

Chapter 1

Organizations: social inventions for accomplishing common goals through group effort

- Presence of people, not things
- Field of organizational behaviour is about
 - understanding people and managing them to work effectively
 - Group effort (team work)
 - is concerned with how organizations can survive and adapt to change, such as:
 - Motivated to join & remain in organization
 - Carry out basic work reliably (productivity, quality, service)
 - Willing to continuously learn and upgrade knowledge and skills
 - Be flexible and innovative

Organizational behavior: the attitudes and behaviors of individuals and groups in organizations

- Studies attitudes and behaviors and provides insight about effectively managing them and changing them
- Studies how organizations can be structured more effectively and how events in their external environments affect organizations
- Important behaviors: cooperation, conflict, innovation, resignation, ethical lapses

Human resources management: programs, practices, and system to acquire, develop, motivate and retain employees in organizations

- HR Practices:
 - Recruitment and selection
 - Compensation
 - Training and development

Management practices of the best companies to work for in canada:

- Flexible work schedules
- Stock options, profit sharing plans, and performance bonuses
- Extensive training and development programs
- Family assistance programs
- On-site fitness facilities, daycare, wellness programs
- Career days and formal career plans
- Flexible of cafeteria-style benefit plans
- Monthly staff socials, family christmas parties, picnics
- Stress reduction programs
- Monthly all-employee meetings
- Formal workplace diversity programs to encourage women and minorities
- Employee recognition and reward programs

Goals of organizational behavior:

1. Predicting organizational behavior
2. Explaining organizational behavior
3. Managing organizational behavior
 - Management: the art of getting things accomplished in organizations through others. Managers acquire, allocate, and utilize physical and human resources to accomplish goals
 - i. Evidence-based management: involves translating principles based on the best scientific evidence into organizational practices
 - Two phases to management prescription:
 - i. Classical view: tended to advocate a very high degree of specialization of labour and a very high degree of coordination
 - Scientific management: Frederick Taylor (1856-1915) father of scientific management which was a system for using research to determine the optimum degree of specialization and standardization of work tasks

- Max weber (1864-1920): german social theorist; advocated “bureaucracy” as a means of rationally managing complex organizations and has the following qualities:
 - A strict chain of command in which each member reports to only a single superior
 - Criteria for selection and promotion based on impersonal technical skills rather than nepotism or favouritism
 - A set of detailed rules, regulations, and procedures ensuring that the job gets done regardless of who the specific worker is
 - The use of strict specialization to match duties with technical competence
 - The centralization of power at the top of the organization
- Mary parker follett (1868-1933): noted that classical view seemed to take for granted an essential conflict of interest between managers and employees

ii. Human relations view

- Hawthorne studies (1920s and 1930s): research that illustrated how psychological and social processes affect productivity and work adjustment
- Human relations movement: a critique of classical management and bureaucracy that advocated management styles that were more participative and oriented toward employee needs. Took care of specific problems:
 - Strict specialization is not compatible with human needs for growth and achievement
 - Strong centralization and reliance on formal authority usually fail to acknowledge lower-level employees creative ideas and knowledge (who are often closer to the customer)

- Strict impersonal rules motivate employees to do minimum performance that is required
 - Strong specialization causes employees to lose sight of overall goals of the organization
- iii. Contingency approach to management: recognizes that there is no one best way to manage; rather an appropriate style depends on the demands of the situation

Mintzberg's managerial roles:

1. Informational roles: concerned with the various ways managers receive and transmit information
 - a. Monitor: managers scan the internal and external environments of the firm to follow current performance and to keep themselves informed of new ideas/trends
 - i. E.g.: head of R&D can attend a professional engineering conference
 - b. Disseminator: managers send information on both facts and preferences to others
 - i. E.g.: the R&D head might summarize what they learned at the conference in an email to employees
 - c. Spokesperson: concerns mainly sending messages into the organization's external environment
2. Interpersonal roles: expected behaviors that have to do with establishing and maintaining interpersonal relations
 - a. Figurehead: manager serves as a symbol of their organization rather than active decision maker.
 - i. E.g.: making a speech to trade group, entertaining clients, signing legal documents
 - b. Leader: managers select, mentor, reward and discipline employees
 - c. Liaison: managers maintain horizontal contacts inside and outside organization
 - i. E.g.: discussing a project with colleague in another department
3. Decisional roles: deals with decision making

- a. Entrepreneur: manager turns problems and opportunities into plans for improved changes
- b. Disturbance handler: deals with problems stemming from employee conflicts and addresses threats to resources and turf
- c. Resource allocator: conduct negotiations with other organizations or individuals
- d. Negotiator

Fred Luthans, Richard Hodgetts and Stuart RosenKrantz Managerial activities:

1. Routine communication: formal sending and receiving of information, handling paperwork
2. Traditional management: planning, decision making, controlling
3. Networking: interacting with people outside organization and informal socializing and politicking with insiders
4. Human resource management: motivating, reinforcing, disciplining and punishing, managing conflict, staffing and training and development

Issues organizations and managers are currently facing:

1. Diversity (local and global)
2. Employee health and well being
 - Workplace spirituality: found in workplaces that provide employees with meaning, purpose, a sense of community, and a connection to others
 - Positive organizational behavior (POB): The study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace
 - Psychological capital: individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterized by self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience
3. Talent management and employee engagement

- Talent management: organization's processes for attracting, developing, retaining, utilizing people with required skills to meet current and future business needs
 - Work engagement: positive-work related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption
4. Corporate social responsibility: organization's taking responsibility for the impact of its decisions and actions on its stakeholders

Chapter 2

Personality: relatively stable set of psychological characteristics that influences the way an individual interacts with their environment and how they feel, think and behave

Approaches to organizational behavior:

1. Dispositional approach: individuals possess stable traits or characteristics that influence their attitudes and behaviors
2. Situational approach: characteristics of the organizational setting influence people's attitudes and behavior
3. Interactionist approach: individuals' attitudes and behavior are a function of both dispositions and the situation

Trait activation theory: traits lead to certain behaviors only when the situation makes the need for the trait salient

Five factor model of personality (FFM):

1. Extraversion
2. Emotional stability/neuroticism
3. Agreeableness
4. Conscientiousness (degree to which person is responsible and achievement oriented)
5. Openness to experience: thinks flexibly and receptive to new ideas

Extraversion	Emotional Stability	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Openness to Experience
Sociable, Talkative vs. Withdrawn, Shy	Stable, Confident vs. Depressed, Anxious	Tolerant, Cooperative vs. Cold, Rude	Dependable, Responsible vs. Careless, Impulsive	Curious, Original vs. Dull, Unimaginative

Locus of control: a set of beliefs about whether one's behavior is controlled mainly by internal or external forces

- Internal locus of control: self-initiative, personal actions, free will
- External locus of control: fate, luck, powerful people

Self-monitoring: extent to which people observe & regulate how they appear and behave in social settings and relationships

Self-esteem: degree to which a person has a positive self-evaluation

- Behavioral plasticity theory: people with low self-esteem tend to be more susceptible to external and social influences than those with high self-esteem

Positive vs negative affectivity:

- Positive: experience positive emotions and moods like joy and excitement and view the world (& themselves, people) in a positive light
- Negative: experience negative emotions and moods like fear and anxiety and view the world in a negative light

Proactive personality:

- Proactive behavior: taking initiative to improve current circumstances or creating new ones

- Proactive personality: a stable personal disposition that reflects a tendency to take personal initiative across a range of activities and situations and to effect positive changes in one's environment

General self-efficacy: individual's beliefs in their ability to perform successfully in a variety of challenging situations

- Motivational trait rather than an affective trait b/c reflects individual's belief that they can succeed rather than how they feel about themselves

Core self-evaluations: broad personality concept that consists of more specific traits; people hold evaluations about themselves, their self-worth, competence and capability

Learning: happens when practice or experience leads to relatively permanent change in behavior potential

- Practical skills: job-specific skills, knowledge, and technical competence
- Intrapersonal skills: problem solving, critical thinking, risk taking
- Interpersonal skills: interactive skills, communicating, teamwork, conflict resolution
- Cultural awareness: social norms of organizations, understanding company goals, business operations, company expectations and priorities

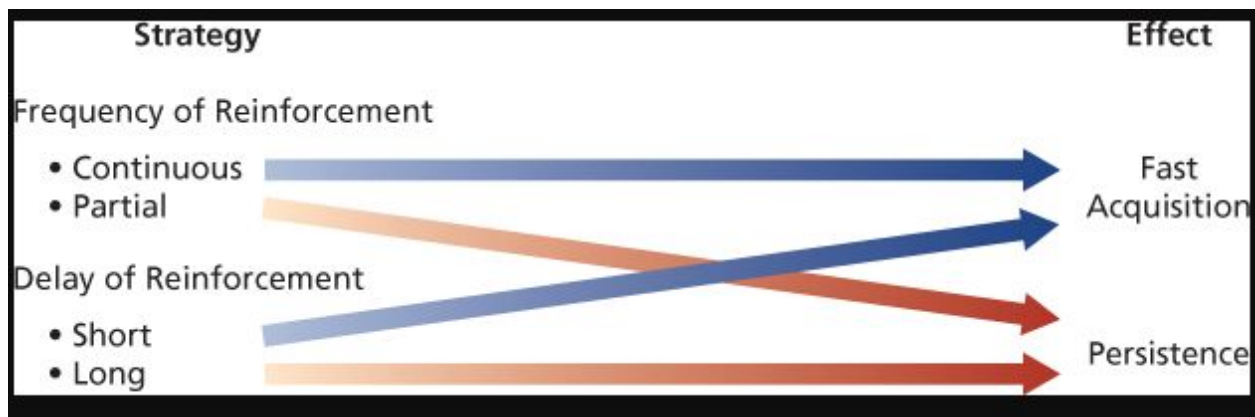
Learning theories:

OPERANT LEARNING THEORY: Discovered by psychologist B.F. Skinner 1930s. Learning by which the subject learns to operate on the environment to achieve certain consequences

- Reinforcement: process where stimuli strengthen behaviors
 - i. Positive reinforcement: addition of a stimulus that increases/maintains the probability of some behavior
 - ii. Negative reinforcement: removal of a stimulus that in turn increases/maintains probability of some behavior

