

# **SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

# **OF WORK**

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# UNIT 1

# CHANGES AND TRANSFORMATIONS IN WORK AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES

#### **INTRODUCTION**

**Question**: what changes will the next 50-100 years bring?  $\rightarrow$  There are two possible answers: we can make erroneous predictions, or we can predict slower changes.

**Causes:** extrapolate the future from current trends (for example: fossil energy decades ago vs. ecology nowadays).

- Small changes with major effects (for example: Hitler becoming a politician instead of an artist)
- Counter-movements (for example: technology developing without our control)

# Limiting conditions for changes:

- Organizations are conservative (for example: hierarchies)
- Human beings are conservative (for example: new technology)

As it is complicated to predict the future, how can we understand the future of work and make correct predictions?

- **Software designers**: because they create tools that satisfy new and future needs (what are you looking for as a customer?)
- Scenario approach based on making predictions if a circumstance is present (what would occur if a pandemic happened?)

# TEN TRENDS THAT DESCRIBE FUTURE JOBS

1) DISSOLUTION OF THE UNITY OF WORK IN SPACE AND TIME - some examples:

<u>Problems with teleworking</u>: there is a positive relation between productivity and teleworking, but this is only perceived as good by the individual if workers are volunteers.

- **Willingness (volunteers)** → people are more productive when teleworking if they voluntarily accept it.
- **Privacy** → *difficult to maintain privacy of clients.*
- $\circ$  **Control**  $\rightarrow$  *control of workers.*
- $\circ$  **Commitment**  $\rightarrow$  *the amount of involvement by the workers.*
- Cooperative work → share info and tools among workers to help each other.

#### - <u>Implications</u>:

- Coordination → depends on type of task (face-to-face is easier for some tasks).
- Culture → transmitting the culture and philosophy of a company is more challenging from home.
- **Poor language** → because of computers, there is a simplification of the vocabulary and shortening of words.
- Over-abundance → there is so much info online that choosing the best info is difficult.
- Better phase of work → according to the necessities of the work stage, teleworking may be easier or not.
- More democratic communication → in an online meeting there is less pressure, and workers feel more comfortable. Computers are like a barrier and sometimes it is easier to communicate specific messages.

#### 2) CHANGE OF JOB AND CAREER CONCEPTS:

#### • <u>Job</u>:

- Re-engineering: reduction in production jobs and services (optimize conditions in the company to increase benefits).
   For example: being more productive with fewer people or less work.
- o **Technological innovation**: reduction in staff.
- Increasing temporary work: (studies show that every 3-5 years there is a change in an aspect of a job, like position, company, etc.).
- o **Increasing project work:** (some companies work by projects: when they get a project, they contract people who are then dismissed when the project ends).

#### • Career:

- Lifetime: you will need to develop your professional career during your working life (continuous training).
- **Private life**: it will be reduced to the moments when we are unemployed (*between projects*).

# • Employee traits:

- Employability: you need to be employable (always ready to start at another company) and your CV should be interesting, attractive, and updated for the labor market. You must be attractive for companies and managers; if you identify a missing skill in your professional life, you should try to resolve it.
- Commitment: it is difficult to feel committed to your employer when you have a temporary contract.
- Entrepreneurial spirit: creating your own business could be the only option someday if there is a low probability of being hired.
- o **Think of the market all the time**: stay up to date, grow into new areas, expand your company in new cities, new projects, etc.

# 3) FASTER RATE OF INNOVATION:

# • <u>Implications</u>:

- Two types of innovation: people with creativity or initiative. It is important to have good ideas and be able to carry them out. Some people can have creative ideas but are unable to execute them or do not want to take the initiative.
- Process innovation (how the product is made) vs. product innovation (shape, material, color, etc.). Innovation can be found in the product concept and in the process of creating it.
- Learn faster: general skills; self-regulation (identify your own problems and find solutions); self-training (learn from errors); and a learning organizational culture (create a philosophy inside the company in which curiosity and innovation is encouraged to avoid uncertainty and a nervous environment where people feel they cannot make mistakes).
- 4) INCREASE IN COMPLEXITY OF WORK: future work is going to be more complicated and more intellectually demanding and so we must be smart and use our cognitive skills. Simple operative jobs will disappear because of computers and automation. We will have to make decisions, solve problems, and persuade people using social skills. Machines can do the manual work; and so humans must do those tasks that demand intelligence.

#### Causes:

- Small niches: find small market niches. Be the king in a certain place in the market (For example: prenatal shops).
- Customization (of the product): we are in an era of personalization; people want their items to match their character. You must be oriented towards customers to do a good job.
- Customer orientation: we need to know the likes and preferences of our customers (emotional intelligence).

## • <u>Implications</u>:

- What can be done for unskilled workers? Not everyone has talent. To help people with fewer skills or opportunities, wages can be varied with companies offering lower salaries to people they do not believe are talented. The key is to distribute funds so that companies can offer jobs with less salary, or the government can pay companies some kind of subsidy related to skills.
- What can be done for socially incompetent people? More training, better self-control, identification of weak points to become more skilled. The solution for introverted people is to attend training and coaching sessions provided by psychologists that will help them achieve their desired goals.
- Self-esteem and self-efficacy. Self-esteem is the degree of appreciation and confidence towards oneself, and selfefficacy is the degree to which you believe you can do something. High levels of these characteristics can help

- when dealing with customers, but very high levels are not good (there is a curvilinear relationship). These are also important characteristics of teamwork.
- O Job analysis of intellectual work. Determination of the precise characteristics of a job or position through detailed observation and critical examination of the sequential activities, facilities required, conditions of work, and qualifications needed in a worker. Such analysis is usually a preparatory step towards a job description. This approach is based on manual jobs, and as they are going to disappear, we need to change the job analysis.
- 5) PERSONAL INITIATIVE VERSUS ADAPTABILITY TO NEW WORLD: resilience and adaptiveness are very important. We need to consider both as do not know which will be more important in the future.
- 6) GLOBAL COMPETITION: countries are competing among themselves because of globalization. Surviving in such competitive environment implies:
  - Ideas, attitudes, and productivity. Only those with high levels of productivity will be able to compete, and for that, we need employees with proactive attitudes and good original ideas.
  - More imaginative companies: self-reliance (the ability to work autonomously), initiative, and involvement.
  - More turbulence in companies. Globalization causes the work environment to become chaotic, so it is important to react quickly and be adaptive and flexible.
  - Cross-cultural management. Having employees with different cultures and managers with skills to negotiate, lead, organize, and plan across cultures to deal with people of different backgrounds.
  - What to do with smaller companies? The growth of multinationals scares small companies. That is why they should try to be the best locally, attract clients, and create a good environment. Be close to clients, be social, and this creates fidelity among clients.
  - o **Reduction of the power of labor unions.** Flexibility and adaptability are needed to adapt to the turbulent environment of companies so they can move towards change and not resist it.
- 7) **DEVELOPMENT OF LARGER AND SMALLER UNITS:** in terms of joining a small or large company, it depends on what we want to create. **CONTINGENCY THEORY**: for good levels of cohesion and <u>flexibility</u>, and a good work climate, it is better to join a **small company**. However, if a company's values include having the <u>best</u> price on the market, then it is better to join a **big company**.

- 8) MORE TEAMWORK: the future is said to be more team-oriented and less individualistic. To encourage teamwork, it is important to apply:
  - O Job rotation. This ensures everyone knows every task in case somebody is absent. To ease the process of replacing somebody, it is better to move employees from team to team to learn what everyone does, meet each other, and create back-ups for holidays and illness.
  - Self-coordination: reduce supervisors. If hierarchies are eliminated, employees need to know how to self-coordinate and how to work independently.
  - Interdisciplinary work: register. Adapt the vocabulary to all kinds of audiences since groups are usually made up of different professionals.
  - Social and communication skills: emotional intelligence. Cordiality is key to getting along with every member of the group (identify and react to emotions of others).
  - Team training. Companies need to train employees to build teams. Team development measures: it is important to measure if people working together are productive or not, measure the efficacy of a team and maybe eliminate the problematic person. Integration: it is important that people can integrate quickly into a new group.
- 9) **REDUCED SUPERVISION:** horizontal/flat organization. The organization should not be made into a hierarchy. But if the supervisors are eliminated:
  - who is going to transmit organizational knowledge, culture, and socialization?
  - who is going to resolve errors?
  - who is going to facilitate change?

### 10) INCREASED CULTURAL DIVERSITY:

- Prejudice and animosities. We need to work on these prejudices and stereotypes.
- <u>Two approaches</u>: categorization emphasize the characteristics of people as members of their cultural group, demonstrate the positive ingroup aspects, and the outgroup's negative aspects. Preparation: try to make the best of stereotypes, take advantage of people according to their culture.
- Language. Speaking several languages should be a requirement so people can communicate well with more people.

