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M: Organizational Behavior, 5e

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Brief Table of Contents 2
Expanded Table of Contents 3
What's New in the Fifth Edition 9
McGraw Hill Connect® 11
SmartBook® 2.0 13
Affordability & Outcomes 15
Academic Integrity Partnership 16
Sample Chapter 20
Support At Every Step 52
Desk Copy Request 53

Brief Contents

part one Introduction 2

1 Introduction to the Field of Organizational Behavior 2

part two Individual Behavior and Processes 30

2 Individual Differences: Personality and Values 30
3 Perceiving Ourselves and Others in Organizations 52
4 Workplace Emotions, Attitudes, and Stress 76
5 Employee Motivation 102
6 Decision Making and Creativity 134

part three Team Processes 158

7 Team Dynamics 158
8 Communicating in Teams and Organizations 186
9 Power and Influence in the Workplace 210
10 Conflict and Negotiation in the Workplace 232
11 Leadership in Organizational Settings 256

part four Organizational Processes 276

12 Designing Organizational Structures 276
13 Organizational Culture 296
14 Organizational Change 318

Organization Index 337
Name Index 339
Glossary/Subject Index 352

Contents

part one Introduction 2

Jacob Ammentorp Lund/Ammentorp/123RF

1 Introduction to the Field of Organizational Behavior 2

WELCOME TO THE FIELD OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR! 3

What Is Organizational Behavior? 3

Historical Foundations of Organizational Behavior 4

WHY ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR IS IMPORTANT 5

Why OB Is Important for You 5

Why OB Is Important for Organizations 6

Connecting the Dots: An Integrative Model of Organizational Behavior 9

ANCHORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR KNOWLEDGE 10

The Systematic Research Anchor 10

The Practical Orientation Anchor 11

The Multidisciplinary Anchor 11

The Contingency Anchor 11

The Multiple Levels of Analysis Anchor 12

THE EMERGING WORKPLACE LANDSCAPE 12

Diversity and the Inclusive Workplace 12

Work–Life Integration 13

Remote Work 15

Employment Relationships 16

MARS MODEL OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR AND PERFORMANCE 17

Employee Motivation 17

Ability 18

Role Perceptions 18

Situational Factors 20

TYPES OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR 20

Task Performance 20

Organizational Citizenship 20

Counterproductive Work Behaviors 21

Joining and Staying with the Organization 21

Maintaining Work Attendance 21

THE JOURNEY BEGINS 22

part two Individual Behavior and Processes 30

2 Individual Differences: Personality and Values 30

PERSONALITY AND THE FIVE-FACTOR MODEL IN ORGANIZATIONS 31

What Causes Personality: Nature versus Nurture 31

Five-Factor Model of Personality 32

OTHER PERSONALITY CONCEPTS: THE DARK TRIAD AND MBTI TYPES 35

The Dark Triad 35

Jungian Personality Theory and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator 36

VALUES IN THE WORKPLACE 37

Types of Values 38

Values and Individual Behavior 39

Values Congruence 40

ETHICAL VALUES AND BEHAVIOR 40

Four Ethical Principles 41

Moral Intensity, Moral Sensitivity, and Situational Influences 41

Supporting Ethical Behavior 42


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VALUES ACROSS CULTURES 43
- Individualism and Collectivism 43
- Power Distance 44
- Uncertainty Avoidance 44
- Achievement-Nurturing Orientation 44
- Caveats about Cross-Cultural Knowledge 44

3 Perceiving Ourselves and Others in Organizations 52

SELF-CONCEPT: HOW WE PERCEIVE OURSELVES 53
- Self-Concept Complexity, Consistency, and Clarity 53
- Self-Enhancement 55
- Self-Verification 56
- Self-Evaluation 56
- The Social Self 57
- Self-Concept and Organizational Behavior 58

PERCEIVING THE WORLD AROUND US 58
- Perceptual Organization and Interpretation 59

SPECIFIC PERCEPTUAL PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS 61
- Stereotyping in Organizations 61
- Attribution Theory 63
- Self-Fulfilling Prophecy 64
- Other Perceptual Effects 65

IMPROVING PERCEPTIONS 66
- Awareness of Perceptual Biases 66
- Improving Self-Awareness 67
- Meaningful Interaction 68

4 Workplace Emotions, Attitudes, and Stress 76

EMOTIONS IN THE WORKPLACE 77
- Types of Emotions 78
- Emotions, Attitudes, and Behavior 79
- Cognitive Dissonance 81
- Emotions and Personality 82

MANAGING EMOTIONS AT WORK 82
- Emotional Display Norms across Cultures 83
- Strategies for Displaying Expected Emotions 83

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE 84
- Emotional Intelligence Outcomes and Development 85

JOB SATISFACTION 86
- Job Satisfaction and Work Behavior 86
- Job Satisfaction and Performance 87
- Job Satisfaction and Customer Satisfaction 88
- Job Satisfaction and Business Ethics 89

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT 89
- Consequences of Affective and Continuance Commitment 89
- Building Organizational Commitment 90

WORK-RELATED STRESS AND ITS MANAGEMENT 90
- General Adaptation Syndrome 91
- Consequences of Distress 91
- Stressors: The Causes of Stress 92
- Individual Differences in Stress 93
- Managing Work-Related Stress 93

5 Employee Motivation 102

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, DRIVES, AND NEEDS 103
- Employee Drives and Needs 104
- Individual Differences in Needs 105

DRIVE-BASED MOTIVATION THEORIES 105
- Four-Drive Theory 105
- Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Theory 107
- Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation 108
- Learned Needs Theory 109

EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION 109
- Expectancy Theory in Practice 110

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION AND SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY 111
- Organizational Behavior Modification 112
- Social Cognitive Theory 113

GOAL SETTING AND FEEDBACK 114
- Characteristics of Effective Feedback 114
- Sources of Feedback 116
- Evaluating Goal Setting and Feedback 116

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE 117
- Distributive Justice and Equity Theory 117
- Procedural and Interactional Justice 119


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JOB DESIGN 120
Job Design and Work Efficiency 121
Scientific Management 121
Problems with Job Specialization 122
Job Design and Work Motivation 122
Job Design Practices That Motivate 124

6 Decision Making and Creativity 134

RATIONAL CHOICE DECISION MAKING 135
Rational Choice Decision Process 137
Problems with Rational Choice Decision Making 137

IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES 137
Problems with Problem Identification 138
Identifying Problems and Opportunities More Effectively 139

SEARCHING FOR, EVALUATING, AND CHOOSING ALTERNATIVES 139
Problems with Goals 139
Problems with Information Processing 139
Problems with Maximization 141
Evaluating Opportunities 142

EMOTIONS AND INTUITION IN DECISION MAKING 142
Emotions and Making Choices 142
Intuition and Making Choices 143
Making Choices More Effectively 143

IMPLEMENTING AND EVALUATING DECISIONS 144
Implementing Decisions 144
Evaluating Decisions 144
Escalation of Commitment 145
Evaluating Decision Outcomes More Effectively 146

CREATIVITY 146
The Creative Process 146
Characteristics of Creative People 147
Organizational Conditions Supporting Creativity 148
Activities That Encourage Creativity 149

EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT IN DECISION MAKING 150
Benefits of Employee Involvement 151
Contingencies of Employee Involvement 151

part three Team Processes 158

7 Team Dynamics 158

TEAMS AND INFORMAL GROUPS 159
Informal Groups 160

BENEFITS AND LIMITATIONS OF TEAMS 161
The Challenges of Teams 161

A MODEL OF TEAM EFFECTIVENESS 163
Organizational and Team Environment 164

TEAM DESIGN ELEMENTS 165
Task Characteristics 165
Team Size 165
Team Composition 166

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TEAM PROCESSES 168
Team Development 168
Team Norms 168
Team Roles 170
Team Cohesion 170
Team Trust 172
Team Mental Models 172
Improving Team Processes through Team Building 173

SELF-DIRECTED AND REMOTE (VIRTUAL) TEAMS 174
Self-Directed Teams 174
Remote (Virtual) Teams 174

TEAM DECISION MAKING 176
Constraints on Team Decision Making 176
Improving Decision Making and Creativity in Teams 177

8 Communicating in Teams and Organizations 186

THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION 187

A MODEL OF COMMUNICATION 188
Influences on Effective Encoding and Decoding 189

COMMUNICATION CHANNELS 189
Internet and Digital Communication 190

Problems with Email and Other Digital Message Channels 191
Social Media Communication in the Workplace 191
Nonverbal Communication 192

CHOOSING THE BEST COMMUNICATION CHANNEL 194
Synchronicity 195
Social Presence 195
Social Acceptance 195
Media Richness 195
Communication Channels and Persuasion 197

COMMUNICATION BARRIERS (NOISE) 198
Information Overload 198

CROSS-CULTURAL AND GENDER COMMUNICATION 199
Nonverbal Differences across Cultures 199
Gender Differences in Communication 200

IMPROVING INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION 200
Getting Your Message Across 200
Active Listening 201

IMPROVING COMMUNICATION THROUGHOUT THE HIERARCHY 201
Workspace Design 202
Digitally Based Organizational Communication 202
Direct Communication with Top Management 203

COMMUNICATING THROUGH THE GRAPEVINE 203
Grapevine Characteristics 203
Grapevine Benefits and Limitations 203

9 Power and Influence in the Workplace 210

THE MEANING OF POWER 211

SOURCES OF POWER IN ORGANIZATIONS 212
Legitimate Power 213
Reward Power 214
Coercive Power 214
Expert Power 214
Referent Power 214
Deference to Power 215

CONTINGENCIES AND CONSEQUENCES OF POWER 215
Contingencies of Power 215
Consequences of Power 216

THE POWER OF SOCIAL NETWORKS 217
Social Capital and Sources of Power 217
Gaining Power through Social Networks 217

INFLUENCING OTHERS 220
Types of Influence Tactics 220
Consequences and Contingencies of Influence Tactics 224

Compassionate Eye Foundation/Mark Langridge/Getty Images

ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS 225
Individual Differences in Organizational Politics 226
Minimizing Organizational Politics 226

10 Conflict and Negotiation in the Workplace 232

THE MEANING AND CONSEQUENCES OF CONFLICT 233
Is Conflict Good or Bad? 234

THE EMERGING VIEW: TASK AND RELATIONSHIP CONFLICT 235
Task Conflict 235
Relationship Conflict 235
Minimizing Relationship Conflict during Task Conflict 236

CONFLICT PROCESS MODEL 236

STRUCTURAL SOURCES OF CONFLICT IN ORGANIZATIONS 237
Incompatible Goals 237
Differentiation 237
Interdependence 238
Scarce Resources 238
Ambiguous Rules 238
Communication Problems 238

INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT-HANDLING STYLES 239
Choosing the Best Conflict-Handling Style 239
Cultural and Gender Differences in Conflict-Handling Styles 241

STRUCTURAL APPROACHES TO CONFLICT MANAGEMENT 242
Emphasize Superordinate Goals 242
Reduce Differentiation 242
Improve Communication and Mutual Understanding 243
Reduce Interdependence 243
Increase Resources 244
Clarify Rules and Procedures 244

THIRD-PARTY CONFLICT RESOLUTION 244
Choosing the Best Third-Party Intervention Strategy 245

RESOLVING CONFLICT THROUGH NEGOTIATION 245
Distributive versus Integrative Approaches to Negotiation 245
Preparing to Negotiate 246
The Negotiation Process 247
The Negotiation Setting 249

Drazen Zigic/Getty Images

11 Leadership in Organizational Settings 256

WHAT IS LEADERSHIP? 257

Shared Leadership 257

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE 258

Develop and Communicate a Strategic Vision 258

Model the Vision 260

Encourage Experimentation 260

Build Commitment toward the Vision 260

Transformational Leadership and Charisma 260

Evaluating the Transformational Leadership Perspective 261

MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE 261

Interdependence of Managerial and Transformational Leadership 262

Task-Oriented and People-Oriented Leadership 262

Servant Leadership 263

PATH–GOAL AND LEADERSHIP SUBSTITUTES THEORIES 263

Path–Goal Leadership Theory 263

Leadership Substitutes Theory 265

IMPLICIT LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE 266

Prototypes of Effective Leaders 266

The Romance of Leadership 267

PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES PERSPECTIVE OF LEADERSHIP 267

Eight Important Leadership Attributes 267

Authentic Leadership 269

Personal Attributes Perspective Limitations and Practical Implications 270

CROSS-CULTURAL AND GENDER ISSUES IN LEADERSHIP 270

part four Organizational Processes 276

12 Designing Organizational Structures 276

DIVISION OF LABOR AND COORDINATION 277

Division of Labor 277

Coordination of Work Activities 278

ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE 280

Span of Control 280

Centralization and Decentralization 282

Formalization 282

Mechanistic versus Organic Structures 283

FORMS OF DEPARTMENTALIZATION 284

Simple Structure 284

Functional Structure 284

Divisional Structure 285

Team-Based Structure 287

Matrix Structure 287

CONTINGENCIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN 289

External Environment 289

Organizational Size 290

Technology 290

Organizational Strategy 292

13 Organizational Culture 296

ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE 297

Espoused versus Enacted Values 297

Content of Organizational Culture 298

Organizational Subcultures 300

DECIPHERING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE THROUGH ARTIFACTS 300