- Organizational errors involving reinforcement:
 - i. Confusing rewards with reinforcers
 - ii. Neglecting diversity in preferences for reinforcers
 - iii. Neglecting important sources of reinforcement. 2 important sources of reinforcement that managers ignore:
 1. Performance feedback: providing quantitative/qualitative information on past performance for the purpose of changing/maintaining performance in specific ways
 2. Social recognition: informal acknowledgement, attention, praise, approval, or genuine appreciation for work well done from one individual or group to another

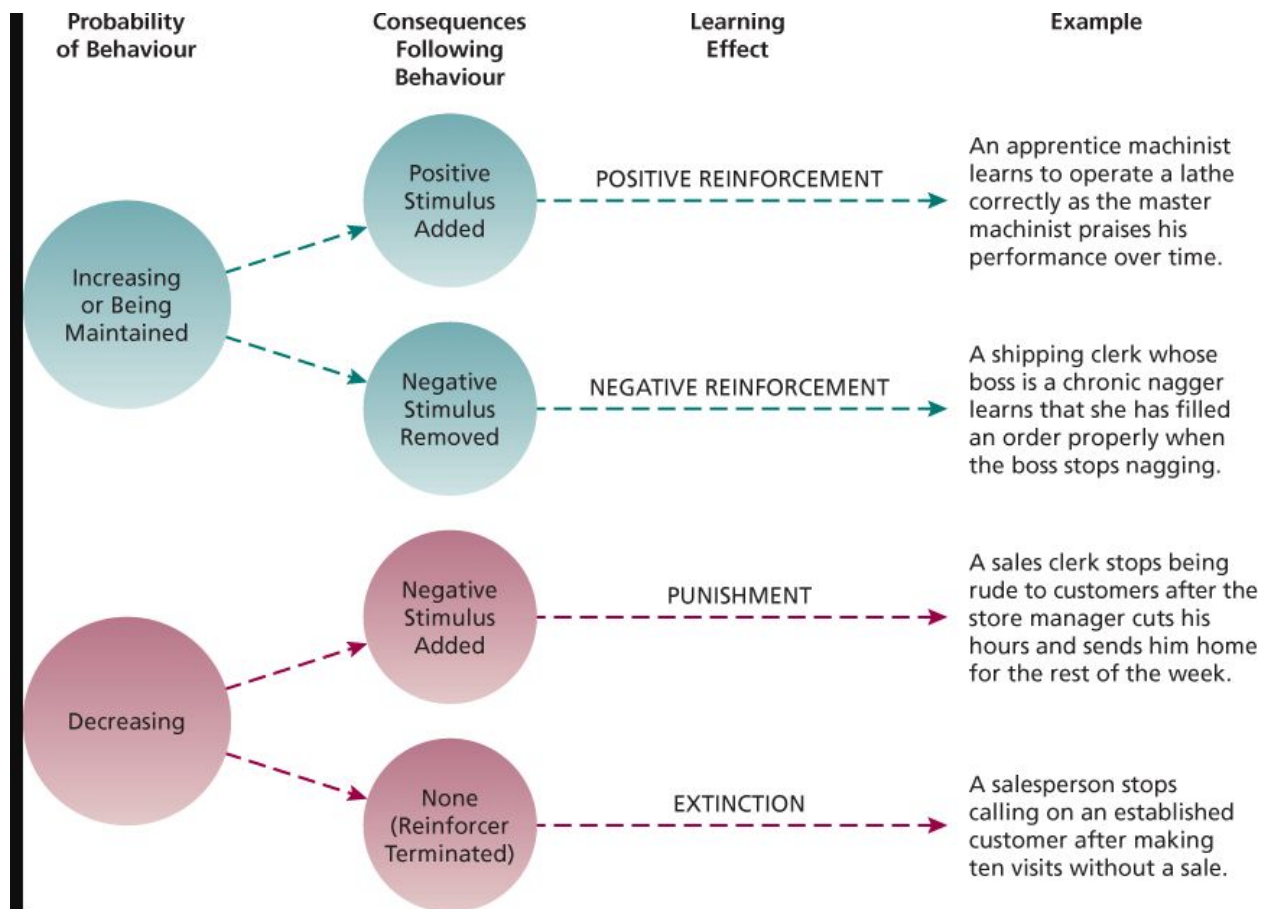
Summary of reinforcement strategies and their effects:



Strategies that can reduce probability of learned behavior:

1. Extinction: gradual dissipation of behavior following termination of reinforcement
2. Punishment: involves application of an aversive stimulus following some behavior designed to decrease probability of that behavior

Summary of learning effects



Principles that can increase effectiveness of punishment:

- Make sure the chosen punishment is truly aversive
- Punish immediately
- Don't reward unwanted behaviors before or after punishment
- Don't inadvertently punish desirable behavior

SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY (SCT): developed by Albert Bandura. Emphasizes the role of cognitive processes in learning and in the regulation of people's behavior. The idea of *triadic reciprocal causation* (personal factors, environmental factors and person's behavior are all caused by and can also be influenced by each other)

- **Observational learning:** process of observing and imitating the behavior of others
 - Uses "Self reinforcement"

- Self-efficacy beliefs: beliefs people have about their ability to successfully perform a specific task. Consist of:
 - Performance mastery
 - Observation
 - Verbal persuasion and social influence
 - Psychological state
- Self-regulation: use of learning principles to regulate one's own behavior
 - *Discrepancy reduction*: when there is a discrepancy between one's goals and performance; people are motivated to change their behavior to reach their goals
 - *Discrepancy production*: when people reach their goals and are likely to set higher/more challenging goals
 - Self-regulation techniques:
 - Collect self-observation data
 - Observe models
 - Rehearse
 - Set goals
 - Reinforce oneself

Organizational behavior modification (O.B. mod): systematic use of learning principles to influence organizational behavior

Employee recognition programs: formal organizational programs that publicly recognize and reward employees for specific behaviors

Peer recognition programs: formal programs in which employees can publicly acknowledge, recognize and reward colleagues for exceptional work/performance

Training and development programs: formal learning in organizations that are designed to facilitate knowledge & skill acquisition to change behavior and improve performance on one's current job; development focuses on future job responsibilities

Behavior modelling training: one of the most widely used and effective methods of training, involving 5 steps based on the observational learning component of social cognitive theory. 5 steps:

1. Describe to trainees a set of well-defined behaviors (skills) to be learned
2. Provide a model(s) displaying the effective use of those behaviors
3. Provide opportunities for trainees to practice those behaviors
4. Give feedback and social reinforcement to trainees following practice
5. Take steps to maximize the transfer of those behaviors to the job

All learning theories fall into 3 main paradigms/perspectives:

1. Behaviourism:
 - Behaviourists believe that learning occurs as people interact with the stimuli present within their environment (Operant Learning Theory and Social Cognitive theory are both examples)
 - The only difference between SCL & OL is that SCL recognizes the importance of considering the effect that cognition plays in regulating behavior and OL does not
2. Cognitivism
 - Cognitivists believe that learning is a function of a person's internal cognitive processes and it is these processes that regulates a person's behavior
3. Constructivism
 - Cross between behaviorism and cognitivism; believe that learning is a function of both the cognitive processes within the person and how the person responds to their environment; you learn by interpreting new experiences within the context of prior knowledge

- Problem-based learning is an example of a learning theory based in constructivism

Chapter 3

Perception: the process of interpreting the messages of our senses to provide order and meaning to the environment; helps us sort out and organize the complex and varied input received by our senses of sight, smell, touch taste. Has 3 components:

1. Perceiver:
 - Experience
 - i. Past experiences → leads to expectations which affect current perceptions
 - Motivational state (needs) → our needs unconsciously influence our perceptions by causing us to perceive what we wish to perceive
 - Emotional state: misperceiving innocent comments if you're angry
 - i. *Perceptual defence*: the tendency for the perceptual system to defend the perceived against unpleasant emotions (“you see what you want to see” _
2. Target that is being perceived (ambiguous)
 - Coworkers, subordinates, managers
3. Situational context in which the perception is occurring: can affect what one perceives → most important effect of situation can have is to add information about the target
 - Example: comment from boss on normal day versus comment from boss during promotion time...you will perceive comment differently depending on the situation

Social identity theory: people form perceptions about themselves based on their personal characteristics and memberships in social categories; our sense of self is made of *personal identity & social identity*

1. Personal identity: is based on our unique personal characteristics (interests, abilities, traits)

2. Social identity: based our perception that we belong to various social groups (gender, nationality, religion, occupation) → “who am I?”

Psychologist Jerome Bruner: Developed a model of the perceptual process

Model	Example
Unfamiliar target encountered	New co-worker
↓	↓
Openness to target cues	Observation; search for information
↓	↓
Familiar cues encountered	Co-worker is Stanford graduate with good grades
↓	↓
Target categorized	Co-worker is “good man” with “great potential”
↓	↓
Cue selectivity	Co-worker’s poor performance ignored or distorted
↓	↓
Categorization strengthened	Co-worker is still “good man” with “great potential”

Bruner’s model demonstrates 3 important characteristics of perceptual process:

1. Perception is selective → perceivers don’t use all available cues & the ones they do use are given special emphasis
2. Perceptual constancy → the tendency for the target to be perceived in the same way over time or across situations (“getting off on the wrong foot”)
3. Perceptual consistency → the tendency to select, ignore and distort cues in such a manner that they fit together to form a homogenous picture of the target

Basic biases in person perception

- *Primacy effect:* the tendency for a perceiver to rely on early cues/first impressions
- *Recency effect:* the tendency for a perceiver to rely on recent cues/last impressions
- *Reliance on central traits:* personal characteristics of a target person that are of particular interest to the perceiver