#### **3 CHANGES IN WORK:**

1) Succession planning. Worries about who is going to replace the company's leaders – because if a successor is a poor performer, then the company will change in a bad way.

- 2) Talented employees. The problem is how to keep talented employees in the company because they know they are talented, so they are always looking for better salary and conditions.
- 3) Generations X (1969-1980) vs. Generations Y and Millennials (born after 1980). X generation is workaholic, while Y generation is focused on enjoying life. They know they must work to earn money, so they work the minimum to earn just enough.

#### ☐ **GENERATIONS**:

o Gen-Z: 1994-2010

Millennials: 1981-1993
 Gen-X: 1969-1980
 Baby boomer: 1949-1968
 Silent: 1930-1948

# UNIT 2

#### ATTITUDES AND VALUES TOWARD WORK

#### ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

It is difficult to change attitudes. Attitudes influence people's behavior and performance at work.

# WHAT IS AN ATTITUDE?

An attitude is formed by **evaluative statements or beliefs** about something or someone, so it requires a **target** (person, situation, or object) and a **perception** (positive or negative).

An attitude is an individual readiness / predisposition / preparedness to act / react / respond / behave in a positive or negative way to a person, a situation, or an object. Components:

- **Cognitive**. The thoughts, ideas, and opinions that are in the mind when you think about the target.
- **Affective**. My emotions when being in contact with or when thinking about the target.
- **Behavioral**. How do I react and what can be observed in me when in front of the target?

From the point of view of psychologists, behavior is the key component because it can be controlled. For example: I like smoking and I feel good about it, but I decide not to smoke.

# LINKING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Normally there is coherence between our attitudes and behavior, but sometimes not. Two theories:

**COGNITIVE DISSONANCE THEORY** (FESTINGER, 1957): when having to do something that you do not like, there is a sense of discomfort (**cognitive dissonance-discomfort**). There are two ways of reducing this sensation:

- Reinterpreting the situation: justify, reason, or excuse the acts to match attitudes.
- Change attitude (cognitive restructuring)

# **Implications**:

- behavior is likely to be consistent with attitudes to avoid dissonance.
- alteration of attitudes because of behavior.

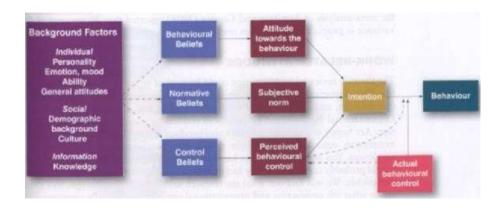
#### THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR (AJZENAND & FISHBEIN, 1977):

this theory describes some antecedents of attitude formation and the factors that determine whether behavioral intentions are expressed in behavior. It states that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control shape an individual's behavior.

## Background factors:

- individual personality emotion, mood ability general attitudes (emotions, mood, abilities, etc.).
- social demographic background culture (culture, social norms, gender bias, etc.).
- information knowledge.
- **Behavioral beliefs**: attitude about behavior (the logical thing you would do in a natural setting; what will be the consequences of some behaviors). These are the beliefs formed on a variety of individual, external, and contextual variables. *For example: what do we think about sports, smoking, etc.*
- **Normative beliefs**: <u>subjective norm</u> (judgements about what is socially acceptable behavior). It refers to beliefs about social norms and social protocols. *For example: what do we think about social norms*.
- Control beliefs: perceived behavioral control (the extent to which people feel able to perform actions or behaviors). It is the belief that we can control certain aspects of our life. For example: what do we think about the possibility of controlling our life or a situation.

These three beliefs lead to the **intention** of a behavior which along with <u>actual behavioral control</u> (any external factor not allowing me to behave according to intention) leads to **behavior**.



### **WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES**

(Attitudes you can find at work and must be able to identify).

**Job satisfaction:** a person's general feelings about their job, and the extent to which they feel positive or negative. <u>Antecedents / determinators of job satisfaction</u>:

- **Personality and dispositions**: attitudes and personality influence my job satisfaction. Being optimistic, flexible, open-minded. For example: it is good if I'm extroverted and open-minded, and if I am not communicative then this is bad for some companies.
- **Job characteristics**: job characteristics that one might like or dislike are: type of management; type of relationships with co-workers; work atmosphere; and salary. As well as timetable, colleagues, environment, and transport. For example: if you must work in a small room, alone, with no natural light and no air conditioning and far from home then you will probably not be satisfied.
- **Distributive justice**: perception of justice between the workers, rewards, and jobs (based on comparison). For example: if your co-worker is receiving more money than you, then there is no equilibrium or justice.
  - <u>Distributional justice</u>: when I compare rewards with my colleague. COMPARING REWARD.
  - Procedural justice: the rules differ for receiving rewards and so are unfair.

COMPARING PROCEDURE FOR REWARDS.

#### ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

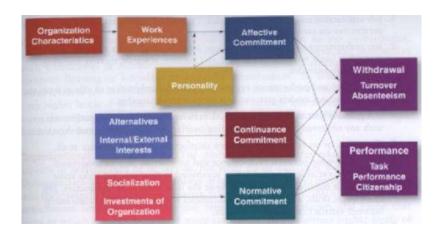
It is the extent to which an individual feels they have a positive relationship with their organization. Antecedents and effects of organizational commitment:

- Affective commitment: emotional attachment a person feels towards their organization. People feel attached when the goals and values of the organization are largely consistent with their own and when they agree with its culture and philosophy. It is likely to result from a combination of work experience and organizational characteristics (strategy, work atmosphere, philosophy, objectives, etc.), as well as characteristics such as personality traits.
- Continuing commitment: more rational commitment. When an individual continues to be an:

employee because he does not have other <u>options</u>, or the costs of leaving are too great. You may believe the conditions you have will not improve if you leave (although you might not have affective commitment). You can also have commitment because of internal and external interests: perhaps you have been offered a promotion if you decide to stay for one or more years, or simply you need the money to pay bills and rent.

 Normative commitment: employees continue being in the company because they feel loyalty and commitment to the organization. This has several antecedents such as the <u>socialization</u> process (you were educated in this way and have a connection with people) and the <u>organization's investment in you</u> (if they have paid for part of your professional training).

All three kinds of commitment influence your task performance and your probability of staying in the company.



# → Consequences of commitment and satisfaction:

- o job performance is a mess because there is not a single definition or connection between job satisfaction and commitment in job performance.
- withdrawal or counterproductive behavior (lateness, absence, and turnover). There is a negative correlation because the greater the job satisfaction and commitment, the less counterproductive behavior.
- organizational consequences. Organizations with more satisfied and committed members have positive organizational consequences, more customer satisfaction, more profit, greater productivity, lower turnover, and fewer accidents.

## OTHER WORK ATTITUDES

- **Employee engagement:** the extent to which people are <u>enthusiastic</u> about and actively involved with their job and organization. This leads to more customer satisfaction, greater profits, higher productivity, lower turnover, and fewer accidents.
- **Job involvement:** how invested a person feels in their job in an organization (to care about and believe in the value of their work).
- **Justice and fairness:** the procedure to obtain a reward is different for different positions (some people have higher goals to achieve the same reward). Employees must feel like there is <u>procedural justice</u> (fairness of the systems, processes, and rules) and <u>distributional justice</u> (fairness in salaries).

#### ATTITUDE CHANGE: PERSUASION AND INFLUENCE

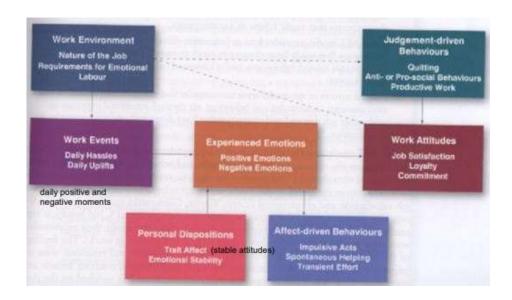
To observe the rest of the attitudes it is good to know if I am wrong or not.

- <u>Crano and Prislin</u> (2006): proposed two theories to explain how to change an attitude:
  - ELABORATION LIKELIHOOD MODEL: you can change an attitude when you try to be objective and relative (you make an analysis of your attitudes and change them). A way of changing attitudes is to drive introspection about attitudes towards a target (being consciously logical, relative, and rational).
  - O HEURISTIC/ SYSTEMIC MODEL: you can change an attitude by using someone who can influence people because they have power, credibility, and attractiveness. For example: commercials that use famous people.
- ATTITUDE STRENGTH: easier to change weak attitudes than strong ones.
- **FEAR:** may lead to a change of attitudes.

#### WIDER INFLUENCES ON BEHAVIOR AT WORK

#### EMOTION AND BEHAVIOR: AFFECTIVE EVENTS THEORY (AET)

This theory describes how emotions work in a company.



In conclusion, if I have a general positive emotional experience, my work attitudes improve – even:

... if there are some variables that can sometimes affect them.