Organizational Stories and Legends 301

Organizational Language 301

Rituals and Ceremonies 302

Physical Structures and Symbols 302

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IS ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IMPORTANT? 303
The Meaning and Potential Benefits of a Strong Culture 303
Contingencies of Organizational Culture and Effectiveness 304
Organizational Culture and Business Ethics 305
MERGING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURES 305
Bicultural Audit 306
Strategies for Merging Different Organizational Cultures 306
CHANGING AND STRENGTHENING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE 307
Model Desired Culture through the Actions of Founders and Leaders 307
Align Artifacts with the Desired Culture 308
Introduce Culturally Consistent Rewards and Recognition 308
Support Workforce Stability and Communication 309
Use Attraction, Selection, and Socialization for Cultural Fit 309
ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION 310
Learning and Adjustment Process 310
Stages of Organizational Socialization 310
Improving the Socialization Process 312

14 Organizational Change 318
LEWIN'S FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS MODEL 319
UNDERSTANDING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE 321
Why Employees Resist Change 321
UNFREEZING, CHANGING, AND REFREEZING 323
Creating an Urgency for Change 323
Reducing the Restraining Forces 324
Refreezing the Desired Conditions 326
LEADERSHIP, COALITIONS, AND PILOT PROJECTS 326
Transformational Leadership and Change 326
Coalitions, Social Networks, and Change 326
Pilot Projects and Diffusion of Change 328
TWO APPROACHES TO ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE 328
Action Research Approach 328
Appreciative Inquiry Approach 330
CROSS-CULTURAL AND ETHICAL ISSUES IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE 332
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: THE JOURNEY CONTINUES 333

Organization Index 337
Name Index 339
Glossary/Subject Index 352

What's New
in the Fifth Edition

M: Organizational Behavior, Fifth Edition, has received more updating and revision than any previous edition of this book. Most chapters have new conceptual content and literature foundation; a few chapters have completely new sections and reorganization. All chapters have new examples and either new or revised factoids. The most substantial changes have occurred in Chapter 1 (Introduction to the Field of Organizational Behavior), Chapter 2 (Individual Differences: Personality and Values), Chapter 5 (Employee Motivation), Chapter 7 (Team Dynamics), Chapter 8 (Communicating in Teams and Organizations), and Chapter 10 (Conflict and Negotiation in the Workplace). This edition also relates the COVID-19 pandemic to several OB concepts and practices.

The authors personally researched, selected, and wrote all of this content, thereby providing superior integration of knowledge and ensuring that the examples are relevant and recent. Here are the key changes we've made to this Fifth edition, broken out by chapter.

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Field of Organizational Behavior

Almost every section of this chapter has been revised, updated, or replaced. This edition has a new section on the emerging workplace landscape, which includes new content on work–life integration, the inclusive workplace, and employment relationships. It also significantly updates the topic of remote work (the narrower topic of telecommuting was covered in previous editions). The section on the importance of organizational behavior now more fully explains why OB is important for students. It also succinctly introduces key organizational effectiveness concepts to explain why OB is vital for organizations. The section on OB anchors now includes a fifth anchor on OB's practical orientation. This chapter also has a stronger micro-OB focus by including the MARS model of individual behavior and the five types of individual behavior (previously in Chapter 2).

Chapter 2: Individual Differences: Personality, and Values

Along with its slightly revised title, this edition brings a number of noticeable updates and changes to the chapter. It now has a full discussion about the dark triad (Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy) and its relevance to organizational behavior. This edition also has a new separate discussion regarding four caveats when applying the five-factor model of personality in organizations. Also included in this edition is a fourth ethical principle: the ethic of care. We have also moved the topics of the MARS model and types of individual behavior from this chapter to Chapter 1.

Chapter 3: Perceiving Ourselves and Others in Organizations

This book pioneered the full model of self-concept and its relevance to organizational behavior. This edition further refines that discussion, particularly in explaining how people develop self-concept clarity and how self-concept characteristics affect behavior and performance. This chapter also updates writing on perceptual organization and interpretation, intentional discrimination, and improving self-awareness of perceptual biases.

Chapter 4: Workplace Emotions, Attitudes, and Stress

This was the first OB book to fully incorporate the concept of emotions in organizational behavior across various topics (perceptions, attitudes, motivation, decisions, etc.). This edition further develops this topic by revising the section on managing emotions and adding recent knowledge about the five strategies that people use to regulate their emotions. This edition also updates the topic of organizational commitment, incorporates normative commitment, and has minor rewriting on managing workplace stress.

Chapter 5: Employee Motivation

This edition significantly revises and updates the topics of procedural and interactional justice, including a new exhibit listing the specific rules of these two forms of organizational justice. The characteristics of effective feedback are discussed more fully, including the addition of an exhibit that defines and illustrates each characteristic. The section on drive-based motivation theories has been reorganized to give more emphasis on the recent four-drive theory. This edition also revises the chapter's opening topic on the meaning of motivation and employee engagement.

Chapter 6: Decision Making and Creativity

This chapter further updates and refines the discussion of information processing when choosing alternatives. Design thinking was fully introduced in the previous edition. In this edition, we have added an exhibit that outlines the four main rules or practices of design thinking. This edition also has minor revisions on the topic of escalation of commitment and ways to evaluate decisions more effectively.

Chapter 7: Team Dynamics

We have revised, clarified, updated, and generally improved several sections of this chapter. Most of the team processes section has been reorganized and rewritten. That section now has a more complete and updated discussion of team mental models, team development, team norms, and team roles. This edition also more completely discusses psychological safety as a factor in effective team decision making than previous editions. Other topics that benefited from minor rewriting and updating include team process losses and the prevalence of remote (virtual) teams.

Chapter 8: Communicating in Teams and Organizations

The previous edition apparently pioneered writing on the four key factors for choosing the best communication channel (synchronicity, social presence, social acceptance, and media richness). This edition further refines that content. We have also substantially updated the topic of digital communication, including a new exhibit on the rapidly changing popularity of various digital communication channels, along with associated discussion about why these changes are occurring. Social media communication is also more fully defined and discussed.

Chapter 9: Power and Influence in the Workplace

The topic of nonsubstitutability as a contingency of power has been rewritten, and the associated topic of personal brand is discussed more fully. We also discuss more fully the troubling issue of deference to power in organizations. The definition of organizational politics is explained in more detail, particularly with reference to recent writing about "positive politics."

Chapter 10: Conflict and Negotiation in the Workplace

This chapter has received several changes and updates. The topic of task and relationship conflict has been further refined for greater clarity. That section also significantly updates strategies to minimize relationship conflict during task conflict, including the role of psychological safety. The topic of conflict handling contingencies has been revised and updated. Along with other changes, it now includes the contingency of maintaining harmony. You will also find revision and updates on communication as a source of conflict, structural ways to manage conflict (particularly on reducing differentiation and on improving communication and mutual understanding), preparing for negotiation, and gathering information during negotiation.

Chapter 11: Leadership in Organizational Settings

This chapter has a few minor updates and revisions. The discussion about transformational leadership and charisma has an updated conceptualization of charisma. The section on strategic vision of transformational leadership has also been revised.

Chapter 12: Designing Organizational Structures

This edition revises the exhibit on mechanistic-organic structures for better clarity and style. The exhibit depicting various types of divisional structure has also been revised with new company examples, and the discussion about divisional structures has been updated. The section and exhibit on matrix organizational structures has similarly been revised with new writing and examples.

Chapter 13: Organizational Culture

Parts of the organizational socialization section have been revised, including the inherent conflicts in pre-employment socialization and the issue of whether socialization changes employee values or mostly communicates values-consistent behavior. This chapter has also revised and updated writing on the meaning and strategies for creating a strong organizational culture.

Chapter 14: Organizational Change

The discussion of appreciative inquiry principles has been revised and slightly expanded and now includes a new exhibit to summarize these principles. This edition has also minor rewriting on the section on creating an urgency for change as well as on the evaluation of appreciative inquiry.

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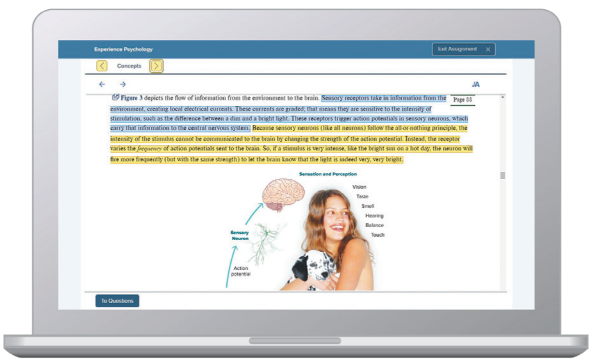

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Sample Chapter Preview

Preview Chapter 5: Employee Motivation

5 Employee Motivation

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Learning Objectives

After you read this chapter, you should be able to:

LO5-1 Define employee motivation and engagement.

LO5-2 Explain how drives and emotions influence employee motivation.

LO5-3 Discuss the employee motivation implications of four-drive theory, Maslow's needs hierarchy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and learned needs theory.

LO5-4 Discuss the expectancy theory model, including its practical implications.

LO5-5 Outline organizational behavior modification (OB Mod) and social cognitive theory and explain their relevance to employee motivation.

LO5-6 Describe the characteristics of effective goal setting and feedback.

LO5-7 Explain how equity theory, procedural justice, and interactional justice influence employee motivation.

LO5-8 List the advantages and disadvantages of job specialization and explain how to improve employee motivation through job design.

motivation the forces within a person that affect his or her direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary behavior

employee engagement individual emotional and cognitive motivation, particularly a focused, intense, persistent, and purposive effort toward work-related goals

Accenture has launched a radically different way to motivate employees. The consulting firm ditched its traditional performance appraisal system in which managers annually evaluated employees, ranked their performance against peers on a forced distribution scale, and held a formal meeting to discuss the results for that time period. Accenture now takes a coaching approach to employee motivation and performance. Managers have regular informal, constructive, forward-looking discussions that focus on employee achievements and career development. Employee performance is no longer numerically scored or ranked.

"We realized that investing significant time in backward-looking performance appraisals—and figuring out the Holy Grail of forced rankings—simply does not yield the best outcomes for our company or our people," observes an Accenture executive. "Millennials and Gen Z-ers don't want hierarchy, formal feedback processes, and appraisals. They demand real-time, in-person feedback, forward-looking conversations and support to grow their careers."[1]

Corporate leaders around the world are discovering that their traditional performance appraisal systems don't motivate employees. Some traditional performance reviews even have the opposite effect; they disengage employees and motivate behavior that undermines the organization's success. This isn't news to organizational behavior scholars, who have warned over the past few decades about the adverse effects of rating, ranking, and other traditional performance management practices. The challenge now is to introduce practices that actually motivate and develop employees to their potential.

The theme of this chapter is employee motivation. We begin by introducing the definition of motivation and the often-stated associated phrase, employee engagement. Next, we explain how drives and emotions are the prime movers of employee motivation. The prominent drive-based theories of motivation are then described. Next, expectancy theory is described, including the practical implications of this popular cognitive decision model of employee motivation. Organizational behavior modification and social cognitive theory are then introduced and linked to expectancy theory. Next, we consider theory and practices related to the important motivation topics of goal setting and feedback, and organizational justice. The final section of this chapter examines the effect of job design on employee motivation and performance.

LO5-1 Define employee motivation and engagement.

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, DRIVES, AND NEEDS

Employee motivation should be on anyone's short list of the most important topics in organizational behavior. Why? Because motivation is one of the four elements of the MARS model, meaning that it is critical to understanding human behavior and performance (see Chapter 1). Even when people are able to perform the work (A), understand their role responsibilities (R), and work in a setting that supports their work objectives (S), they won't get the job done without sufficient motivation (M) to achieve those tasks.

Motivation is defined as the forces within a person that affect the direction, intensity, and persistence of his or her effort for voluntary behavior.[2] *Direction* refers to what people are focused on achieving; in other words, the goal or outcome toward which they steer their effort. *Intensity* is the amount of physical, cognitive, and emotional energy expended at a given moment to achieve a task or other objective. *Persistence,* the third element of motivation, refers to how long people sustain their effort as they move toward their goal. In short, motivated employees exert varying levels of effort (intensity), for varying lengths of time (persistence), toward various goals (direction).

When executives discuss employee motivation these days, they are just as likely to use the phrase **employee engagement**. Employee engagement is an individual's emotional and cognitive (logical) motivation, particularly a focused, intense, persistent, and purposive effort toward work-related goals.[3] It is associated with self-efficacy—the belief that you have the ability, role clarity, and resources to get the job done (see Chapter 3). Employee engagement also includes a high level of absorption in the work—the experience of focusing intensely on the task with limited awareness of events beyond that work.

Employee engagement predicts employee and work unit performance.[4] Unfortunately, surveys consistently report that few employees are fully engaged at work. The numbers vary across studies, but recent results from a widely recognized survey estimate that only 34 percent of employees in the United States are engaged, 53 percent are not engaged, and 13 percent are actively disengaged. Actively disengaged employees tend to be disruptive at work, not just disconnected from work.[5]

Motivated employees exert varying levels of effort (intensity), for varying lengths of time (persistence), toward various goals (direction).
K-PHOTOS/Alamy Stock Photo

LO5-2 Explain how drives and emotions influence employee motivation.

Employee Drives and Needs

To build a more engaged and motivated workforce, we first need to understand where motivation begins, that is, the motivational "forces" or prime movers of employee behavior.[6] Our starting point is **drives** (also called *primary needs*), which we define as hardwired characteristics of the brain that attempt to keep us in balance by correcting deficiencies. Neuroscience (brain) research has highlighted the central role of emotions in this process. Specifically, drives produce emotions that energize us to act on our environment.[7] There is no agreed-upon list of human drives, but research has consistently identified several, such as the drive to have social interaction, to develop our competence, to comprehend our surroundings, and to defend ourselves against physiological and psychological harm.[8]

Drives are universal and innate, which means that everyone has them and they exist from birth. Drives are the starting point of motivation because they generate emotions that, as we learned in Chapter 4, put people in a state of readiness to act on their environment. Cognition (logical thinking) also plays an important role in motivation, but emotions are the real sources of energy in human behavior.[9] In fact, both words (*emotion* and *motivation*) originate from the same Latin word, *movere*, which means "to move."