- *Implicit personality theories*: personal theories that people have about which personality characteristics go together → e.g: you expect hard working people to be honest
- *Projection*: the tendency for perceivers to attribute their own thoughts and feelings to others → e.g.: lack of information, people assume that others are like themselves
- *Stereotyping*: tendency to generalize about people in certain social category and ignore variations among them.
 - 3 aspects:
 - Distinguish some category of people (university professors)
 - Assume individuals in this category have certain traits (absent-minded, disorganized)
 - Perceive everyone in this category possessing these traits (all my professors will be absent-minded and disorganized)
 - Different stereotypes:
 - Language
 - Occupation of field or study
 - Educational level
 - Incorrect stereotypes persist because:
 - Help us process information quickly and efficiently
 - Easier for perceiver to rely on stereotype instead of discovering true nature of target
 - Selective perception and selective application of language (hispanic worker stereotypes all non-hispanic managers as unfair can be on the lookout for behaviors to confirm these stereotypes and fail to notice kindness)

Attribution: perceiving causes and motives

Attribution: the process by which causes or motives are assigned to explain people's behavior. Important goal is to determine whether behavior is caused by dispositional or situational factors

1. Dispositional attributions: suggests that some personality or intellectual characteristic is unique to the person is responsible for the behavior which reflects the “true person” → if we explain a behavior as a function of intelligence, greed, friendliness or laziness
2. Situational attributions: the external situation/environment in which the target person exists was responsible for the behavior and that the person might have had little control over that behavior → if we explain a behavior as a function of bad weather, good luck, proper tools, or poor advice

3 questions determine if behavior is due to dispositional or situational causes:

1. Consistency cues: attribution cues that reflect how consistently a person engages in a behavior over time → Does person engage in behavior regularly/consistently?
 - High consistency: dispositional attributions
 - Inconsistency: situational attributions
2. Consensus cues: reflect how a person’s behavior compares with that of others → Do most people engage in behavior or is it unique to person?
 - Low consensus: dispositional attributions
3. Distinctiveness cues: reflect the extent to which a person engages in some behavior across a variety of situations → Does person engage in behavior in many situations, or is it distinctive to one situation?
 - Low distinctiveness: when behavior occurs in variety of situations = dispositional attribution
 - High distinctiveness: one situation = situational attribution

Exhibit 3.4 Cue Combinations and Resulting Attributions.

	Consistency	Consensus	Distinctiveness	Likely Attribution
Roshani	High	Low	Low	Disposition
Mika	High	High	High	Situation
Sam	Low	High	Low	Temporary Situation

3 biases in attribution:

1. Fundamental attribution error: tendency to overemphasize dispositional explanations for behavior at expense of situational explanations
2. Actor-observer effect: the propensity for actors and observers to view the causes of the actor's behavior differently
3. Self-serving bias: tendency to take credit for successful outcomes and to deny responsibility for failures

Person perception and workforce diversity

Workforce diversity: differences among recruits and employees in characteristics such as gender, race, age, religion, cultural background, physical ability or sexual orientation

The changing workplace:

- More nationalities (immigrants)
- Changing labour pool
- Globalization
- Mergers
- Strategic alliances
- Value diversity to improve competitiveness

- Diversity climate: extent to which an organization promotes equal employment opportunity and inclusion → helps business-unit performance
- Higher customer satisfaction
- Better productivity

Competitive advantages to valuing and managing a diverse workplace:

1. Cost: cost of poor job in integrating workers will increase
2. Resource acquisition: earning best reputation for managing diversity will win competition for best personnel
3. Marketing: to subpopulation within domestic operations
4. Creativity
5. Problem solving: more perspectives, more critical analysis of issues
6. System flexibility: multicultural models increase fluidity and create greater flexibility to react to environmental changes

Stereotype threat: occurs when members of a social group feel they might be judged or treated according to a stereotype and that their behavior and performance will confirm the stereotype

Fair and Impartial Policing (FIP): organization that has developed a training program to train police officers on bias, especially implicit bias (outside of one's conscious awareness)

Stereotypes in the workplace:

- Racial, ethnic, religious
- Gender
- Age
- LGBT

EXHIBIT 3.8 Common Activities Included in Diversity Programs.

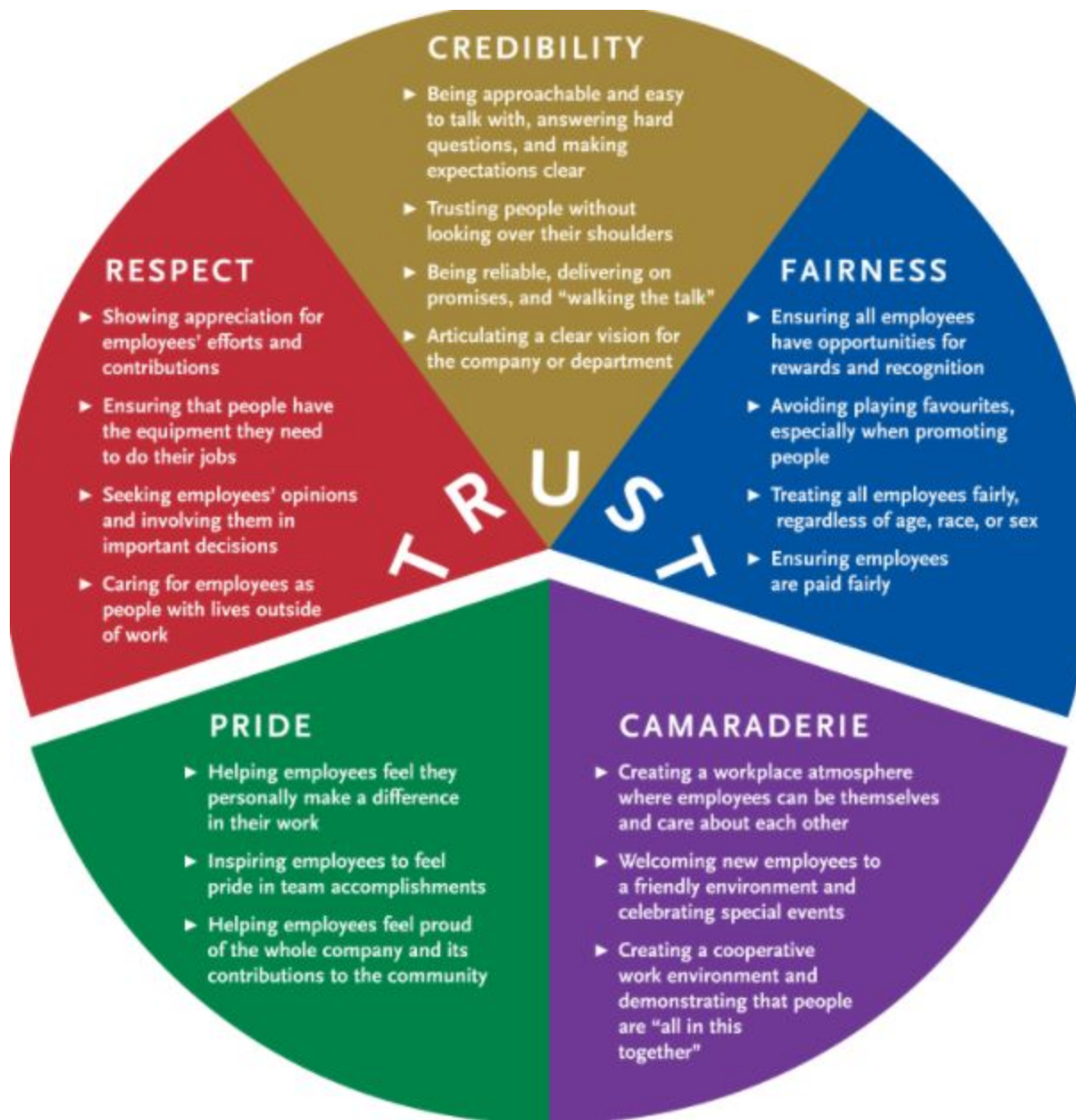
Strategic Initiative	Sample Interventions
Recruiting	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Employee referral programs• Diverse recruiting teams• Internship programs and sponsored scholarships• Job posting and advertising initiatives targeting specific groups• Minority conference and job fair attendance• Recruiting efforts targeting universities and community colleges with diverse student bodies
Retention	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Corporate-sponsored employee resource or affinity groups• Employee benefits (e.g., adoption, domestic partner, elder care, flexible health, and dependent spending accounts)• Work-life programs and incentives (e.g., on-site child care, flexible work schedules, and on-site lactation facilities)

Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership development training programs • Mentoring programs
External Partnership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minority supplier programs • Community service outreach
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Award programs providing public recognition of managers and employees for diversity achievement • Newsletters, internal websites on diversity • Senior leadership addresses, town hall meetings, business updates
Training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness training on the organization's diversity initiative • Issue-based/prevention training (e.g., sexual harassment and men and women as colleagues) • Team-building and group-process training
Staffing and Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dedicated diversity staff • Executive and local diversity councils

Perceptions of trust

Trust: a psychological state in which one has a willingness to be vulnerable and to take risks with respect to the actions of another party