# **PERCEPTION AND BEHAVIOR:** PERSONAL CONSTRUCT THEORY (KELLY, 1955)

There are three main stages for perception:

- **1. Stimulus**: inputs (they are the same for everybody).
- **2. Processing**: where perception plays a role (personality, motivations, mood, and emotions). How do we perceive people?
- **3. Behavioral responses**: outputs (they are different for every person since everyone processes information differently).

Inside Phase 2 (perception and process). When meeting someone, we use shortcuts to form an impression. Interpersonal perceptual shortcuts:

- **Selective attention**: ability to focus on one important stimulus and ignore the rest.
- **Stereotyping**: making inferences about someone due to an aspect (race, religion, physical traits, etc.).
- **Halo effect**: making a first good impression so the other perceptions are in the same line.
- Contrast effect: because of the previous input perception, the impression of the stimulus differs (by contrast).
- **Similar-to-me effects**: finding similarities in a specific context (living in a foreign country and liking someone just because they are Spanish).

**ATTRIBUTION THEORIES:** CAUSES OF BEHAVIOR: They are used to explain the causes of behavior (the causes of success or failure). It is a strategy to maintain our mental health.

- When succeeding and somebody else failed = internal attribution is: "I passed the exam because I studied a lot. / My friend failed the exam because she is not smart enough".
- When someone else succeeds and we fail = external attribution: my friend passed the exam because she has more time to study, or her exam was easier / I failed an exam because it was too hard, or the teacher did not explain the subject well.

#### **DECISION MAKING**

Is it reasonable to say that no human decision is ever completely rational? Sometimes the situation does not allow making a rational decision, so you can decide by following your intentions.

Twenty years ago, the philosophy was to not make decisions following feelings and instincts. Pilots must follow an objective and step-by-step scientific process.

- Analyze the situation and collect data.
- Generate alternative and possible options.
- Calculate the risk and value the options.
- Choose the best option.

**BOUNDED RATIONALITY THEORY (SIMON, 1972):** because we are humans, we have limitations when making rational decisions:

### • Introduction of risk and uncertainty: loss aversion

As we want to avoid losing, we choose the option that is riskier. We do not like changes or losing much – and that is why we like habits, customs, routines, etc.

# Incomplete info about alternatives

Sometimes we do not have the necessary information to decide.

# Complexity

Sometimes the situation is so complicated that we cannot decide because we cannot calculate the consequences or make rational decisions.

INTUITION: when is intuitive decision-making more effective?

- 1. Decision makers have developed a deep understanding of the context of problems and the domain areas that frame problems (they are experts on the topic).
- 2. Problems and the tasks associated with them are judgmental rather than intellectual (sometimes these are emotional decisions meaning no correct or incorrect decisions as they depend on our feelings). An example could be deciding to break up with your partner).

#### SOCIAL INFLUENCES ON BEHAVIOR

Our behavior and performance at work is influenced by others and this is an important aspect. But how does working in teams influence our attitudes and individual behavior?

- Social facilitation: your performance is better when others are present or observing. You try to do your best when you know that people are watching. This is explained by drive theory.
- **Drive theory**: the presence of others can encourage or inhibit behavior. Trying to do your best may encourage or inhibit your behavior (show your strengths and hide your weaknesses). Explanations:
  - Evaluation apprehension (Cottrell, 1972): we do not like to receive complaints, negative evaluations, and judgments. This is based on a fear of criticism. It can inhibit our behavior, but some theories state that the presence of other people makes us more self-aware, increasing our probability of comparing ourselves to our ideal self, and we become motivated to bring this actual-ideal self into line.
  - Distraction-conflict theory (Baron, 1986): avoid
    distractions usually caused when an audience is present.
    People get distracted focusing attention on both the task
    and the audience. This is based on the tendency to avoid
    aspects that make us uncomfortable since they can lead to
    conflict.

- **Social loafing**: the risk of working in teams: only a minority of the team works, and the others do not.
- **Conformity**: an experiment explains the distortion of judgment caused by group opinion.

There are two levels of distortion of judgement:

- <u>Distortion of perception</u>: if they say yes, I'll say yes because they may be right. My perception changes because I conform with the group.
- O <u>Distortion of response</u>: you continue thinking your perception is correct, but as you do not want to feel the discomfort of not agreeing you change your opinion. "I publicly agree with the group to avoid pressure, but I don't really agree".

When was conformity reduced? When you can answer in different ways, when the others do not know your response, or by anonymous answering, or when you have the support of someone else.

- Obedience to authority: the Milgram experiment shows that regular people in the general population obey authority when instructed to harm others. To avoid this there are two options: make a good selection process to choose a good manager and have a <a href="mailto:cross-cultural">cross-cultural perspective</a> when choosing a person who respects authority (such as Chinese, Korean, and Japanese people). These two aspects are important to reduce this phenomenon because if a manager can give unethical instructions and employees always accept orders then the organization will eventually collapse.
- → **Personal identity:** idiosyncratic traits and individual differences that give you a sense of who you are.

(The opinion I have about myself).

→ Social identity: how you perceive yourself as a member of a particular social group.

One problem about this is:

- O Depersonalization: when you forget your personal identity because of your social identity. For example: cults.
- → When other people perceive our group negatively, if it is important for us (power, attractiveness, credibility, etc.) we will change our attitude, but if it is unimportant, our attitude will strengthen towards the target.

# UNIT 3

#### JOB DESIGN: JOBS, ROLES, AND WORK SOCIALISATION

# WHAT IS JOB ANALYSIS?

Collection and analysis of any type of job-related info by any method for any purpose. Thus, a job analysis is the process of collecting info by using several methods with several objectives to finally write a report.

What is important about a job? There're two types of outputs:

- Job description: nature of work (explain the task, function, methods, standard of performance necessary to do the job correctly).
  - o Work-oriented job descriptions: tasks to be done.
  - Worker-oriented job descriptions: physical attributes (strong, fast, etc.)
- Personal specifications: nature of people (skills, abilities, personality, qualification, experience, motivations, etc.).
  - KSAOs: knowledge, skills (those we have learned), ability (those we are born with) and others.

#### WHY IS JOB ANALYSIS DONE?

To understand what behaviors are required to do a job effectively. <u>Job</u> analysis is needed for:

- **Recruitment and selection:** find candidates on InfoJobs and LinkedIn. When you make a job offer you must write down the job requirements.
- **Training and development:** once you are contracted as a new employee, the company must explain how to do your job, the conditions, etc.
- **Performance management:** know the standards of job performance to know if the employee is doing well.
- Merger, acquisitions, and downsizing: a merger is a fusion (two companies join together), acquisition is when one company buys another; and downsizing cuts costs in the company. When we are in a critical situation, we need to know the job characteristics to know which jobs can be eliminated.

- **Job design and redesign:** when you create a new job inside a company you need to make a job analysis to establish the characteristics of this new job.
- **Health and safety requirements:** describe the characteristics of the job to introduce specific health and safety regulations.
- Human resource planning and effective use of available resources: set job descriptions to plan and prepare recruitment and selection if new personnel are needed.
- **Job evaluation and compensation:** evaluate the work of an employee and reward the employee if it is above standard.
- **Legal defensibility:** show job descriptions to justify a decision (we've fired someone because they are not doing the required job).
- Classification of jobs and labelling of jobs: there is a public classification and labelling of jobs.

# **JOB CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS:**

- International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) developed by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in Geneva.
- **Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT)** developed by US Employment Service.
- But currently, the most important and best known is the O\*NET (Occupational Information Network).

# **JOB ANALYSIS METHODS:**

Depends on what type of work-related info is needed (write characteristics of a job). Types of information that can be obtained from a job:

- a) work activities.
- **b)** work performance.
- c) job context (place).
- d) machinery (tools).
- **e)** job-related outcomes (if the outcome of the job is to offer a service or a product).
- f) personnel requirements (degree, masters, experience, languages, etc.).

Are these types of information work-oriented or worker-oriented? Just the final one is worker-oriented, and the others are work-oriented.

### **SOURCES OF INFO:**

- **Job incumbents** (directly asking or observing the person who is occupying this job at this moment). Problems when using employees to collect information include:
  - o <u>Time</u>: they do not have time to talk since they are working.
  - Objective: they are not objective.

- o <u>Unfamiliar</u>: they are not familiar with the issue of describing a job, or completing questionnaires, etc.
- o <u>More valid</u>: research does not demonstrate that working with job incumbents is better than talking with the company owner.
- Supervisors and professional job analysts (O\*NET): human resource management, the owner of a company, etc.

#### TOOLS OF JOB INFO:

- a) Tools focused on the nature of the job:
  - i. <u>Documentation</u> (job classification systems, company handbooks, internet, etc.).
  - ii. Observation (take notes about what employees do).
  - iii. <u>Diaries</u> (give a notebook to employees and ask them to write everything they do in their jobs, however, employees are not normally familiar with these procedures).
- **b)** Tools focused on the **opinion of people**:
  - a. Which people? Employees and subject matter experts (SEMs, supervisors, etc.).
  - b. How?
    - i. Questionnaires.
    - ii. <u>Structured interview</u> where it is important to ask about the future.