Exhibit 5.1 illustrates how drives and emotions translate into felt needs and behavior. Drives, and the emotions generated by these drives, form human needs. We define **needs** as goal-directed forces that people experience. They are the motivational forces of emotions channeled toward particular goals to correct deficiencies or imbalances. In other words, needs are the emotions we eventually become consciously aware of. For example, you sense a need to interact with people after being alone for a while, or to do something challenging after performing tedious activities.

Consider the following example: You arrive at work to discover a stranger sitting at your desk. Seeing this situation produces emotions (worry, curiosity) that motivate you to act. These emotions are generated from drives, such as the drive to defend and drive to comprehend. When strong enough, these emotions motivate you to do something about this situation, such as finding out who that person is and possibly seeking reassurance from coworkers that your job is still safe. In this case, you have a need to make sense of what is going on (comprehend), to feel secure, and possibly to correct a sense of personal violation (defend). Notice that your emotional reactions to seeing the stranger sitting at your desk represent the forces that move you, and that your logical thinking plays an active role in channeling those emotions toward specific goals.

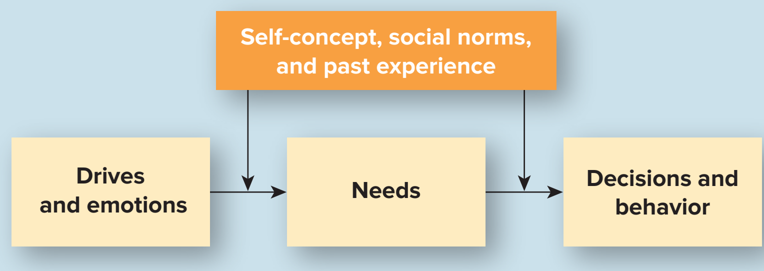
> **It is the paradox of Intelligence that it directs forces or energies without being itself a force or energy.[10]**
>
> —William McDougall, early 20th century motivation scholar

drives hardwired characteristics of the brain that correct deficiencies or maintain an internal equilibrium by producing emotions to energize individuals

needs goal-directed forces that people experience

four-drive theory a motivation theory based on the innate drives to acquire, bond, learn, and defend that incorporates both emotions and rationality

Exhibit 5.1 Drives, Needs, and Behavior



Individual Differences in Needs

Everyone has the same drives; they are hardwired in us through evolution. However, people develop different intensities of needs in a particular situation. Exhibit 5.1 explains why this difference occurs. The left side of the model shows that the individual's self-concept (as well as personality and values), social norms, and past experience amplify or suppress emotions, thereby resulting in stronger or weaker needs.[11] For example, people who define themselves as very sociable typically experience a stronger need for social interaction if alone for a while, whereas less sociable types experience a less intense need to be with others over that time. These individual differences can be "learned" to some extent through socialization and reinforcement. We will discuss learned needs later in the chapter.

Along with amplifying or suppressing emotions, individual differences (self-concept, social norms, past experience) influence what goals and behaviors are motivated by the felt emotions, as the right side of Exhibit 5.1 illustrates. Visualize once again the stranger sitting at your desk. You probably wouldn't walk up to that person and demand that he or she leave; such blunt behavior is contrary to social norms in most cultures. Employees who view themselves as forthright might approach the stranger directly, whereas those who have a different personality and self-view are more likely to first gather information from coworkers before approaching the individual. In summary, your drives (to comprehend, to defend, to socialize with others, etc.) and resulting emotions energize you to act, and your personal characteristics (self-concept, social norms, and past experience) direct that energy toward goal-directed behavior.

Exhibit 5.1 provides a useful template for understanding how drives and emotions are the prime sources of employee motivation and how individual characteristics (self-concept, experience, social norms) influence goal-directed behavior. We will refer to elements of this drive theory of motivation when we discuss four-drive theory, expectancy theory, equity theory, and other concepts in this chapter. The next section describes theories that explain the dynamics of drives and needs.

LO5-3 Discuss the employee motivation implications of four-drive theory, Maslow's needs hierarchy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and learned needs theory.

DRIVE-BASED MOTIVATION THEORIES

Four-Drive Theory

The process through which drives, emotions, and needs influence motivation is most effectively explained by **four-drive theory**. This theory states that emotions are the source of human motivation and that these emotions are generated through four drives:[12]

- *Drive to acquire.* This is the drive to seek out, take, control, and retain objects and personal experiences. It produces several needs, including achievement, competence, status, and self-esteem.[13] The drive to acquire also motivates competition.
- *Drive to bond.* This drive produces the need for belonging and affiliation.[14] It explains why our self-concept is partly defined by associations with social groups (see Chapter 3). The drive to bond motivates people to cooperate and, consequently, is essential for organizations and societies.
- *Drive to comprehend.* We are inherently curious and need to make sense of our environment and ourselves.[15] We are motivated to discover answers to unknown as well as conflicting ideas.
- *Drive to defend.* This is the drive to protect ourselves physically, psychologically, and socially. Probably the first drive to develop in human beings, it creates a fight-or-flight response when we are confronted with threats to our physical safety, our possessions, our self-concept, our values, and the well-being of people around us.[16]

All drives are hardwired in our brains and exist in all human beings. They are also independent of one another; there is no hierarchy of drives. Four-drive theory also claims that no fundamental drives are excluded from the model. Another key feature is that three of the four drives are proactive—we regularly try to fulfill them. Therefore, need "fulfillment" is brief and ongoing. Only the drive to defend is reactive—it is triggered by threat.

Four-drive theory states that emotions are the source of human motivation and that these emotions are generated through the drive to acquire, bond, comprehend, and defend.
LWA/Larry Williams/Blend Images

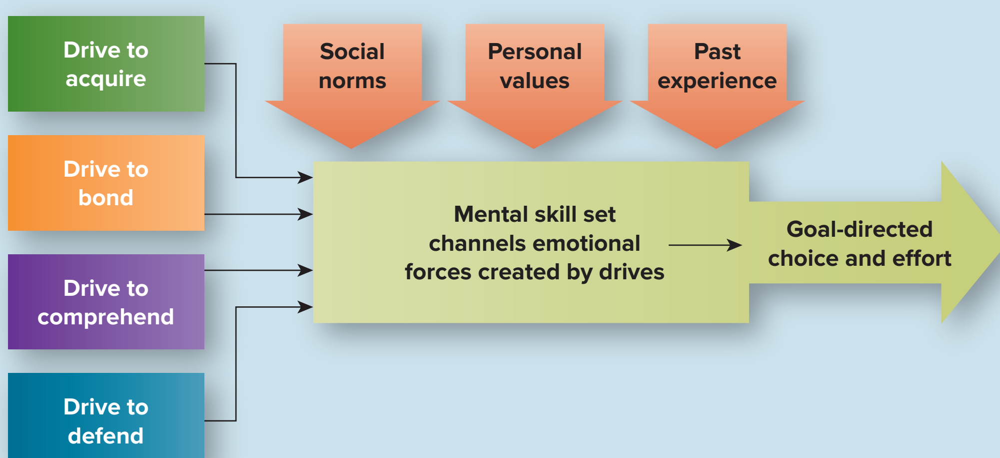
How Drives Influence Motivation and Behavior Recall from Chapter 3 that the stimuli received through our senses are quickly and nonconsciously tagged with emotional markers.[17] Four-drive theory proposes that the four drives determine which emotions are tagged to incoming stimuli. Most of the time, we aren't aware of our emotional experiences because they are subtle and fleeting. However, emotions do become conscious experiences when they are sufficiently strong or when they significantly conflict with one another.

Four-drive theory also recognizes that our social norms, personal values, and past experience—which the theory calls our "mental skill set"—guide our motivational energy and reduce the felt need (see Exhibit 5.2). In other words, our mental skill set chooses courses of action that are acceptable to society, consistent with our own moral compass, and have a high probability of achieving the goal of fulfilling our felt needs.[18]

Practical Implications of Four-Drive Theory Four-drive theory recommends that jobs and workplaces should provide a balanced opportunity for employees to fulfill the four drives.[19] There are really two recommendations here. The first is that the best workplaces help employees fulfill all four drives. Employees continually seek fulfillment of their innate drives, so successful companies provide sufficient rewards, learning opportunities, social interaction, and so forth for all employees.

The second recommendation is that fulfillment of the four drives must be kept in balance; that is, organizations shouldn't give employees too much or too little opportunity to fulfill each drive. The reason for this advice is that the four drives counterbalance each other. The drive to bond, which motivates mutual

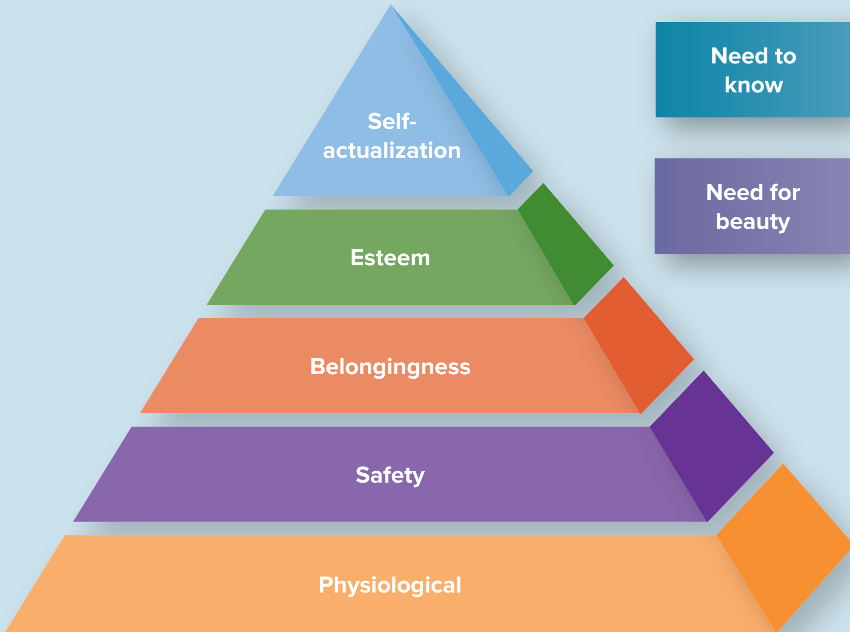
Exhibit 5.2 Four-Drive Theory of Motivation



Source: Based on information in P.R. Lawrence and N. Nohria, *Driven: How Human Nature Shapes Our Choices* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2002).

Maslow's needs hierarchy theory a motivation theory of needs arranged in a hierarchy, whereby people are motivated to fulfill a higher need as a lower one becomes gratified

Exhibit 5.3 Maslow's Needs Hierarchy



Source: Based on information in A.H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," *Psychological Review* 50 (1943): 370–96.

support and cohesion, counterbalances the drive to acquire, which motivates competitiveness. An organization that fuels the drive to acquire without encouraging the drive to bond may eventually suffer from organizational politics, dysfunctional conflict, and insufficient collaboration.[20] The drive to comprehend, which motivates investigation of the unknown, counterbalances the drive to defend, which motivates avoidance of the unknown. Change and novelty in the workplace will feed the drive to comprehend, but too much of it will trigger the drive to defend to such an extent that employees become territorial and resistant to change.

Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Theory

Mention needs and drives to most people and they will probably refer to **Maslow's needs hierarchy theory**, which was developed by psychologist Abraham Maslow in the 1940s.[21] Maslow condensed and organized the dozens of previously studied drives (which he called *primary needs*) into five basic categories, organized in a hierarchy from lowest to highest (see Exhibit 5.3):[22] *physiological* (need for food, air, water, shelter, etc.), *safety* (need for security and stability), *belongingness/love* (need for interaction with and affection from others), *esteem* (need for self-esteem and social esteem/status), and *self-actualization* (need for self-fulfillment, realization of one's potential). Along with these five categories, Maslow identified the need to know and the need for aesthetic beauty as two innate drives that do not fit within the hierarchy.

Maslow proposed we are motivated simultaneously by several needs, but the strongest motivation comes from the lowest unsatisfied need. When satisfied, the next higher need in the hierarchy becomes the strongest motivator and remains so even if never satisfied. The exception to this need fulfillment process is self-actualization, which is an ongoing need that is never fulfilled. Thus, while the bottom four groups are *deficiency needs* because they become activated when unfulfilled, self-actualization is known as a *growth need* because it continues to develop even when temporarily satiated.