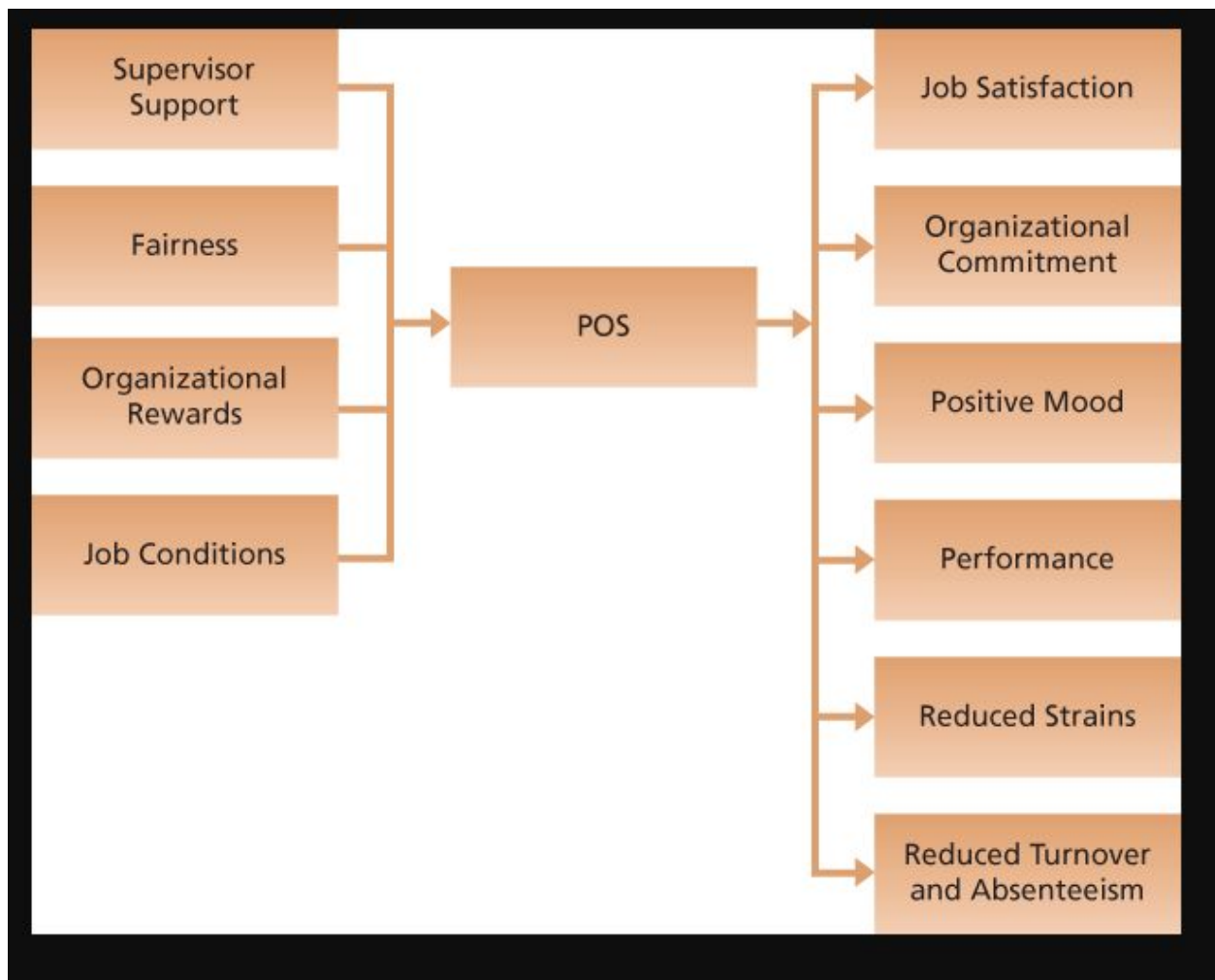
Trust model:



Perceived organizational support: (POS) refers to employees' general belief that their organization values their contribution and cares about their well being

Organization support theory: states that employees who have a strong perception of organizational support feel an obligation to care about the organization's welfare and to help it achieve its goals

Predictors and consequences of perceived organizational support:



Person perception in HR

The role of perceptions in 3 areas of HR:

1. Recruitment and selection

- *Signalling theory*: job applicants interpret their recruitment experiences as cues about known characteristics of a job and an organization and what it will be like to work there

- *Organizational justice theory and fairness*: job applicants form more positive perceptions of the selection process when selection procedures are perceived to be fair

2. Employment interview

- *Contrast effect*: previously interviewed job applicants affect an interviewer's perception of a current applicant, leading to an exaggeration of differences between applicants
- Definition of a "structured interview" according to Derek Chapman of University of Calgary & David Zweig of University of Toronto involves 4 dimensions:
 - i. Evaluation standardization: extent to which the interviewer uses standardized and numeric scoring procedures
 - ii. Question sophistication: extent to which the interviewer uses job-related behavioral questions and situational questions
 - iii. Question consistency: extent to which the interviewers asks the same questions in the same order of every candidate
 - iv. Rapport building: extent to which interviewer does not ask personal questions that are unrelated to the job

3. Performance appraisal

- *Morning bias*: the negative stereotype of employees with late start times, being perceived as less conscientious
- *Objective and subjective bias*
- *Rater errors*:
 - i. Leniency: perceive performance of one's rates as especially good
 - ii. Harshness: perceive performance as especially ineffective
 - iii. Central tendency: assigning most rates to a middle-range performance category
 - iv. Halo effect: the rating of an individual on one trait or characteristics tends to overpower ratings on other traits/characteristics

- v. Similar to me effect: rater gives favourable evaluations to people who are similar to rater (background or attitude)

How to reduce perceptual errors and biases:

- Behaviourally anchored rating scale (BARS): a rating scale with specific behavioral examples of good, average and poor performance
- Frame of reference training (FOR): provides rater with a common frame of reference to use when rating individuals

Chapter 4

Values: a broad tendency to prefer certain traits of affairs over others

- Preference aspect: what we consider good and bad
- Motivational: signal attractive aspects of our environment that we seek and the unattractive aspects that we try to avoid/change
- How we should and should not behave
- Broad tendency: values are very general and they don't predict behavior in specific situations very well

Generational differences in values

Exhibit 4.1 Four Generations in Today's Workplace.

Generation	Percentage of Workforce	Assets in the Workplace	Leadership Style Preferences
Traditionalists Born 1922–1945	8%	Hard working, stable, loyal, thorough, detail-oriented, focused, emotional maturity	Fair, consistent, clear, direct, respectful
Baby Boomers Born 1946–1964	44%	Team perspective, delicate, experienced, knowledgeable, service-oriented	Treat as equals, warm and caring, mission-defined, democratic approach
Generation X Born 1965–1980	34%	Independent, adaptable, creative, techno-literate, willing to challenge the status quo	Direct, competent, genuine, informal, flexible, results-oriented, supportive of learning opportunities
Millennials Born 1981–2000	14% and increasing rapidly	Optimistic, able to multitask, tenacious, technologically savvy, driven to learn and grow, team-oriented, socially responsible	Motivational, collaborative, positive, educational, organized, achievement-oriented, able to coach

Cultural differences in values

- Work centrality: work is valued differently across cultures
- Hofstede's study:
 - Questioned over 116 000 IBM employees located in 40 countries about work-related values
 - Discovered 4 basic dimensions along which work-related values differed across cultures:
 - masculinity/femininity: distinguishing factors are (1) how assertive people are & (2) how much they value gender equality
 - Masculine cultures: differentiate gender roles, support male dominance, stress economic performance
 - E.g.: Slovakia, Japan, Austria, Venezuela, Mexico, U.S
 - Feminine cultures: accept fluid gender roles, stress sexual equality & quality of life
 - E.g.: scandinavian cultures, canada

- individualism/collectivism: distinguishing factors (1) how much the collective distribution of resources is stressed & (2) how much one's group or organization elicits loyalty
 - Individual: independence, individual initiative, privacy
 - E.g.: U.S, Australia, Great Britain, Canada
 - Collective: interdependence, loyalty to one's family/clan
 - E.g.: Venezuela, Colombia, Pakistan, Japan
- Power distance: extent to which society members accept an unequal distribution of power, including those who hold more power and those who hold less.
 - Small power distance cultures: inequality is minimized, superiors are accessible, **power distance is downplayed**
 - E.g.: Denmark, New Zealand, Israel, Austria, Canada & U.S
 - Large power distance cultures: inequality is natural, superiors are inaccessible, **power distance is highlighted**
 - E.g.: Philippines, Russia & Mexico
- Uncertainty avoidance: extent to which people are uncomfortable with uncertain and ambiguous situations
 - Strong uncertainty avoidance cultures: stress rules and regulations, hard work, conformity, security
 - E.g.: Japan, Greece, Portugal
 - Weak uncertainty avoidance cultures: less concerned with rules and regulations, hard work, conformity, security. Risk taking is valued
 - E.g.: Singapore, Denmark, Sweden, Canada & U.S
- Canadian Michael Bond introduced a 5th dimension: long-term/short-term orientation

- Long-term orientation: stress persistence, perseverance, thrift, close attention to status differences
 - E.g.: china, south korea, taiwan, japan, hong kong
- Short-term orientation: stress personal steadiness and stability, face-saving, social niceties
 - E.g.: U.S, canada, great britain, zimbabwe, nigeria

Cultural distance: the extent to which cultures differ in values

Implications of cultural variation:

- Exporting OB theories: OB theories from North America might not translate well to other societies. Basic questions (How should I lead? How should we make this decision?) remain the same
- Importing OB theories: can't always use OB theories from other countries, it won't work; they can be successful in Japan but not successful in North America
- Appreciating global customers: especially when they enter your own cultures
- Developing global employees: management should train employees to appreciate differences in cultural values and the implications of these differences for behavior in organizations
 - Cultural intelligence: the capabilities to function and manage well in culturally diverse environments. Encompasses knowledge, motivation and behavior that contribute to good cross-cultural functioning and people with high cultural intelligence tend to score high on intercultural adjustment, global leadership and performance in intercultural settings

Attitude: fairly stable evaluative tendency to respond consistently to some specific object, situation, person or category of people

- More specific than values (dictate broad preferences). E.g.: value work but dislike your specific job

- Attitudes involve evaluations directed toward specific targets
- Often influence our behavior toward some object, situation, person/group
- Develop from basic beliefs and value and affect OB

Types of attitudes to focus on:

1. Job satisfaction: collection of attitudes that people have about their jobs. 2 aspects of satisfaction
 - a. Facet satisfaction: tendency for an employee to be more or less satisfied with various facets of their job (“I love my work but hate my boss”)
 - b. Overall satisfaction: average or total of attitudes person holds towards their job

Types of measures of job satisfaction:

- *Job Descriptive Index (JDI)*: measure of job satisfaction, questionnaire designed to evaluate 5 facets of satisfaction: people, pay, supervision, promotions and the work itself
- *Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)*: respondents indicate how happy they are with various aspects of their job on a scale ranging from “very satisfied” and “very dissatisfied”

What determines job satisfaction?