#### DIRECT DATA COLLECTION METHODS

- Time-and-motion: different types of processes that employees are doing.
- Cognitive task analysis: the subject says aloud all the tasks that they are doing, and this 'conversation' is recorded so that a conclusion and list of tasks can be made.
- **Hierarchical task analysis:** the info is presented by making a scheme of the tasks and subtasks that the job requires.

# TASK-ORIENTED DATA COLLECTION METHODS:

Specific to a specific job in a specific company. Rely on SMEs for a specific job. We need experts to get the info, the resource here is experts, and you cannot extrapolate.

- **1.** Task inventory analysis: the objective is to obtain a list or inventory of tasks about a job. For example: sales assistant in a pharmacy:
  - a) answer customer questions about products and services (from experts).
  - **b)** call patient about prescriptions not collected after seven days.
  - c) make refunds.
  - **d)** recommend products to customers.
  - e) ring up merchandise and prescriptions on register.

- **2. Functional job analysis:** focused on DOT (Dictionary of Occupational Titles) and you need to have a meeting with the experts and show them something from DOT. Task statements:
  - a) why and how is it done?
  - **b)** what is accomplished?
  - c) level of involvement
- **3.** Critical incident technique: what is critical or essential to do in this job if you were a master of the work. For example: for a waiter in a restaurant, critical incidents could be:
  - a) the restaurant is crowded, and guests become impatient.
  - **b)** guests complain about inedible dishes.
  - c) a drunken group of guests with no money.
  - d) a guest wants to learn more about minor details of a specific wine.
  - e) the cook is sick, and his assistant is out of his depth.

#### WORKER-ORIENTED DATA COLLECTION METHODS:

- **1. Repertory grid analysis:** qualities needed for success in the job (8-12 and ideal people). The objective is to create a repertory of qualities.
- **2. Job elements method:** behaviors that are significant to job success. Evaluate behavior instead of quality because it is easier. For example: what kind of behavior demonstrates that you are a reliable person? Accomplish the deadlines, be punctual, help people, etc.
- **3. Ability requirements scale:** 37-ability questionnaire (not personality, values, interests, or motivation) where you measure abilities (normally those you are born with).
- **4. Position analysis questionnaire:** one of the most famous working-oriented methods. It is popular for the information you can obtain from a questionnaire. It is complicated to fill out.
  - **a.** 195 items.
  - **b.** 6 sections:
    - i. Information input
    - ii. Mental processes
    - iii. Info output
    - iv. Relationships with other persons
    - v. Relationships with job context
    - vi. Relationships with other job characteristics
  - **c.** Importance for the job, complexity, and frequency.
- **5. Threshold trait analysis:** 33 personal characteristics that are important for effectively performing a job.
  - **a.** Mental, physical, learned, motivational, and social.
  - **b.** Ability or "can do" factors.
  - c. Attitude or "will do" factors.

#### 6. Personality-related position requirements form:

Hypotheses about the importance of various personality attributes for job performance (leadership, negotiation, achievement, and extraversion).

- 7. Work profiling system: Similar to position analysis questionnaire.
- **8.** Combination of different data-collection methods: you need to make a combo of methods, you must select a process using different methods, questionnaires, interviews, etc.

#### FROM A JOB ANALYSIS TO WORK

The future is better because instead of analyzing jobs, we must fit job profiles.

Worker-oriented approaches: general descriptions of human behavior, and as people are sometimes not objective, it is prone to bias and distortion.

Changing nature of work.

Worker-oriented approaches.

Work profiling.

# STRATEGIC JOB MODELLING (SJM):

Integrates work, people, and organizational context.

- Job description variables: work activity and attributes. People side (available capabilities).
- Situational variables: work context and strategic context. Work side (requirements).
- Competences:
  - o Technical competences ("can do"): knowledge and skills.
  - o Behavioral competences ("will do"): personality and attitudes.

#### **COMPETENCY:**

Set of behaviors that are instrumental in the delivery of desired results (Bartram, 2002). Universal competency framework: major eight competencies:

- leading & deciding
- supporting & cooperating
- interacting & presenting
- analyzing & interpreting
- creating & conceptualizing
- organizing & executing
- adapting & coping
- enterprising & performing

Six pilot competencies:

- attitude development
- stress management (one of the most stressful professions)
- risk assessment (about decision making, calculating risk, options, alternatives, costs, value, etc.)
- flight deck management
- crew coordination (organize the plane and the people inside, control the flight attendants as well)
- psychomotor skills

# UNIT 4

### MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION, AND PERFORMANCE

#### **INTRO**

**Motivation**: this is the impulse, force, and energy that makes you act (behavior) to achieve goals.

**Work motivation**: the same definition as motivation – but applied to a work environment.

With <u>abilities</u> and <u>training</u>, people can carry out any job; however, <u>motivation</u> is a determining factor that enhances performance so that the person can do the job in the best way possible.

- Why do some individuals show high levels of motivation in their job while others do not? This question will be answered using content-related theories of work motivation (groups of theorists). According to these authors, the cause of motivation may be individual needs, situational characteristics, or the interaction between both.
- How is it possible to transform high levels of motivation into effective behavior at work? How to take advantage of employee motivation? **Process-related theories**.

The first thing to do when getting a new client is to go to the company and make an analysis. At this meeting you will realize (by being psychologists) who is motivating and who is not.

#### CONTENT-RELATED THEORIES OF WORK MOTIVATION

The cause of motivation is the interaction between individual needs and situational characteristics. At the same time, this interaction influences human behavior (interaction – motivation - behavior).

# MOTIVATION BASED ON INDIVIDUAL NEEDS:

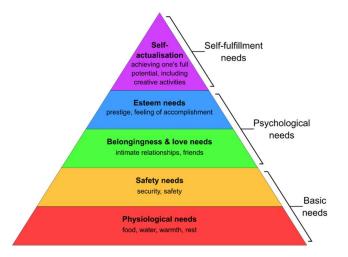
Authors who think that motivation relies on individual needs believe that the cause for that motivation is genetic (innate motivation). Individual needs are genetic and innate. There are four important authors with different theories:

McClelland (1961): genetic base: when you are born, your genes have three types of needs to satisfy and everyone has a different dominant necessity:

- 1. Need for achievement: an individual who is very worried about results, achieving objectives, and success. Competition is important because they want to be the best. They like to work in challenging, risky, and complicated jobs where abilities can be demonstrated.
- **2. Need for affiliation:** an individual who likes to interact with people and form relationships with elements of social dependency. Teamwork is the ideal situation.
- **3. Need for power:** an individual who likes to influence, convince, and persuade others. Their favorite job involves leadership.

One of these needs is dominant, which according to this theory, can predict which job position will the person be most motivated to accept. The **thematic apperception test** (1938) is a projective test which can measure which need is more dominant in each person.

MASLOW'S PYRAMID: individuals need to fulfil (satisfy) one stage to pass to the next stage. If you satisfy the top of the pyramid, the result is suicide because there's no motivation left. That is why according to Maslow, you cannot cover the entire pyramid. The pyramid is based on a hierarchy of five needs:



- **1. Physiological**: physical and primary things such as drink, sleep, eat, breath, and sex.
- **2. Safety**: stability and feeling secure and alive by having a home, self-confidence, and economic stability.
- **3.** Love/ belonging: successful relationships, social support, romantic partner, stability in personal and professional life.

**4. Esteem**: prestige, status, admiration, respect from

others and self-respect.

#### 5. Self-actualization:

become the best version of oneself, self-realization, reaching goals, feeling fulfilled, self-esteem, volunteering.

# Problems with this theory:

- **Self-actualization** definition is unclear. If you have not satisfied the basic stages, then acting as if you have reached the top is utopian. There is looseness in the definition.
- Rigid and hierarchical order. All stages are ultimately interrelated.
   Sometimes to satisfy two or more at the same time, we do not really know which is the correct order.
- Logical and clinical insights. There is no empirical evidence for this theory, it is just a collection of information from Maslow's clinical work. We need to demonstrate ideas with numbers, and this is all philosophy. It is attractive, interesting, and marketable. It is a good attempt at theory, but there is no research behind it (because of that we have Reiss and Holland). The success of this theory relies on how well it can be applied in many fields and how easy it is to grasp.
- → Scientific research based on Maslow's Pyramid (Questionnaire for the appraisal of needs): REISS PROFILE OF BASIC MOTIVES: necessities are not the lack of something, but the desire for something. That is why needs are described through desires. According to this study, there are 15 needs which are explained in terms of desires:

-	Power		-	Vengeance		-	Family
-	Curiosity	-	Honour		-	Order	
-	Independence		-	Idealism		-	Eating
-	Status		-	Physical exercise		-	Acceptance
-	Social contact		-	Romance		-	Tranquillity

- Several occupations were used as a sample and the <u>principal results</u> of this research are:
  - People who do volunteer work high levels of idealism
  - People related to the military sector high scores in power.

