behavior	Skinner's term for unlearned stimulus-response reflexes.
reward power	Obtaining compliance with promised or actual rewards.
role ambiguity	Others' expectations are unknown.
role conflict	Others have conflicting or inconsistent expectations.
role overload	Others' expectations exceed one's ability.
roles	Expected behaviors for a given position.
sample survey	Questionnaire responses from a sample of people.
satisficing	Choosing a solution that meets a minimum standard of acceptance.
scenario technique	Speculative forecasting method.
schema	Mental picture of an event or object.
scientific management	Using research and experimentation to find the most efficient way to perform a job.
secondary appraisal	Assessing what might and can be done to reduce stress.
self-concept	Person's self-perception as a physical, social, spiritual being.
self-efficacy	Belief in one's ability to do a task.
self-esteem	One's overall self-evaluation.
self-fulfilling prophecy	Someone's high expectations for another person result in high performance.
self-managed teams	Groups of employees granted administrative oversight for their work.
self-management leadership	Process of leading others to lead themselves.

self-monitoring	Observing one's own behavior and adapting it to the situation.
self-serving bias	Taking more personal responsibility for success than failure.
semantics	The study of words.
servant-leadership	Focuses on increased service to others rather than to oneself.
sex-role stereotype	Beliefs about appropriate roles for men and women.
shaping	Reinforcing closer and closer approximations to a target behavior.
shared leadership	Simultaneous, ongoing, mutual influence process in which people share responsibility for leading.
situational theories	Propose that leader styles should match the situation at hand.
skill	Specific capacity to manipulate objects.
social capital	The productive potential of strong, trusting, and cooperative relationships.
social categorization theory	Similarity leads to liking and attraction.
social loafing	Decrease in individual effort as group size increases.
social power	Ability to get things done with human, informational, and material resources.
social support	Amount of helpfulness derived from social relationships.
socialized power	Directed at helping others.
socio-emotional cohesiveness	Sense of togetherness based on emotional satisfaction.
span of control	The number of people reporting directly to a given manager.
staff personnel	Provide research, advice, and recommendations to line managers.
stakeholder audit	Systematic identification of all parties likely to be affected by the organization.
stereotype	Beliefs about the characteristics of a group.
strategic constituency	Any group of people with a stake in the organization's operation or success.
stress	Behavioral, physical, or psychological response to stressors.
stressors	Environmental factors that produce stress.
sustainability	Meeting humanity's needs without harming future generations.
symptom management strategy	Coping strategy that focuses on reducing the symptoms of stress.
tacit knowledge	Information gained through experience that is difficult to express and formalize.
target elements of change	Components of an organization that may be changed.
task roles	Task-oriented group behavior.

task structure	Amount of structure contained within work tasks.
team	Small group with complementary skills who hold themselves mutually accountable for common purpose, goals, and approach.
team building	Experiential learning aimed at better internal functioning of groups.
team viability	Team members satisfied and willing to contribute.
teleworking	Doing work that is generally performed in the office away from the office using different information technologies.
terminal values	Personally preferred end-states of existence.
theory	A story defining key terms, providing a conceptual framework, and explaining why something occurs.
Theory Y	McGregor's modern and positive assumptions about employees being responsible and creative.
360-degree feedback	Comparison of anonymous feedback from one's superior, subordinates, and peers with self-perceptions.
total quality management	An organizational culture dedicated to training, continuous improvement, and customer satisfaction.
transactional leadership	Focuses on interpersonal interactions between managers and employees.
transformational leadership	Transforms employees to pursue organizational goals over self-interests.
trust	Reciprocal faith in others' intentions and behavior.
Type A behavior pattern	Aggressively involved in a chronic, determined struggle to accomplish more in less time.
unity of command principle	Each employee should report to a single manager.
valence	The value of a reward or outcome.
value attainment	The extent to which a job allows fulfillment of one's work values.
value system	The organization of one's beliefs about preferred ways of behaving and desired end-states.
value congruence or person-culture fit	The similarity between personal values and organizational values.
values	Enduring belief in a mode of conduct or end-state.
virtual team	Information technology allows group members in different locations to conduct business.
vision	Long-term goal describing "what" an organization wants to become.
whistle blowing	Reporting unethical/illegal acts to outside third parties.
withdrawal cognitions	Overall thoughts and feelings about quitting a job.
workforce demographics	Statistical profiles of adult workers.