- Discrepancy theory: job satisfaction stems from the discrepancy between the job outcomes wanted and the outcomes that are perceived to be obtained. E.g: satisfaction with salary is high when the gap between pay received and perception of how much pay should be received is small
- Fairness: 3 types of fairness
 - *Distributive*: “distributive justice”; occurs when people receive the outcomes they think they deserve from their jobs, involves ultimate distribution of work rewards and resources

- *Equity theory*: inputs that people perceive themselves as investing in a job and the outcomes that the job provides are compared against the inputs and outcomes of some other relevant person or group
 - Inputs: anything individuals consider relevant to their exchange with the organization; anything they give up, offer or trade to their organization (education, hard work, training)
 - Outcomes: factors that the organization distributes to employees in return for their inputs (pay, career opportunities, supervision, nature of work)

$$\frac{\text{My outcomes}}{\text{My inputs}} = \frac{\text{Others' outcomes}}{\text{Other' inputs}}$$

- *Procedural*: “procedural justice”; when individuals see the process used to determine outcomes as reasonable; rather than involving the actual distribution of resources or rewards, it is concerned with how these outcomes are decided and allocated.
 - Concerned with outcomes such as: performance evaluations, pay raises, promotions, layoffs, work assignments.
 - In allocating such outcomes, the following factors contribute to perceptions of procedural fairness:
 - Follows consistent procedures over time & across people
 - Uses accurate information and appears unbiased
 - Allows two-way communication during the allocation process
 - Welcomes appeals of the procedure or allocation
- *Interactional*: “interactional justice”; occurs when people feel they have received respectful and informative communication about some outcome.

Extends beyond actual procedures used to the interpersonal treatment received when learning about the outcome

Disposition: people are predisposed by virtue of their personalities to be more or less satisfied despite changes in discrepancy or fairness

How does Mood and emotion affect job satisfaction?

- Mood: less intense, longer-lived, and more diffuse feelings
- Emotion: intense, often short-lived feelings caused by a particular event
- How they affect job satisfaction:
 - *Affective events theory:* Howard Weiss & Russell Cropanzano; based on concept that jobs actually consist of a series of events & happenings that have the potential to provoke emotions or influence moods, depending on how we appraise these events and happenings
 - *Emotional contagion:* tendency for moods and emotions to spread between people or throughout a group
 - *Emotional regulation:* requirement for people to conform to certain “display rules” in their job behavior in spite of their true mood or emotions→ employees are required to be perky/upbeat whether they feel that way or not

Key contributors to job satisfaction:

- Mentally challenging work: tests employees’ skills/abilities & allows them to set their own working pace
- Adequate compensation: pay and satisfaction are positively related
- Career opportunities: availability of career opportunities
- Friendly or helpful colleagues

Consequences of job satisfaction:

- Absence from work

- Turnover: resignation from organization (can be expensive).
 - Some reasons why satisfied people quit and dissatisfied people stay:
 - “Shocks”: marital breakup, birth of a child, unsolicited job offer at an attractive location
 - Employees’ dissatisfaction with specific job might be offset by organization’s general values and mission
 - Employee is really embedded in community (worth it)
 - Weak job market
- Performance

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB): Voluntary, informal behavior that contributes to organizational effectiveness

- Helping behavior: offering assistance to other
- Conscientiousness to details of work: going to work during snow storm
- Being a “good sport”: when inevitable frustrations of organizational life come up
- Courtesy and cooperation: delaying one’s own work to help a colleague

Customer satisfaction & profit:

- Employee satisfaction is translated into customer satisfaction

2. **Organizational commitment:** attitude that reflects the strength of the linkage between an employee and an organization which has implications for whether someone tends to remain in an organization. Researchers John Meyer & Natalie Allen identified 3 different types:

- a. Affective commitment: based on person’s identification & involvement with organization. People with high A.C stay with organization because they want to
- b. Continuance commitment: based on costs that would be incurred in leaving an organization. People with high C.C stay because they have to

- c. Normative commitment: based on ideology or a feeling of obligation to an organization. People with high N.C stay because they should

Key contributors to organizational commitment:

- For affective commitment:
 - interesting, satisfying work of the type found in enriched jobs
 - Role clarity & expectations being met after being hired
- For continuance commitment:
 - Building up “side bets” in pension fund
 - Obtaining rapid promotions
 - Being well integrated into community
 - Increases with length of time person is employed
- For normative commitment:
 - Benefits: tuition reimbursements, special training that enhances one’s skills
 - Strong identification with an organization’s product/service
 - Socialization practices

Consequences of Organizational Commitment:

- Reduce turnover intentions and actual turnover
- Can cause conflicts between family life and work life
- Unethical and illegal behavior
- Lack of innovation and lead to resistance when a change in culture is necessary

Changes in the workplace and employee commitment:

- Changes in the nature of employees’ commitment to the organization:
- Changes in the focus of employees’ commitment
- The multiplicity of employer-employee relationships within organizations

Chapter 5

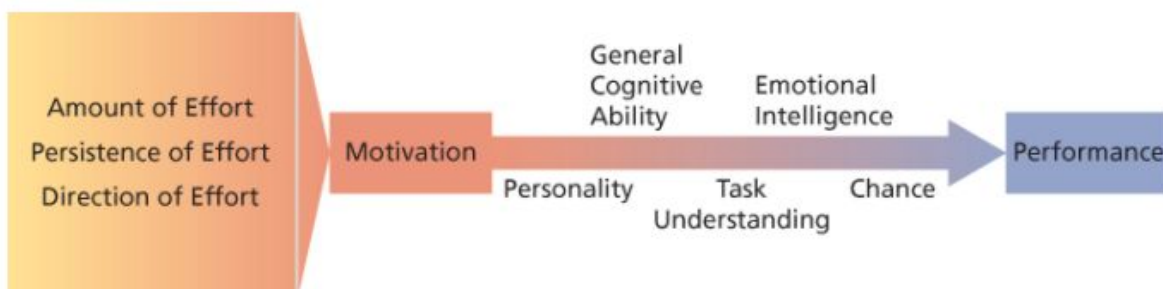
Motivation: the extent to which persistent effort is directed toward a goal

- Effort: the strength of the person's work-related behaviour
- Persistence: individuals exhibit persistence in applying effort to their work tasks
- Direction: quality of a person's work; direction of the person's work-related behavior
- Goals: all behavior has some goal/objective toward which it is directed

Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic Motivation:

- *Intrinsic*: motivation that stems from the direct relationship between the worker and the task; it is usually self-applied.
 - Intrinsic motivators: feelings of achievement, accomplishment, challenge, and competence derived from performing one's job
- *Extrinsic*: motivation that stems from the work environment external to the task; usually applied by others
 - Extrinsic motivators: pay, fringe benefits, company policies, various forms of supervision

Exhibit 5.1 Factors Contributing to Individual Job Performance.



Motivation and performance

- *Performance*: the extent to which an organizational member contributes to achieving the objectives of the organization. Factors that affect performance:
 - *General cognitive ability*: a person's basic information-processing capacities and cognitive resources

- *Personality*
- *Emotional intelligence*: ability to understand and manage one's own and other's feelings and emotions. Four branch model for emotional intelligence:
 - Perceiving emotions accurately in oneself and others: ability to perceive emotions and accurately identify one's own emotions and the emotions of others. Most basic level of EI. E.g.: facial and non-verbal cues
 - Using emotions to facilitate thinking: ability to use and assimilate emotions and emotional experiences to guide and facilitate one's thinking and reasoning. E.g.: making decisions, creativity, integrative thinking, inductive reasoning
 - Understanding emotions, emotional language and the signals conveyed by emotions: ability to understand emotional information, the determinants and consequences of emotions and how emotions evolve and change over time. E.g.: don't ask someone for a favor if they're in a bad mood, wait until person is in a better mood or just ask someone else
 - Managing emotions so as to attain specific goals: ability to manage one's own and others' feelings and emotions as well as emotional relationships. Highest level of EI. Eg.: being able to remain calm when actually feeling upset, being able to excite and enthrall others or lower another person's anger
- *Task understanding*
- *Chance*

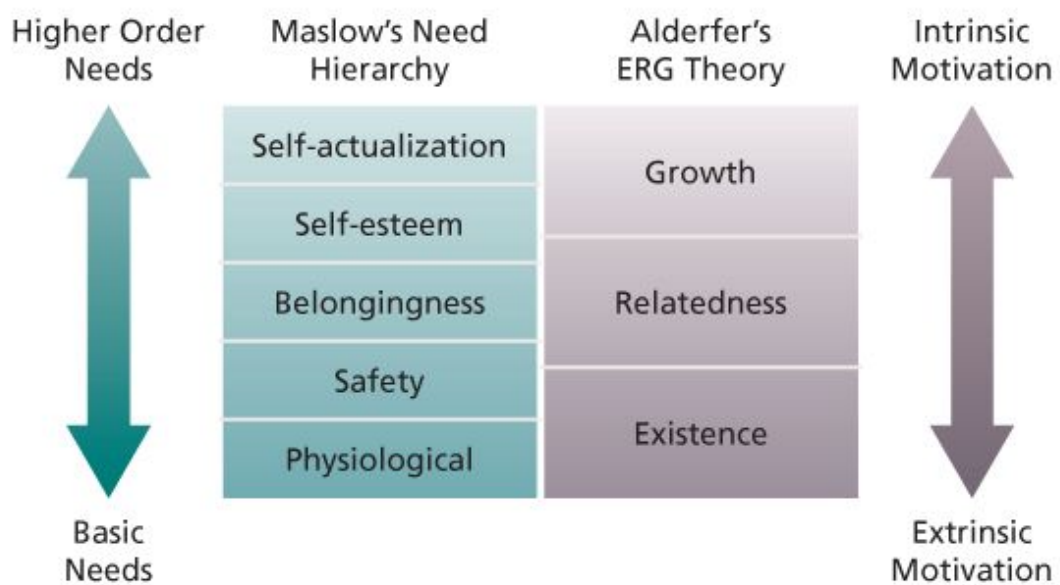
Need theories of work motivation

- *Need theories*: motivation theories that specify the kinds of needs people have and the conditions under which they will be motivated to satisfy these needs in a way that contributes to performance
 - Need theories are concerned with **what** motivates workers (needs and their associated incentives/goals)

- They can be contrasted with *process theories* that are focused on **how** various factors motivate people
- Need and process theories are complementary → money can be an important motivator (need) and how the actual mechanics of money motivate (process)
- 3 needs theories:
 - Maslow's hierarchy of needs
 - Alderfer's ERG theory
 - McClelland's theory of needs

NEEDS → BEHAVIOURS → INCENTIVES & GOALS

Exhibit 5.3 Relationship between Maslow's and Alderfer's Need Theories.