- People who are athletes - high levels of need for physical exercise and status

**HOLLAND VOCATIONAL TYPES:** if there is a match between my personality, my preferences and the job I get or I develop, then I will be satisfied and my performance will be good.



- <u>Realistic personality</u> mechanistic activities, working with machines: carpenter and technicians.
- <u>Investigative personality</u> working with abstract ideas and theories: scientists.
- <u>Artistic and social personality creating</u> things, helping, teaching: musicians, writers, and social workers.

# THE ENVIRONMENT AS A SOURCE OF MOTIVATION:

(Second group of theories) The cause of motivation is not innate.

HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY (1996): Herzberg is the father of intrinsic motivations (internal: when I love what I'm doing I enjoy my work) and extrinsic ones (external: when the cause of my motivation is something external, I don't love the work but I'm motivated because I earn a lot of money, or because I work near home, or I have a flexible schedule, etc.). Herzberg is also the father of two tools that can be applied to increase levels of motivation:

- a) Job enlargement: increase motivation, ask employees to do more things to avoid monotony (more variety of activities, more things to do, apply different skills, etc.)
- **b) Job enrichment**: give employees more responsibilities, autonomy, and power in the company.

# HACKMAN AND OLDHAM JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL (JCM) (1976): it is important to consider five core job dimensions regarding motivation:

- 1. Skill variety: if a work requires considerable skill, the person will be more motivated than if they were doing the same thing all day.
- **2.** Task identity: workers feel fulfilled by doing a large part of a task and unfulfilled if they only do one small part. They feel more motivated if they can identify with the activity from the beginning to the end because they participate in the whole process.
- **3.** Task significance: how important is it for the person to do the job? They are more motivated if their task is important for society.
- **4. Autonomy:** how much independence the person has in their job (more independence means greater motivation).
- **5.** Feedback: this is a source of motivation. People need to know if they are doing everything right or not (employee satisfaction).

These five dimensions influence in three psychological states:

- **a)** Experience meaningfulness of work (task significance, skill variety, and task identity).
- **b)** Experience responsibility for outcomes (autonomy).
- c) Knowledge of results of work activities (feedback).

These three psychological states influence our personal and work outcomes (work motivation, job satisfaction, job performance, etc.).

The five core job dimensions can be measured with the JDS (job diagnostic survey) questionnaire which produces the MPS (motivational potential score). Formula:

Thus, skill variety, task identity, and task significance have a greater significance. In some research, the outcome influences psychological states

 $MPS = \frac{Skill \ variety + task \ identity + task \ significance}{3} \cdot Autonomy \cdot Feedback$ 

and some of these states influence research. This model does not consider long-term effects. The **moderators** of motivation are <u>knowledge and skill</u>, growth needs strength and satisfaction.

# INTERACTION BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL NEEDS AND SITUATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS AS A SOURCE OF:

FLOW THEORY (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1982): flow is the subjective experience of an optimal motivation state that occurs when people are completely engaged in what they are doing.

#### Antecedents:

- o clear set of goals and rules.
- o perceived match between task demands and individual skills.
- o clear and immediate performance feedback.

# • Consequences:

- o good attitude.
- o intense concentration (focused on tasks).
- o lack of fatigue.

#### • New research directions:

- o trained: can the flow be trained?
- o theoretical vagueness: the definition of flow is not precise.
- o subjective experience: flow is not objective.

# SOME PRINCIPLES OF MOTIVATIONAL WORK DESIGN:

- a) Creating natural work units: when creating a new job position in a company, the department where this person is going to work needs to be suitable.
- b) Vertical loading: refers to job enlargement.
- **c) Opening feedback channels:** receive continuous feedback on level of performance.
- d) Relationships with customers: if possible, all employees should have some kind of contact with customers to learn what they want, what they do not want, and their preferences.
- e) Combining tasks: a variety of tasks to avoid routines and boredom.

#### PROCESS-RELATED THEORIES OF WORK MOTIVATION

HOW IS A HIGH LEVEL OF MOTIVATION TRANSFORMED INTO EFFECTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR?

**EXPECTANCY THEORY (VROOM, 1964):** How to make good decisions. To be sure that the chosen option is the correct one, we need to calculate the force of every option and choose the one whose force is greatest. **Force=E**  $(I \times V)$ 

**E:** Expectancy → The (subjective) probability I perceive that if I invest in effort, I will obtain a particular result. For example: if I work quickly, I will sell more hamburgers.

**I: Instrumentality**  $\rightarrow$  Probability perceived that if I invest in something, I will obtain x result and some consequences. For example:

if I sell more hamburgers, my supervisor will increase my salary.

V: Valance→ Value/

Importance I give to these

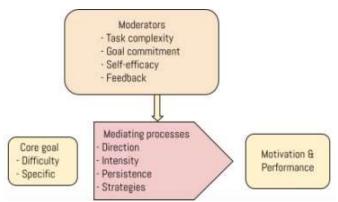
consequences.

are:

- **Multiplicative combination**: is it necessary to create a decision combining these three topics? Sometimes one of these variables is enough by itself to make a decision.
- Rational and deliberate processes: the theory considers that you are going to make the mathematical operation to decide but you are not.
- **Intrinsic motivation**: I am going to make or choose this option because I like this option and I enjoy it and it is the best for me. What are the consequences of my internal motivation?
- **Individual differences**: this model does not consider the individual differences. It is not the same: children, sex, etc.
- **Maintenance of action over time**: it does not consider the maintenance of action over the time.

GOAL-SETTING THEORY (LOCKE & LATHAM, 1990): emphasizes the actions a person can do to reach a goal – and it has three steps: planning, activation and strength.

- When someone has a goal, it is very important to determine the <u>core of the</u> goal based on:
  - Difficulty (the more difficult, the less motivation. The easier the goal, the less motivation too).
  - Specificity (how clear and precise is the goal).
- There are some <u>mediating processes</u> that may influence goal achievement although it is clear and difficult:
  - O **Direction**: the steps towards a goal (starting to study, looking for a job, etc.).
  - o **Intensity**: how much effort needs investing.
  - **Persistence**: how long does the motivation keep going with the same intensity in the same direction?
  - o Strategies: what is the plan to achieve the goal.
- The mediating processes can be influenced by <u>moderators</u> (external factors) such as:
  - Task complexity (lack of money may influence motivation because strategies cannot be followed).
  - o **Goal commitment** (how important it is for the goal).
  - Self-efficacy and feedback (is it possible to keep doing something according to the feedback received?)



#### Challenges and criticisms:

- personal differences about motivation.
- changes over time (lack of longitudinal studies).
- promoting clear and non-conflicting goals with sufficient and reliable feedback routines (need for continuous feedback to know if a goal is worthwhile and realistic).

**SELF-REGULATION THEORY (BANDURA, 1991):** this model is related with execution and behavioral self-control. For this, the individual must follow some <u>basic steps</u>:

- **Self-monitoring**: I must control myself.
- **Self-evaluation**: I'm able to know if my performance is good or not.
- Self-reaction: I must apply a reward or a punishment towards myself.

In the future, we need to clarify the relationship between <u>self-regulation</u> and <u>self-efficacy</u>. We should know which of these variables is the antecedent and how they affect one another.

JUSTICE THEORIES: These theories assess how fair and unfair are the rewards of a job. They focus on the <u>evaluation</u> of action results based on **equity theory** (the best situation for motivation is a match between effort invested and reward received). This theory also includes the difference between **distributional justice** (comparing the reward so that for the same effort, two employees receive the same reward) and **procedural justice** (comparing the process to achieve that reward: the process that an employee follows to receive a reward is the same process that another employee follows to receive the same reward).

The equity theory also includes the **psychological contract**: which is the psychological effort needed in that job position that was not explicit in the signed contract (it is supposed that the company will pay me every month, it is supposed that I will have some holidays, it is supposed that if I am sick I can go home, etc.). The problem is that sometimes this psychological contract is broken – and from this moment the individual becomes unmotivated in the job.

All these three parameters affect job satisfaction, which also affects:

- job performance.
- absenteeism.
- turnover.
- organizational citizenship or contextual behavior: help, loyalty, and commitment.
- identification with organization.

#### RECENT RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

In future research, the model should be focused on individual differences and on longitudinal consequences (long-term effects).

# **GROUP MOTIVATION:**

When a person works in a team, the influence of the group can improve or reduce the motivation of each member (social loafing and social facilitation).