In spite of its popularity, Maslow's needs hierarchy theory was dismissed decades ago by motivation experts.[23] The main flaw is that not everyone has the same needs hierarchy. Some people place social status at the top of their personal hierarchy whereas others view personal development and growth above social relations or status. This variation occurs because employee needs are strongly influenced by self-concept, personal values, and personality.[24] People have different hierarchies of values, so they also have parallel differences in their needs hierarchies. Furthermore, a person's values hierarchy can change over time, so his or her needs hierarchy also changes over time.[25]

Why have we introduced Maslow's needs hierarchy model? One reason is that the theory is widely known and incorrectly assumed to be accurate; therefore, organizational behavior students need to be aware of its true status. The other reason is that through this theory, Maslow transformed how we now think about human motivation.[26] Specifically, he emphasized that needs should be studied together

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SELF-ASSESSMENT 5.1: How Strong Are Your Growth Needs?

intrinsic motivation
motivation that occurs when people are fulfilling their needs for competence and autonomy by engaging in the activity itself, rather than from an externally controlled outcome of that activity

(holistically), not separately from one another; he recognized that motivation can be shaped by human thoughts (humanistic), not just from instincts; and his focus on self-actualization and growth needs introduced a more positive view of motivation, whereas previous motivation theories focused on need deficiencies such as hunger.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

By extolling the importance of self-actualization, Maslow launched an entirely new way of thinking about human motivation. People experience self-actualization by applying their skills and knowledge, observing how their talents achieve meaningful results, and experiencing personal growth through learning. These are the conditions for **intrinsic motivation**, which is motivation that occurs when people are fulfilling their needs for competence and autonomy by engaging in the activity itself, rather than from an externally controlled outcome of that activity.[27] Intrinsically motivated employees apply their talents toward a meaningful task and experience progress or success in that task.[28] They feel competent when applying their skills and observing positive, meaningful outcomes from that effort. They feel autonomous when their motivation is self-initiated rather than controlled from an external source.

Intrinsic motivation contrasts with **extrinsic motivation**, which occurs when people are motivated to engage in an activity for instrumental reasons, that is, to receive something that is beyond their personal control. This involves directing one's effort toward a reward controlled by others that indirectly fulfills a need. Extrinsic motivators exist throughout organizations, such as pay incentives, recognition awards, and frequent reminders from the boss about work deadlines. Extrinsic motivation also occurs indirectly, such as when we are motivated to complete our part of a team project partly due to our concerns about how team members will react if we submit it late or with inferior quality.

Does Extrinsic Motivation Undermine Intrinsic Motivation?

There are two contrasting hypotheses about how extrinsic and intrinsic motivation work together.[29] The additive hypothesis is that someone performing an intrinsically motivating job becomes even more motivated by also receiving an extrinsic source of motivation for that work. The extrinsic motivator energizes the employee more than the intrinsic motivator alone. The contrasting hypothesis is that introducing extrinsic sources of motivation will reduce intrinsic motivation. For example, employees who were energized by the work itself will experience less of that intrinsic motivation when they receive extrinsic rewards, such as a performance bonus. The contrasting hypothesis suggests that introducing extrinsic motivators diminishes the employee's feeling of autonomy, which is a key source of intrinsic motivation.

Which hypothesis is correct? So far, the research evidence is mixed. Extrinsic motivators may reduce existing intrinsic motivation to some extent and under some conditions, but the effect is often minimal. Extrinsic rewards do not undermine intrinsic motivation when they are unexpected (such as receiving a surprise bonus), when they have low value relative to the intrinsic motivator, and when they are not contingent on specific behavior (such as receiving a fixed salary). Even so, when employees are engaged in intrinsically motivating work, employers should be careful about the potential unintended effect of undermining that motivation with performance bonuses and other sources of extrinsic motivation.[30]

Pay incentives, recognition awards, and frequent reminders from the boss about work deadlines are extrinsic motivators because the outcomes are controlled by others and are not need fulfillment in themselves.
Peshkova/Shutterstock

> **Intrinsic motivation occurs when people are fulfilling their needs for competence and autonomy by engaging in the activity itself.**

extrinsic motivation motivation that occurs when people want to engage in an activity for instrumental reasons, that is, to receive something that is beyond their personal control

need for achievement (nAch) a learned need in which people want to accomplish reasonably challenging goals and desire unambiguous feedback and recognition for their success

need for affiliation (nAff) a learned need in which people seek approval from others, conform to their wishes and expectations, and avoid conflict and confrontation

need for power (nPow) a learned need in which people want to control their environment, including people and material resources, to benefit either themselves (personalized power) or others (socialized power)

expectancy theory a motivation theory based on the idea that work effort is directed toward behaviors that people believe will lead to desired outcomes

Learned Needs Theory

In the previous section of this chapter, we explained that needs are shaped, amplified, or suppressed through self-concept, social norms, and past experience. Maslow noted this when he observed that individual differences influence the strength of higher-order needs, such as the need to belong. Psychologist David McClelland further investigated the idea that needs can be strengthened or weakened through reinforcement, learning, and social conditions. He examined three "learned" needs: achievement, affiliation, and power.[31]

- People with a high **need for achievement (nAch)** choose moderately challenging tasks, desire unambiguous feedback and recognition for their success, and prefer working alone rather than in teams. Except as a source of feedback, money is a weak motivator for people with high nAch, whereas it can be a strong motivator for those with low nAch.[32] Successful entrepreneurs tend to have high nAch, possibly because they establish challenging goals for themselves and thrive on competition.[33]
- People with a high **need for affiliation (nAff)** seek approval from others, want to conform to others' wishes and expectations, and avoid conflict and confrontation. High nAff employees generally work well in jobs where the main task is cultivating long-term relations. However, with a strong need for approval, high nAff employees tend to be less effective at allocating scarce resources and making other decisions that potentially generate conflict. This suggests that leaders should have low nAff, but a few studies have found that leaders should have at least moderate levels of nAff to be supportive of employee needs.[34]
- People with a high **need for power (nPow)** want to exercise control over others, are highly involved in team decisions, rely on persuasion, and are concerned about maintaining their leadership position. There are two types of nPow.[35] The need for *personalized power* occurs when individuals enjoy their power for its own sake, use it to advance personal interests, and wear their power as a status symbol. The need for *socialized power* exists when individuals desire power as a means to help others. Effective leaders have a high need for socialized rather than personalized power. They demonstrate altruism and social responsibility and are concerned about the consequences of their own actions on others.

McClelland developed training programs to test the idea that needs can be learned (amplified or suppressed) through reinforcement, learning, and social conditions. One program increased achievement motivation by having participants write achievement-oriented stories, practice achievement-oriented behaviors in business games, and meet frequently with a reference group with other trainees to maintain their newfound achievement motivation.[36] Essentially, McClelland's programs changed how people viewed themselves (their self-concept), which amplified their need for achievement, affiliation, or power.

LO5-4 Discuss the expectancy theory model, including its practical implications.

EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION

The theories described so far mainly explain *what motivates us*—the prime movers of employee motivation—but they don't tell us *what we are motivated to do*. Four-drive theory recognizes that social norms, personal values, and past experience direct our effort, but it doesn't offer any detail about what goals we choose or where our effort is directed under various circumstances.

Expectancy theory offers more detail by predicting the goal-directed behavior where employees are most likely to direct their effort toward specific behavior. Essentially, the theory states that work effort is directed toward behaviors that people believe will produce the most favorable outcomes. It assumes that people are rational decision makers who choose a target that will best fulfill their needs. This choice is based on the probability that specific events will occur and the positive or negative valences (expected satisfaction) resulting from those events.[37] As Exhibit 5.4 illustrates, an individual's effort level depends on three factors: effort-to-performance (E-to-P) expectancy, performance-to-outcome (P-to-O) expectancy, and outcome valences. Employee motivation is influenced by all three components of the expectancy theory model.[38] If any component weakens, motivation weakens.

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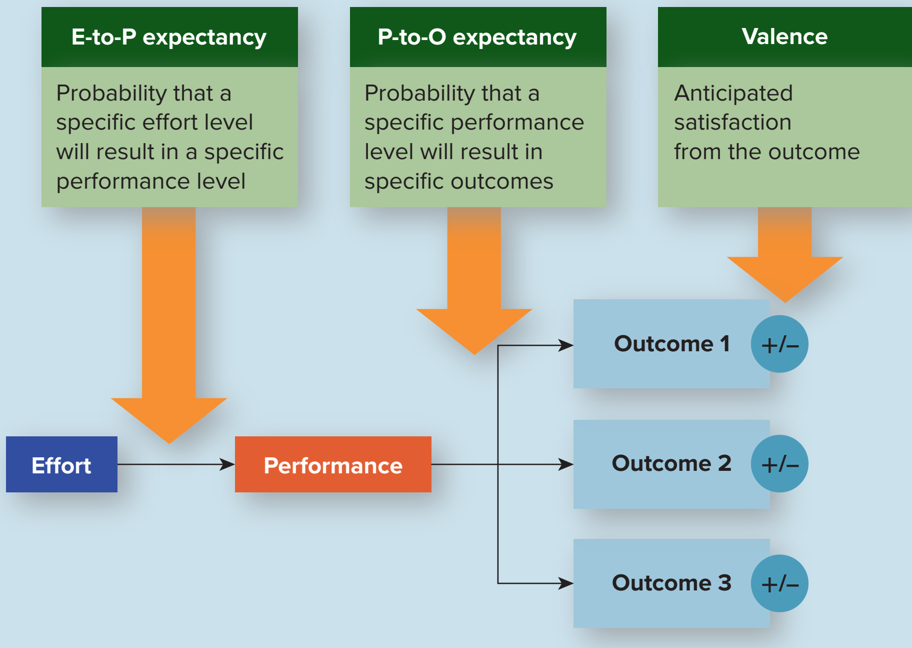
SELF-ASSESSMENT 5.2: How Strong Are Your Learned Needs?

Exhibit 5.4 Expectancy Theory of Motivation



- *E-to-P expectancy.* This is the individual's perception that his or her effort will result in a particular level of performance. In some situations, employees may believe that they can unquestionably accomplish the task (a probability of 1.0). In other situations, they expect that even their highest level of effort will not result in the desired performance level (a probability of 0.0). In most cases, the E-to-P expectancy falls somewhere between these two extremes.
- *P-to-O expectancy.* This is the perceived probability that a specific behavior or performance level will lead to a particular outcome. In extreme cases, employees may believe that accomplishing a particular task (performance) will definitely result in a particular outcome (a probability of 1.0), or they may believe that successful performance will have no effect on this outcome (a probability of 0.0). More often, the P-to-O expectancy falls somewhere between these two extremes.
- *Outcome valences.* A *valence* is the anticipated satisfaction or dissatisfaction that an individual feels toward an outcome.[39] It ranges from negative to positive. (The actual range doesn't matter; it may be from −1 to +1 or from −100 to +100.) Outcomes have a positive valence when they are consistent with our values and satisfy our needs; they have a negative valence when they oppose our values and inhibit need fulfillment.

Expectancy Theory in Practice

One of the appealing characteristics of expectancy theory is that it provides clear guidelines for increasing employee motivation, at least extrinsic motivation.[40] Several practical applications of expectancy theory are described below.

Increasing E-to-P Expectancies E-to-P expectancies are influenced by the individual's belief that he or she can successfully complete the task. Some companies increase this can-do attitude by assuring employees that they have the required abilities and resources as well as clear role perceptions to reach the desired

Performance-to-Outcome Expectancy: A Weak Link in Employee Motivation[41]

56% of 8,254 employees surveyed in the United States, Canada, and five European countries say that they have a good understanding of how people are compensated at all levels of their company (36% say they don't have a good understanding).

44% of 31,000 employees surveyed in 29 countries say they see a clear link between performance and pay in their organization.

37% of American employees surveyed see NO link at all between their performance and their pay.

39% of 615,395 U.S. federal government employees believe that differences in performance are recognized in a meaningful way in their work unit.

44% of more than 4,000 employees in the United States and Canada say their manager differentiates between high and low performers.

alxpin/iStock/Getty Images

OB THEORY TO PRACTICE

Putting Expectancy Theory into Practice

Increasing E ⟶ P expectancies

- Select people with the required skills and knowledge.
- Provide required training and clarify job requirements.
- Provide sufficient time and resources.
- Assign simpler or fewer tasks until employees can master them.
- Provide examples of similar employees who have successfully performed the task.
- Provide coaching to employees who lack self-confidence.

Increasing P ⟶ O expectancies

- Measure job performance accurately.
- Clearly explain the outcomes that will result from successful performance.
- Describe how the employee's rewards were based on past performance.
- Provide examples of other employees whose good performance has resulted in higher rewards.

Increasing outcome valences

- Distribute rewards that employees value.
- Individualize rewards.
- Minimize the presence of countervalent outcomes.

levels of performance. An important part of this process involves matching employee abilities to job requirements and clearly communicating the tasks required for the job. Similarly, E-to-P expectancies are learned, so behavior modeling and supportive feedback typically strengthen the individual's belief that he or she is able to perform the task.

Increasing P-to-O Expectancies The most obvious ways to improve P-to-O expectancies are to measure employee performance accurately and distribute more valued rewards to those with higher job performance. P-to-O expectancies are perceptions, so employees also need to believe that higher performance will result in higher rewards. Furthermore, they need to know how that connection occurs, so leaders should use examples, anecdotes, and public ceremonies to illustrate when behavior has been rewarded.

Increasing Outcome Valences One size does not fit all when motivating and rewarding people. The valence of a reward varies from one person to the next because each person has different need priorities. One solution is to individualize rewards by allowing employees to choose the rewards of greatest value to them. When this isn't possible, companies should find a reward that everyone values to some degree. Finally, we need to watch out for countervalent outcomes. If a company offers individual performance bonuses, for example, it should beware of team norms that discourage employees from working above a minimum standard. These norms and associated peer pressure are countervalent outcomes to the bonus.

Overall, expectancy theory is a useful model that explains how people rationally figure out the best direction, intensity, and persistence of effort. It has been tested in a variety of situations and predicts employee motivation in different cultures.[42] One limitation, however, is that expectancy theory assumes people are perfectly rational decision makers; in reality, human decisions are not perfectly rational (see Chapter 6). A second concern is that the theory mainly explains extrinsic motivation, whereas applying the model's features to intrinsic motivation is more difficult (although not impossible). Third, expectancy theory ignores emotions as a source of motivation. The valence element of expectancy theory captures some of this emotional process, but only peripherally.[43] Fourth, E-to-P and P-to-O expectancies are critical components of expectancy theory, yet the theory doesn't explain how employees develop these expectancies. Two theories that provide this explanation are organizational behavior modification and social cognitive theory, which we describe next.