Maslow's hierarchy of needs: a five-level hierarchical need theory of motivation that specifies that the lowest-level unsatisfied need has the greatest motivating potential

1. *Physiological needs*: must be satisfied for survival (food, water, oxygen, shelter). E.g.: minimum wage needed to survive and working conditions that promote existence
2. *Safety needs*: need for security, stability, no anxiety, organized environment. E.g.: safe working conditions, fair and sensible rules and regulations

3. *Belongingness needs*: needs for social interaction, affection, love, friendship. E.g.: interaction at work, friendly and supportive supervision, teamwork
4. *Esteem needs*: needs for feelings of adequacy, competence, independence, strength and confidence. E.g.: opportunity to master tasks leading to feelings of achievement and responsibility
5. *Self-actualization needs*: need to develop one's true potential to the fullest and express one's skills, talents, emotions in a way that is most personally fulfilling

Alderfer's ERG theory: a three-level hierarchical need theory of motivation (existence, relatedness, growth) that allows for movement up and down the hierarchy. Revolves around two major motivational premises: (1) the more-level needs are gratified, the more higher-level need satisfaction is desired & (2) the less higher-level needs are gratified, the more lower-level need satisfaction is desired

- *Existence needs*: satisfied by some material substance or condition; need for food, shelter, pay, safe working conditions. (correspond to Maslow's physiological and safety needs)
- *Relatedness needs*: satisfied by open communication & exchange of thoughts and feelings with other organizational members. (correspond to Maslow's belongingness and esteem needs however Alderfer is more interested in open, accurate, honest interaction rather than uncritical pleasantness)
- *Growth needs*: fulfilled by strong personal involvement in work setting. (correspond to Maslow's self-actualization and esteem needs)

McClelland's theory of needs: A non-hierarchical need theory of motivation that outlines the conditions under which certain needs result in particular patterns of motivation

- *Need for achievement*: strong desire to perform challenging tasks well. E.g.: sales jobs, entrepreneurial positions, running a small business
 - Preference for situations in which personal responsibility can be taken for outcomes
 - Tendency to set moderately difficult goals that provide for calculated risks

- Desire for performance feedback
- *Need for affiliation*: strong desire to establish and maintain friendly, compatible interpersonal relationships. E.g.: social work, customer relations
- *Need for power*: strong desire to influence others, making a significant impact or impression. E.g.: journalism, management

Research support for need theories:

1. Maslow:

- Based on 2 hypotheses:
 - i. Specific needs should cluster in 5 main need categories
 - ii. Needs in a given category satisfied should become less important, while needs in higher-need category should become more important
- Research claims that both these hypotheses are weak or negative
 - i. The theory is too rigid: people don't always experience the same needs in the same hierarchical order

2. Alderfer:

- Fairly good support for this theory: expected changes in need strength, relatedness needs are positively related to existence needs
- Captures human need structure better than Maslow

3. McClelland:

- Best need theory (generated much predictions about many aspects of human motivation)

Managerial implications of need theories

- Appreciate diversity
 - Everyone has different needs
 - No such thing as the “typical employee”
- Appreciate intrinsic motivation

- How can organizations benefit from intrinsic motivation that is inherent in strong higher-order needs?
 - Lower-level needs have to be reasonably gratified
 - If basic needs are met than jobs can be “enriched” to be more stimulating/challenging and provide feelings of responsibility and achievement
 - Organizations can design career paths that enable interested workers to progress through a series of jobs that continue to challenge their higher-order needs

Self-determination theory: considers whether people’s motivation is autonomous (self-determined) or controlled (not self-determined)

Autonomous vs. Controlled motivation:

- *Autonomous motivation:* self-motivation or intrinsic motivation that occurs when people feel they are in control of their motivation. Actions are internally rather than externally regulated
- *Controlled motivation:* externally controlled, such as when one is motivated to obtain a desired consequence or extrinsic reward

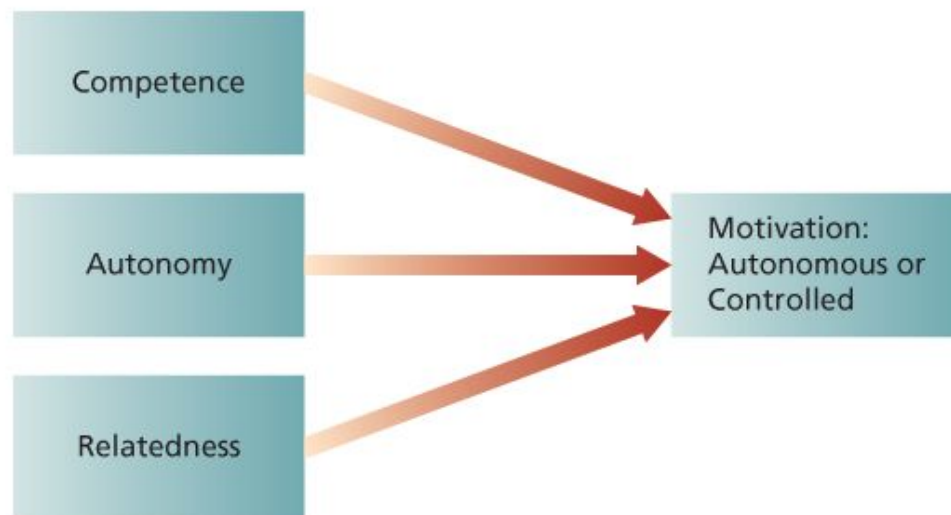
Autonomous vs. Controlled motivation depends on:

- Satisfaction of basic psychological needs: SDT theory
 - Claims that needs are universal necessities for psychological health
 - Unlike need theories: SDT posits that needs are not hierarchical and people don’t differ in the strength of particular needs
 - 3 basic psychological needs that are important to everyone: competence, autonomy and relatedness
 - If these needs are satisfied, motivation is both autonomous and when they’re not satisfied motivation is controlled

Research support for and Managerial implications of SDT

- A key predictor variable of autonomous and controlled motivation is *autonomy support* which provides employees with choice and encouragement for personal initiative. E.g.: manager giving employee a meaningful rationale for performing an activity/task, emphasize and enable some choice rather than control and understand/acknowledge employees' feelings/perspectives

Exhibit 5.4 Self-Determination Theory.



Process theories of work motivation

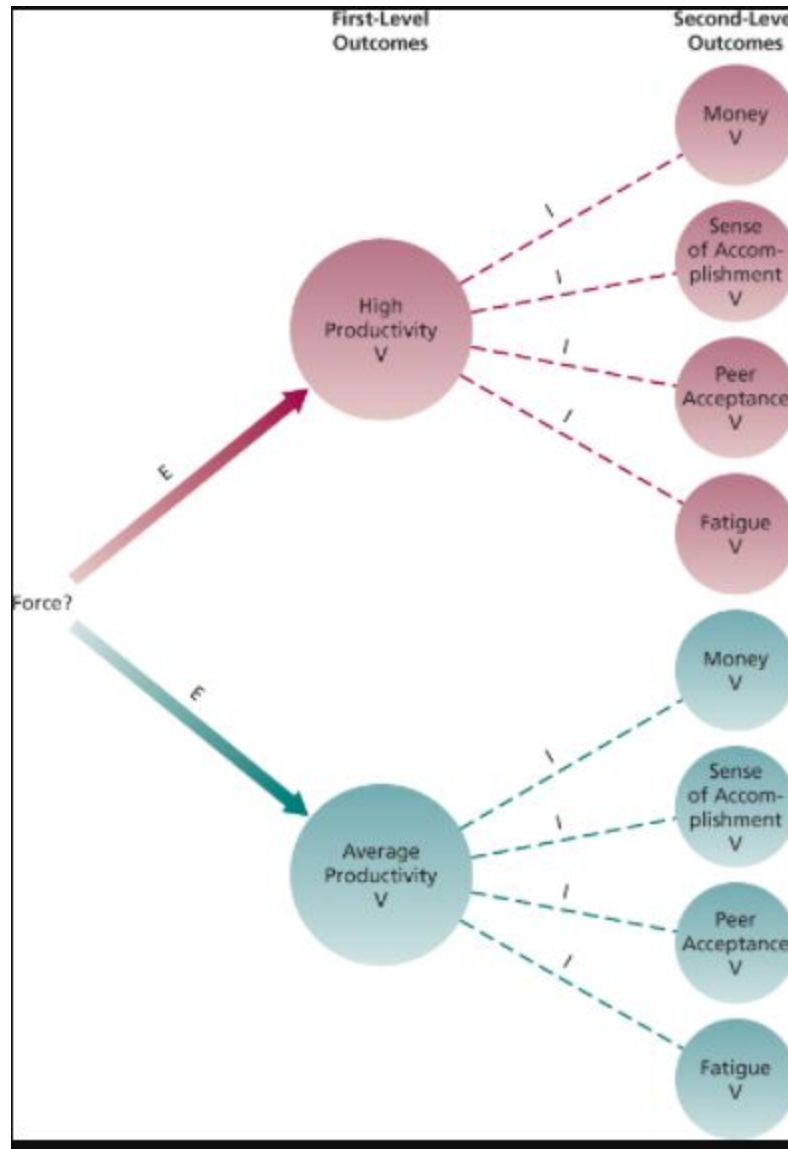
- *Process theories*: motivation theories that specify the details of how motivation occurs. 3 process theories: (1) expectancy (2) equity (3) goal setting
1. **Expectancy**: motivation is determined by the outcomes that people expect to occur as a result of their actions on the job. Psychologist Victor Vroom developed first expectancy theory and established 5 basic components:
 - Outcomes: consequences that may follow certain work behaviors
 - i. E.T concerned with how employee might choose one first-level outcome (high productivity vs. average productivity) over another