#### PROCESS-RELATED THEORIES OF WORK MOTIVATION:

- → The **collective effort model** is an improved version of the expectancy model in terms of groups. It considers that <u>instrumentality</u> should include three types of contingencies when making a decision in teamwork:
  - 1. contingency between individual performance and group performance.
  - 2. contingency between group performance and group outcome.
  - **3.** contingency between group outcome and individual outcome.
- → The VIST model considers valence (defined as the subjective importance of team goals for team members) and instrumentality but also self-efficacy and trust in the group. It is another version of the expectancy model but includes two more variables.
- → Goal-setting theory is an improvement in the goal-setting model. In the future it will be necessary to analyze if by achieving the objectives of the group, a person can individually achieve their own personal objectives.

# **AGE MOTIVATION:**

How do these theories explain motivation in older workers?

- → In terms of **content-related theories**, the <u>problem</u> is that:
  - Changes are motivating when a person is young but **challenging** when they are old.
  - Feedback is not very important when a person is <u>older</u>, as older people do not care so much as they have their own experience in the field, and so this is not a motivating factor.

o **Salary** is a motivating factor, but for <u>older</u> people having more money does not make a huge difference to their lives.

What is are motivators for older people are safety, security, stability, and a good working atmosphere.

Why does job satisfaction increase with age? Because at this point in life, people can retire, so those who keep working are those who are highly motivated since they have the time and money to do other things. Also, they find that work is easier because of their experience.

- → In terms of process-related theories, the <u>problem</u> is:
  - o finding **motivating incentives** since they are adapted to them.
  - o respect old workers' habits.
  - o comparison with younger workers.
  - o applying age stereotypes.
  - o these final points affect **self-efficacy** (as I'm old I feel like I'm not capable of doing something).

# UNIT 5

#### NEW WAYS OF WORKING: TEAMWORK

#### WHAT IS A TEAM?

<u>Definition 1</u>: "A **team** is a relatively small group of people (from 2 to 15, the ideal number is 7) working on a clearly defined, challenging task that is most efficiently completed by a group working together rather than by individuals working alone or in parallel; who have clear, shared, challenging, team-level objectives derived directly from the task; who have to work closely and interdependently to achieve these objectives; whose members work in distinct roles within the team (although some roles may be duplicated) and who have the necessary authority, autonomy, and resources that enable them to meet the team's objectives." (Woods and West, 2010)

#### Summary of this definition:

- autonomy and control.
- shared objectives.
- responsibility and accountability.
- dependence.
- size 2-15.
- organizational identity.

<u>Definition 2</u>: "**Teams** are composed of two or more individuals who exist to perform organizationally relevant tasks, share one or more common goals, interact socially, exhibit tasks, interdependences, maintain and manage boundaries and are embedded in an organizational context that sets boundaries, constrains the team and influences exchanges with other units in the broader entity." (Kozlowski and Bell, 2003)

So, which definition is focused on group-level features and which on the organizational level? The second considers the influence of the team on the organizational context – and so the first definition focuses on the group level and the second one focuses on the organizational level.

# THREE COORDINATION MECHANISMS:

- **Shared mental models**: members should think similarly and have a similar mental scheme.
- Closed loop communication: face-to-face meetings.
- Mutual trust: members of the team should trust each other.

#### FIVE CORE COMPONENTS OF TEAMWORK:

These three mechanisms lead to five core components of teamwork:

- **1.** Leadership: influence on other members. Two types of leaders:
  - **a.** Formal / designated leader: designated by some kind of authority which is outside of the task as a supervisor (the boss or the departmental manager).
  - **b.** <u>Informal / spontaneous leader</u>: people in a group decide suddenly to follow him or her.
- **2. Adaptability**: adapt quickly to new circumstances. The group must be resilient towards challenges.
- **3. Mutual performance monitoring**: as a team member you need to check the performance of others.
- **4. Backup behavior (workload)**: person who substitutes for another (leaves the company, is sick, on holidays, etc.). IT IS NOT A NEW CONTRACT.
- **5. Team orientation (pressure or stress)**: always need to be worried for the team and not just for yourself.

#### TYPES OF TIMES IN ORGANIZATIONS

There are two classifications of teams:

- Categories:
  - o Strategy and policy teams (football team, politicians, etc.)
  - o Production teams (teams dedicated to the creation of products, etc.)
  - o Service teams (waiters in a restaurant, lifeguards, etc.)
  - o Project and development teams (scientists, doctors, etc.)
  - o Action and performing teams (hunters, lifeguards, football teams, etc.)
- **Dimensions** (which are always continuous and relative to a position between two extremes):
  - o Degree of performance (time that the group is together)
  - o Emphasis on skill / competence development
  - o Genuine autonomy and influence (impact they have)
  - Level of task from routine to strategic (routine teams: production teams / strategic teams)

#### WHAT DO TEAMS DO?

They handle tasks that are better performed by teams than individuals.

# **DIMENSIONS:**

Depending on the types of tasks, it is better to work alone or in teams. Some tasks are better performed by teams than by individuals. <u>Dimensions</u>:

• **Autonomy:** a certain level of autonomy is needed for teamwork. If there is a high level of autonomy, team performance is better than individual performance. If a task requires someone to control your performance continuously, do it alone.

- **Developmental possibilities for the task:** when it is possible to enrich the task, it is better to work in teams.
- Varied demands: when you have all the necessary skills and abilities to perform a task, do it alone. However, if you need to apply several skills that you do not have, then do it with a team because each member can be an expert in an key ability.
- Opportunities for learning: when you can learn from other people. Teams enable learning from different but related fields while focused on one specific task.
- Task significance: when a task is significant, important, relevant for the business or society, it is better to share it with people and teams. All the members feel they have participated in the whole task
- **Completeness:** when you can do the task from the beginning to the end it is better to do it alone.
- Requirements for interdependence: different professionals work together. For example: in medicine when looking for a treatment for a disease, experts in different departments must work on their own.

#### WHY WORK IN TEAMS?

#### Cohen and Bailey (1997):

- teams are the best way to enact organizational strategy.
- teams enable organizations to speedily develop and deliver products and services
- teams enable organizations to learn (and retain learning) more effectively.
- cross-functional teams promote improved quality management.
- cross-functional design teams can undertake radical change.
- creativity and innovation are promoted within teams.

#### **Benefits for:**

- EMPLOYEES (Godard, 2001):
  - o job satisfaction.
  - o empowerment.
  - o commitment.
  - o citizenship.
  - o task involvement and belonginess.
- ORGANIZATIONS (West and Markiewicz, 2004):
  - o efficient processes.
  - o flexible response to change.
  - o improved effectiveness.
  - o reduced costs.
  - o increased innovation.
  - o effective partnering with other organizations.
  - o customer involvement.
  - o employee commitment and well-being.
  - o more comprehensive utilization of the skills of employees.

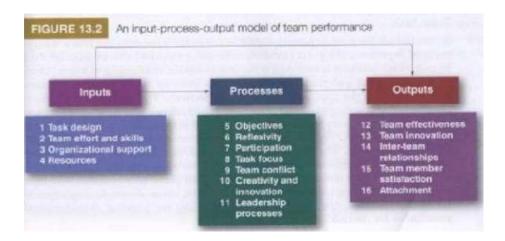
Why is it beneficial to work in teams? Because we are a social species, groups historically favor our existence in terms of reproduction, hunting, etc. and so working in groups is human nature.

#### WHAT MAKES A TEAM EFFECTIVE?

There is a theoretical model that argues the existence of **16 factors** that determine the effectiveness of a team, which are divided into **3 stages**/ **categories** (input, processes, and output).

This model is criticized on two points:

- talking about the effectiveness of a team is complex, so 16 factors are not enough.
- this model is static; therefore, we need longitudinal studies (long-term).



#### 1. TEAM INPUTS:

#### A) Task design:

- o complete task.
- autonomy.
- o task relevance.
- o feedback.
- o interdependence.

### B) Team effort and skills:

- Ability and personality:
  - people with high levels of ability (intelligence) predict performance in teams.
  - the "Big Five" model of personality: teams composed of conscientious people with high levels of extraversion are likely to be the most effective.
- o Team member motivation and effort.

- o Appropriateness of team member skills to the task in hand.
- Team potency: team member belief in likelihood of a team's ability to succeed.
- → Belbin's team role model: identify what role somebody can play in a team. The problem with this model is the psychometric properties in which it is inspired. According to this model, the ideal number of members is eight and outside this group there is a monitor or evaluator who controls team performance but from outside the team by observing development and giving feedback.
  - 1) Ideas  $\rightarrow$  creative team member who gives ideas (creator).
  - **2)** Shaper→ member who gives a shape to an idea (takes the original idea and transforms it into reality).
  - **3)** Resource investigator → member who has contacts who can help the group to carry out a task.
  - **4)** Specialist → member who is expert in specific topics.
  - **5) Implementer** → member who takes the initiative and turns the idea and plans into reality and motivates.
  - **6) Team-worker**→ member who joins the group by socializing and creates a good atmosphere.
  - **7)** Completer finisher → member who decides that the task is finished and that no changes are needed.
  - **8)** Coordinator → organizes the roles (moderator).
- → Steven's and Campion's knowledge, skills, and abilities for team working (KSA) (another classification of team skills):

Interpersonal team member KSAs:

- a) Conflict resolution.
- b) Collaborative problem solving.
- c) Communication.