LO5-5 Outline organizational behavior modification (OB Mod) and social cognitive theory and explain their relevance to employee motivation.

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION AND SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

Expectancy theory states that motivation is determined by employee beliefs about expected performance and outcomes. But how do employees learn these expectancy beliefs? For example, how do they form the impression that one level of task performance is more likely than another performance level to produce a pay increase, promotion, or other outcomes? Two theories—organizational behavior modification (OB Mod) and social cognitive theory—complement expectancy theory by explaining how people *learn* what to expect from their actions, which is how people develop the expectancies that affect motivation.

organizational behavior modification (OB Mod) a theory that explains employee behavior in terms of the antecedent conditions and consequences of that behavior

Organizational Behavior Modification

For most of the first half of the 1900s, the dominant paradigm about managing individual behavior was *behaviorism*, which argues that a good theory should rely exclusively on behavior and the environment and ignore nonobservable cognitions and emotions.[44] Although behaviorists don't deny the existence of human thoughts and attitudes, they view them as unobservable and, therefore, irrelevant to scientific study. A variation of this paradigm, called **organizational behavior modification (OB Mod)**, eventually entered organizational studies of motivation and learning.[45]

> In most situations, positive reinforcement should follow desired behaviors and extinction (do nothing) should follow undesirable behaviors.

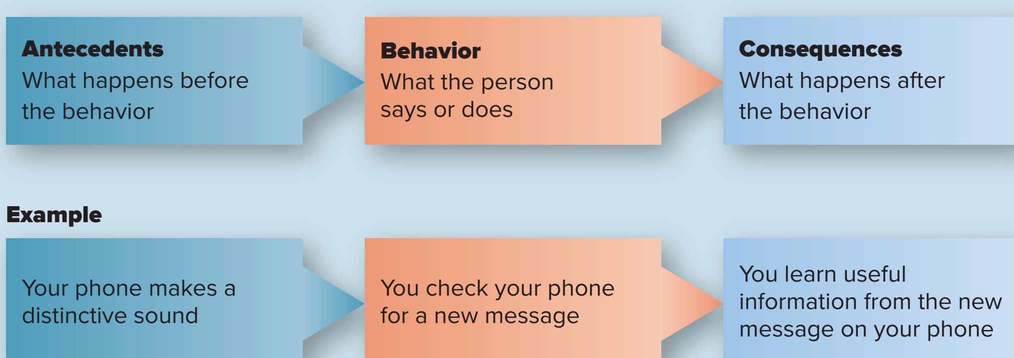
A-B-Cs of OB Mod The core elements of OB Mod are depicted in the A-B-C model shown in Exhibit 5.5. Essentially, OB Mod attempts to change behavior (B) by managing its antecedents (A) and consequences (C).[46] *Consequences* are events following a particular behavior that influence its future occurrence. Consequences include receiving words of thanks from coworkers after assisting them, receiving preferred work schedules after being with the company longer than the average employee, and finding useful information on your smartphone after checking for new messages. Consequences also include no outcome at all, such as when no one says anything to you about how well you have been serving customers.

Antecedents are events preceding the behavior, informing employees that a particular action will produce specific consequences. An antecedent could be a sound from your smartphone signaling that a text message has arrived. Or it could be your supervisor's request to complete a specific task by tomorrow. Notice that antecedents do not cause behavior. The sound from your smartphone doesn't cause you to open the text message. Rather, the sound (antecedent) is a cue signaling that if you look at your phone messages (behavior), you will find a new message with potentially useful information (consequence).

Contingencies and Schedules of Reinforcement OB Mod identifies four types of consequences, called the *contingencies of reinforcement*.[47] *Positive reinforcement* occurs when the introduction of a consequence increases or maintains the frequency or future probability of a specific behavior. Receiving praise from coworkers is an example of positive reinforcement because the praise usually maintains or increases your likelihood of helping them in future. *Punishment* occurs when a consequence decreases the frequency or future probability of a specific behavior occurring. Most of us would consider being demoted or criticized by our coworkers as forms of punishment. A third type of consequence is *extinction*. The extinction consequence occurs when the target behavior decreases because no consequence follows it. For instance, research suggests that performance tends to decline when managers stop congratulating employees for their good work.[48]

The fourth consequence in OB Mod, called *negative reinforcement*, is often confused with punishment. It's actually the opposite—the removal of punishment. Negative reinforcement occurs when the removal or avoidance of a consequence increases or maintains the frequency or future probability of a specific behavior. For example, managers apply negative reinforcement when they *stop* criticizing employees whose substandard performance has improved.

Exhibit 5.5 A-B-Cs of Organizational Behavior Modification



Source: Adapted from T.K. Connellan, *How to Improve Human Performance* (New York: Harper & Row, 1978), 50; F. Luthans and R. Kreitner, *Organizational Behavior Modification and Beyond* (Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, 1985), 85–88.

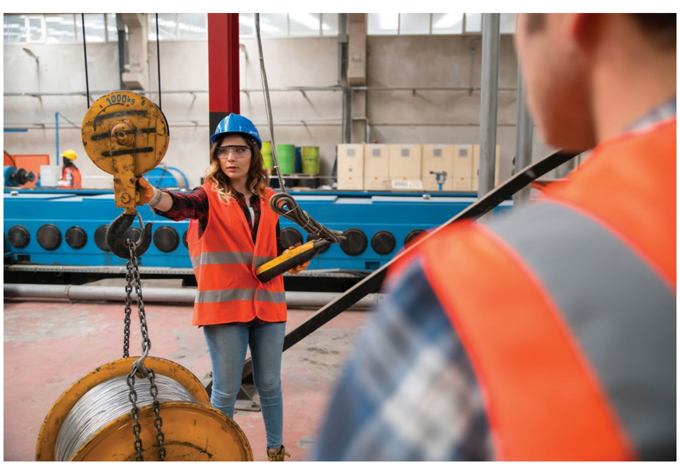
social cognitive theory a theory that explains how learning and motivation occur by observing and modeling others as well as by anticipating the consequences of our behavior

Which of these four consequences works best? In most situations, positive reinforcement should follow desired behaviors and extinction (do nothing) should follow undesirable behaviors. Positive reinforcement is preferred because focusing on the positive rather than negative aspects of life tends to improve organizational success and individual well-being.[49] In contrast, punishment and negative reinforcement generate negative emotions and attitudes toward the punisher (e.g., supervisor) and organization who initiated and later removed the punishment. However, punishment (dismissal, suspension, demotion, etc.) may be necessary for extreme behaviors, such as deliberately hurting a coworker or stealing inventory. Indeed, research suggests that, under some conditions, punishment maintains a sense of fairness among those affected by or aware of the employee's indiscretion.[50]

Along with the four consequences, OB Mod considers the frequency and timing of these reinforcers (called the *schedules of reinforcement*).[51] The most effective reinforcement schedule for learning new tasks is *continuous reinforcement*—providing positive reinforcement after every occurrence of the desired behavior. The most effective reinforcement schedule for skilled employees is the *variable ratio schedule* — providing positive reinforcement after a varying number of times. Salespeople experience variable ratio reinforcement because they make a successful sale (positive reinforcement) after a varying number of client calls. The variable ratio schedule makes behavior highly resistant to extinction because the reinforcer is never expected at a particular time or after a fixed number of behaviors.

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory states that much learning occurs by observing and modeling others as well as by anticipating the consequences of our behavior.[52] There are several pieces to social cognitive theory, but the three most relevant to employee motivation are learning behavior consequences, behavior modeling, and self-regulation.

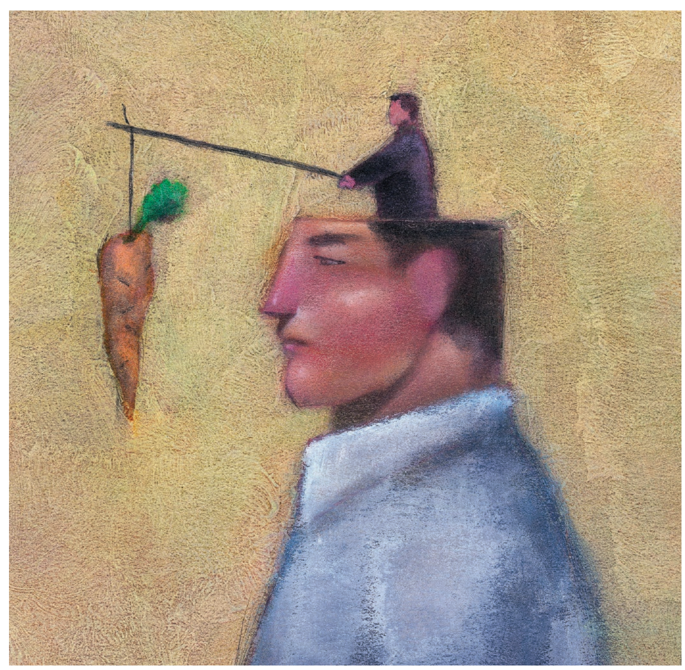


People learn the consequences of behavior by observing or hearing about what happened to others, not just by directly experiencing the consequences.
BulentBARIS/Getty Images

Learning Behavior Consequences People learn the consequences of behavior by observing or hearing about what happened to others, not just by directly experiencing the consequences.[53] Hearing that a coworker was fired for being rude to a client increases your belief that rude behavior will result in being fired. In the language of expectancy theory, learning behavior consequences changes a person's perceived P-to-O expectancy. Furthermore, people logically anticipate consequences in related situations. For instance, the story about the fired employee might also strengthen your P-to-O expectancy that being rude toward coworkers and suppliers (not just clients) will get you fired.

Behavior Modeling Along with observing others, people learn by imitating and practicing their behaviors.[54] Modeling the behavior of others gives learners direct sensory experience, which helps them to acquire knowledge and skills, such as the subtle person–machine interaction while driving a vehicle. Behavior modeling also increases E-to-P expectancy because people develop a stronger self-efficacy (see Chapter 3) after observing others and performing the task successfully themselves. Self-efficacy particularly improves when observers are similar to the model in age, experience, gender, and related characteristics.

Self-Regulation An important feature of social cognitive theory is that human beings set goals and engage in other forms of



Social cognitive theory states that people self-regulate through self-reinforcement; they reward and punish themselves for exceeding or falling short of their self-set goals.
Tim Teebken/Getty Images

self-reinforcement reinforcement that occurs when an employee has control over a reinforcer but doesn't "take" it until completing a self-set goal

goal a cognitive representation of a desired end state that a person is committed to attain

intentional, purposive action.[55] They establish their own short- and long-term objectives, choose their own standards of achievement, work out a plan of action, consider backup alternatives, and have the forethought to anticipate the consequences of their goal-directed behavior. Furthermore, people self-regulate by engaging in **self-reinforcement**; they reward and punish themselves for exceeding or falling short of their self-set goals. For example, you might have a goal of completing the rest of this chapter, after which you reward yourself by having a snack. Raiding the refrigerator is a form of self-induced positive reinforcement for completing this reading assignment.

OB Mod and social cognitive theory explain how people learn probabilities of successful performance (E-to-P expectancies) as well as probabilities of various outcomes from that performance (P-to-O expectancies). As such, these theories explain motivation through their relationship with expectancy theory of motivation, described earlier. Elements of these theories also help us to understand other motivation processes. For instance, self-regulation is the cornerstone of motivation through goal setting and feedback, which we discuss next.

LO5-6 Describe the characteristics of effective goal setting and feedback.

GOAL SETTING AND FEEDBACK

Key performance indicators, task objectives, stretch targets, job duties. No matter what they are called, goals figure prominently in everyone's job. A **goal** is a cognitive representation of a desired end state that a person is committed to attain.[56] Goals motivate people by clarifying role perceptions and, consequently, the direction of effort. Goals also amplify the intensity and persistence of effort because they make it easier to judge how much energy is required to reach them. However, the motivational potential of goals depends on how well they are stated.[57] Rather than just trying to "do your best," effective goals have several characteristics identified in the popular acronym SMARTER.[58] Specifically, goals are more effective when they are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, time-framed, exciting, and reviewed.

OB THEORY TO PRACTICE

The SMARTER Approach to Goal Setting

S*pecific*. Goals lead to better performance when they are specific. Specific goals state what needs to be accomplished; how it should be accomplished; and where, when, and with whom it should be accomplished. Specific goals clarify performance expectations, so employees can direct their effort more efficiently and reliably.

M*easurable*. Goals need to be measurable because motivation occurs when people have some indication of their progress and achievement of those goals. This measurement ideally includes how much (quantity), how well (quality), and at what cost the goal was achieved. However, some types of employee performance are difficult to measure, and those non-measurable tasks might be neglected in companies preoccupied with quantifiable outcomes.[59]

A*chievable*. One of the trickiest aspects of goal setting is developing goals that are sufficiently but not overly challenging.[60] Easier goals motivate employees to perform well below their potential. Yet, goals that are too challenging also may lead to substandard effort if employees believe there is a low probability of accomplishing them (i.e., low E-to-P expectancy). Recent studies also have found that very difficult goals increase the probability that employees will engage in unethical behavior to achieve them.[61]

R*elevant*. Goals need to be relevant to the job and within the individual's control. For example, a goal to reduce waste materials won't motivate employees who have negligible control over waste in the production process.