- ii. Second-level outcomes (pay, sense of accomplishment, acceptance, fatigue) are consequences that follow attainment of particular first-level outcome
- Instrumentality: probability that a particular first-level outcome (high productivity) will be followed by a specific second-level outcome (pay) also known as *performance S outcome link*
- Valence: expected value of outcomes, extent to which they are attractive/unattractive to the individual → second-level outcomes might be more or less attractive to some workers

$$\textit{the valence of particular first - level outcome} = \Sigma \textit{instrumentalities} \times \textit{second-level valences}$$

- Expectancy: probability that the worker can actually achieve a particular first-level outcome
- Force: end product of other components of the theory

$$\textbf{Force} = \textbf{First-level valence} \times \textbf{Expectancy}$$



Basic premises of theory:

- People will be motivated to perform in those work activities they find attractive and that they feel they can accomplish
- The attractiveness of various work activities depends on the extent to which they lead to favourable personal consequences

Research supported for theory:

- Favourable theory
- But some individuals have a hard time discriminating between instrumentalities and second-level valances

Managerial implications of E.T:

- Boost expectancies: ensure employees expect to be able to achieve first-level outcomes that are of interest to organization
 - Clarify reward contingencies: ensure that paths between first and second level outcomes are clear
 - Appreciate diverse needs: analyze diverse preferences of particular employees & attempt to design individualized “motivational packages” to meet their needs.
2. **Equity**: states that motivation stems from a comparison of inputs one invests in a job and outcomes one receives in comparison with inputs/outcomes of another group/person; individuals are motivated to maintain an equitable exchange relationship.
- People will do anything to reduce inequity and achieve equity by:
 - i. Perceptually distorting one’s own inputs or outcomes
 - ii. Perceptually distorting the inputs or outcomes of the comparison person or group
 - iii. Choose another comparison person or group
 - iv. Alter one’s inputs or alter one’s outcomes
 - v. Leave the exchange relationship
 - Gender and equality: men and women compare themselves to the opposite sex when judging equity
 - Research support for equity theory:
 - i. Supportive research on inequity occurring due to underpayment which leads to resignation
 - ii. Less support on theory’s overpayment inequity
 - Managerial implications of E.T
 - i. Management must be sensitive to employees’ views on relevant inputs, outcomes and comparison persons
3. **Goal setting**: goals are motivational when they are specific and challenging, when organizational members are committed to them and when feedback about progress

toward goal attainment is provided. The positive effects of goals are due to 4 mechanisms:

- They direct attention toward goal-relevant activities
- They lead to greater effort
- They increase and prolong persistence
- They lead to the discovery and use of task-relevant strategies for goal attainment

Motivational characteristics of goal setting theory:

- Goal specificity: specific goals specify an exact level of achievement for people to accomplish in a particular time frame
- Goal challenge: can't be too easy and can't be too hard
- Goal commitment: individual needs to be highly committed
 - Enhancing goal commitment:
 - Participation
 - Rewards
 - Management support
- Goal feedback
- Goal orientation: individual's goal preferences in achievement situations
 - Learning goal orientation: a preference to learn new things and develop competence in an activity by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations
 - Performance prove goal orientation: demonstrating their competence in performing a task by seeking favorable judgments about the outcome of their performance
 - Performance avoid goal orientation: concerned about avoiding negative judgements about the outcome of their performance
- Goal proximity: distal or proximal goals
 - Distal: long-term, end goal
 - Proximal: short-term, sub-goal that is instrumental for achieving a distal goal

Research for goal setting theory

- One of the most valid and practical theories of employee motivation

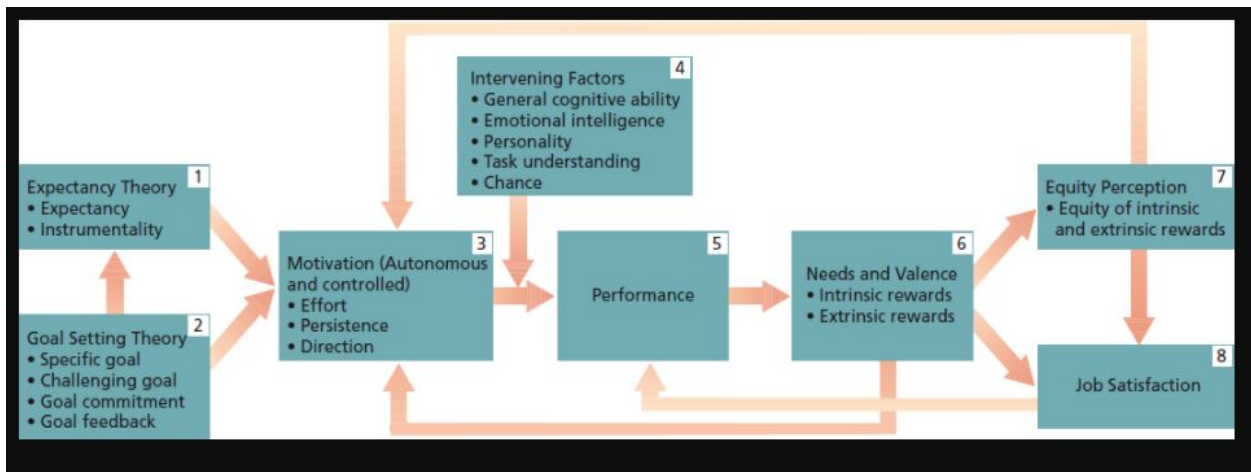
Managerial implications of G.S.T.

- Set specific and challenging goals and provide ongoing feedback so that individuals can compare their performance with that goal

Do motivation theories translate across cultures?

- Individualistic societies (Canada, US, Great Britain, Australia): tend to value individual initiative, privacy and taking care of oneself
- Collective societies (Mexico, Singapore, Pakistan): more close social bonds, members of one's in-group (family, clan, organization) are expected to take care of each other in exchange for strong loyalty to the in-group
 - Might suggest that there be no superiority to self-actualization as a motive in more collective cultures
 - Concepts of achievement can be more group-oriented vs individualistic
- Concept of "intrinsic motivation" can be more relevant to wealthy societies vs developing
- SDT across various cultures has been supported
 - 9 different countries displayed that 3 psychological needs are positively related to autonomous motivation (although size of relationships varied across countries for competence and autonomy) suggests that importance of 3 needs can vary
 - Positive relationships between autonomous motivation and work outcomes were found...concluding that motivation type matters in all cultures and organizational contexts
- Equity theory
 - Individualistic: higher producers are likely to expect superior outcomes compared with lower producers
 - Collective: favour reward allocation based on equality rather than equity
- Expectancy theory:

- Very effective cross-culturally
- May be cross-cultural differences in the expectancy that effort will result in high performance
- Work outcomes (social acceptance vs. individual recognition_ may have different valences across cultures
- Goal setting theory:
 - Goal setting present in many countries
 - Power distance is large where goals are assigned by superiors
 - Small power distance cultures, power differences are downplayed and there is participative goal setting



Chapter 6: Motivation in practice

Money as a motivator

- Maslow & Alderfer: pay can be motivational for people with strong lower-level needs (food, shelter). Also satisfying social, self-esteem and self-actualization needs because can give you prestige among friends and family, your competence as a worker, your boss cares about you
- Expectancy theory: if pay can satisfy a variety of needs, it should be highly valent and it should be a good motivator to the extent that it is clearly tied to performance

Linking pay to performance on production jobs

- *Piece-rate*: a pay system in which individual workers are paid a certain sum of money for each unit of production completed. E.g.: sewing machine operators can be paid \$2/dress stitched
- *Wage incentive plans*: various systems that link pay to performance on production jobs. E.g.: workers at steel mill get hourly wage but also get monthly bonus for each tonne of steel produced over some min quota
 - Potential problems with wage incentive:
 - Lowered quality
 - Differential opportunity: different opportunities to produce at high level (if supply of raw materials or quality of production equipment varies from workplace to workplace, some workers will be at an disadvantage under an incentive system)
 - Reduced cooperation: might decrease cooperation between workers
 - Incompatible job design: the way jobs are designed make them incompatible to implement wage incentives
 - Restriction of productivity: artificial limitation of work output that can occur under wage incentive plans

Linking pay to performance on white-collar jobs (clerical, professional, managerial):

- Attempts to link pay to performance on white-collar jobs are often known as “*merit pay plans*”
 - PROS of merit pay plans:
 - Merit pay plans are much more frequently used than wage incentive plans
 - Have become one of the most common forms of motivation in canadian organizations
 - In tight labour market: it is often used to attract & retain employees & as an alternative to wage increases

- Effective for improving the performance of professionals
- CONS of merit pay plans:
 - Many of these systems now in use are ineffective
 - Many individuals don't see a link between job performance and their pay
 - Pay is not related to performance under some merit plans
- Problems with merit pay plans:
 - Low discrimination: managers are unable/unwilling to discriminate between good and bad performers
 - Small increases: too small to be effective motivators
 - To avoid this problem → *lump sum bonus*: merit pay that is awarded in a single payment & not built into base pay
 - Pay secrecy

Using pay to motivate teamwork:

- *Profit sharing*: return of some company profit to employees in the form of a cash bonus or a retirement supplement
 - Pros:
 - Employees have a sense of ownership
 - Aligns employee goals with organizations'
 - Only pays when the organization makes a profit
 - Problems:
 - too many factors that are beyond control of workforce (economy) can affect profits
 - difficult to see impact of one's own action on profits in large firm (seems to work best in small firms)
- *Employee stock ownership plans (ESOPs)*: incentive plans that allow employees to own a set amount of a company's shares and provide employees with a stake in the company's future earnings and success.
 - Pros:

- Creates a sense of legal & psychological ownership for employees
 - Aligns employees' goals and interests with those of the organization
 - Cons:
 - Work better in small organizations that regularly turn a profit
 - ESOPs lose their motivational potential in a weak economy when a company's share price goes down
- *Gainsharing*: a group pay incentive plan based on productivity or performance improvement over which the workforce has some control. Often include reductions in the cost of labour, material or supplies which allows the company to pay a monthly bonus according to a predetermined formula that shares this "gain" between employees and the firm.
 - Pros:
 - Aligns organization and employee goals
 - Encourages teamwork & cooperation
 - Cons:
 - Bonuses might be paid even when the organization doesn't make a profit
 - Employees might neglect objectives that are not included in the formula
- *Skill-based pay*: also known as "pay for knowledge"; system in which people are paid according to the number of job skills they have acquired. The more skills that are acquired, the higher the person's pay
 - Pros:
 - Encourages employees to learn new skills
 - Greater flexibility in task assignments
 - Provides employees with a broader picture of the work process
 - Cons:
 - Increases the cost of training
 - Labour costs can increase as employees acquire more skills