Self-management team KSAs:

- d) Goal setting and performance management.
- e) Planning and task coordination.
- → Generic teamwork skills:
  - active listening.
  - communication skills.
  - social perceptiveness (able to interpret non-verbal communication).
  - self-monitoring (self-control, realize that you are not good at something and can exercise self-control).
  - altruism (help and support others without expecting anything).
  - warmth and cooperation.
  - patience and tolerance.

#### C) Organizational support:

- o information and communication.
- o training for teamworking.
- o atmosphere supportive of teamworking.
- Organizational structure:
  - a) vertical linkage refers to a hierarchical organization.
  - **b)** horizontal linkage refers to a non-hierarchical structure, it would be more effective as there is more autonomy. Horizontal companies are better for the effectiveness of a team.
- <u>Organizational culture</u>: it is difficult to change (you need to change atmosphere first), but teamwork would be more effective if the company supports:
  - a) trust.
  - **b)** communication.
  - c) involvement and participation.
  - d) support for training and teamworking.
- <u>Climate for team-based working</u> (important for effectiveness):
  - a) supportive and challenging climate.
  - **b)** risk taking and idea generation.
- <u>Appraisal and performance review systems</u>: develop a system evaluating performance that checks:
  - a) team outcomes.
  - **b)** team member growth and well-being.
  - c) inter-team relations (relations among different groups).
  - d) team goal setting.
  - e) team innovation.
- <u>Reward systems</u>: if the results of the evaluation are good, the team should be rewarded.

#### D) Resources:

 Material and human resources. For example: IT support and administration support.

#### 2. TEAM PROCESSES:

- A) Objectives: Clear and realistic agreement about objectives (5-9 objectives):
  - o clarity of objectives.
  - o team member commitment to objectives.
  - o agreement within the team about the appropriateness of objectives.

#### **B)** Participation:

- o Decision-making influenced by:
  - Ignoring new info: people not expressing their opinion (sometimes non-speakers have good ideas).
  - Social conformity: agreeing to avoid social pressure.

- Airtime: extroverts talk more and louder (be careful with people who talk too much because they are not always correct or even knowledgeable.)
- Status and hierarchy: people are inhibited when there is someone important nearby.
- Group polarization: extreme opinions (the best is an intermediate position).
- Groupthink: extreme need for agreement (voting, discussing and analysis).
- Social loafing: only some members are working.
- Brainstorming: apply it in a suitable way by investing some minutes to let members think on their own and later express their ideas.
- o Communication.
- o Regular meetings.
- o Trust, safety, and support.
- C) Task focus: team practice examining performance critically.
  - O Customer/ client focus.
  - o Concern with quality of work commitment to excellence.
  - Constructive debate about task performance (constructive controversy): criticism is made in a cooperative context (not competitive). To create such debate, we need:
    - <u>Preparation of positions</u>: every member of the group expresses their opinion.
    - <u>Search for understanding</u>: be empathetic and understand other points of view.
    - Integration of perspectives.
  - Error management: the team can respond to an error by seeking who to blame, or by asking what it can learn from this error.
- **D)** Team conflicts: make team members uncomfortable, anxious, and angry.
  - o Task-related conflict.
  - o Interpersonal conflict.
  - o How do we resolve conflicts in teams?
    - Avoid.
    - Accommodate: adopt a submissive or passive attitude (producing depression in the long term).
    - <u>Compete</u>: aggressive attitude to achieve goals (in the long run loneliness).
    - Compromise: reach an agreement.
    - <u>Collaborate</u>: find an integrative and creative solution that differs from the original proposals.

- **E)** Creativity and innovation: useful to solve problems.
  - o Practical support for new and improved products and services.
  - Climate for creativity and innovation.
  - Stages:
    - Exploration.
    - <u>Ideation</u> (brainstorming).
    - Selection of ideas.
    - <u>Implementation.</u>
- **F) Reflexivity**: when the task is finished, analyze what went well, what was problematic, what can be learnt, and what can be done next time. Stages:
  - o Reflection on performance.
  - Planning: detail, inclusiveness of potential problems, ordering of plans, and time scale.
  - o Action: magnitude, novelty, radicalness, and effectiveness.

#### 3. **OUTPUTS**:

- A) Team effectiveness: clear
  - o goal achievement.
  - o productivity.
  - o managerial praise.

#### B) Innovation:

o development of new products, services, ways of working.

#### **C)** Inter-team relationships:

- o cooperation with other teams.
- o effectiveness in working with other teams.
- o absence of destructive conflict with other teams.

#### D) Team member satisfaction with:

- o recognition for contribution.
- o responsibility.
- o team member support.
- o influence over decisions.
- o team openness.
- o how conflicts are resolved.

#### **E)** Attachment:

- o attachment to the team and its members.
- o sense of belonging to the team.

### UNIT 6

#### JOB STRESS AND OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH

#### JOB STRESS AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM

- The changing nature of work: more cognitive skills will be needed because work will be more complicated, and we will still have stress.
- Mental and emotional demands.
- High prevalence of job stress.
- Physical and psychological disorders.
- Huge expenditures: if workers feel bad, they will stay at home, or work inefficiently, job quality will worsen, and companies will be negatively affected, etc.
- Legislation: laws will be created that help workers. and keep them healthy to avoid major expenditure.

The consequences of having more mental and emotional demands: physical disorders such as cardiovascular problems and muscular problems.

In addition to psychological disorders such as anxiety and depression.

One of the ten future trends is that work will be more demanding intellectually, so it means that we will have more cognitive and emotional demands made on us and this may lead to higher levels of stress. When feeling stress, psychological, and physiological changes take place which may lead to serious health problems. These problems may increase the turnover and absenteeism among workers, which involves huge costs for the company and the state – so new legislation is being developed in this matter.

#### WHAT IS JOB STRESS?

<u>Job stress</u>: reaction/response of my body to the demands of the environment that I cannot satisfy because I do not have enough resources (if I had them, I would properly respond to the demands and stress would not appear).

Stress is subjective (it is considered a type of tension or strain). There is little agreement on its definition because it is studied by many disciplines. There are several theoretical models of job stress. Therefore, we may make three classifications of stress definitions:

A) JOB STRESS AS A STIMULUS (focusing on antecedents, causes, potential stressors, etc.):

Two types of causes/ antecedents/ potential stressors:

- O **Job demands**: These can produce stress as stressors:
  - Workload: at work many things to do in a hurry.
  - Emotional labor: in a job where you must continuously control your emotions.
  - <u>Physical exertion</u>: using force and energy.
  - Others: role ambiguity, role conflict, bullying at work, and work-home conflict.
- o **Job resources (lack)**: a lack of resources can produce stress:
  - Job autonomy: cannot do anything by myself, always asking for everything.
  - <u>Job variety</u>: doing the same thing every day.
  - Workplace social support: problems with colleagues at work.

There are **cognitive components** (thinking), **emotional components** (feelings, emotions, self-control, support from colleagues), and **physical components** (force or exercise needed on the job).

#### B) JOB STRESS AS A RESPONSE:

In this view, stress is the reaction of the body to demands in the environment that cannot be satisfied because somebody does not have enough resources. Usually, stress appears when there is a lack of resources to complete a task.

The process of stress is controlled by the ANS. The general adaptation syndrome (GAS) by Hans Selye describes three stages:

- **1. Alarm reaction:** when I realize I have a problem and that I do not have enough resources to resolve it: ALARM REACTION: What can I do? In general, two things:
  - **a.** Fight: Try to do something
  - **b.** <u>Fly</u>: Escape or avoid

This stage is characterized by the **adrenaline segregation** controlled by the <u>sympathetic nervous system</u>.

- **2. Resistance:** the person starts to think about possible solutions for handling the situation and takes action characterized by the segregation of hormone **cortisol** by the <u>parasympathetic</u> <u>nervous system</u>.
- **3. Exhaustion:** when the stressful situation has ended, the body needs to recover to its original state.

The **problems** of job stress as a response:

- it does not disappear if you do not cope with this emotion.
- longer periods cause more stress.
- chronic conditions cause more stress.

At the individual, interpersonal, and organizational level this may lead to five stressors reactions:

affective, physical, cognitive, behavioral, and motivational.

#### C) JOB STRESS AS A MEDIATIONAL PROCESS:

Stress involves cognitive, evaluative, and motivational processes which may be triggered by different stressors which may be perceived differently by each person.

#### o Focus of coping:

- <u>Problem-oriented</u>: the person is going to try to solve the problem (fight).
- <u>Emotion-oriented</u>: the person tries to cope with their emotions.

#### **Output** Method of coping:

- Overt-covert: everyone can see that you are doing something to cope with the situations (overt) or you do something covertly.
- Control-escape: fight or flight from the situation.