T*ime-framed*. Goals need a due date. They should specify when the objective should be completed or when it will be assessed for comparison against a standard.

E*xciting*. Goals tend to be more effective when employees are committed to them, not just compliant. Challenging goals tend to be more exciting for most (but not all) employees because growth need fulfillment is stronger when difficult goals are achieved. Goal commitment also increases when employees are involved in goal setting.[62]

R*eviewed*. The motivational value of goal setting depends on employees receiving feedback about reaching those goals.[63] Effective feedback requires measurement, which we discussed earlier in this list, but it also includes reflecting or discussing with others your goal progress and accomplishment. Reviewing goal progress and accomplishment helps employees redirect their effort. It is also a potential source of recognition that fulfills growth needs.

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SELF-ASSESSMENT 5.3: What Is Your Goal Orientation?

Characteristics of Effective Feedback

Feedback—information that lets us know whether we have achieved the goal or are properly directing our effort toward it—is an essential partner with goal setting. Feedback contributes to motivation and performance by clarifying role perceptions, improving employee skills and knowledge, and strengthening self-efficacy.[64]

strengths-based coaching
an approach to coaching and feedback that focuses on building and leveraging the employee's strengths rather than trying to correct his or her weaknesses

Effective feedback has many of the same characteristics as effective goal setting (see Exhibit 5.6).[65] It should be *specific* and *relevant*—that is, the information should refer to specific metrics (e.g., sales increased by 5 percent last month) and to the individual's behavior or outcomes within his or her control. Feedback also should be *timely*—available soon after the behavior or results occur. Feedback also should be *credible*; that is, the person providing the feedback should have complete and accurate information about the employee's performance, is reliable at recalling that information, is unbiased in communicating and applying the feedback to decisions (such as performance ratings), and describes the feedback in a supportive and empathetic manner.

Finally, effective feedback is *sufficiently frequent*. "Sufficiently" means that the feedback is provided more often for employees learning new tasks and less often for employees who already know how to perform those tasks. It also means that feedback is provided in a time frame proportional to how long it takes to complete the task (i.e., the job cycle). Less frequent feedback usually occurs in jobs with a long cycle time (e.g., executives and scientists) because indicators of goal progress and accomplishment in these jobs are less frequent than in jobs with a short cycle time (e.g., grocery store cashiers).

Feedback through Strengths-Based Coaching **Strengths-based coaching** (also known as *appreciative coaching*) is a positive approach to feedback that maximizes employees' potential by focusing on their strengths rather than weaknesses.[66] In strengths-based coaching, employees describe areas of work where they excel or demonstrate potential. The coach guides this discussion by asking exploratory questions that help employees discover ways to build on these strengths. Situational barriers, as well as strategies to overcome those barriers, are identified to further support the employee's potential.

> **Success is achieved by developing our strengths, not by eliminating our weaknesses.**[67]
>
> —Marilyn vos Savant, author and magazine columnist

Exhibit 5.6 Characteristics of Effective Feedback

Feedback Characteristic	Description	Example
Specific	Information refers to identifiable behaviors and (when possible) measurable outcomes	"Inventory shrinkage (theft, damage) fell to 1% of inventory over the previous three months."
Relevant	Information should relate to behaviors and outcomes within the individual's or team's control	"You have submitted the monthly budget reports without error and on time every month over the past year, one of the few district managers to do so" (where district managers have few situational barriers to submitting the reports accurately or on schedule).
Timely	Information should be available soon after the behavior or results occur	"Two of our customers noted this week that you were unable to answer their questions about how the new widget model differs from the previous model."
Credible	Information source should: • Have complete and accurate information • Recall information reliably • Be unbiased in communicating and applying the feedback • Describe the feedback in a supportive and empathetic manner	Supervisor has good knowledge of the employee's job duties, regularly observes him/her performing the work, and offers constructive feedback with optimism and sensitivity on how the employee can perform specific tasks better.
Sufficiently frequent	Information is provided: • More often for those learning new tasks • According to the job cycle's frequency	Supervisor meets twice monthly with every experienced production employee and at least twice weekly with every new employee to discuss their individual safety behavior and output (where task cycle times are usually less than one hour).

> **Not everything that can be counted counts, and not everything that counts can be counted.[75]**
>
> —William Bruce Cameron, sociologist

Strengths-based coaching might not be best in all situations, but it is associated with higher employee motivation, satisfaction, self-efficacy, and relations with management.[68] One reason is that people are more receptive to information about their strengths than they are to information about their flaws. In fact, for more than three decades scholars have warned that traditional problem-focused feedback leads to employee defensiveness and potentially lower self-efficacy, which can result in reduced (rather than increased) employee performance.[69] Strengths-based coaching also makes sense because personality becomes quite stable in the early stages of a person's career, which limits his or her flexibility regarding interests, preferences, and abilities.[70] Consequently, employees become less motivated and less able to improve themselves in areas where they previously lacked interest or skill.

Sources of Feedback

Feedback can originate from nonsocial or social sources. Nonsocial sources provide feedback without someone communicating that information. Corporate intranets allow many executives to receive feedback instantaneously on their computer or other digital device, usually in the form of graphic output on an executive dashboard.

Some companies set up *multisource (360-degree) feedback*, which, as the name implies, is information about an employee's performance collected from a full circle of people, including subordinates, peers, supervisors, and customers. Multisource feedback tends to provide more complete and accurate information than feedback from a supervisor alone. It is particularly useful when the supervisor is unable to observe the employee's behavior or performance in every situation. Lower-level employees also feel a greater sense of fairness when they are able to provide upward feedback about their boss's performance.[71] However, multisource feedback can be expensive and time-consuming. It may also be biased by coworkers avoiding interpersonal conflict. Multisource feedback also tends to be ambiguous because several observers have different perspectives of the employee's behavior.

Feedback from nonsocial sources is better than from social sources when employees need to learn about goal progress and accomplishment.
Dan Bannister/Blend Images LLC

The preferred feedback source depends on the purpose of the information. Feedback from nonsocial sources, such as digital images or feedback directly from the job, is better when employees need to learn about goal progress and accomplishment. This is because information from nonsocial sources is considered more accurate than information from social sources. Negative feedback from nonsocial sources is also less damaging to self-esteem. In contrast, social sources tend to delay or exclude negative information, as well as distort the bad news in a positive way.[72] Employees should receive some positive feedback from social sources. It feels better to have coworkers say that you are performing the job well than to discover this from data on an impersonal digital dashboard.

Evaluating Goal Setting and Feedback

Goal setting (in partnership with feedback) is generally a highly effective practice for employee motivation and performance.[73] Putting goal setting into practice can be challenging, however.[74] It tends to focus employees on a narrow subset of measurable performance indicators while ignoring aspects of job performance that are difficult to measure. Another concern is that very difficult goals may motivate some people to engage in unethical behavior to achieve those targets. Difficult goals are also stressful, which can undermine overall job performance.

Yet another problem is that goal setting tends to interfere with the learning process in new, complex jobs. Therefore, setting performance goals may be effective for employees who are already experienced in a job but should be avoided where they are in the middle of an intense learning process. A final issue is that when goal achievement is tied to financial rewards, many employees are motivated to set easy goals (while making the boss think they are difficult) so that they have a higher probability of receiving the bonus or pay increase. As a former Ford Motor Company CEO once quipped: "At Ford, we hire very smart people. They quickly learn how to make relatively easy goals look difficult!"[76]

LO5-7 Explain how equity theory, procedural justice, and interactional justice influence employee motivation.

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Treating employees fairly is both morally correct and good for employee motivation, loyalty, and well-being. Yet feelings of injustice are regular occurrences in the workplace. To minimize these incidents, we need to first understand the three most common types of justice (there are others): distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. All three refer to the perception that appropriate formal or informal rules have been applied to the situation. People have a sense of fairness when they believe those rules are being followed.[77]

- **Distributive justice** refers to the perception that appropriate decision criteria (rules) have been applied to calculate how various benefits and burdens are distributed. These criteria—such as effort, need, or membership—determine how much each person should receive, such as higher pay, more tedious tasks, better workspace, and so on.
- **Procedural justice** is the perception that appropriate procedural rules have been applied throughout the decision process. Procedural justice tends to be higher, for example, when the decision maker demonstrates neutrality (no favoritism), allows everyone involved to have their say, and allows an appeal of the decision.
- **Interactional justice** is the perception that appropriate rules have been applied in the way employees are treated throughout the decision process. For example, we believe there is interactional justice when the decision maker is polite toward the potential beneficiaries and is honest and candid in providing information about the decision.

Distributive Justice and Equity Theory

At its most basic level, employment in any organization is an exchange relationship; we provide our time, skills, and behavior in exchange for pay, fulfilling work, skill development opportunities, and so forth. What is considered "fair" in this exchange relationship depends on what criteria we use to determine distributive justice in various situations.[78] An *equality principle* operates when we believe that everyone in the group should receive the same outcomes, such as when everyone gets subsidized meals in the company cafeteria. The *need principle* is applied when we believe that those with the greatest need should receive more outcomes than others with less need. This occurs, for instance, when employees get paid time off to recover from illness. The *equity principle* infers that people should be paid in proportion to their contribution. The equity principle relates to the most common set of distributive justice rules in organizational settings, so let's look at equity-based distributive justice in more detail.

Equity-based fairness is explained by **equity theory**, which says that employees determine whether a decision is equitable by

distributive justice the perception that appropriate decision criteria (rules) have been applied to calculate how various benefits and burdens are distributed

procedural justice the perception that appropriate procedural rules have been applied throughout the decision process

interactional justice the perception that appropriate rules have been applied in the way the people involved are treated throughout the decision process

equity theory a theory explaining how people develop perceptions of fairness in the distribution and exchange of resources

Not Paid What (They Believe) They're Worth[79]

53% of 31,000 employees surveyed globally say they are being paid fairly compared with others who fill similar positions in other companies.

36% of 1,000 Australian advertising professionals surveyed say their bosses are NOT overpaid (26% say they ARE overpaid).

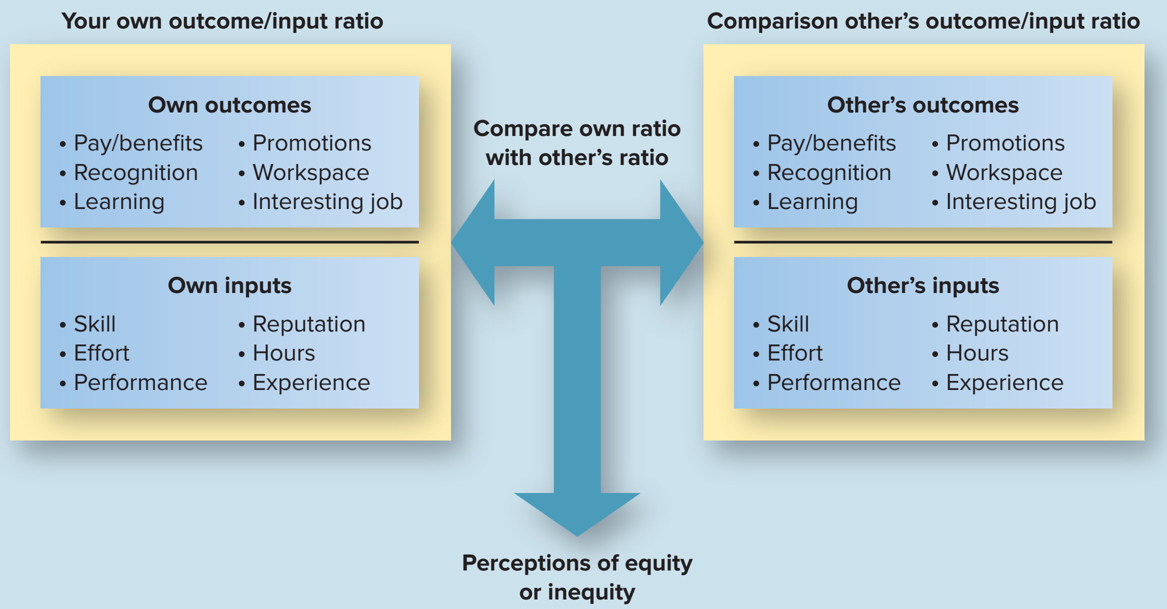
44% of 7,700 executives and managers surveyed in several countries (5,136 in the United States) say that employees at their companies are paid fairly.

26% of 14,000 New Zealand public servants surveyed agree that their pay is fair compared to similar jobs in the wider labor market (53% disagree; 21% neither agree nor disagree).

20% of 71,000 employees surveyed (most in the United States) say that they are paid fairly.

Don Farrall/Getty Images

Exhibit 5.7 Equity Theory Model



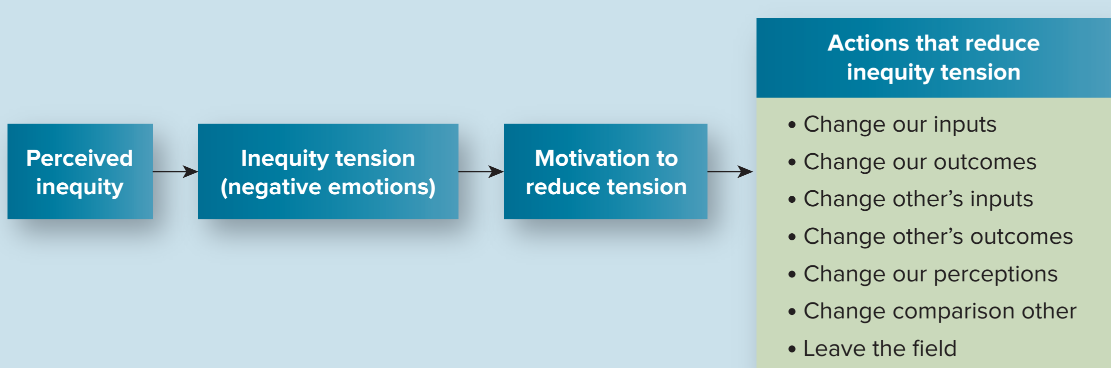
comparing their own outcome/input ratio to the outcome/input ratio of another person or group.[80] As Exhibit 5.7 illustrates, the *outcome/input ratio* is the value of the outcomes you receive divided by the value of the inputs you provide in the exchange relationship. Inputs include such things as skill, effort, reputation, performance, experience, and hours worked. Outcomes are what employees receive from the organization, such as pay, promotions, recognition, interesting jobs, and opportunities to improve one's skills and knowledge.