Job design as a motivator:

- *Job design*: the structure, content, and configuration of a person's work tasks and roles. Goal of job design is to identify the characteristics that make some tasks more motivating than others & to capture these characteristics in the design of jobs
- Traditional views of job design:
 - Beginning of Industrial revolution to 1960s: job design revolved around job simplification. Specialization was the key to efficient productivity. Minimally trained workers can do the job
 - Frederick Winslow Taylor: *scientific management* → close supervision and the use of piece-rate pay

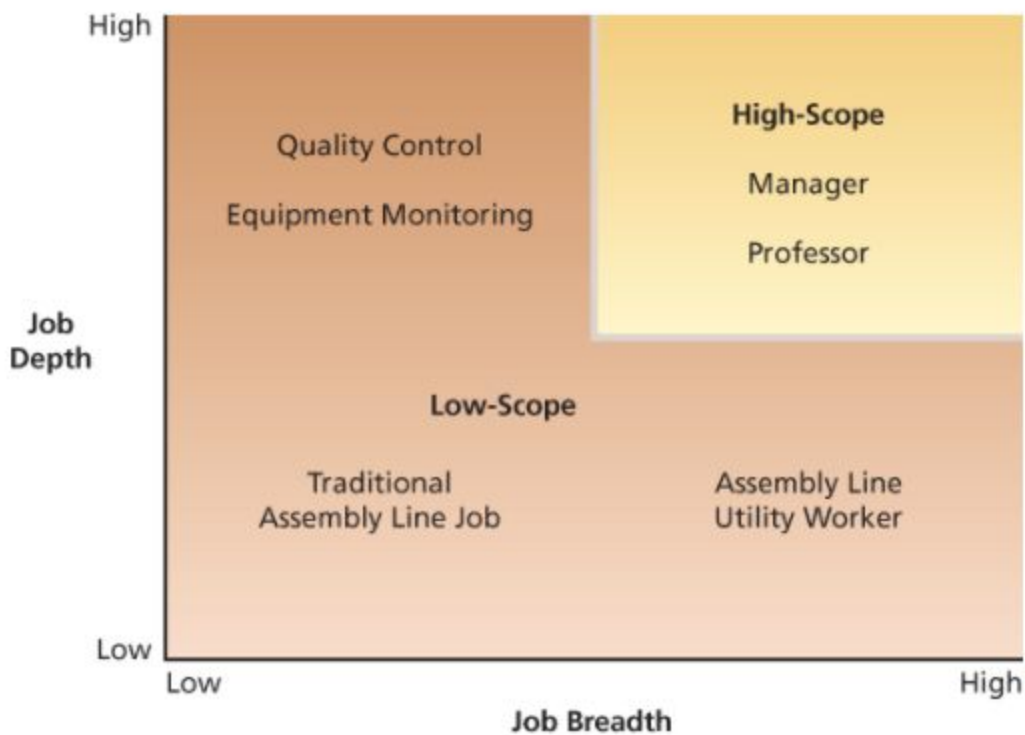
Job scope and motivation:

- Job scope: the breadth (the number of different activities performed on the job) and depth (the degree of discretion or control the worker has over how these tasks are performed) of a job
 - High scope jobs: great breadth and depth → e.g.: professor's job: broad (performance of different tasks) & deep (considerable discretion in how academic perform these tasks)
 - Should provide more intrinsic motivation than low-scope jobs
 - Low scope jobs: assembly line jobs where a single task is done repetitively (both shallow and narrow)

Ways to increase the scope of an individual's job:

- Assign employees *stretch assignment*: offer employees challenging opportunities to broaden their skills by working on a variety of tasks with new responsibilities
- *Job rotation*: rotating employees to different tasks/jobs in an organization

Exhibit 6.4 Job Scope as a Function of Job Depth and Job Breadth.



The job characteristics model:

- J. Richard Hackman & Greg Oldham
- Proposes that there are several “core” job characteristics that have a certain psychological impact on workers → which in turn lead to certain outcomes that are relevant to the worker & organization
- Finally several other factors (moderators) influence extent to which the relationships hold true



5 Core job characteristics:

1. Skill variety: opportunity to do a variety of job activities using various skills/talents, corresponds fairly closely to the notion of job breadth
 - a. High variety: owner of garage does electrical repair, rebuilds engines, does body work and interacts with customers
 - b. Low variety: a body shop worker sprays paint 8 hours/day
2. Task identity: extent to which a job involves doing a complete piece of work from beginning to end
 - a. High: cabinet maker designs a piece of furniture, selects the wood, builds it, finishes it
 - b. Low: worker in furniture factory operates a lathe solely to make stable legs
3. Task significance: impact that a job has on others
 - a. High: nursing
 - b. Low: sweeping hospital floors
4. Autonomy: freedom to schedule one's own work activities and decide work procedures, corresponds to job depth

- a. High: telephone installer makes their own schedule, makes visits without supervision, etc
 - b. Low: telephone operator handles calls as they come in
5. Job feedback: information about one's performance effectiveness
- a. High: electronics factory worker assembles a radio and tests it
 - b. Low: electronics factory worker assembles a radio and then send it to a quality control inspector to test it

The job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) by Hackman and Oldham

- Measures core characteristics of jobs
- Requires employees to report amount of various core characteristics contained in their jobs
- Came up with a motivation potential score =

$$\frac{\text{skill variety} + \text{task identity} + \text{task significance}}{3} \times \text{autonomy} \times \text{job feedback}$$

Critical psychological states:

- Hackman & Oldham argue: work will be intrinsically motivating when it is perceived as meaningful, worker feels responsible for the outcomes of the work and has knowledge about their work progress
- Job characteristics model: proposes that core job characteristics affect meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results in a systematic manner

Outcomes:

- Presence of critical psychological states: leads to outcomes such a high intrinsic motivation, high quality productivity, job satisfaction, reduced absenteeism and turnover

Moderators:

1. Job-relevant knowledge and skill of worker

2. Growth need strength: extent to which people desire to achieve higher-order need satisfaction by performing their jobs
3. Context factors surrounding job: employees who are not satisfied with pay, supervision, company policy will be less responsive to challenging work

Job enrichment: the design of jobs to enhance intrinsic motivation, the quality of working life and *job involvement* which refers to a cognitive state of psychological identification with one's job and the importance of work to one's total self-image. Employees that have challenging an enriched jobs tend to have higher levels of job involvement

Ways in enriching jobs:

1. Combining tasks: assigning tasks usually performed by different workers to a single worker
2. Establishing external client relationships: putting employees in touch with people outside organization who depend on their products/services
3. Establishing internal client relationships: putting employees in touch with people who depend on their products/services within organization
4. Reducing supervision or reliance on others
5. Forming work teams
6. Making feedback more direct

Potential problems with job enrichment:

- Poor diagnosis: of needs of organization and particular jobs in question
 - *Job enlargement*: increasing job breadth by giving employees more tasks to perform at the same level while leaving the other crucial core characteristics unchanged
 - *Job engorgement*: enriching jobs that are already perceived as too rich by their incumbents

- Lack of desire/skill: some employees don't want enriched jobs and other might lack the skills and competence necessary to perform enriched jobs effectively
- Demand for rewards: employees ask for extrinsic rewards (pay) to accompany their redesigned job
- Union resistance
- Supervisory resistance: unanticipated impact on other jobs/other parts of organizational system such as increasing autonomy of employees and "dis-enriching" the boss' job

Work design and relational job design:

- Frederick Morgeson and Stephen Humphrey
- Developed a work design model
- Work design characteristics: attributes of the task, job, and social and organizational environment. Consist of 3 categories:
 - Motivational characteristics
 - Task characteristics:
 - Autonomy
 - Task variety
 - Task significance
 - Task identity
 - Feedback from job
 - Knowledge characteristics: kinds of knowledge, skill and ability demands required to perform a job
 - Job complexity
 - Information processing
 - Problem solving
 - Skill variety
 - Specialization
 - Social characteristics: interpersonal and social aspects of work & include social support, interdependence, interaction outside of organization, feedback from other

- Social support
- Interdependence
- Interaction outside of work
- Feedback from others
- Context characteristics: context within which work is performed and consist of ergonomics, physical demands, work conditions and equipment use
 - Ergonomics
 - Physical demands
 - Work conditions
 - Equipment use

Work design questionnaire (WDQ) by Morgeson and Humphrey:

- Measures the work design characteristics

Relational architecture of jobs: referring to the structural properties of work that shape employees' opportunities to connect and interact with other people

- Model of job design
- Developed by Adam Grant
- Idea behind this approach to job design is to motivate employees to make a difference in other people's lives known as *prosocial motivation* (desire to expend effort to benefit other people)

Management by objectives (MBO): Elaborate, systematic, ongoing management program designed to facilitate goal establishment, accomplishment and employee development.

- Developed by management theorist Peter Drucker
- Usually consists of:
 - Manager meets with individual workers to develop/agree on objectives for coming months
 - Periodic meetings to monitor employee progress in reaching goals

- Appraisal meeting held to evaluate extent to which goals have been achieved
- MBO cycle is repeated

Flexible work arrangement as motivators for a diverse workforce:

- Flexible work arrangements: work options that permit flexibility in terms of “where and/or “when” work is completed. Several types:
 - Flex-time: alternative work schedule in which arrival and departure times are flexible
 - Compressed workweek: alternative work schedule in which employees work fewer than the normal 5 days a week but still put in a normal number of hours per week
 - Job sharing: an alternative work schedule in which two part-time employee divide the work of a full-time job
 - Work sharing: reducing the number of hours employees work to avoid layoffs when there is a reduction in normal business activity
 - Telecommuting: a system by which employees are able to work at remote locations but stay in touch with their offices through the use of information and communication technology

Motivational practices in perspective