### THE OTHER SIDE OF THE COIN: GOOD STRESS AND WORK ENGAGEMENT:

There is also a good stress called EUSTRESS (the bad one is called DISTRESS).

The good stress appears when the body releases endorphins (good hormones) when in a stressful situation so that you feel good, calm, and satisfied. For example: when you win something like a lottery, or a contest... / when you buy a house, and you move in / when you get married, and you need to prepare the wedding.

Having employees with good stress is associated with **work engagement**, which is a positive and fulfilling. It is a work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. It also protects from burnout (consequence of stress).

#### INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND JOB STRESS:

- **1. Genetic characteristics:** gender, constitution (strong or weak), physique (attractiveness).
- 2. Acquired characteristics: education, social class, skills.
- **3. Dispositional characteristics:** coping styles (fight or fly), preferences, type A/B behavior (A= aggressive; B= submissive/ passive personality).

#### THEORICAL MODELS OF JOB STRESS

The three first models are the classical stress models:

### 1) VITAMIN MODEL (WARR, 1987):

This model tries to make an **analogy** between vitamins in our body (lack or excess of vitamins) and the job characteristics (lack or excess of these characteristics). It is inspired by other models about stress: the **Michigan model** (the work environment is the cause of stress) and the (P-E) **person-environment fit model** (stress appears when there is a mismatch between the worker and the environment).

The framework of this model emphasizes:

- o **Person-environment** interaction is the cause of stress.
- O There are **9 job-characteristics** that affect workers:
  - 1. availability of money
  - 2. physical security
  - 3. valued social position
  - 4. opportunity for control
  - 5. opportunity for skill use
  - 6. externally generated goals
  - 7. variety
  - 8. environmental clarity
  - 9. opportunity for interpersonal contact
- It does not measure job stress, but effective well-being. If there is a low well-being level then stress may appear. The dimensions for affective well-being are arousal; anxiety/ comfort; displeased/ pleased; and depressed/ enthusiastic.

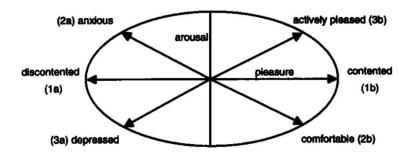
The moderators for these vitamins on affective well-being are:

- Values - Abilities - Baseline

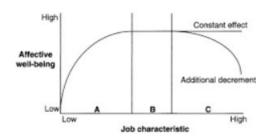
The more job characteristics aiming at improving affective well-being, the better my well-being will be, but it will become constant in a specific time (constant effect) or decrease (decrement effect).

Which outcome occurs depends on improvements in job characteristics:

- a) Constant effect (wellbeing remains constant) appears when there is an increase in three job characteristics: 1) availability of money; 2) physical security; and 3) valued social position.
- b) Additional decrement (increase in wellbeing) happens when there is an increase in the other six job characteristics: 4) opportunity of control; 5) opportunity for skill use; 6) externally generated goals; 7) variety; 8) environmental clarity; and 9) opportunity for interpersonal contact.



Job Stress and Occupational Health



### 2) DEMAND-CONTROL-SUPPORT MODEL (JOHNSON & HALL, 1988):

**DEMAND-CONTROL MODEL (KARASECK, 1979):** Based on two dimensions:

- Job decision latitude: level of autonomy and control you feel in your job.
- o **Job demands**: how easy or difficult you perceive the job.

Combining these two dimensions (strain = stress and tension):

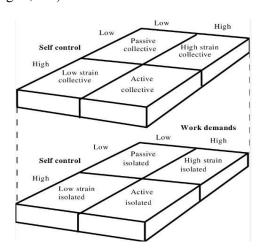
- High job decision latitude low job demands ☐ <u>LOW STRAIN</u> (my job is easy, and I can do it easily).
- High job decision latitude high job demands ☐ <u>ACTIVE</u> (my job is difficult, but I can do it very well).
- Low job decision latitude low job demands ☐ <u>PASSIVE</u> (I am submissive, I just do my job).
- Low job decision latitude high job demands ☐ <u>HIGH STRAIN</u> (my job is difficult, and I must do it on my own).

#### Learning High Examples: High Active jobs call-center phone-call handler: 1 high s jobs B) elite team sport athlete: 2 active Job Control C) qualified medical doctor: 2 active D) shopping center security guard: 3 low d High strain Low Passive jobs E) lifeguard at a swimming pool: 2 active F) company chief executive: 2 active G) supermarket checkout operator: 4 passis H) assembly line worker: 4 passive Stress used car salesperson: 1 high strain

**DEMAND-CONTROL-SUPPORT MODEL:** it is the same as the Karaseck model, but the **level of support for colleagues** is added as a variable or a new dimension. Accordingly, the four worker roles can also be for groups. You can feel **collective stress** (you feel supported when shared with coworkers) or **isolated stress** (you are alone).

The <u>limitations/ problems</u> of this model are:

- Conceptualization of dimensions: the dimensions are not well defined. What exactly is the meaning of the three components?
- Combinations are not stronger responses: all three variables can combine differently, and they may not actually lead to stress. Just the presence of one variable can cause stress and there is no need for combination.
- Subjective measurement: a questionnaire is administered.
- Individual differences (social class, coping strategies, etc.).



# 3) EFFORT-REWARD IMBALANCE MODEL (SIEGRIST, 1996):

This model states that stress will appear when there is not a balance between the effort invested and the reward received. Variables include:

- **High level of effort**: It can be:
  - o <u>extrinsic</u>: job demands (complicated tasks).
  - intrinsic: overcommitment (I am investing a great effort at work because I want to, not because my job is complicated). The characteristics are:
    - need for approval.
    - competitiveness and hostility.
    - impatience and irritability.
    - work obligations.
- Low reward (salary, esteem, security, career opportunities, etc.).

The limitations of this model are:

- it should include both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.
- is overcommitment stable?
- status inconsistency: if a person is a good professional but is working as a cashier in a fast-food restaurant, the rewards will be insufficient.
- work-home conflict: when having problems at home due to work, the rewards will never be enough.
- longitudinal studies of dimensions.

And the final two are the updated models:

# 4) JOB DEMANDS-RESOURCES MODEL (DEMEROUTI, 2001):

It states the relationship between job demands and job resources. Stress appears when there is a negative relationship between these variables.

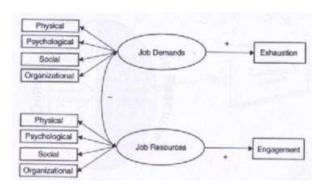
#### • Job demands:

- o physical (we need to use force, physical effort).
- psychological (intelligence, make decisions, problem-solving, conflicts).
- o social (interaction with people).
- o organizational (job conditions).

#### • Job resources:

- o physical (tools, machines, etc.).
- o psychological (information is available).
- o social (support and affection of colleagues).
- o organizational (good timetable, holidays, good relationships, etc.).
- High levels of job demands and low levels of job resources EXHAUSTION (3<sup>rd</sup> phase of general adaptation syndrome).
- Low levels of job demands and high levels of job resources 
   <u>ENGAGEMENT</u> (good stress, protection from burnout caused by stress).

There are <u>empirical results</u> behind this theoretical model in which the sample was <u>different occupational settings</u>. Therefore, this model has been observed and demonstrated in different positions and jobs.



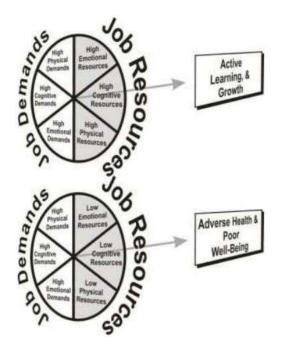
### 5) DEMAND-INDUCED STRAIN COMPENSATION MODEL (JONGE & DORMANN, 2003):

This model is based on the ideas of compensation. It is inspired in older classical models of stress:

- DC (demand-control model of Karaseck)
- ERI models (effort-reward imbalance model)

Its key principles are:

- **a) Multidimensionality**: the two variables (job demands and job resources) have three dimensions: physical; cognitive; and emotional.
- **b) TMP** (**triple match principle**): a match between the three dimensions of job demands and job resources leads to good stress = eustress (active learning and growth).
- **c)** Compensation principle: compensation between demands and resources according to abilities and skills (if they're compensated, stress levels may be lower).
- **d) Imbalance**: if there's an imbalance between the demands and resources, adverse health, and poor well-being will appear, leading to distress (bad stress).



#### INTERVENTIONS TO PREVENT OR REDUCE STRESS

When there is a problem of stress in a company, we can act on three levels:

- **Organizational level**: identify job stress (time scheduling, work environment, communication, etc.).
- Individual-organizational level: identify personal screening (career management, time management, interpersonal skills, balancing work and private life, and peer support).
- **Individual**: self-monitoring (stress management, healthy lifestyle, cognitive-behavior techniques, and relaxation).

And we can apply different strategies:

- strategies to solve stress.
- strategies to prevent the appearance of stress.