MGMT1003:

- **Metacognition;** being able to observe your own processes
- **Allowing;** accepting that things are as they are
- **Curiosity;** the motivation for developing awareness
- **Mindfulness;** mindfulness is paying attention, on purpose, in the present, and non-judgementally, to the unfolding of experience moment by moment.
- **Sensemaking;** is the process of making sense of ambiguity and uncertainty, or *equivocality*. Sensemaking arises out of human interaction as people attempt to make sense of an ambiguous situation. Sensemaking involves individuals engaging in retrospective and prospective thinking in order to construct an interpretation of reality.
- **Active sensemaking;** is the engaged, conscious, intentional collection and integration of information leading to thoughtful judgment and informed decision making.
- **Passive sensemaking;** an often submissive, acceptance of 'knowledge' or information without consideration, critique or questioning its relevance, truth, basis or underlying assumptions.
- **Sensegiving;** is a related process by which individuals attempt to influence the sensemaking of others.
- **Sensebraking;** is the destruction or breaking down of meaning. Occurs when people stop to question their underlying assumptions and re-examine their course of action.
- **VUCA Management matrix;**
    - Volatility – is the quality of being subject to frequent, rapid and significant change.
    - Uncertainty – is a characteristic of that situation, in which events and outcomes are unpredictable.
    - Complexity – involves a multiplicity of issues and factors, some of which may be intricately interconnected.
    - Ambiguity – is manifested in a lack of clarity and the difficulty of understanding exactly what the situation is.
- **Intellectual autonomy;** willingness and ability to think for oneself. A person with this virtue is not overly dependent on others when it comes to forming her beliefs.
- **Old interpretation of management (classical perspective);** management is getting work done through others and that managers have to be concerned with efficiency and effectiveness in the workplace. It is said that;
    - Efficiency - is getting work done with a minimum of effort, expense or waste.
    - Effectiveness - is accomplishing tasks that help address organisational objectives, such as customer service and satisfaction.
    - It is assumed that efficiency + effectiveness = maximum benefit with minimal cost.
- **Three components of classical perspective management;**
    1. Scientific management - the idea of arranging work based on careful analysis of tasks for maximum productivity (efficiency). The principles of scientific management are used to develop standard operating procedures, selecting employees with relevant skills, developing training programs, and providing wage incentives
    2. Bureaucratic management - the idea that organisations should operate as a system that incorporated division of labor, hierarchy, rules and procedures, written decisions, promotion based on technical qualifications, and separation of ownership and management
    3. Administrative management - focused on the total organization rather than the individual worker, delineating the management functions of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling
- **Areas of competency;**
    - Managing yourself - including self-awareness, reflective thinking, time and stress management and the perception and sensemaking skills we have discussed already.
    - Managing relationships - including mentoring and coaching, inspiring and empowering, resolving conflicts and establishing positive culture and general communication skills.
    - Managing your team - including the ability to plan and share vision, set goals and allocate resources accordingly, manage performance, network, build relationships and initiate change).
- **Evolution of management;**
    - Classical approaches (late 1800s – early 1900s) -
        - Scientific management
        - Bureaucratic management
        - Administrative management
    - Humanistic approaches (early to mid 1900s) -
        - Human Relations management
        - Human Resources management
        - Theory X and Theory Y
        - Behavioural Sciences Approach

- o Management Science approaches (post WWII) -
  - Operations management
  - Management information systems
- o Recent and emerging approaches (late 1900s to early 21st century) -
  - Systems theory
  - Contingency perspective
  - Total Quality Management (TQM)
  - Learning Organizations
  - Technology driven workplaces
  - Evidence-based management
- **Julian Birkinshaw, four essential ingredients to management that is future-proof;**
  1. Know and understand the <u>purpose</u> of your business and base your objectives on achieving this purpose;
  2. Understand what <u>motivates</u> your employees in terms of what they find challenging and stimulating;
  3. <u>Empower</u> all employees to make decisions relevant to their role and to achieving the purpose of the business;
  4. Establish and encourage an organizational culture where processes <u>emerge</u> in response to the task, context and objectives, rather than being directed by tightly controlled guidelines or bureaucracy.
- **Nature of managerial work (Mintzberg);** each of the 10 roles undertaken by an individual manager have been sorted into three categories depending on the primary nature of that aspect of the role: interpersonal, informational and decisional. In addition to this, Mintzberg also highlighted that the purpose of all of these categories of work revolve around the sharing, processing and application of information.
- **Mintzberg;** states that over the years of observing managers leading and controlling have decreased and networking (and distributed leadership) and persuasion or guidance (supportive of subordinate autonomy rather than being overly controlling) have increased.
- **Functions of management (Fayol);** Traditionally, it has been suggested that managers undertake four primary tasks, planning, leading, controlling and organizing
  1. <u>Planning -</u> determining organisational goals and a means for achieving them.
  2. <u>Organising -</u> deciding how decisions will be made, who will do what jobs and tasks, and who will work for whom in the company.
  3. <u>Leading -</u> inspiring and motivating workers to work hard to achieve organisational goals.
  4. <u>Controlling -</u> monitoring progress toward goal achievement and taking corrective action when progress isn't being made.
- **Critiquing Fayol's functions of management;** In a bureaucratically organised business, Fayol's assumptions may be valid, however, in an organisation that is more closely aligned with the principles of adhocracy, the manager takes a backseat on many of these functions, distributing power among team members and supporting and facilitating decision making in a manner that works best for the team and the project they are working on.
- **Metacognition;** is essentially thinking about thinking. Metacognition is considered to be a higher-order function compared to 'regular thinking' and is essentially the ability to be aware of your own thinking. With metacognitive awareness you can then develop metacognitive knowledge, which involves 'thinking about thinking'.
- **Thinking;** Thinking is the process of structuring information and doing something with it. Types of thinking include; critical, creative, systems, scientific, interdisciplinary, emotional/prosocial thinking.
- **Metacognitive awareness;** Having awareness of your own thoughts and thinking style, knowing what you know and what you don't know and how you learn. Being aware of your own mind.
- **Metacognitive regulation;** Having the ability to intentionally determine how you will think, and what you will think about and focus your attention accordingly. Being able to think on purpose.
- **Metacognitive skill;** being able to think about what you are thinking in a variety of ways, from multiple perspectives.
- **Metacognitive experience;** being aware of the experience of thinking about thinking and how it feels.
- **Theories of leadership;** Over time many theories of leadership have emerged. They fall into four main categories:
- <u>Trait theories -</u> argue that effective leaders share a number of common personality characteristics, or 'traits'.
- <u>Behavioral theories -</u> focus on how leaders behave. For instance, do leaders dictate what needs to be done and expect cooperation? Or do they involve their teams in decision-making to encourage acceptance and support? What is their style?
- <u>Contingency theories -</u> The realization that there is no one correct type of leader led to theories that the best leadership style depends on the situation. These theories try to predict which style is best in which circumstance and acknowledge that no single optimal leadership profile exists.
- <u>Power and influence theories -</u> based on the different ways that leaders use power and influence to get things done, and they look at the leadership styles that emerge as a result.