A central feature of equity theory is that individuals determine fairness in terms of a *comparison other*.[81] The comparison other might be another person or group of people in other jobs (e.g., comparing your pay with your boss's pay) or another organization. Some research suggests that employees frequently collect information on several referents to form a "generalized" comparison other.[82] For the most part, however, the comparison other varies from one person and situation to the next and is not easily identifiable.

The comparison of our own outcome/input ratio with the ratio of someone else results in perceptions of equity, underreward inequity, or overreward inequity. In the equity condition, people believe that their outcome/input ratio is similar to the ratio of the comparison other. In the underreward inequity situation, people believe their outcome/input ratio is lower than the comparison other's ratio. In the overreward inequity condition, people believe their outcome/input ratio is higher than the comparison other's ratio.

Inequity and Employee Motivation How do perceptions of equity or inequity affect employee motivation? The answer is illustrated in Exhibit 5.8. When people believe they are under- or

Exhibit 5.8 Motivational Effects of Inequity Perceptions



overrewarded, they experience negative emotions (called *inequity tension*).[83] As we have pointed out throughout this chapter, emotions are the engines of motivation. In the case of inequity, people are motivated to reduce the emotional tension. Most people have a strong emotional response when they believe a situation is unfair, and this emotion nags at them until they take steps to correct the perceived inequity.

> I was underpaid for the first half of my life. I don't mind being overpaid for the second half.[85]
>
> — Pierre Burton, journalist and popular history author

There are several ways to try to reduce the inequity tension.[84] Let's consider each of these in the context of underreward inequity. One action is to reduce our inputs so the outcome/input ratio is similar to that of the higher-paid coworker. Some employees do this by working more slowly, offering fewer suggestions, and engaging in less organizational citizenship behavior. A second action is to increase our outcomes. Some people who think they are underpaid ask for a pay raise. Others make unauthorized use of company resources. A third behavioral response is to increase the comparison other's inputs. We might subtly ask the better-paid coworker to do a larger share of the work, for instance. A fourth action is to reduce the comparison other's outcomes. This might occur by ensuring that the coworker gets less desirable jobs or working conditions. Another action, although uncommon, is to ask the company to reduce the coworker's pay so it is the same as yours.

A fifth action involves changing our beliefs about the situation rather than changing our behavior. For example, we might believe that the coworker really is providing more inputs (e.g., working longer hours) for that higher pay. Alternatively, we might change our perceived valence of some outcomes. Rather than viewing a coworker's work-related travel as a desirable perk, we instead perceive most of that travel as an undesirable nuisance. A sixth action to reduce the inequity tension is to change the comparison other. Instead of comparing ourselves with the higher-paid coworker, we might increasingly compare ourselves with a friend or neighbor who works in a similar job. Finally, if the inequity tension is strong enough and can't be reduced through other actions, we might leave the field. This occurs by moving to another department, joining another company, or keeping away from the work site where the overpaid coworker is located.

People who feel overreward inequity would reverse these actions. Some overrewarded employees reduce their feelings of inequity by working harder; others encourage the underrewarded coworker to work at a more leisurely pace. A common reaction, however, is that the overrewarded employee changes his or her perceptions to justify the more favorable outcomes, such as believing the assigned work is more difficult or his or her skills are more valuable than the lower-paid coworker's skills.

Evaluating Equity Theory Equity theory is quite successful at understanding (usually in hindsight) why people feel unfairly rewarded.[86] However, it is more difficult to use as a practical tool for preventing inequity in the future. The main problem is that people vary in their choice of comparison other and which inputs or outcomes are most valuable. The best solution here is for leaders to know their employees well enough to minimize the risk of inequity feelings. Open communication is also key, enabling employees to let decision makers know when they believe decisions are unfair. A second problem is that equity theory accounts for only some of our feelings of fairness in the workplace. Procedural and interactional justice can be just as important as distributive justice.

Procedural and Interactional Justice

Procedural justice is the perception that appropriate rules are applied in the procedures used throughout the course of deciding how to distribute workplace benefits and burdens. *Interactional justice* is the perception that appropriate rules are applied in the way the people involved are treated throughout that decision process.[87] Exhibit 5.9 lists the main rules that people consider when determining procedural and interactional justice.

There are several ways to maintain procedural justice.[88] Decision makers must be perceived as unbiased, without self-interest in the results, and not blinded by narrow doctrines. Their allocation decisions need to be based on as much relevant and accurate information as possible. Those decisions also need to take into account the positions and circumstances of the diverse groups affected by the outcomes. Another factor to consider in procedural justice is whether the decision criteria and decision procedures are compatible with ethical principles. For example, gathering accurate information might not be fair if it involves closely monitoring employees or violating their individual privacy. The decision criteria used to allocate benefits as well as the procedural justice rules need to be applied consistently to everyone (equality) and over time (stability).

Another important condition for procedural justice is that employees are given "voice" in the process—they have the opportunity to present their evidence and opinions to decision makers. Voice

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SELF-ASSESSMENT 5.4: How Sensitive Are You to Inequities?

Exhibit 5.9 Procedural and interactional Justice Rules

Procedural Justice Rules	Interactional Justice Rules
• Decision makers are not biased by self-interest or restrictive doctrines. • Allocation decisions are based on a full complement of accurate information. • Decision makers consider the interests of all groups affected by the outcomes. • Decisions and procedures are compatible with ethical principles. • Decision criteria and procedures are applied consistently across persons and over time. • Employees have the opportunity to present their evidence and opinions to decision makers (voice). • Questionable decisions and procedures can be appealed and overturned.	• Employees are treated in a polite manner. • Employees are treated with respect. • Employees receive thorough and well-justified explanations about the decision. • Employees receive honest, candid, and timely information about the decision.

Sources: Based on information in: G.S. Leventhal, "What Should Be Done with Equity Theory? New Approaches to the Study of Fairness in Social Relationships," in *Social Exchange*, ed. K.J. Gergen, M.S. Greenberg, and R.H. Willis (Boston: Springer US, 1980), 27–55; J.A. Colquitt and J.B. Rodell, "Measuring Justice and Fairness," in *The Oxford Handbook of Justice in the Workplace*, ed. R.S. Cropanzano and M.L. Ambrose (New York: Oxford University Press, 2015), 187–202.

improves the quality of information applied to the decision. It also provides a value-expressive function; employees tend to feel better after having an opportunity to speak their mind. Lastly, employees should have a right to appeal the decision (so it is reviewed and possibly overturned) if they believe there were errors in how resources were distributed or flaws in the procedures leading to that decision.

Interactional justice also depends on a set of rules that people believe are being applied to the situation.[89] Two of these rules—treating people with politeness and with respect—support the feeling of fairness in the interpersonal relationship. Abusive supervision is a clear example of violation of these interactional justice rules because employees are treated rudely and their self-worth is attacked.[90] To generate a sense of fairness regarding the information provided, employees should receive thorough and well justified explanations about the decision, as well as honest, candid, and timely information about the decision. For instance, people are more likely to feel that a decision is unfair if decision makers refuse to explain how the decision was made, or if they seem evasive in their explanation.

An important condition for procedural justice is that employees are given "voice" in the process—they have the opportunity to present their evidence and opinions.
fizkes/Shutterstock

Consequences of Procedural and Interactional Injustice

Employees who believe procedural or interactional justice rules have been violated experience negative emotions, such as anger, frustration, insult, resentment, and shame.[91] Generally, procedural or interactional injustice often results in less work effort (and performance), fewer organizational citizenship behaviors, less cooperation with coworkers, increased involvement in union activities, and increased turnover. Victims of procedural and interactional injustice sometimes retaliate to restore their self-esteem, reinstate their status and power in the relationship, and to educate the perpetrator of the injustice.[92] A related outcome is increased aggression toward the decision maker (e.g., supervisor) and sometimes toward coworkers who are seemingly treated more favorably. Procedural or interactional justice can also lead to more extreme dysfunctional behaviors, such as theft, sabotage, and violence.

LO5-8 List the advantages and disadvantages of job specialization and explain how to improve employee motivation through job design.

JOB DESIGN

How do you build a better job? That question has challenged organizational behavior experts, psychologists, engineers, and economists for a few centuries. Some jobs have very few tasks and usually require very little skill. Other jobs are immensely complex and require years of experience and learning to master them. From one extreme to the other, jobs have different effects on work efficiency and employee motivation. The ideal, at least from the organization's perspective, is to find the right combination so that work is performed efficiently but employees are engaged and satisfied.[93] Job design—the process of assigning tasks

Supermarket cashier jobs have high job specialization; the cycle time is about 4 seconds to scan each grocery item before they repeat the activity with the next item.
Antenna/Getty Images

to a job, including the interdependency of those tasks with other jobs—tries to balance these potentially competing effects of efficiency and motivation. To understand this issue more fully, we'll begin by describing early job design efforts aimed at increasing work efficiency through job specialization.

Job Design and Work Efficiency

By any measure, supermarket cashiers have highly repetitive work. One consulting firm estimated that cashiers should be able to scan each item in an average of 4.6 seconds. Cashiers at five British supermarket chains took between 1.75 and 3.25 seconds to scan each item from a standardized list of 20 products. Along with scanning, cashiers process the payment, move the divider stick, and (in some stores) bag the checked groceries.[94]

Supermarket cashiers perform jobs with a high degree of **job specialization**. Job specialization occurs when the work required to serve a customer—or provide any other product or service—is subdivided into separate jobs assigned to different people. For instance, supermarkets have separate jobs for checking out customers, stocking shelves, preparing fresh foods, and so forth. Except in the smallest family grocery stores, one person would not perform all of these tasks as part of one job. Each resulting job includes a narrow subset of tasks, usually completed in a short cycle time. *Cycle time* is the time required to complete the task before starting over with another item or client. Supermarket cashiers have a cycle time of less than 5 seconds to scan each item before they repeat the activity with the next item. They also have a cycle time for serving each customer, which works out to somewhere between 20 and 40 times per hour in busy stores.

job specialization the result of a division of labor, in which work is subdivided into separate jobs assigned to different people

scientific management the practice of systematically partitioning work into its smallest elements and standardizing tasks to achieve maximum efficiency

Why would companies divide work into such tiny bits? The simple answer is that job specialization potentially improves work efficiency. It does so in four ways:

- *Fewer skills and less knowledge to learn*. Employees can master specialized jobs more quickly because there are fewer physical and mental skills and knowledge to learn and therefore less time required to become proficient in the job.
- *More frequent practice*. More specialized jobs typically have shorter cycle times. Shorter task cycles give employees more frequent practice with the task, so jobs are mastered more quickly.
- *Less attention residue from changing tasks*. Employees experience "attention residue" after they change from one type of task to another. Specifically, their mental attention lingers on the previous type of work, which slows down performance on the new task. Specialized jobs have fewer and less varied tasks, so there is less changeover and, consequently, less attention residue and productivity loss.[95]
- *Better person-job matching*. Job specialization tends to increase work efficiency by enabling employers to more precisely match employees with specific aptitudes, skills, knowledge, interests, and other characteristics to the jobs for which these talents are best suited.[96]

The benefits of job specialization were noted more than 2,300 years ago by the Chinese philosopher Mencius and the Greek philosopher Plato. Scottish economist Adam Smith wrote 250 years ago about the advantages of job specialization. Smith described a small factory where 10 pin makers collectively produced as many as 48,000 pins per day because they performed specialized tasks. One person straightened the metal, another cut it, another sharpened one end of the cut piece, yet another added a white tip to the other end, and so forth. By comparison, Smith suggested that if each of these 10 people was individually expected to produce complete pins, the group would collectively manufacture no more than 20 pins per day.[97]

Scientific Management

One of the strongest advocates of job specialization was Frederick Winslow Taylor, an American industrial engineer who introduced the principles of **scientific management** in the

job characteristics model a job design model that relates the motivational properties of jobs to specific personal and organizational consequences of those properties

skill variety the extent to which employees must use different skills and talents to perform tasks within their jobs

task identity the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole or an identifiable piece of work

task significance the degree to which a job has a substantial impact on the organization and/or larger society

early 1900s.[98] Scientific management consists of a toolkit of activities. Some of these interventions—employee selection, training, goal setting, and work incentives—are common today but were rare until Taylor popularized them. However, scientific management is mainly associated with high levels of job specialization and standardization of tasks to achieve maximum efficiency.

Taylor recommended that the most effective companies should have detailed procedures and work practices developed by engineers, enforced by supervisors, and executed by employees. Even supervisory tasks should be divided among different people (operations, inspection, discipline). Although the accuracy of Taylor's evidence is suspect, scientific management practices do improve work efficiency in many situations. These productivity gains are partly due to training, goal setting, and work incentives, but job specialization quickly became popular in its own right.

Problems with Job Specialization

Frederick Winslow Taylor and his contemporaries focused on how job specialization reduces labor "waste" by improving the mechanical efficiency of work (i.e., skills matching, faster learning, less switchover time). Yet they didn't seem to notice how this extreme job specialization adversely affects employee attitudes and motivation. Some jobs—such as scanning grocery items—are so specialized and repetitive that they become tedious, socially isolating, and cognitively dysfunctional. Specialized jobs with very short cycle times often produce higher employee turnover and absenteeism. Companies sometimes have to pay higher wages to attract job applicants to this dissatisfying, narrowly defined work.[99]

Job specialization affects output quality, but in two opposing ways. On the positive side, employees in specialized jobs tend to produce higher quality output because, as we mentioned earlier, they master their work faster compared to people in jobs with a wide variety of tasks. This higher proficiency explains why specialist lawyers tend to provide better quality service than do generalist lawyers.[100]

However, job specialization also has two negative effects on work quality. First, many specialized jobs (such as supermarket cashiers) are so tedious that they reduce work attentiveness and motivation, both of which undermine the quality of output. Second, by performing a tiny piece of the overall product or service, employees in specialized jobs have difficulty striving for better quality or even noticing flaws with the work unit's overall output.

Job Design and Work Motivation

Frederick Winslow Taylor may have overlooked the motivational effect of job characteristics, but it is now the central focus of many job design initiatives. The motivational potential of the job itself is the focus of the **job characteristics model**, shown in Exhibit 5.10. The model identifies five core job dimensions that produce three psychological states. Employees who experience these psychological states tend to have higher levels of intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction with the work itself, and work performance (quality and efficiency).[101]

Core Job Characteristics The job characteristics model identifies five core job characteristics. Under the right conditions, employees are more motivated and satisfied when jobs have higher levels of these characteristics:

- *Skill variety*. **Skill variety** refers to the use of different skills and talents to perform tasks within a job. For example, sales clerks who normally only serve customers might be assigned the additional duties of stocking inventory and changing storefront displays.

OB THEORY TO PRACTICE

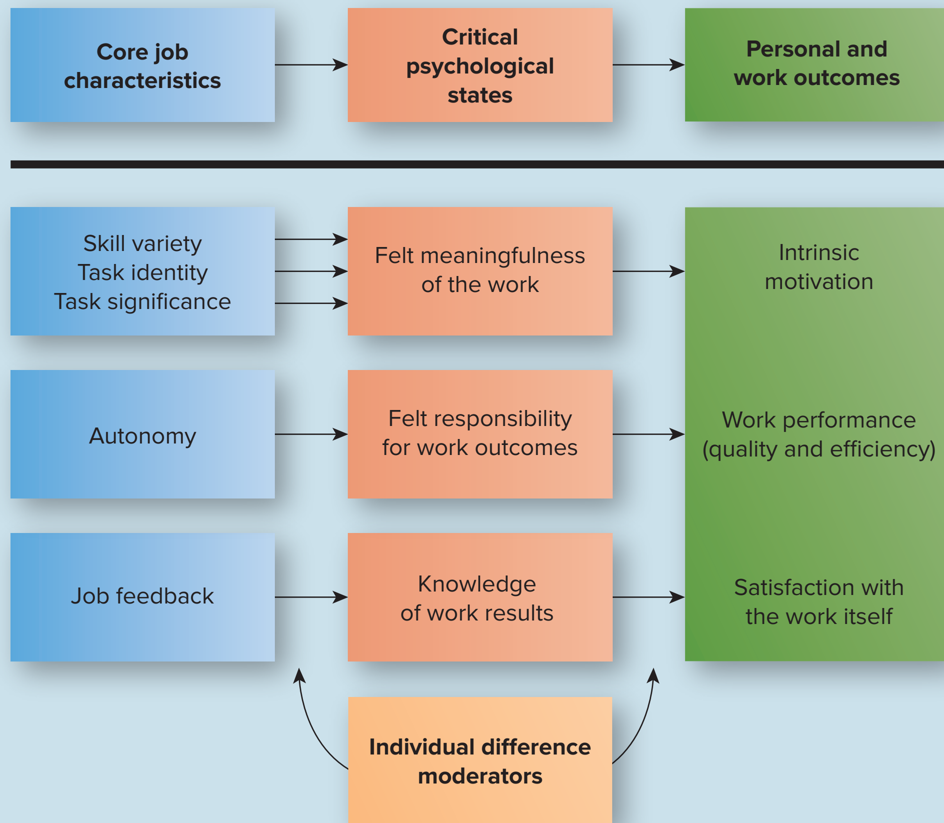
Motivated by Enriched Jobs at Softcom Nigeria

Sam Diephuis/Blend Images LLC

Softcom Ltd. is a shining star in Nigeria's emerging technology industry. The company's 165 employees say they are motivated by the felt meaningfulness and responsibility of their jobs. "The sheer scale, size and audacity of what we're doing here is one of the motivating factors for me to come to work," enthuses the leader of one of Softcom's engineering development teams. "At Softcom, there is always a sense of purpose," observes another Softcom employee. "We are all committed to the goal of solving some of Africa's biggest challenges, and that in itself is what connects everything and everyone."

Softcom employees say they are also motivated by autonomy. "I've realized that maybe just the freedom is what comforts people. Nobody is ringing the bell for opening time and closing time," says Abiola Fajimi. "There's just that expectation for you to take ownership of your time and ideas. That level of expectation will drive you to find the most productive ways to work."[104]

Exhibit 5.10 The Job Characteristics Model



Sources: J.R. Hackman and E.E. Lawler, "Employee Reactions to Job Characteristics," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 55, no. 3 (1971): 259–86; J.R. Hackman and G.R. Oldham, "The Job Diagnostic Survey: An Instrument for the Diagnosis of Jobs and the Evaluation of Job Redesign Projects" (New Haven, CT: Department of Administrative Sciences, Yale University, May 1974); J.R. Hackman and G.R. Oldham, "Motivation through the Design of Work: Test of a Theory," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 16, no. 2 (1976): 250–79; J.R. Hackman and G. Oldham, *Work Redesign* (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1980).

- *Task identity.* **Task identity** is the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole or identifiable piece of work, such as assembling an entire broadband modem rather than just soldering in the circuitry.
- *Task significance*. **Task significance** is the degree to which the job affects the organization and/or larger society. This job characteristic is most strongly felt when employees regularly and directly see how their work affects customers or others in society. As an example, when chefs in one study were able to directly observe the customers who ordered food (and vice versa), they felt more appreciated and, consequently, exerted more effort and felt more satisfied with their job. "When [the customers] can see us [make their food], they appreciate it, and I appreciate that. It makes me want to improve," says a cook who participated in the study.[102]
- *Autonomy*. As we discussed earlier in this chapter, autonomy is a key contributor to intrinsic motivation. In jobs with high levels of autonomy, employees make their own decisions rather than rely on detailed instructions from supervisors or procedure manuals. These jobs provide freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used to complete the work.[103]
- *Job feedback*. Job feedback is the degree to which employees can tell how well they are doing from direct sensory information from the job itself. Airline pilots can tell how well they land their aircraft, and road crews can see how well they have prepared the roadbed and laid the asphalt.

Critical Psychological States The five core job characteristics affect employee motivation and satisfaction through three critical psychological states, shown in Exhibit 5.10. Skill variety, task identity, and task significance directly contribute to the job's *felt meaningfulness of the work*—the belief that one's work is worthwhile or important. Autonomy directly contributes to *felt responsibility for work outcomes*—a sense of being personally accountable for the work outcomes. The third critical psychological state is *knowledge of work results*—an awareness of the work outcomes based on information from the job itself.

Individual Differences Job design doesn't increase work motivation for everyone in every situation. Employees must have

task variability the degree to which job duties are nonroutine and unpredictable; employees perform diverse tasks from one day to the next because they are faced with unfamiliar and unexpected issues

task analyzability the degree to which job duties allow the application of established procedures and rules to guide decisions and behavior (high analyzability); employee creativity and judgment are necessary to perform jobs with low task analyzability

job enlargement the practice of adding more tasks to an existing job

job enrichment the practice of giving employees more responsibility for scheduling, coordinating, and planning their own work

the required skills and knowledge to master the more challenging work. Otherwise, job design tends to increase stress and reduce job performance. The original model also states that employees will be motivated only when they have a high *growth need strength* (the need for personal growth and development—similar to self-actualization).[105] However, research findings have been mixed, suggesting that employees might be motivated by the job no matter how they score on growth needs.[106]

Social and Information Processing Job Characteristics

The job characteristics model overlooks two clusters of job features: social characteristics and information processing demands.[107] One social characteristic is the extent to which the job requires employees to interact with other people (coworkers, clients, government representatives, etc.). This required social interaction is associated with emotional labor and regulation, discussed in Chapter 4. Social interaction also increases the complexity of the work due to the person's interdependence with these other people (see *task interdependence* in Chapter 7). A second social characteristic of the job is feedback from others. Jobs that include feedback from people may be just as motivating as jobs that provide feedback from the task itself. Feedback from others may be communicated explicitly through conversation or more implicitly through subtle nonverbal cues.

Job characteristics related to the information processing demands of the job include task variability and task analyzability:[108]

- **Task variability**. This information processing demand refers to how predictable the job duties are from one day to the next. Task variability increases employee motivation because employees in these jobs have nonroutine work patterns; they perform different types of tasks from one day to the next, and don't know which tasks are required until that time. Jobs with low task variability, on the other hand, are less motivating because the work is repetitive; employees perform similar tasks using similar skills in the same way every day.
- **Task analyzability**. This information processing demand refers to how much the job can be performed using known procedures and rules. Jobs with high task analyzability have low information processing demand because job incumbents rely on established guidelines for most decisions and actions. Consequently, employees are less motivated when performing jobs with high task analyzability. Jobs with low task analyzability, on the other hand, have higher motivational potential because employees need to rely on their creativity and judgment to determine the best courses of action for most tasks. The novel or complex work activities in low task analyzability jobs make it difficult to create fixed procedures and rules.

Task variability and task analyzability will be discussed again in Chapter 7 on task structures for teams and in Chapter 12 on contingencies for designing organizational structures.

Job Design Practices That Motivate

Three main strategies can increase the motivational potential of jobs: frequent job rotation, job enlargement, and job enrichment.

Frequent Job Rotation Frequent job rotation involves moving employees through two or more jobs each day. For example, many grocery stores reduce the tedium of checkout work by moving cashiers to other jobs during the work shift. This rotation differs from career development transfers, which involves transferring employees once or twice each year to different jobs. One benefit of frequent job rotation is that it potentially reduces the risk of repetitive strain and heavy lifting injuries. A second benefit is that employees learn how to perform multiple jobs. Third, employees who perform multiple jobs within a production or service process develop a clearer picture of that process and ways to improve product quality. The fourth potential benefit of frequent job rotation is that employees use a wider variety of skills throughout the workday—their daily work has more skill variety—which potentially improves their motivation and satisfaction.[109]

Job Enlargement **Job enlargement** is the practice of increasing the number and variety of related tasks assigned to a job held by an employee. This might involve combining two or more complete jobs into one or just adding one or two more tasks to an existing job. Either way, job enlargement offers the same benefits as job rotation because adding more and varied tasks gives employees more skill variety and reduces the risk of repetitive strain injuries.

Job Enrichment **Job enrichment** occurs when employees are given more responsibility for scheduling, coordinating, and planning their own work.[110] For example, employees have more enriched jobs when they are responsible for a variety of tasks and have enough autonomy to plan their work and choose when to perform each task. Job enrichment potentially increases job satisfaction and work motivation, and reduces absenteeism and turnover. Productivity is also higher when task identity and job feedback are improved. Product and service quality tend to improve because job enrichment increases the jobholder's felt responsibility and sense of ownership over the product or service.[111]

One way to increase job enrichment is by combining highly interdependent tasks into one job. This *natural grouping* approach occurs in the video journalist job because it naturally groups tasks together to complete an entire product (i.e., a news story). By forming natural work units, jobholders have stronger feelings of responsibility for an identifiable body of work. They

> Putting employees in direct contact with clients increases task significance because employees more easily see how their work affects those clients.

feel a sense of ownership and, therefore, tend to deliver higher quality work output. Forming natural work units increases task identity and task significance because employees perform a complete product or service and can more readily see how their work affects others.

A second job enrichment strategy, called *establishing client relationships*, involves putting employees in direct contact with their clients rather than using another job group or the supervisor as the liaison between the employee and the customer. Establishing client relationships increases task significance because employees more easily see how their work affects those clients. By being directly responsible for specific clients, employees also have more information and can make better decisions affecting those clients.[112]

Study Checklist

Connect® is available for *M Organizational Behavior.* Additional resources include:

✓ Exercises:

- **Case Analysis:** Apply concepts within the context of a real-world situation.
- **Click and Drag:** Helps make the connection between theory and application through matching, ranking, or grouping activities.
- **Video Case:** See management in action through interactive videos.
- **Self-Assessment:** Designed to promote student self-awareness and reflection, these research-based surveys contain detailed feedback for students.
- **Application-Based Activities:** These highly interactive, application- and analysis-based exercises allow students to take on specific roles to complete management-related tasks within a real-world context.

✓ **SmartBook 2.0**™—Smartbook 2.0 is an adaptive learning solution that provides personalized learning to individual student needs, continually adapts to pinpoint knowledge gaps and focuses learning on concepts requiring additional study. It fosters more productive learning, takes the guesswork out of what to study, and helps students better prepare for class.

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